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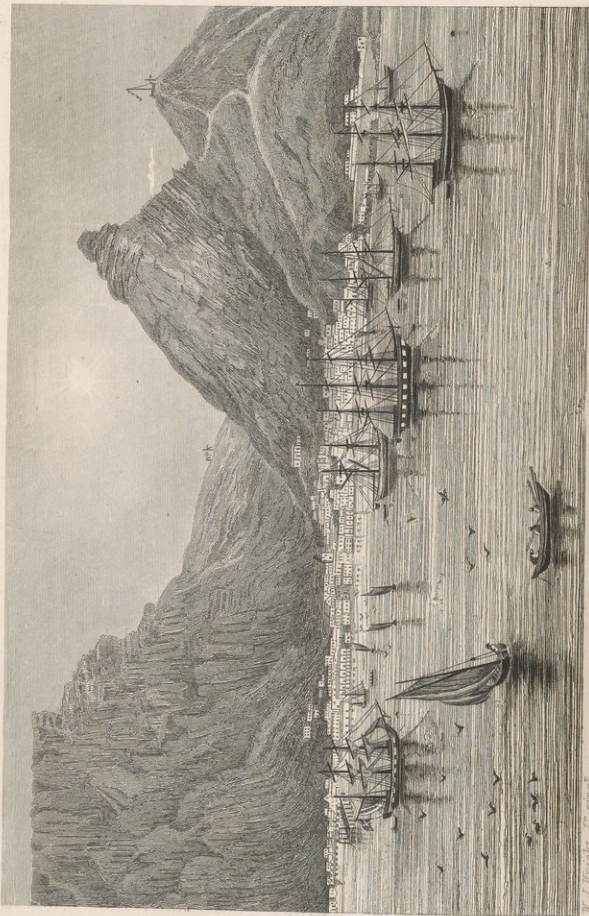
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Dutch sketch

CAPE TOWN.

W. J. Braughle, sculp.

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BY

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HISTORY
OF
SOUTHERN AFRICA:

COMPRISING
THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, MAURITIUS,
SEYCHELLES, &c.

BY
R. MONTGOMERY MARTIN, Esq.

Second Edition.

GREAT SEAL OF



THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

LONDON:
HENRY G. BOHN, YORK STREET, COVENT GARDEN.

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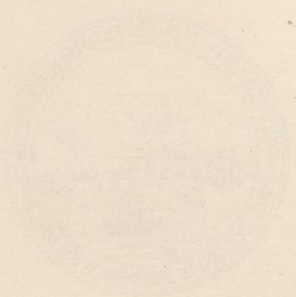
HISTORY

SOUTHERN AFRICA

THE CASE OF GAMB HOPE MATTHEWS
RESEARCHES &

BY MONTGOMERY MARTIN, ESQ.

SECOND EDITION



LONDON:

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MDCXXXIII.

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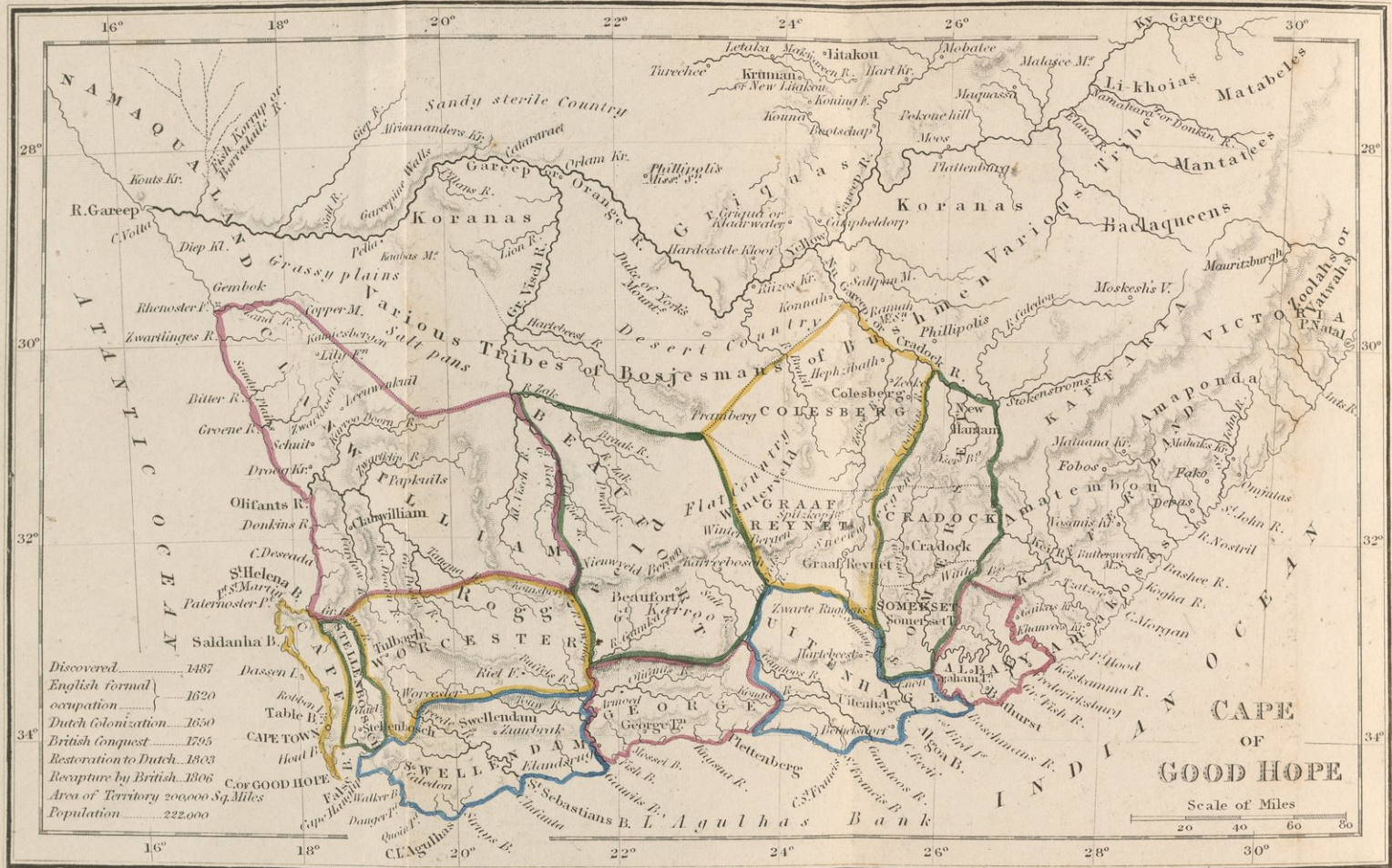
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For Montgomery Martin's Colonial Library, — Possessions in Africa.



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SOUTHERN AFRICA.

BOOK I.

THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

CHAPTER I.

GEOGRAPHY—AREA—BOUNDARIES AND HISTORY, &c.

AFRICA'S southern extremity, termed the *Cape of Good Hope*, is, whether viewed politically or commercially, one of the most valuable sections of the British empire. Territorially united with Europe and Asia, the peninsula stretches far into the great Austral ocean, and by reason of its singular locality,* forms the maritime key to the Anglo-Indian empire, and to our south-eastern dominions.

On the S. this important colony is bounded by the vast southern ocean, on the W. by the Atlantic,

* The geographical resemblance between the southern peninsulas of Africa and America is very striking; while it is not a little remarkable that the great continents of Europe and Asia both terminate in peninsulas, which have few features in common: the peninsula of Hindostan bearing a more decided analogy to Cape Horn, both as regards the range of mountains along the western coast of each, and the large island at either extremity, viz. Ceylon and Tierra del Fuego.

on the E. by the Indian ocean, and on the N. by the Gariep or Orange River, and by unexplored territories.

AREA.—It is difficult to state the exact area of South Africa, extending from Cape Point, in S. latitude 34.23, to Delagoa Bay, a Portuguese settlement on the E. coast, in Lat. 26. In order, however, to explain the nature of the country, it will be necessary to consider the British located territory, which, after its conquest from the Dutch, was thus defined :*—length of the colony, from W. to E., Cape Point to Kafferland, 580 miles ; from River Koussie to Zuureberg, 520 ; breadth from S. to N., River Koussie to Cape Point, 315 miles ; Nieuwveld mountains to Plettenburg's Bay, 160 ; mouth of the Tush River to Plettenburg's Baaken, 225 miles, which gives a parallelogram, whose mean length is 550, and mean breadth 233 English miles, comprising an area of 128,150 square miles.

The present boundaries of occupation should, however, be considered as the Keiskamma River on the E., and the Gariep or Orange River on the N., and may now be stated at 600 miles from E. to W., and 330 miles from N. to S., comprising an area of about 200,000 square miles, with a sea coast of upwards of 1,200 miles, from the Gariep on the western or Atlantic shore to the Keiskamma, on the eastern or Indian Ocean coast.

HISTORY.—The spirit of enterprise which was

* By Mr. Barrow, in his valuable view of the Cape, published in 1801.

excited by the re-discovery of the Canary Islands in the 14th century, and the attention thus drawn towards the adjacent African shores, stimulated bold mariners to prosecute their voyages along the land to the southward; to which an additional impulse was given by Prince Henry of Portugal,* who, receiving much information at Cueta respecting the coast of Guinea (while accompanying his warlike father in an expedition against the Moors), directed all his energies to the circumnavigation of Africa; with the view of thus opening a maritime route to the rich nations of the East, whose valuable commerce was monopolized by the haughty republics of Venice and Genoa, and who had from this cause rapidly risen from comparative insignificance into extraordinary opulence.

Although the thirst for gain is, in every age and nation, a strong excitement to enterprise, and the Portuguese, at the period referred to, were distinguished in Europe for their high and adventurous spirit, yet Prince Henry had to struggle much (as all men who are before their fellows in thought have to do) against the ignorance and prejudices of the age in which he lived. The mariner's compass had been recently introduced into Europe from Asia, by the Venetians, and was but little understood; this circumstance, together with the infant state in which the science of navigation remained, made mariners fearful of venturing out of sight of land; added to

* Son of John the First, surnamed the Avenger, and Philippa of Lancaster, sister of Henry IV. of England.

which, the unknown expanse of the Atlantic was contemplated with mysterious awe; and an old belief was still cherished that the earth was girdled at the equator by a torrid zone or region of intolerable heat, which separated the two hemispheres; a superstitious opinion also existed, that whoever doubled Cape Bojador was fated never to return. Henry, by the aid of science, dispelled these delusions: Cape Bojador was doubled; the Azores and Cape Verd Islands discovered, and the African coast explored beyond the tropics, so as to divest the torrid zone of its fanciful terrors.

Henry died in 1473, without the gratification of witnessing the achievement of that which his daring genius contemplated; his example and spirit continued nevertheless to actuate the Portuguese under the government of John II., who had imbibed the passion for discovery from his grand uncle, Prince Henry; suffice it, however, to say, that after numerous discouragements, owing to the terrors of the crew at the storms encountered, the lofty promontory of southern Africa was discovered by Bartholomew Diaz, in 1487, and called by him *Cabo dos Tormentos*, in consequence of the tempestuous weather experienced.* The mutinous state of his crews, and the shattered condition of his ships, prevented Diaz from touching at the Cape; and on his return to Portugal, John II. directed the Promontory to be called *Cabo de bonne Esperanza* (Cape of Good Hope),

* It is denied by some that Bartholomew then saw Cape Point.

in expectation of future beneficial results. In the confident expectation of discovering the long-desired passage to India, another fleet was fitted out by John, and the command given to the celebrated Vasco de Gama, who, after contending with the fury of the elements, and the despairing, almost mutinous, conduct of his companions, doubled the Cape of Good Hope (ten years after its discovery) on the 20th November, 1497; touched at the Mozambique coast, then stood away to the northward and eastward, and had his skill and perseverance ultimately rewarded by the discovery of the coast of Malabar, &c.; the details of which would be foreign to this work.

The next navigator who doubled the Cape was the Portuguese Admiral, Rio d'Infanté, who strongly recommended his government to establish a colony at the river named after him (now Great Fish River). Several attempts were subsequently made by Portuguese navigators to colonize the country, but they all failed.

After this period the Dutch and English East India Companies' ships were occasional visitors in their voyages to and from India; and despatches for the Directors of the respective nations were buried by the commanders of the outward-bound ships, with instructions cut on stone or wood, indicating where letters and the ship and cargo registers were to be found by the homeward-bound vessels. The Cape of Good Hope continued thus to be resorted to as a temporary rendezvous by European mariners for more than a century. In 1620, two of the English

East India Company's commanders* took formal possession of the Cape, in the name of King James, thirty years prior to the establishment of the Dutch colony. No settlement was, however, formed; and the English, Portuguese, and Dutch continued indiscriminately to resort thither for shelter and refreshments; but in 1650 the Dutch government, at the suggestion of a surgeon of one of their East India ships (Van Riebeck), who viewed the station as an admirable rendezvous, and also with a desire to form a barrier to their Indian dominions, resolved to colonize the Cape; a determination which was shortly after put in execution by sending out 100 males, to whom were subsequently added 100 females, from the houses of Industry in Amsterdam. From this period, for 180 years, the Cape of Good Hope remained in the possession of Holland.

Although the territory when colonized was rather numerously inhabited by native Hottentots, yet, after a few trifling contests, little interruption was experienced by the settlers, who by bartering iron, tobacco, beads, and brandy, bought whole tracts of territory from the simple and peaceable aborigines.

The edict of Nantes, and persecution of the Protestants in Europe, benefitted the Cape by the introduction of refugees who began the cultivation of the vine, &c. But the Dutch seem to have paid little attention to its internal resources; they looked at the colony as a mere refreshing station for their

* Humphrey Fitzherbert and Andrew Shillinge; their proclamation is dated "Bay of Saldanha, 3rd July, 1620."

Indian ships, and in consequence of leasing it out to jobbers and contractors, the revenues fell short of the charges, and it became a heavy expense to the Dutch East India Company.

The effects of the French revolution were felt in the eastern as well as in the western world.

The British government resolved in 1795 to take possession of the colony for the Prince of Orange, and our fleet appeared off the Cape at the moment when the inhabitants were about to declare themselves, after the manner of the Parisians, a *free and independent* republic. The British troops consisted of the 78th Regt., some marines, and two battalions of seamen, amounting in all to 1,600 men. The Dutch were more numerous, and well supplied with artillery. Some ineffectual attempts were made to oppose the march of the British troops on Cape Town, at the Muysenburgh Pass, where a handful of men with artillery might have resisted a large force; but after the Dutch had been driven from their advanced posts, the appearance in Table Bay of reinforcements, under Sir Alured Clarke, led to terms of capitulation, and this important possession became, for the first time, a colony of England. The Cape remained in our occupation for seven years, until the peace of Amiens, when, after various improvements, &c., and contrary to the profound views of that highly distinguished statesman the late Marquess Wellesley, then Earl of Mornington (see conclusion of this Book), it was most injudiciously restored to the Dutch nominally, but in reality to the French,

who made use of the Hollanders as suited their convenience. On the renewal of the war with France, and its dependencies, it was wisely determined by our Government to recapture the Cape of Good Hope: and with this view, a well-appointed force of 5,000 men, under Sir David Baird and Sir Home Popham, appeared off the Cape in January, 1806. The English and Dutch armies met on the plain, at the foot of Table Mountain; but scarcely had the action been commenced by General Ferguson, at the head of the Highland Brigade, than the enemy retreated, and soon after offered terms of surrender. The Cape colony has ever since continued (and I hope will ever remain) an integral part of the British Empire.

The tranquillity of the colony has been recently broken by the neglect of the local and home government, to the dissatisfaction existing among a large class of the Cape colonists—the descendants of the original Dutch settlers—termed *Boers*. The Boers having, as they deemed, been neglected, determined to pass the boundaries of the colony with their herds, and form an independent Republic. Port Natal was ultimately the station chosen by the Boers—after various contests with the adjoining Caffres. The home government adopted no decided views with respect to Port Natal, although repeatedly entreated to permit British settlers to occupy this fine territory, but after the Boers were settled, the Governor resolved to dislodge them, and a party of troops were sent *by land* (a march of 600 miles), instead of by sea, to subdue the Boers. The details of these pro-

ceedings are of such general interest, that the following descriptive narrative from the periodical records may be useful to the future chronicler of the colony.

A writer at Cape Town in July, 1842, thus describes the progress of events:—

“ Soon after the emigrant Boers pitched their camp at Natal, a company of the 72nd Regt. was despatched by sea to that place, with the view of asserting our claim of sovereignty over those ignorant people. This small force remained at Natal for some months, and, being silently withdrawn, the Boers were naturally led to suppose that their independence was conceded to them. This occurred more than two years ago, since which time there has been a tedious correspondence between the Council of the Boers and her Majesty’s representative at Cape Town, ending at last on one side in a direct renunciation of British authority, and on the other by a denial of their power to do so. The Governor contended that the act of passing over the border in no way absolved the emigrants from their allegiance to British authority, and, in support of that authority, he signified his intention of despatching a military force to Natal. The Boers, at the same time, were warned of the serious consequences which would attend any opposition to her Majesty’s troops.

“ Some time last year the Governor received information that a party of Boers from this colony had attacked, or were about to attack, some native tribes in the neighbourhood of the colony with whom we

had established friendly relations. He in consequence pushed forward towards the menaced tribe a detachment of troops from Graham's Town, and warned the Boers against committing the intended violence. To this the Boers replied in a letter, dated the 21st of February of the present year, in which they informed him, not for the first time, that they had renounced their allegiance to the British government; that they were an independent state, and would deal with the natives and others as they saw fit; that they were forming connections in Europe, where they had no doubt their cause would be favourably considered; and they signified to him that they were ready to defend with their blood what they had gained by their blood. In this stage of the negotiation a detachment of troops, amounting to about 200 men, was pushed forward under Captain Smith to Port Natal, distant from head-quarters at Graham's Town about 600 miles, through savage or desert countries intersected by upwards of 100 rivers. Having surmounted the perils and privations of this toilsome journey, Captain Smith, with his little army, arrived at Port Natal in the beginning of May. Having signified the presence of her Majesty's troops to the Boers, he received from them through their general and commander-in-chief, A. W. Pretorius, an order to withdraw without loss of time from their territories, as they were no longer British subjects, but an independent republic, under the protection of the King of Holland. A collision, of course, ensued, in which Captain Smith was defeated with the loss in killed, wounded,

and prisoners, of about one-third of his whole force, with a suitable proportion of guns and stores. Having drawn around his little camp a sort of hedge of waggons, strengthened with a breastwork of earth and a ditch, he now prepared to act on the defensive till reinforcements should arrive from the colony, whither he had despatched a bold and trustworthy messenger, named King, who by great good luck eluded the enemy, and informed the Lieutenant-Governor at Graham's Town of this rather unpromising state of things at Natal.

“ From both ends of the colony reinforcements were despatched without loss of time. Indeed, there was little room for delay, as Captain Smith was besieged in his rude camp by an overwhelming force, by which he was effectually cut off from all supplies and from all communication.

“ He was shut up in his entrenchment on the 24th of May; and from that period, with the exception of a few days' truce for burying the dead and negotiating a little, he lay under an incessant fire by night and day from the guns and musketry of the Boers to the 26th of June, when he was relieved by the force sent from the colony under Lieutenant-Colonel Cloete. He had been reduced to half rations and the use of horseflesh, tough and scanty, with execrable water. Lieutenant-Colonel Cloete entered Port Natal under cover of the guns of her Majesty's frigate Southampton, anchored outside the bar. He was received with showers of balls from the Boers, who, however, soon disappeared.

The following extract of a letter, from one of the soldiers engaged under Captain Smith, gives, perhaps, the best account of these painful proceedings :—

“ ‘ British Settlement, Port Natal, July 3, 1842.

“ ‘ I mean to mention a few particulars of what happened after our arrival here. For some time the Boers were very peaceable, but at last they commenced to steal our cattle, and to take our herds prisoners. The captain sent to them for the cattle, but they would not send them back. We were after getting our two 18-pounders mounted, one at the camp, and the other at the point, where our provisions and stores were, and a detachment of 15 men, four gunners, one officer, a sergeant, and two corporals, was left there to protect them. The Boers were seen on the morning of the 23rd of May, in very large parties, on all sides of the woods, shewing themselves to our camp now and again; but the captain opened our guns on them from the camp. The 18-pounder made great openings among them, and put them to disperse for that day. The next day, being the Queen's birthday, the captain intended to fire 21 guns, and hoist the union jack in front of our camp, but towards evening the captain held a consultation among the officers to attack the Dutch camp, and 100 men were warned to be ready, and two field-pieces and the howitzer were placed in a strong boat to proceed up the channel right under their camp, to throw in shells. The men left our camp at 11 o'clock, the night being clear and bright, and arrived

close to the enemy's camp at one o'clock. The moment the enemy perceived them in front of their camp, they fired such a dreadful volley of musketry on our men, that it made a great many intervals through the ranks. Our men commenced a file-firing, and kept it up very well; the guns and rockets kept playing into them on all sides, and the howitzer from the boat sent well-directed shells into the camp; but, notwithstanding all this, the enemy kept a heavy fire up, their number was so great; they were cutting off our men very fast, and it was very little wonder, for they had ten times our number. After about an hour's engagement the enemy's fire began to slacken very much, and the captain intended to charge them, but when he saw he had so few to charge, he declined, and thought proper to retire home to the camp. You must understand that where the action was fought was close to the sea, and it being a spring-tide, our men were up to their waists in the water, and as soon as a man was wounded he fell into the sea and was drowned, for no person could offer any assistance at the time, for the enemy came in close pursuit after us; we left our dead there in like manner. The most of the artillery were swept from the guns; out of 18 gunners, there were 12 cut away, killed and wounded. The officer of the artillery received a shower of balls in the body (three in the head and four in the body). He was in the act of firing the gun at the time. The gun-oxen were all shot away, and it was impossible for the

men to swim and draw the guns, as the tide was so full in. Many of our men fell victims to a watery grave, perishing in the water. We had not long arrived home at the camp, when the enemy made a dreadful charge on the camp on all sides, but they were repulsed with great loss. You may say, my boys, this was one of the most horrible nights I ever witnessed in my life, from 10 o'clock until clear daylight in the morning. In this night's action the killed and missing were, 17 and one officer; wounded 24, one captain, and one subaltern. The next day the enemy brought up our dead; they could only find 12, and the artillery officer. We buried them in a large pit convenient to the camp. The other five men must have been driven out with the tide; so I intend to finish with the affair of Congella, or the Dutch camp, so I must say it was an unfortunate thing for our guns to fall into the enemy's hands, besides a great number of small arms and ammunition; but I assure you it could not be helped, for you may easily know our situation. The number of the enemy killed on this night is estimated to be 130, and 70 wounded. There were 90 killed belonging to them in one kraal, by shells from the howitzer. * * * *

“The Boers now seeing that our guns were already in their hands that were left behind previous to the action at Congella, and so many of our small detachment cut off, thought proper to cut off all communication by land; and the next thing they had in view was to engage the point, and capture all

our provisions. Accordingly, on the 26th morning, they engaged the point, and, after half an hour's engagement, they captured it, but not without losing a great number of men. Our small detachment, as I mentioned before, did their endeavour to keep it, but they were soon overpowered. There were only one sergeant, two corporals, and 15 men, and four gunners. The artillery fought well, until two of them were killed and two wounded. The two that were wounded spiked the gun before the enemy came up to them, but when they saw the gun already spiked, they drew their knives, and ripped them from the bottom of the belly to the throat. They took all the rest prisoners. There were only one corporal and one private wounded, but the four artillerymen were killed. Now they had us completely blockaded by sea and land. They also went on board of the two vessels that were lying in the harbour, and took about 30 Englishmen prisoners, and bound them in irons, with a strong guard over each vessel. It happened very fortunately that the officer belonging to this small detachment was up at the camp on duty, or else he would have been taken prisoner also. The Dutch chief sent many letters to the captain, entreating them to quit the camp, under the following circumstances:—To pay the sum of 10,000*l.* to the Dutch Republic; to pay the damage done to them; and further, to give up all our arms, only 12 stand that he would allow to each vessel to guard us down to Cape Town. He wanted to send us in the two vessels that were lying

in the harbour, but this proposal only made our captain smile, and he sent him back word, he never would do any such thing. This made the impetuous chief bluster out with great execrations, and said he would starve us to death, and burn our camp. The captain, knowing now they had three guns of ours in possession, knew very well they would soon visit our camp, and blockade us, and keep us from getting any provisions or water. As the water was pretty far distant from the camp, he ordered the engineer officer to make intrenchments all round the inside of the camp, and build a breast-work up against the front of the waggons, the way it would save the men from the enemy's shot. At this time they had the whole of our cattle captured, with the exception of 24 head, and we had very unfortunately only one waggon-load of biscuit up from the point before it was taken. On the night of the 30th of May the enemy made all preparation for besieging our camp, and on the next morning, being the 31st, they commenced a dreadful cannonading on our camp. They had their guns pointing in every direction towards the camp, namely, one 18-pounder, two 6-pounders, one 12-pounder, two 4-pounders; total six guns. I forgot to mention, that they had some handicraft men among them that unspiked the 18-pounder, and a 12-pounder, that belonged to them, which was spiked by us when we came here first. They fired 160 rounds from their guns, besides showers of musketry, the first day; but, thanks be to God, they did very little harm,

only smashed the sides of the waggons. We had only two guns, one 18-pounder and howitzer, and they were kept going the whole day at the enemy. The 18-pounder dismounted one of the 6-pounders the first day, and the howitzer killed a great number of the enemy with her shell. The enemy now dug intrenchments at the distance of 100 yards from our camp, all round, for their small arms, and to save themselves from the fire of our camp. Here, now, I may mention that we were no longer inhabitants of the earth, but of the under world, living in subterraneous caves or caverns or sepulchral tombs. Our situation now was surely miserable, and we could get no water, only running in danger of being cut to pieces going for it outside of the camp by the enemy's fire, for that was the only time they kept up a strong fire. On the third morning of the siege the enemy sent us a flag of truce to our camp for the purpose of sending our women and children, sick and wounded, on board of the vessels in the harbour, and that they would be taken good care of; but this was only policy of them, to find out how many were disabled, that they might make an attack on our camp. None of the women would go, only Mrs. Lonsdale, and the captain would not admit of any of the sick to go, and said he would nail the flag to the masthead before he should ever give them the satisfaction of surrendering. Our provisions now were getting very scarce, and the enemy shot most of the few cattle we had in the kraal, to keep us from living, if possible. All the oxen we had

now left alive were killed immediately to make 'biltong' of, lest the enemy should destroy any more of us. The enemy still kept up a formidable fire every day on the camp—upwards of 100 rounds every day. We were living now on six ounces of biscuit-dust and half a pound of biltong. Our coffee and sugar were all out in like manner. This only kept the human frame from failing; and this was not all; after the biltong was all out we were obliged to feast on horseflesh. This was very disgusting at first, but hunger obliged us to make use of it. To finish the siege, and not dwell longer upon it, the enemies kept their guns going for sixteen days on our camp, and then brought them down to fortify the point against the reinforcement that was coming up, for they were well aware that King had made his escape, and that he would discover all. Although the guns were taken away, they still kept us in by their small arms. The captain now determined to level some of the intrenchments belonging to the enemy, in the dark of the night, and sent off 20 men and 2 officers. They went on their hands and feet until they came on top of the enemy. They were all asleep only the sentry, who fired and shot Mr. Prior in the heart. This alarmed all the rest, and such a dreadful carnage never was heard tell of before. Our men fired and charged them with bayonets, and muzzle to muzzle; the Dutch shouted for mercy, but of course they got none. They drew their hunting knives, but they only killed two and the officer, and our men killed every

one in the intrenchments, in number about 36, and then returned to the camp. If they had waited much longer the whole of the enemy would have cut them to pieces; but they were in good time here. We remained until the reinforcement arrived.

* * * * *

“The Grenadier company arrived here on the 24th of June, on board of a merchant schooner, but she had to beat about the harbour until the arrival of the frigate. On the 25th, the frigate came in sight, and fired two guns and three rockets as a signal to us, which were answered by us with one gun and one rocket, to let them know we were in distress and where we lay. On the morning of the 26th, being Sunday, all preparations were made to effect a landing. The frigate formed a flotilla of gunboats, each boat bearing a howitzer, placed in her for throwing shells; all the other boats were laden with the troops. At 1 o'clock the troops set off from the different vessels, under the frigate's fire; the gunboats led the van, and it was very handsome to see all the boats sailing up the channel, each having its standard waving in the stern. The enemy now commenced a strong fire on the boats from their guns and small arms, but without much effect. The frigate now opened a formidable fire on the enemy from her forecastle and poop; broadsides from her 68-pounders. The boats also kept up a dreadful fire, pitching shells every moment. The frigate's heavy fire made such openings in the woods among the enemy, that they were soon conspicuous

to the troops, who kept up a heavy fire of small arms on them. The shells from the boats swept the enemy from their guns. The haughty rebels were now seen to fall. All on a sudden, after an half-hour's engagement, the outlaws made for the country, taking the guns with them. Our 18-pounder kept up a heavy fire on them as they passed the woods going to the country. The troops having now possession of the harbour, they hauled down the Dutch jack, and hoisted the union. The troops now made their appearance through the woods towards our camp, and took twelve rebels prisoners. All the rest fled. Oh, Heaven! what a joyful sight to see we were once more inhabitants of the upper world! No tongue can describe nor pen can write the joy we felt in meeting the Grenadier company and the 25th Regiment here. We gave three hearty cheers that rent the air and drowned the noise of the cannon. The next day Colonel Cloete marched up the troops to the Dutch village, and plundered it all over. We were only allowed to partake of eatables, but not to meddle with any thing else. But some made well of it. We took meal, flour, bread, tobacco, coffee, sugar, butter, cheese, tea, rice, brandy, wines, pigs, and every kind of poultry, and cooking utensils. I have now the satisfaction to feast on their sumptuous food for the long starvation they gave me. The enemy is making fortifications up the country at their town, lest the troops should follow them. All the troops here are kept busy every day, making

fortifications round our camp, and at the point or harbour. We expect to follow the Boers up the country in a few days. There are about 700 men here now, with the 25th and ours. They are mounting all the fresh guns the frigate brought, to proceed up the country with a strong force of men. The Caffres are burning and destroying all their small villages, and putting every one of the enemy to death they come across, and bringing us dozens of cattle every day. All our sick and wounded are on board a ship to forward to Cape Town, and there are a great number of them. All the waggons that were damaged are taken to pieces and put on board a ship to go to Algoa Bay to be sold by auction. Captain Lonsdale, with family, is on board, to join head-quarters. I am sorry to mention to you that your old friend Carthey dropped dead in the intrenchments, on the morning of the 16th. * * * * *

“JOSEPH BROWNE.”

“During the siege, the Boers fired upwards of 700 shots from the 6 and 18-pounders, besides keeping up an incessant firing of musketry. Though the siege lasted upwards of a month, there were but four shot and three wounded on the side of the English; but, on the part of the Dutch, there is reason to believe, many more. Lieutenant Molesworth, with 20 men, made a sally out of the camp one night, during the latter part of the siege, and fell upon the Boers in the trenches before they were aware of it, the Boers being all asleep. Of twenty

Boers, not two, it is said, escaped. The English, however, paid dear for this, by the loss of Mr. Prior, a fine young officer, who, with two privates, was killed on the occasion. Before the camp was relieved they had eaten all their horses, and were upon the most wretched pittance of spoiled bread, which they intended should enable them to stand it out twenty days longer, when the Conch arrived; she immediately fired guns and threw up rockets, which were answered by the besieged. The captain on board sent a flag of truce, requesting that a medical man, with medical comforts, might be allowed to proceed to the camp. To this Pretorius answered, that all communication with Captain Smith had ceased, and that it was now too late."

The official statement of the termination of this disastrous and unnatural conflict is as follows:—

"Her Majesty's frigate *Isis* arrived in Simon's Bay on Sunday last from Natal, bringing back part of the troops under Lieutenant-Colonel Cloete, commander of the late expedition, who immediately proceeded to head-quarters. On Monday the troops marched from Simon's Town to Cape Town, and in the afternoon of Monday the following 'Government Notice' was issued for the satisfaction of her Majesty's loyal subjects:—

" 'His Excellency the Governor is pleased to direct the following information to be made publicly known:—

" 'Lieutenant-Colonel Cloete left Port Natal on the 21st ultimo, on board her Majesty's ship *Isis*,

and arrived in Simon's Bay yesterday afternoon, accompanied by a portion of the troops sent to reinforce the detachment under Captain Smith, and has reported to his Excellency the Governor the final cessation of hostilities between her Majesty's troops and the insurgent Boers—no further hostile demonstrations having been shewn by them after the troops under Lieutenant-Colonel Cloete's orders were landed.

“ ‘ The emigrant farmers having made a solemn declaration of their submission to the Queen,—having released the prisoners, whether soldiers or civilians,—having given up the cannon captured, as well as those belonging to themselves, and having restored all public as well as private property seized by them ; the Lieutenant-Colonel, acting under the powers vested in him by the Governor, granted a general amnesty or free pardon to all persons who might have been engaged in resistance to her Majesty's troops and authority, with the exception of Joachim Prinslo, A. W. Pretorius, J. J. Burger, Michiel van Breda, and Servaas van Breda.

“ ‘ He further declared, that all private property should be respected ; that the emigrant farmers should be allowed to return to their farms, with their guns and horses ; that they should be defended from any attack by the Zoolahs ; that the tenure of their lands should not be interfered with, pending the determination and settlement of her Majesty's Government ; that beyond the limits fixed for the military occupation, their existing administration and civil

institutions should not be interfered with till the pleasure of her Majesty should be made known ; that the Caffres should not be molested in the occupation of the lands on which they were settled at the date of the arrival of her Majesty's troops, subject to such future arrangements as may be made for general security by her Majesty ; and by a subsequent article appended to the conditions of this surrender, the Lieutenant-Colonel, in consideration of Mr. A. W. Pretorius having co-operated in the final adjustment of the articles of surrender, and of his personal humane conduct to the prisoners, and his general moderation, included him in the amnesty which he had extended to all with the exceptions above named.

“ ‘ Major D'Urban, and a second detachment of the 25th, were to leave Port Natal on or about the 25th ult., leaving Captain Smith in command of the post, with a force of 350 men.

“ ‘ By command of his Excellency the Governor,

“ ‘ J. MOORE CRAIG,

“ ‘ Acting Secretary to Government.

“ ‘ Colonial-office, Cape of Good Hope,
Aug. 1, 1842.’ ”

Recent accounts from the Cape frontier inform us that the whole of the troops of the colony were ordered beyond the frontier again to attack the Boers. This course of proceeding is much to be deprecated, and arises chiefly from the neglect of the Home government to the affairs of the colonies. In the mean-

time the British public are required to pay the large expenses thus incurred.

The following is a list of the governors of the colony since its establishment in 1652 *under the Dutch Government*—Joan Anthony van Riebeck, 8th April, 1652; Zacharias Wagenaar, 9th May, 1662; Cornelius van Gualberg, 24th October, 1666; Jacob Borghorst, 18th June, 1668; Pieter Hackins, 2nd June, 1670; Coenraad van Breitenbach, 1st December, 1671; Albert van Breugel, 23rd March, 1672; Ysbrand Goske, 2nd October, 1672; Johan Bat (van Herentals), 2nd January, 1676; Hencbrik Crudat, 29th June, 1678; Simon van der Stell, 14th October, 1679; William Adrian van der Stell, 11th February, 1699; Johan Cornelis d'Ableing, 3rd June, 1707; Louis van Asseburg, 1st February, 1708; Maurits Posques de Chavornnes, 28th March, 1714; Jan de la Fontaine (Acting), 8th September, 1724; Pieter Gisbert Nood, 25th February, 1727; Jan de la Fontaine (Acting), 24th April, 1729; Ditto (Effective), 8th March, 1730; Adraan van Rervel, 14th November, 1736; Daniel van den Hengel, 20th September, 1737; Hendrik Swellengrebel, 14th April, 1739; Ryk Tulbagh, 30th March, 1751; Joachim van Plettenburg, 12th August, 1771; Pieter van Reede van Oudtshoorn (died on his passage to the colony, on board the ship Asia), 23rd January, 1773; Cornelis Jacob van de Graff, 14th February, 1785; Johannes Isaak Rhenius, 29th June, 1791; Abr. J. Sluysken (Commissioner), 2nd September, 1793. *Under the British Government*—J. H. Craig,

1st September, 1795; Earl Macartney, 23rd May, 1797; Sir Francis Dundas (Lieutenant-Governor), 22nd November, 1798; Sir George Yonge, 18th December, 1798; Sir Francis Dundas (Lieutenant-Governor), 20th April, 1801; Jan. Willem Jassens (Battavian Governor), 1st March, 1803; Sir David Baird, 10th January, 1806; Hon. H. G. Grey (Lieutenant-Governor), 17th January, 1807; Du Pre, Earl of Caledon, 22nd May, 1807; Hon. H. G. Grey (Lieutenant-Governor), 5th July, 1811; Sir John Francis Cradock, 6th September, 1811; Hon. R. Meade (Lieutenant-Governor), 13th December, 1813; Lord Charles Henry Somerset, 6th April, 1814; Sir Rufane Shawe Donkin (Acting during the absence of Lord C. Somerset), 13th January, 1820; Lord Charles H. Somerset (Returned), 1st December, 1821; Richard Bourke (Lieutenant-Governor), 8th February, 1828; Sir Galbraith Lowry Cole (Governor), G.C.B., 6th August, 1828; Sir B. D'Urban (Governor), 1833; Sir G. Napier.

CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL ASPECT—MOUNTAINS—DESERTS—RIVERS—GEOLOGY—MINERALOGY AND SOIL.

SOUTHERN AFRICA is generally composed of chains of lofty mountains and intervening plains and valleys, extending east and west, excepting one range beginning at Table Bay, opposite to Cape Point, and stretching to the northward along the western coast about 200 miles, which is as far as Olifant's River.

The first great chain running east and west has, along the southern coast, a belt of undulating land, varying from 10 to 30 miles in width, indented by several bays, and intersected by numerous streamlets; the soil is rich, the hills are well wooded, and the climate equable and mild, from its proximity to the ocean.

The next great chain is the Zwaarte Bergen,* or *Black Mountains*; more lofty and rugged than the coast chain (in some places consisting of double and treble ranges), and divided from it by an interval from 10 to 20 miles wide, the surface of which is very varied, in some places barren hills predominating, in others naked and arid plains of clay, termed by

* Berg, the Dutch for mountain, is almost invariably attached to the name.

the colonists the *karroo*, while widely interspersed are patches of well-watered, fertile, and beautiful grounds.

The third range is the Nieuwveld's Bergen; between these mountains and the second range is the Great Karroo, or Desert, an elevated steppe or terrace, nearly 300 miles in length from E. to W., 80 in breadth, and 1000 feet above the sea, exhibiting a clayey surface thinly sprinkled over with sand, studded with occasional isolated hills, with here and there a few stunted shrubs which seldom receive a friendly shower.

Along the western coast the country also ascends in successive terraces, the most elevated of which (the Roggeveldt) unites with the last-mentioned chain of mountains (the Nieuwveld). Indeed, the Roggeveldt Bergen range may be said to commence in nearly 30 S. latitude, running nearly south for two and a half degrees, when its course is bent to the E., and subsequently to the N.E., until the range reaches Delagoa Bay, that part of it forming the north boundary of the Great Karroo being termed Nieuwveld's Bergen.

At the most southern extremity there are several eminences, the heights and names of which are—Table Mountain, feet, 3,582; Devil's Peak, 3,315; Lion's Head, 2,760; Lion's Rump, 1,143; Muzzenberg, about 2,000; Elsey Peak, 1,200; Simon's Berg, or Signal Hill, 2,500; Paulusberg, 1,200; Constantia, 3,200; Cape Peak, 1000; Hanglip Cape, 1,800 feet.

I rode to the summit of Cape Peak in 1825; the surface was covered with piles of huge stones loosely thrown together, as if giants had been at play; the cliff was so perpendicular as to prevent my descent, except at some distance from the point, but I had an opportunity of sailing almost underneath this singular promontory in his Majesty's schooner *Albatross*, in 1823, when we ran inside the "Bellows rock," on our passage from Table to Simon's Bay. I scarcely know whether my feelings were more excited in the latter situation, or when viewing the vast expanse of the Indian and Atlantic Oceans from the wild and desolate extremity of Southern Africa.

But the most conspicuous feature of these lofty ranges is *Table Mountain*, the north front of which, directly facing Cape Town, presents nearly a horizontal line of two miles in length, rising to the height of 2,582 feet above the level of Table Bay, with a plain at the summit of about ten acres in extent.* In front are two wings—the Devil's Mountain, 3,315, and the Lion's Head, 2,760 feet, which evidently at one time formed a continuation of the table,—the summits being washed away by torrents and the crumbling hand of time; the base is still attached to the 'Table,' at a considerable elevation. The Devil's Mountain is broken into irregular points, but the upper part of the Lion's Head is a solid mass of stone, rounded and fashioned like a work of art; and resembling, it is thought, in some

* See plate prefixed to title-page.

points of view, the dome of St. Paul's, placed on a high cone-shaped hill.

This is Mr. Barrow's opinion ; but though I visited Table Bay several times, and rode on horseback to the summit of the 'Table,' I could not see the resemblance alluded to. The ascent on horseback I was induced to attempt from hearing so much of the difficulty of the enterprise. Owing to the kindness of a Dutch gentleman, who lent me one of his best-trained horses and accompanied me, I safely accomplished the undertaking in ten hours. Sometimes the road or path wound round a shelving mountain, or along the verge of a precipice, where there was not room for two animals to pass, and down whose fearful chasms I durst not look,—at other times it lay across huge loose rocks, adown and up whose steep and slippery sides my noble steed trod with the steadiness and security of a chamois :—frequently was I obliged to grasp his neck when clambering up these dangerous precipices, where a false step would have hurled horse and rider to the bottom of yawning ravines, if perchance they had not been intercepted midway by some impending rock and dashed to atoms in descending from ledge to ledge ;—but when I gained the summit, and sat astride on my horse 3,000 feet above Cape Town, the perils of the ascent were forgotten ; well might I exclaim with the immortal bard,

“ How fearful

And dizzy 'tis to cast one's eyes so low !

The fishermen, that walk upon the beach,
Appear like mice ; and yon tall anchoring bark
Diminish'd to her cock.

The murmuring surge,
That on the unnumbered idle pebbles chafes,
Cannot be heard so high."

In fact, the fishermen did not appear so large as mice—they were mere black dots on the minute tracery of lines which Cape Town exhibited. The descent was more perilous than the ascent, as the 'table cloth' was spreading rapidly. Ladies have ascended to the top of the mountain from the cleft or gorge at Cape Town.

The bold face of Table Mountain is supported by a number of projecting buttresses that rise out of the plains, and fall in with the front a little higher than midway from the base. The east side is the most elevated, and some points are estimated at 4,000 feet ; the west side, along the sea shore, is rent into deep chasms, topped by many-pointed masses. About four miles to the southward, the elevation of the mountain is diminished by terraces,* the lowest of which communicates with the chain that extends the whole length of the peninsula.

On first viewing this singular-looking mountain from the bay, it appears like the ruined walls of a gigantic fortress—the front divided into three sections, a curtain flanked by two bastions ; the former is separated from the left bastion by a deep chasm, which is about three-quarters of a mile in length ;

* It was along these terraces I ascended to the summit.

the perpendicular cheeks at the foot 1,000 feet high, and the angle of descent 45 degrees. At the entrance, the chasm is about 80 feet wide; but it gradually converges until it is not more than a few feet at the portal, which opens on the extensive flat summit.

Cape Town, built immediately at the foot of Table Mountain, along the shores of Table Bay, on a plain which rises with an easy ascent towards the mountain, is regularly constructed, with straight and parallel streets intersecting each other at right angles, and shaded with elm or oak trees; the houses chiefly of red brick or stone, of a good size, and generally with a *stoup*, or terrace, before the door, shaded with trees, beneath which the English as well as Dutch inhabitants delight to lounge by day, sheltered from the fervid rays of the sun, or to inhale the freshness of the evening breeze.

The population of the metropolis of South Africa is at present more than 25,000,* of whom upwards of 10,000 are white inhabitants—the majority being Dutch, or of Dutch descent. With the exception of Sydney, New South Wales, there is a more English appearance about Cape Town than any colonial station I have visited. The squares are well laid out, the streets extremely clean, the public edifices numerous and substantial. Throughout the week there

* In 1831-2 the census was, of *free* persons, white and coloured, males 6,410, females 6,949; of *slaves*, males 2,921, females 2,906; total of males 9,331, of females 9,855; grand total 19,186.

is a continued busy hum of industry; and, on the Sabbath morn, the melody of the church-going bell, and the groups of well-dressed individuals flocking to their respective places of worship, may readily induce the traveller to forget that he is on the southernmost extremity of Africa.

The Castle, situate on the left of the town (entering from Table Bay), is a strong fortification commanding the anchorage, and, if well defended, capable of successful resistance against any force which may be brought against it. The fortress is pentagonal, with a broad fosse and regular outworks. It contains within its walls most of the public offices, and barracks for 1,000 men. There are other works defending Cape Town. Fort Knokke, on the east, is connected with the castle by a rampart, called the sea-lines; and farther east is Craig's tower and battery. On the west side, and surrounding the Lion's Rump, are Rogge, Amsterdam, and Chavonne batteries, all bearing upon the anchorage. The entrance of the bay is commanded by a battery, called the *Mouillé*.

The colonists are indebted to the paternal sway of the Earl Caledon for the laying down of hydraulic pipes, by means of which a plentiful supply of excellent water is furnished to every part of the town, and ships' boats are supplied at the landing place with a beverage which, even after many months' keeping at sea, I found equal to that of the Thames.

The colony being divided into districts, its de-

scription and condition will be more clearly conveyed by a separate account of each division.

Cape District. This district, formerly bounded to the N. by the Berg River, but now extended to the Verlorem valley, which is distant from Cape Point about 190 miles, has a breadth nowhere exceeding thirty miles, the superficial area being 3,700 square miles. A range of lofty mountains rises, like an immense wall, forming the E. boundary of the valley, shutting it out so entirely from the country beyond it, that a handful of men in possession of the passes would always be able to cut off any communication between the sea-coast and the interior. There are three passes, or kloofs, generally used by wheel carriages; viz. *Hottentot Hollands Kloof*, near False Bay, opening a communication with the districts of Swellendam and the E. parts of the colony along the sea-coast; *Roode Land (Red Land) Kloof*, opposite to Saldanha Bay, leading to Graaff Reinet, and the remotest parts of the colony, and *Elands' Kloof*, still farther N., opening into a wild country. As if intended to contrast with the barren mountain range, the valley which it encloses is exceedingly beautiful, rich, and well watered, containing the Paarl River, Great and Little Drakenstein, and Fransche Hoek, or French Corner, &c. The Cape peninsula is about thirty-six miles long and eight broad, composed of a broken series of mountains, either with horizontal or cone-shaped summits, and connected by inferior gorges. The N. tract is composed of the Table Mountain, Constantia, and several others of less note,

and contains many valuable estates. The southern range extends from Haut Bay on the W. and Fish-Hook Bay on the E. to Cape Point. This peninsula is joined to the continent by a low, flat, and narrow sandy isthmus, the S. E. shore of which is washed by False Bay, and the N. W. by Table Bay; the latter affording secure shelter from September to May, and the former for the remainder of the year.

Simon's Bay, situate in False Bay, is the chief naval station at the Cape for half the year, and Table Bay for the other half; the latter is not so dangerous as has been represented; if good ground tackle were always used, there would not be so many shipwrecks. It is to be hoped that the long projected plan of a breakwater will yet be adopted; by this means the heavy surf that rolls in with a S. E. wind would be prevented from injuring ships at the anchorage. This measure, and a lighthouse at Cape Laghullas, the expense of which should be defrayed by a farthing or a half-penny per ton levied on all vessels doubling the Cape, would render Table Bay a safe haven in all weathers.

There are also two small bays on the W. side of the Cape peninsula, viz. *Haut*, or Woodman's, and Chapman's Bays; the latter exposed to the N. and N. W., but the former sheltered from all winds, but with confined anchorage. *Saldanha Bay*, one of the best and most commodious harbours in the world, is in Lat. 38.8 S., and Lon. 17.55 E., variation 24 W. The distance from the head of the bay to the S. E. to Hootges Bay, may be calculated at little

short of 25 miles. On the S.W. side of the entrance is a small island, having a hill in its centre forming two small peaks, called Dassen Island; opposite to which, on the northern shore, is Madagas Island, on which is a flag-staff, erected by persons frequenting the island for eggs, to indicate where it is safe to land. After passing these islands, in the centre of the entrance is Marcus Island, by which it is divided into two channels, by either of which the bay may be safely entered; the southern channel leading to the anchorage on the western side of the bay, and the northern to that in Hootges Bay. Round the promontory to the S. of Marcus Isle, are two small bays—the first Salamandre, the next Charonante Bay; in either of which there is a good anchorage in three to seven fathoms, having Neeuven and Schaapen Islands to the S.E. Off Meurwen Island the water is deep, and vessels may be anchored tolerably close in out of the tide-way, which runs rapidly between the islands; but from the northern shore of Schaapen Island a bank projects, on which there are but two fathoms water. During gales of wind from the westward, a very heavy sea falls into the bay, and breaks far out from its eastern shore, which makes it desirable for ships, when at this anchorage, to be well covered under the land to the westward. In Hootges Bay vessels can anchor in three to seven fathoms close in, and are perfectly safe at all seasons. Within this bay is Smit's Winkel, or Smith's Shop Bay, where vessels have been brought from Table Bay to be hove down. It is to

be regretted that fresh water is not to be had along this shore in sufficient quantity for the supply of ships, as the anchorage is superior to that on the opposite side of the bay. After passing Neeuwen and Schaapen Islands, that part of the bay opens which is commonly called the river, and which extends about seven miles in a S.E. direction to a place called Geelbeck, where there are salt pans, and good salt may be procured at a reasonable price. The sand-banks and the narrowness of the channel make the navigation of this part difficult, excepting for boats, the depth of water in the main channel to the head of the bay being from four to two fathoms. The old post, which is on the southern shore of the river, and now in a very dilapidated state, was the former Residency; it is occupied by a Hottentot and his family, in the employ of the present proprietors, and is used merely as a cattle place. There is a spring of fresh water to the right of the house; but the supply is not sufficient for shipping. The present station of the Government Resident is on the eastern shore of this part of the bay, whence it derives its name Oostwal, and is about a mile and a half from Schaapen Island. In April, 1829, the American schooner *Antarctic*, of 150 tons, passed up the channel to the E. of Schaapen Island, and anchored round the point of land, called Stompe Hock, of a small bay called Sandy Bay, where the grain from the neighbouring farms is shipped for the Cape Market; and in February, 1830, the Ame-

rican schooners *Spark* and *General Putnam*, the latter of 114 tons burthen, and drawing ten feet water, came up the same channel, and anchored in five fathoms, opposite the Residency, where they took in their supply of water. These vessels were sealing to the northward off Cape Voltos. As the water shoals off the N.E. shore of Schaapan Island, as well as off the eastern shore of the main land, great caution is necessary in making the entrance and passing up this channel; and when Schaapen Island is well on the starboard quarter, steer S.E., keeping the northern shore until past Stompe Point or Hock, when keep mid channel up to the Residency. The springs of water vary in colour and quantity; some, running through beds of ironstone, are dark-coloured; all is drinkable and good, and could be collected in a very considerable quantity in reservoirs, and, at little expense, made convenient for watering ships, which at present is a laborious operation; the casks are rolled at low water a considerable distance over a sandy flat to the channel, but at high water and spring tides they may be brought close to the spring. Fresh water is to be found from Sandy Bay to Geelbeck, a distance of seven miles; and it is presumed, when the day comes that this fine bay shall be no longer neglected and passed by, but its value to this colony and the commercial world duly appreciated, the land on this shore may be divided into *erven*, and each *erf* have its separate well and garden, and wells and dams re-

served for public uses, and a considerable extent of ground appropriated for commonage.*

STELLENBOSCH† DISTRICT is situated to the eastward of the Cape district, running north from False Bay ; it is bounded on the N. by the Berg River, E. by the district of Worcester, S. by the district of Swellendam and False Bay, and on the W. by the Cape district ; comprising upwards of 4,314 square miles, divided into 25 field cornetcies. The village of Stellenbosch, containing the first and second cornetcies, is picturesquely situate at the head of a valley, almost surrounded by mountains, and shaded by groves of magnificent oak trees ; there is abundance of excellent water, the climate is mild, the soil productive, and the station is a favourite resort for invalids. The whole district abounds in beautiful scenery ; at Jonkershoek (12 miles from Stellenbosch village), there is a fine waterfall, forming the origin of the Eerste River ; Somerset, including all the farms of Hottentots Holland (from the beach of which latter it is distant two miles), is famed for the noble

* I am indebted for this account of Saldanha Bay, and also for many other important particulars relating to the Cape of Good Hope, to Mr. George Greig, whose patriotic exertions have contributed so materially to benefit the country of his adoption. This gentleman's newspaper and directory are models for other colonies, and demonstrate how much one individual may accomplish by energy and talent in a rising community.

† So named from the Dutch Governor Simon Van der Stell, about the year 1681.

road over the Kloof or Pass, called "*Cole's Pass*," opened in 1830. The chief produce is wine and corn, and there are magnificent camphor trees well worth visiting. Groote Drakenstein, comprising, among others, the farms on the N. side of Simon's Bay, is remarkable for some deep caves, dug upwards of 100 years ago, by order of the Dutch government, in search for silver.

Fransche Hoek is delightfully situate in a valley surrounded by mountains, with a road leading over the Kloof, which is a master-piece of workmanship. Zonder-End comprises a ridge of mountains which divides Worcester and Swellendam from Stellenbosch and the Ezeljagt mountains. The Paarl cornetcy has a remarkably neat village, bearing the same name, and almost hidden beneath an umbrageous canopy of veteran oaks. The top of the Paarl mountain commands a view of the neighbouring country. In many parts of the district of Stellenbosch the orange trees afford a most picturesque scenery, while in flowering season their perfumes are wafted for miles over the adjoining country.

The principal rivers are the Berg, Zonder-End, Palmiet, and Eerste, which, together with some inferior ones, such as Lawrens, Bot, Dwars, Fransche Hoek, and Witelse, have their origin in the mountains in the S.E. of the district.

WORCESTER DISTRICT, in the N.W. division of the colony, is one of the most extensive, comprising 42,111 square miles, and divided into two parts, Worcester to the N. and Clan-William to the southward.

Clan-William contains twelve field cornetcies or wards; that called after the name of the south division is about 36 miles from N. to S., and 37 from E. to W.; its village is distant from Cape Town 168 miles N., 96 from Tulbagh, 13 from Worcester, nearly 150 from Stellenbosch, and containing 28 farms. The other wards are of various sizes and fertility, but the whole district is much more of a pastoral than agricultural character; and the attention of the farmers is now particularly turned to fine-woolled sheep.

Oliphant, or Elephant's River (in the S. division of the district), runs in a N. direction along the foot of the W. chain of mountains, and falls into the Atlantic in S. Lat. 31.30. It is the only one in the colony navigable with boats for upwards of 30 miles from the sea, to which distance it is affected by the tides. The mouth of the river is barred by the reef of rocks from S. to N., and by a sand-bank from N. to S., leaving between the two bars a channel always open for communication with the sea, and through which whalers' boats enter for water and provisions. The Berg, or mountain river, has its source in the mountains which enclose the vale of Drakenstein, and discharges into St. Helena Bay.

St. Helena Bay is well sheltered from the S. and E., but exposed to the N. It has good anchorage, and a small creek on its S. side may be safely resorted to as a harbour for small coasting vessels. The Berg River, which falls into the bay, is a considerable stream, but, on account of the sand bar,

admitting only boats. The adjoining country is well adapted for grazing. To the northward the shore is low and sandy. The Kamiesberg is distant from the W. sea-coast of southern Africa, about 40 miles, in 29.30. S. Lat.; it is from 4,000 to 5,000 feet above the level of the sea (the country being on a gradual rise from the banks of the Gariép), and the missionary station is within 300 feet of the highest peak of the mountain. The soil is fertile, the grass abundant, and the climate salubrious: falls of snow are frequent in winter. Five thousand head of cattle are pastured by the small community at the mission station. The country W. of the commencement of the Roggeveld mountains, between 29. and 30., appears a great inclined plain, the first part falling very gradually from the Nieuwveld ridge to the Gariép River; sprinkled over with singular piles of rocks, as if placed there by art, and assuming at a distance the most grotesque appearances, such as those of houses, quadrupeds, birds, &c.: still farther N. the plains are covered with low brushwood, with here and there beds of salt; and, in one place, a valley of six miles wide, entirely composed of naked sand, which appears to be occasionally covered with water. This vast salt pan, or rather valley of salt, is supposed to be about 40 miles in circumference; the surface is a fine dry salt, of a brilliant whiteness, and is, probably, the residuum, after torrents of rain have washed off the saline particles from the adjoining country. The soil of the country around is

composed, in some places, of a sharp gravel of decomposed schistus; in others, of a calcareous stratum, strewed over with flints.

The Gariep, or Orange River, which forms the natural N. boundary of the colony, falls into the Atlantic at about Long. 16.30. E., Lat. 28.30. S., it is barred with sand, and said to be scarcely accessible for boats, while its course for several hundred miles is obstructed by numerous falls and rapids: in 21. E. Long. and 28.10. S. Lat. the river is 500 yards, flowing in a deep, rapid, and majestic current, though when thus seen by Mr. Thompson, in 1824, it was at its lowest ebb. On the opposite bank, a ridge of mountains runs parallel with the river, and accompanies its course from a little below Griqua Town (about 24. E. Long. and 28.50. S. Lat.) almost to the ocean, a distance of 500 miles.

In 22. E. Long. a great rapid is formed by the approach of the Gariepine mountain range, on the N. side to the Duke of York's mountain, on the S. side, where the river forces its passage between the hills, and is, to a considerable extent, arched over by immense cliffs, suspended between two rocks; the roar of the water rushing through this narrow gateway can be distinctly heard at a distance of many miles, and when the river is swollen to its full height, the scene must be very imposing, from the immense collection of water, contracted by the rapid, afterwards spreading out into a noble lake, studded with islands. Proceeding westward, the rich

foliage of the willows along the river banks, and the thickets, or rather forests, of mimosa trees spreading for a mile on either side, form a striking contrast to the parched-up plains in the vicinity. Another magnificent waterfall occurs at 20.30. E., when the accumulating floods of the Gariep are hurried in inconceivable grandeur over a fall 400 feet in height; its natural breadth of 500 to 600 yards being previously confined to a bed of scarcely 100 feet in breadth. This was named King George's Cataract by the discoverer, Mr. Thompson, in 1824. The chief source of the river is in the Mambookie mountains, near Port Natal, which are a continuation of the Roggeveld or Sneuberg range.

Great Namaqualand extends to the Damara country, about 200 miles to the northward of the Gariep, and the same distance eastward from the sea-coast; it is separated from the Bechuana country by an extensive tract, said to be totally uninhabitable, on account of want of water. The soil is in general light, sandy, and thinly clothed with a tufted grass; some plains towards the Borrodaile mountains, in 17.30. E. Long., are reported to be much more fertile in pasturage than the rest of the country, and there are scattered here and there copious fountains, affording eligible situations for permanent villages.

SWELLENDAM DISTRICT extends from the Langehoogte to the Gauritz river in length, and from the sea-coast to the Great Zwarte-Berg, or Black Mountain range, in breadth; containing about 9,000

square miles, and divided into 23 field cornetcies or wards. The district is fertile and improving. Swellendam village is 150 miles from Cape Town, and the pretty station of Caledon is 80 miles from the seat of Government. The peach and fig flourish here luxuriantly.

Port Beaufort, or St. Sebastian's Bay, at the mouth of the Breede River, enjoys a considerable coasting trade. The advantages of Breede River, which is nearly a mile wide at its mouth, are very striking; a free wind out is the leading wind to all voyages to the eastward, and vessels prevented from entering the river lay-to in the adjoining bay, in smooth water, the wind being then off the land. The bay, which is within one mile of the river, is one of the best landing places in the colony, and well adapted for a fishing establishment. There are several fountains of the purest water on the beach.

Caverns.—Directly across the Zwartebergs and in the small secluded tract called the Caugo, are some remarkable caverns discovered by a Boor, in 1780, and visited by Mr. Thompson in 1823. The mouth of the grotto (which is in the side of a rocky hill, forming part of the Black Mountains) has the appearance of an irregular, dark-looking gateway, about twenty feet in height. For 200 feet the entrance is in a crooked but horizontal direction, when an abrupt precipice is reached, of about thirty-three feet, descended by a ladder; on reaching the bottom a magnificent apartment is entered, about

600 feet in length by 100 feet broad, and varying in height from sixty to seventy feet. This hall is adorned with the most splendid stalactites, some in the shape of columns, rising to the height of forty feet (one of the majestic height of sixty feet), others assuming the fantastic forms of cauliflowers, festoons, cascades, pulpits, animals, drapery, and grotesque figures of every variety. Many of these stalactites are quite transparent, and reflect the glare of the torches with a very brilliant and enchanting effect. This splendid chamber was named after its discoverer, Van-Zyl's Hall; from thence a long range of apartments open up one beyond another; the first is about forty feet in diameter by thirty feet high, and is the vestibule for a noble apartment, 140 feet in length and breadth by fifty in height, ornamented also with gorgeous stalactites. A sort of gallery leads out of this, about fifteen feet in breadth, and at the entrance twenty in height, but narrowing so, that at sixty feet distance it is but six feet high, when another abrupt descent of about fourteen feet is arrived at, opening to a vast chamber, 500 feet in length by fifty broad, and from twenty to forty high; the termination, beyond which no further discovery was made, being about 1,500 feet from the entrance. There are many small chambers opening out of the great gallery, or range of state apartments: one is hung round with stalactites resembling icicles; another very beautiful one is called the bath, on account of its containing several curious natural cisterns, formed by petrification, and resembling marble

basins hollowed by art in the living rock, the artificial appearance of which is kept up by the bath, being full of delightfully cool and limpid fresh water.

GEORGE DISTRICT, situate on the S.E. coast of the colony, was separated from the district of Swellendam in 1811, and erected into a *drostdy*, under Lord Caledon's government; it is skirted by the Swellendam on the W., Beaufort on the N., Uitenhage on the N.E., and the Southern Ocean on the S. It is divided into twelve field cornetcies, comprising 4,032 square miles. George Town is pleasantly situated on an extensive plain, about a mile from the foot of a lofty mountain, and seven miles from the sea-coast; it is divided into several streets with handsome houses, and is rapidly improving.

Mossel Bay in this district is, next to Simon's Bay, one of the safest havens on the E. coast of the colony, and calculated to receive vessels of every description.

Plettenberg Bay, distant from Cape Town 400 miles, is equally safe, eligible, and commodious, affording safe anchorage in eight, nine, and ten fathoms water, particularly during strong N.N.W. gales. All the bays on the E. coast of the colony are more or less exposed to the S.E. winds, but Plettenberg Bay is roomy, and vessels can slip their cables, if necessary, with safety.

The fine harbour of the *Knysna* would contain 50 large ships secure from all winds, but the entrance is narrow and intricate. An admirable ship-building

establishment might be formed here.* Towards the Knysna the coast is picturesque, and intersected by innumerable deep ravines, fringed with forests along their steep banks of from 200 to 300 feet high; each of these ravines conveying to the ocean mountain streams.

The territory around, formerly called *Outeniqua land*, so much celebrated for fine scenery and inexhaustible forests, is picturesque, and imposing in a high degree; the lofty rugged mountains on the left, crested with clouds, and clothed with majestic timber, almost as ancient as the rocks which frown above them, or the vast ocean which murmurs at their feet, form a scene of grandeur, which fills the imagination with the sublimest images.

The mountain ranges along the eastern coast are skirted by an extensive and almost impenetrable forest, through which there are several passes, or *kloofs*; proceeding by the *Paarden Kop* path to the lofty summit of the *Centerberg*, the view is splendid; *Plettenberg's Bay* and the *Knysna*, with the broad ocean lying far below to the southward, while to the northward a mass of wild mountain scenery extends

* Sir Jahleel Brenton, the late Naval Commissioner at the Cape, proposed to the Admiralty to build a frigate here; the Board directed him to construct first a vessel of 200 tons; this was commenced, and nearly finished, when unfortunately a fire broke out and consumed the frame; since this accident no attempt has been made to renew ship-building, a circumstance much to be regretted, on account of the excellent timber in the vicinity.

itself in grand confusion as far as the eye can reach ; descending the ridge to the N.E. are a succession of sweet and solitary valleys, surmounted by rugged mountain peaks.

Kammanassie mountain is surrounded with pasture lands and woody hills, that lead down to the *Lange Kloof*, or *Long Pass*, a delightful valley beneath the mountains, along which runs one of the best roads in the colony. Here a series of rich pastures burst into view, bordered by a profusion of heath plants, and studded with farm-houses, to the length of 150 miles,* around which vineyards and orangeries thrive in exquisite luxuriance.

UITENHAGE DISTRICT, on the E. coast, is skirted on the S. by the Southern Ocean, on the N. by the districts of *Graaff Reinet* and *Somerset*, on the W. by *George*, and E. by *Albany* district, comprising 8,960 square miles. It has two bays on the coast, *Algoa* and *St. Francis*; and its principal rivers are *Sunday's*, *Zwaartkops*, *Camtoos*, *Kromme*, and *Bushman's*, none of them navigable except *Zwaartkops*, and that only partially, but some are of essential service for irrigation.

The mouth of the *Zwaartkops* is in Lat. 33.51.24. S., Long. 25.34.45 E. Capt. Moeresby thinks it is a stream which may be considerably improved as civilization extends ; there are now in the river the remains of a Dutch ship of 200 tons.

Five miles from the *Zwaartkops* is the *Kuga River*,

* By a regulation of the Dutch government, the farms are required to be three miles distant from each other.

in Lat. 33.47.19 S., Long. 25.48.36 E. ; thence to the *Sunday River*, in Lat. 33.43.06 S., Long. 25.45.33 E., is nine miles ; between this point and *Cape Receiffe*, a long and low spit of rocks and sand hills (Lat. 34.02 S., long. 25.39. E.) may properly be denominated—

Algoa Bay, the chief haven of the eastern province, one of the winter harbours of the colony, and a free port, which is rapidly rising in importance. The security of this bay is not generally known ; I visited it in his Majesty's ship *Leven*, in 1823, and during a heavy gale we rode in perfect safety, with a chain bent on to a hemp cable : the vessel rode by the weight of the chain without straining the anchor. Capt. Moresby says, " Had I my choice of trusting my ship for the year round to Torbay in England, Palmero Bay in Sicily, Table Bay, or Algoa Bay, I should without hesitation prefer the latter ; from the 1st April (the beginning of winter) to the 1st September (its close) the wind scarcely ever blows from the S.E." Not an accident happened in landing 1,020 men, 607 women, and 2,032 children, as English emigrants in 1820 ; the debarkation extending from the middle of April to the 25th June. There is, however, much want of a jetty for landing goods and passengers, as in some seasons the surf rolls in with great violence, and common boats are not safe, a beaching or surf boat being requisite. A light-house also is very desirable ; *Cape Receiffe** would

* Nautical directions for the harbours of this coast, and also for other places, will be found in the large edition of this Work.

form the most eligible site, and its erection would be highly advantageous to all ships bound to or from India;* on this ground the Commissioners consider that the expense might justly be defrayed by England, while the colony would be charged with the current expense of the light.

The town of *Algoa Bay*, termed *Port Elizabeth*, which is three miles east of *Cape Receiffe*, is rapidly rising into eminence, and as it is free (without even any port charges), it bids fair at some not far distant day to rival *Cape Town*.

Uitenhage, the capital of the district, is a neat and flourishing town, built on a large, well-watered plain, and along the declivity of a hill on the left bank of the *Zwaartkops River*, from the mouth of which it is distant 15 miles; about 18 from *Algoa Bay*, or *Port Elizabeth*, and 500 from *Cape Town*. The houses are, generally speaking, large and substantially erected, the streets are spacious, intersecting each other at right angles, and with numerous and extensive gardens and orchards, so that, when viewed from the surrounding hills, the prospect is charmingly picturesque. It is proposed, and I wish the proposal were adopted, to make *Uitenhage* or *Graham's Town* the seat of a Lieutenant-Governorship for the Eastern District of the colony.

From *Addo's height*, near *Sunday River*, the view

* 302 British ships proceeded from the United Kingdom to the eastward of the Cape of Good Hope in 1834, of which 215 went from London, 68 from Liverpool, and 24 from the other outports.

is magnificent; *Algoa Bay* with its shipping constitutes a principal feature in the scene; running quite inland are seen those naked mountains which form a marine belt almost the whole way from *Cape Town*; on every side are fine undulating hills, here and there the summit covered with shrubs or verdant grass, with numerous herds of deer pasturing. The bush is formed into shrubberies of various shades of green, the air perfumed with every variety of geraniums and violet heaths, and the *tout ensemble* of the country, although perfectly wild, is so enchanting, that to be appreciated it should be visited.

ALBANY, at present* the most easterly district of the colony, and comprising that tract of country formerly known to the colonists as the 'Zuurveld,' or sour fields, has for its boundaries on the east the *Keiskamma*† as far as its junction with the *Chumie*, which it follows in a right line towards the *Winterberg*, where it joins the district of *Somerset*; on the west *Bushman's River*; on the south the *Southern Ocean*, and on the north an imaginary line extending from the *Zuurberg* by *Junctions Drift* to the confluence of the *Soso* with the *Konap*, which latter it follows to the *Winterberg*.

Its greatest breadth from a little below the junction of the *Nozen* and *Bushman Rivers* is 90 miles

* I say at present, because I hope soon to see Natal colonized.

† Formerly the great *Fish River* was the boundary, but the territory lying between that river and the *Keiskamma* may now be considered a part of the district.

(mean breadth 60), the length from *Winterberg* to the mouth of *Keiskamma*, nearly north to south, is 100 miles (mean 80), and the area 4,800 square miles, or 3,072,000 English acres, partitioned into four sub-divisions, viz. *Graham's Town*, *Bathurst*, *Bushman's River*, and *Fish River*, each under the superintendence of a Field Cornet. *Albany* is divided by nature into two equal parts by a chain of mountains which intersect it in a direction from N.W. to S.E., and give a peculiar agricultural character to each.

Although the whole district has a very pleasing aspect, the S.W. is the most beautiful; but on either side of the mountains, the country is diversified by gentle undulations, by precipitous woody ravines or *kloofs*, and by stupendous *poorts* or passes through the mountains, while the whole face of the district, with few exceptions, is covered with a verdant pasturage, adorned here and there with groves of evergreens, presenting on an extended natural scale the richest English park scenery.

Graham's Town, the principal station in the east district of the Cape, is situate nearly in the centre of *Albany*, at the base of the chain of mountains before alluded to, and on the chief branch of the *Kowie River*, which flows through its main street, fertilizing the numerous gardens and orchards with which the town is intersected, and rendering the contrast of evergreen arbours a strong relief to the neighbouring mountains, with their numerous rugged peaks and precipices.

Graham's Town contains nearly 1,000 houses, with

about 5,000 inhabitants, and several excellent public buildings and institutions, two public libraries, and an Englishman's indispensable accompaniment, a printing-office, whence is issued a well-conducted weekly newspaper. *Graham's Town* is distant from *Cape Town* 650 miles, from *Port Elizabeth* 100, from the nearest point of the coast 30, and 35 miles from the mouth of the *Kowie River*; the navigation of which is, unfortunately, like that of the other rivers on the coast, obstructed by a bar of sand. It derives its name from the amiable and gallant Colonel Graham, to whose memory a monument is erected in the Episcopal Church of St. George's at *Graham's Town*, with an inscription, of which the following is part:—"Colonel John Graham, during his command on the frontier, civilized the Hottentots,—taught them religion, morality, and industry,—made them efficient and active soldiers, obedient in command, and fearless in danger," &c. It is pleasing thus to find the memory of Britain's sons revered and perpetuated at the extremity of the south African continent.

Port Frances is situate at the mouth of the *Kowie*, and as the population increases, and means are taken to remove the bar from the harbour, will, doubtless, become a resort of coasting vessels.* *Bathurst* is

* The location formerly possessed by Mr Thornhill, lying in the angle formed by the left bank of the river with the sea, is one of the most beautiful spots in Albany, with lawns and copse-woods, laid out by the hand of Nature, that far surpass many a nobleman's park in England.

picturesquely situate 9 miles from *Port Frances*, on a tongue of land, formed by the junction of the *Bathurst* and *Holloway* streams with the *Kowie River*. It was intended by Sir Rufane Donkin, when acting Governor at the Cape, as the principal town and seat of the magistracy for the district, but the design was abandoned by Sir Rufane's successor. The situation of *Bathurst* is, indeed, as healthy as the surrounding country is beautiful; the neighbouring hills are almost always clothed with verdure, and the elevated sight of the village commands a fine view of the Southern Ocean. Along the coast, the scenery is more than ordinarily rich: clumps of *mimosas* are interspersed over the extensive savannas, giving to the landscape a park-like appearance; the various tribes of the vegetable kingdom thrive luxuriantly, and the deep foliage of the forest and coppice presents to the eye a thousand lively and variegated tints.

An interesting settlement has been formed on the *Kat River*, which is a combination of the numerous streams flowing from the mountains. The location consists entirely of coloured people, being a mixture of Hottentots, and what are termed *Baastards*, now nearly 3,000 in number, and divided into district locations by the Government. This settlement, from the richness of the valleys, and the means taken to irrigate them by means of the mountain streams, is one of the most promising establishments of the colony. It owes its origin to the liberality of General Bourke, one of whose last

legislative acts at the Cape was to place the Aborigines and all other coloured classes of free inhabitants on an equal footing with the rest of the King's subjects. Much outcry was raised against the measure, and Sir Lowry Cole arrived at the Cape as Governor, during the ferment created by it. Sir Lowry wisely adopted General Bourke's enactment, and prevented its becoming a dead letter, by locating the Hottentots on the *Kat River*, whence *Mukomo*, the Caffre chief, had recently been expelled by reason of his repeated outrages and marauding incursions among the British settlers. Sir Lowry made choice of such Hottentots as were of good character, particularly discharged soldiers, and such as had some little property; to these he gave land in allotments, amidst the fastnesses and valleys of our E. frontier, where they form an interposing barrier between the Europeans and the Caffres. The Hottentots have shewn themselves worthy of such liberal and generous treatment; they have gallantly beaten off the Caffres, industriously cultivated the ground, and have now many thousand head of horses, cattle, sheep, &c.; thus proving that they are not the degraded beings they have been so long and so unjustly represented.

From the *Kowie* to the *Fish River* mouth, the country is very rich and beautiful, in a belt of about seven miles in breadth from the sea, from which it is separated by high sand hills, covered towards the land with bush and the most luxuriant herbage; there are no intervening rocks rugged and bare, as on

the other side of the belt, where they run to a considerable extent E. and W., but are gradually mouldering away. When the land is ploughed along the mountain-belt, sea-shells are turned up in the most perfect state of preservation. The prospect here varies every five miles, the road lying sometimes through an extensive plain, forming one grand and noble park, bounded on the S. by gently swelling hills, ornamented with clumps and groves, from the height of which the view is magnificent, while on the S. side stretches the unbounded ocean, and towards the land the *Bushman* and *Graham's Town* hills, &c. ; at other times the road lies among hills, variegated with extensive forests of evergreens,—anon, along the banks of rivulets or through valleys, shaded with a lofty canopy of trees,* and deliciously scented with luxuriant flowering shrubs. The *Great Fish River*, which runs through *Albany*, is as yet imperfectly explored, particularly towards its source, which is 200 miles from the ocean. It rises in the *Sneeuwberg* range of mountains, at no great distance from the elevated peak called the *Taay-Bosch-Berg*, a singular hill, resembling a cylinder placed upon a cone. The principal source, however, is in the *Compasberg* (a peak of the *Sneeuwberg* range), which rises to the height of 7,400 feet above the level of the sea, and is the highest point in the colony, except the *Winter Berg*, on the E. frontier, whose height has not yet

* The *Coralodendron*, a deciduous tree, which grows as tall and stately as the finest oak, is here seen to great advantage, as it is in general concealed in deep *kloofs*,

been accurately ascertained. From the whole extent of the elevated ridge of *Caffraria*, run long tongues of land and ravines of vast depth, towards the celebrated *Trompetter* or *Trumpeter* flat bed of the *Great Fish River*; along whose banks (as also at *Fort Wiltshire*, on the *Keiskamma*) the prospect is of the grandest character,—the stupendous mountains and precipices, amongst which the river glides, together with the beautifully serpentine course of the stream, and the scenery of the valleys on each side, render the view highly imposing. The course of the *Fish River* is, owing to the nature of the country, extremely tortuous, and it inosculates with several minor streams—one of the branches being called the *Little Fish River*, another the *Kunap*, and another the *Kat River*. From the junction of the latter the range of the river becomes more extended; its E. bank, running directly towards the advanced range of *Botha's hills*, winds along the base of the *Zwart Tafel Bergen*, thus occupying the whole of the valley as far as the *Trompetter* drift or ford: four miles below this it makes its last great bend, and then runs in a direct line to the ocean—the tide rising only a few miles above the *Cafferdrift* post. Its embouchure has a bar, on which the surf breaks high, but within this, the mouth of the river expands into a magnificent sheet of water, extending eight or ten miles into the country, and which is wide and deep enough to afford anchorage for a large fleet.

The prospect indeed within the entrance of the river is magnificent, the water perfectly transparent,

flowing amidst verdant hills, shaded by lofty evergreens, and the whole view terminated by the Southern Ocean. The sand bar across the river (which is hard and dry) is about 600 yards in a direct line, leaving only thirty yards for the water passage, the tide not rising more than five feet.

About an hour's walk along the coast from the river's mouth are some remarkable sandstone rocks, the softest part of the base of which has been perforated by the sea, leaving a singular platform covered with shoals of muscles. The upper part has the appearance of the friezed ornaments of a cathedral, surmounted by a perfect cross, and when struck with a stone, the fantastic natural structure sounds like metal. The surf breaks with tremendous violence along this coast, particularly in a S. E. wind, throwing up trees and branches, and presenting the appearance of a wrecked fleet.

Before leaving the coast line of the colony, I may observe, in answer to those who erroneously consider South-East Africa valueless, that one of our most distinguished naval officers, Captain W. F. W. Owen, in reference to the advantages of the Lagullas bank as a fishing station, which he considers equal to those of Newfoundland, observes, that there are many desirable situations along the S. coast for the establishment of fishing towns; amongst others may be enumerated *Hout, Table, Simon's,* and *Gordon Bays*: to the eastward of *Cape Hanglip* is also a large bay; the E. side of the peninsula of *Cape Vachez* offers no less than three good harbours. Between

Mossel and *Plettenberg Bays* is the *River Knysna*, an excellent port; and within sight of the latter, the bays of *St. Francis* and *Algoa*. From *Cape Padrone*, along the E. coast, there are numerous situations for such establishments.*

The other rivers on the S.E. coast are the *Gauritz River*, which collects its waters from the *Black Mountains* and *Karoo Plains*, and during the rains is exceedingly rapid; the *Camtoos*, which is supplied from a more easterly part of the country, and empties itself into a bay of the same name; within the bar it is deep enough to float a ship of the line: and the *Sunday*, which rises in the *Sneeuwberg* or *Snowy Mountains*, and falls into *Algoa Bay*.

SOMERSET DISTRICT, formed in 1825, from a tract of country partitioned from *Albany* and *Graaff Reinet*, is bounded on the S. by an imaginary line, drawn from *Sunday River's Point* to the junction of the *Soso* with the *Koonap*; on the E. by *Koonap Kiver* and *Winterberg* (which separates it from the country of Bushmen), and from thence to the *Zwart-Kei* and *Stormberg Rivers*; on the N. by the *Orange River*, and on the W. by the *Sunday River*, *Little Reit River*, *Plot River*, and *Brandt Spuit*; it is divided into eight field cornetcies,—viz. *Upper Bushman's River*, *Bruintjes Hoogte*, *Zwoger's Hoek*, *Agter Sneeuwberg*, *Tarka*, *Brak River*, *Glenlynden*, and *East Reit River*; the greatest length of the district being 200 miles, its mean breadth 85,

* Narrative of voyages in H.M.S. '*Leven and Barracouta*;' London, 1833.

with a superficial area of 17,000 square miles, or 10,879,964 acres.*

The scenery throughout so large a district is varied by a chain of lofty mountains (rising at the village of *Somerset* to 3,000 feet high), stretching across it, for 150 miles, in the south-easterly direction to the *Kat River*.

Somerset Drostdy, or *Town*, lies at the S. base of the *Boschberg Range*, with the *Little Fish River* in the front. The mountain towers up immediately behind the village about 2,000 feet, exhibiting a magnificent front, clothed with hanging woods, diversified with hoary rocks and step buttresses of green turf; after heavy rains a number of little cascades appear flashing over the wooded cliffs, rendering the front of the mountain superbly beautiful.

Cradock is 70 miles N.E. of *Somerset*, on the left bank of the *Great Fish River*, lying in the direct road from *Albany* to the usual passes across the N. frontier on the road to *Griqua Town*, *Lata-koo*, and other important trading stations in the interior. *Cradock* is fast improving, and now contains nearly 500 inhabitants.

Baviaan's River (River of Baboons), now called the *Lynden*, is one of the smallest branches of the *Great Fish River*, flowing from the N. E., and watering a rugged mountain glen of about 30 miles

* The population in this vast district is not two to the square mile. What a contrast to Ireland, where there are upwards of 300 !

in extent, the scenery through which is in many places of the most picturesque and singular description; sometimes the valley widens out, leaving space along the river side for fertile meadows,* prettily sprinkled over with *mimosa* trees and evergreen shrubs, and clothed with luxuriant pasturage. Frequently the mountains again converge, leaving only a narrow defile, just broad enough for the stream to find a passage, while precipices of naked rock rise abruptly like the walls of a rampart, to the height of many hundred feet, in some places overhanging the gloomy-looking defile, through which the devious path lies. On either side, the steep hills often assume very remarkable shapes, embattled as it were with natural ramparts of freestone or trap rock, and garrisoned with troops of large baboons. The lower declivities are covered with good pasturage, and sprinkled with evergreens and acacias, while the cliffs that overhang the river have their wrinkled fronts embellished with various species of succulent plants and flowering aloes. Owing to the rapid decomposition of the sandstone formation in this climate, some of the cliffs have assumed such a grotesqueness and singularity of appearance, that with a little aid from the imagination, the spectator may fancy he sees the ruins of

* The lamented Mr. Pringle, whose African sketches give so homelike and pleasing a view of the location of the Scottish settlers in this glen, in 1820, calls these spots *haughs*, which is the term used in the S. of Scotland; he states that the grass was then (June) up to the bellies of the deer.

Egyptian, Hindoo, and Persian temples, with their half-decayed obelisks, columns, or monster deities. The valley in which the Scotch settlers were located in 1820 is at the extremity of this glen, being a beautiful vale, through which the Lynden meanders, about seven miles in length, and varying from one to two in breadth, appearing like a verdant basin, surmounted on all sides by an amphitheatre of lofty mountains towering to the height of from 2,000 to 3,000 feet above the vale, and from 4,000 to 5,000 feet above the level of the sea, and capped with snow in the South African winter, June and July, when snow also falls in the glen.

Koonap River Post, about 60 miles from *Graham's Town*, nearly N.N.W., 48 miles due E. from *Somerset*, and 25 W. from *Beaufort*, occupies the summit of an elevated peninsula, between the junctions of the *Cowie* and *Gola Rivers* with the *Koonap*, forming the pass between *Kromme* and *Cowie Mountains*, and the favourite inlet for the *Caffers* into the colony. The *Kromme* or *Karoom* extends to within a short distance of *Fort Beaufort*. The *Cowie* is an irregular mountain, united to the *Kakaberg* upon the N.W., of considerable elevation, and clothed with timber to its summit.

The post forms the left of a chain of somewhat similar defence, extending from the *Keiskamma* on the E., or right, by *Fort Beaufort*, upon the *Kat River*, to the *Koonap* upon the W. or left. The soil is a rich marl, in many places several feet in depth; sometimes interspersed with loose fragments of sand, or freestone.

Graaff Reinets District, founded by Van der Graaff, in 1766, whose name it received in conjunction with that of his lady, is bounded on the N. by the *Orange River*, on the south by *Uitenhage*, on the east by *Pleat River*, and on the west by *Zwaart Bergen*, and, including the subdivision of *Beaufort*, contains 52,000 square miles, or 33,280,000 acres.

Graaff Reinets town, situate at the base of the *Sneeuwberg Mountains*, is built in a sort of basin, almost encircled by the deep channel of the *Sunday River*, and closely environed by an amphitheatre of steep, rugged mountains; it contains about 500 houses, almost all of which are neat and commodious brick edifices, and many of them might be entitled elegant structures; each house has a large allotment of ground behind it, extending in some instances to several acres, which are richly cultivated, laid out in orchards, gardens, and vineyards, and divided by quince, lemon, or pomegranate hedges. The streets are wide, constructed at right angles, and planted with rows of lemon and orange trees, which thrive here luxuriantly, and give to the town a fresh and pleasing appearance. The gardens and orchards, &c., are watered by a canal from the *Sunday River*, which branches out into a number of small channels, each inhabitant receiving his due portion of the vivifying stream at a fixed hour. The population is at present from 2,000 to 3,000. The distances from *Graaff Reinets* in English miles are—to *Graham's Town*, 157; *Somerset*, 167; *Cradock*, 72; *Uitenhage*, 225; *Beaufort*, 121; *Griqua Town*, 250;

Latakoo, 390 ; Campbell's Town, 240 ; Philipolis, 178 ; Caledon River Station, 155 ; Modder River, or Platberg, 300.

The country north of Graaff Reinets town is elevated, and continues rising to the Sneeuwberg Mountains, the loftiest of which is termed the *Compass-berg*. The result of Dr. Smith's observations as to the height of the *Compass-berg*, was with a single barometer,—

Barometer.	Thermometer.
Lower station, 23,986	47½ water boiled.
Higher do. 22,232	58 at 188.

The observations at the higher station were taken at 60 feet from the summit, making therefore the elevation of the mountain about 2,100 feet above the adjacent plain ; the average density of the atmosphere at Algoa Bay is $29\frac{1}{2}$, which, without allowing for any difference of temperature, will give about 7,400 feet above the level of the sea.

The *Compass-berg* gives off on one side the principal stream of the Great Fish River, and on the other the *Zeekoe*, a large branch of the Gariep or Orange River ; the waters of the former flowing to the Indian Ocean, and those of the latter to the Atlantic. The mountain is 50 miles from Graaff Reinets, from whence the land is one continued ascent.

The country north of the Sneeuwberg Mountains, after passing the *Compass-berg*, and on the east side of the *Zeekoe* River, gradually becomes more open, and extensive plains spread before the eye,

covered with game and wild animals of every variety. The land declines towards the north, with many insulated hills dispersed over it, rising abruptly, and separated like sugar-loaves placed upon a table.

The *Zeekoe River*, at *Plettenberg's Baaken* (a stone erected by Mr. Van Plettenberg in 1771 to mark the Dutch boundary of the colony), is still an inconsiderable stream, but standing here and there in large pools, or, as the colonists call them, *Zeekoe gats*, deep enough to float a man-of-war; about 35 miles below this it falls into the *Cradock*, which is one of the principal branches of the *Gariep*, the confluence of the latter being about 100 miles to the N.W.

The *Cradock* or *Black River*, at about 80 miles from its confluence with the *Gariep*, is 400 yards broad, four to five feet deep, and gliding to the N.W. with a steady current; the banks are lined with fine willow trees, bending gracefully over the stream; to the N. and N.W. is an extensive and almost boundless landscape, adorned with natural groves, thousands of large game, and numbers of the feathered tribes, from the gigantic eagle to the beautiful turtle-dove. The scenery at the junction of the *Cradock* and *Yellow River*, with their main branch, the *Gariep*, is considered by Mr. Thompson as the most magnificent he had seen in South Africa; the confluence of water he describes as immense, and the banks steep and overhanging with majestic willow trees. Proceeding beyond

Griqua Town N., the country opens into extensive plains, covered with long grass, and studded with acacias. *Campbell's Doorp*, a Griqua village,* is situate on the left bank of the Yellow River; the inhabitants possess large herds of cattle and sheep, and a great number of excellent horses.

The district of Beaufort, which may be deemed a part of the large division of Graaff Reinet, is thus described in a local journal at the Cape:—

“ The district of Beaufort has hitherto not excited much attention among persons desirous of investing capital in sheep-farming. Recent events, however, give reason to suppose that its capabilities are now beginning to be understood. Several gentlemen have recently purchased large estates; and it is understood that there is a considerable demand existing, at present, in Cape Town.

The district has long been considered by its inhabitants as one of the best in the colony for sheep-farming. No stronger proof of this could, perhaps, be adduced, than the circumstance (unparalleled, it is believed, in any other district), that almost all the farmers who emigrated from it beyond the Orange River have returned, or are returning to it, *because* they have found, by dear-bought experience (*viz.* a diminution of from one-half to three-fourths of

* The Griquas, or *Baastards*, are a pastoral tribe originally descended from the intercourse of the Dutch with Hottentot women, and are in number about 5,000, living N. of the Orange River; there are also locations of them in other parts of the country.

their flocks), that the sheep pasturage beyond the Orange River is inferior to what they left behind.

The Cape Town butchers are well aware that they nowhere obtain sheep in better condition for the knife than in this district ; and as it is nearer Cape Town than any other of the great sheep districts, they give it the preference, both because it is attended with less expense and loss, to purchase and drive the sheep to market, and because they arrive there in much better order than if they had to travel perhaps twice the distance.

It is true that the district is more subject to drought than those nearer the sea. Drought is, indeed, almost the only thing the farmer has to fear ; and it is satisfactory, therefore, that the evil may, in a great measure, be remedied at no great outlay of capital. On every farm there are many places where extensive reservoirs, capable of containing immense quantities of rain-water, from one year's end to the other, might be constructed at little expense.

The evil is, not that rain does not fall at all (for in summer the thunder-storms are frequently awful), but that it falls with such force that, instead of soaking into the ground, it flows over the surface, until it gets into the channel of some river, by which it reaches the sea ; and this, owing to the great fall in the land, it very quickly does. These rains, therefore do not benefit the springs, and it is surprising to see how strong they continue, notwithstanding the drought. The late drought, which prevailed over almost the whole colony, scarcely at all affected the

springs in the grazing parts of this district, while the usually strong springs of Graaff Reinets and Sneeuwberg, as well as Zwarteberg, in this district, were much weakened. This appears to indicate that the sources of the springs lie deep; and, no doubt, by the application of capital and science, much more water might be brought to the surface.

The most obvious and cheapest plan, however, appears to be, the construction of reservoirs for rain-water; and the best situations are gently sloping valleys, which become narrow at the lower end, where the embankment must be made. They ought also to have outlets for the superfluous water, somewhere near the upper end. There are many such valleys, with openings not more than 20 or 30 yards wide, and varying from half a mile to two or three miles in length, and half a mile in breadth, with fine clayey bottoms.

It should not be forgotten also, that a dry climate has its advantages, as well as disadvantages, in the breeding of stock. The influence of climate on the health of sheep, in particular, is notorious. Nothing is more pernicious to them, or causes more diseases among them, than wet. In fact, almost all the diseases by which they are afflicted are referable to this cause. The *Jaag*, *Tong*, *Lam*, *Klauw*, and *Brandziekte*, so prevalent in wet districts, are here, it may be said, altogether unknown. The only disease of any importance affecting sheep here is the *Geil* or *Gras-ziekte*. Being caused solely by superabundance

of food, and too great luxuriance of pasture, it may be easily guarded against.

No disease affects horned cattle or horses, with the exception of the distemper among the latter. On the lowland farms it has sometimes caused heavy losses, but it is unknown on the hill farms. Cattle and horses graze at large both day and night, and no kind of stock is ever put under cover at any time.

Another advantage arising from the dryness of the climate is the sweetness of the herbage, which causes it to be much relished by the stock. All kinds of stock, from whatever part of the colony they may come, are sure to thrive. The Merino sheep thrive, in general, as well as the Cape sheep; and in dry seasons, better.

From their situation on and near the Nieuwveld Mountains, the farms for sale are less liable to drought than most others in the district; and, on some of these, both pasture and water are always abundant.

The calculations of the stock that may be kept on the farms are made on the supposition of average seasons. In excessively dry seasons, severe losses are sustained by the farmers; but these are more than compensated in good seasons—as then the ewes lamb twice within the year, without injury to them; and the number of twins is considerable.

The pasturage in this district being principally heath and powerfully aromatic shrubs, and therefore

better adapted for sheep than for cattle or horses, grassy farms are, from their scarceness, very valuable. The charge, in good seasons, for grazing ten sheep per month is about *3d.*, and for one ox or horse, *9d.* In bad seasons, the charge is for the sheep *9d.*, and for the horse or ox *1s. 6d.* Often *2s. 6d.*, and at the least *1s. 6d.* per month, was always paid for horses and cattle grazing at Groot Valley, or Matjes Valley, or Cafferskraal, or Zout River's Poort; and, on several occasions, *7s. 6d.* per head was paid for cattle at the last-mentioned farm by the owners, who were desirous of fattening them quickly. It may safely be assumed that where one horse or ox can be kept, ten sheep will thrive: but as pasturage for cattle or horses is more valuable, because scarcer, than pasturage for sheep, the latter are never allowed to graze on lands adapted for horses or cattle.

With the exception of Matjes Valley and Groot Valley, and, at most, two or three other farms similarly situated, no attempt is ever made to sow grain in this district, without having sufficient water to irrigate the land. But there is no doubt that, with little outlay, the springs might be made to irrigate a much greater extent of land, and also that reservoirs for rain-water might be constructed, with success, for the same purpose.

Wheat generally yields a return of 40 and 50 for one, when one-sixth of a muid, or half a bushel, is sown per acre, and that on land which has been under a grain crop for many years without manure:—and it is no uncommon thing, when there is a sufficiency of water for irrigation, to take two crops in

the year from the same land. If manure were applied, as it is in the upper districts, there would be no crop at all for the first two years, nor would there be a good one even in the third year. In one instance, a very valuable vineyard and many fine trees were destroyed by an upper country farmer applying manure in too great a quantity. The average price of wheat, for the last three years, has been Rds. 350 per load.

The vines are generally planted at three feet apart both ways; and the produce is reckoned at two leaguers of must for every 1,000 vines. Brandy, about one-third of the strength of that distilled in the upper districts, on an average of the last three years, has fetched Rds. 240 per leaguer, and wine from Rds. 80 to Rds. 300, according to quality, but the best inferior to wine in common use in Cape Town. Raisins and dried fruits average $4\frac{1}{2}d.$ per pound.

There is a ready sale at Beaufort for all kinds of farm and garden produce, which fetch good prices. Butter, 1s. 6d. per lb.; barley, oats, and maize, 15s. per muid; fowls and ducks, 2s. 3d. each; eggs, 1s. per dozen; cabbages, 1s. each; potatoes, 22s. 6d. per muid; oranges, 3s. per 100; walnuts, 1s. per 100; almonds, 9d. per 100; beans and peas, 20s. per muid.

The roads throughout the district are, in general, good. The inhabitants have, at an expense of £450, lately completed a very good road over the Nieuwveld Mountains, by which all the hill farms will be much benefited; and it is in contemplation, and

will, without doubt, be accomplished, to make a road over the Zwartebergen to Mossel Bay, which would then be about six days' journey with a bullock-waggon from Beaufort, while Port Elizabeth is nine days, and Cape Town 15 days' journey. A road through Mosterds Hoek, or over Witzenberg, would shorten the last route by three days.

In comparing this district with others, as regards their respective capabilities for stock-farming, it should not be forgotten that there is no risk of annoyance or loss from any of the border tribes. As a proof of the general state of crime within the district, it may be mentioned that at the last two circuit courts, embracing a period of eleven months, the convictions for theft were only twelve; and in the court of the resident magistrate for the same period, only ten.

The foregoing statements have been made by the writer in the most sincere conviction of their truth. The opinions given have been formed after a residence in this district of eleven years, and an experience of six years as a farmer; and they are confirmed by every person who resides here, from whatever part of the colony he may have come."

" Beaufort, 26th September, 1840."

The country towards Latakoo, proceeding from the Griqua country, but particularly from Kuruman, exhibits immense plains waving with a sea of grass,*

* Mr. Thompson, in crossing one of these vast grassy plains, bounded only by the horizon, witnessed a mirage similar to

but thinly sprinkled with mimosas. Between Latakoo and Delagoa Bay, the country is equally fine, and thickly inhabited by different tribes.* *Kafferland Proper*, occupied by the *Amakosæ*, is a rectangular form of country, 150 miles long, average breadth 90, and area 13,500 square miles: on the

that detailed in vol. i. as occurring in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and which travellers have described as appearing in sandy plains. The country seemed to the eye as if it were a basin, the margin rising before and around at every step, the traveller (riding along a perfect plain) appearing still at the lowest focus.

* Two interesting expeditions have been set on foot to extend our knowledge of the country beyond Latakoo, and that inland from Delagoa Bay; one under the management of Dr. Smith, from Graaff Reinet; another, undertaken by the adventurous Captain Alexander, to proceed by sea to Delagoa Bay, and thence depart into the interior of the country. An expedition of a similar nature was planned by myself, in 1824, when at Delagoa Bay, in H.M.S. *Leven*. I proposed, however, to proceed up the Sofala River; the information I derived at Sofala, from the Portuguese and Moors, leading me to conclude that the river was navigable with canoes to a considerable extent. Some large towns (and it is said vast piles of ruins, with strange inscriptions, of which the natives know nothing) exist beyond the first range of mountains, which are stated to be frequented by white traders from the W. coast. My intention was to accompany these men on their return, or to endeavour to penetrate the country down to Latakoo and our own territories; Providence, however, determined otherwise; for the Delagoa and Mozambique fever, which swept off so many of my brother officers, left me for six months as helpless as an infant, and finally compelled me to quit the African coast.

W. it is bounded by the Chumie until its confluence with the Keiskamma ; on the E. by the Bashee or St. John's River ; on the S. by the sea, and on the N. by a high ridge of mountains, stretching into the vicinage of Delagoa Bay, and forming, to the westward, a part of the *Winterberg, Bushberg, and Bruintjes Hoogte Chain*; the range near *Mount Coke* is considerable, and its summit in the winter season frequently covered with snow for some months together. Along the base, there are here and there fine savannahs, beautifully intersected with small clumps of trees (the *yellow-wood* in particular is of vast size), and carpeted with a rich variety of herbaceous plants ; excellent streamlets, meandering amongst the shrubbery in the centre of the valleys, give life to the whole landscape. The Rev. Stephen Kay, who recently crossed this mountain range, during one of his missionary excursions, says, that, on gaining the summit, " fine grassy plains stretched before us, thickly inhabited, in every direction, it being the summer residence and grazing place of those clans who live along the base of the mountain. The pasturage was particularly good and very abundant ; the climate remarkably fine, and the general aspect of the country, the trees, and shrubs, strikingly resembled those in many parts of England ; numerous rills of sweet and limpid water rippled in various directions, and within short distances of each other, some pouring from projecting rocks, and most running over pebbly beds."

I could add my testimony to the foregoing, but I prefer giving that of Captain W. F. Owen, who

examined the coast, and who states, in the account of his surveying voyage, that, "from the Keiskamma to Delagoa Bay the sea boundary is one of the most varied and interesting that can possibly be imagined, presenting every diversity that rich hills and fertile meadows can produce; the mountainous range which divides the sea border from the interior is in some places 6,000 feet."

Captain Vidal, of his Majesty's vessel *Barracouta*, visited the coast of Natal in 1823, and describes it as looking like a large park, varied with hill and dale, displaying at times, through a luxuriant valley, the distant prospect of blue mountainous ridges; on a second approach to another part of the coast, the landscape was equally beautiful, clusters of trees, hills, vales, and glens, composing the fore-ground, while in the distance, divided by a deep valley or chasm, a range of craggy mountains extended in a parallel direction as far as the eye could see. On one occasion, the *Barracouta* sailed to within half a mile of a most interesting spot, where two ponderous black rocks arose from the surface of the ocean, about eighty feet, exhibiting through one of them the phenomenon of a natural archway, through which the surf beat on the rocks with so much violence as to break fifty feet from their base, although but little wind was blowing at the time.

The editor of the *Graham's Town Journal* has published at Graham's Town a very interesting sketch of Kaffraria, as defined at p. 52: he says:—

The whole of this tract of country is clothed with the finest

pasturage, far superior in general to that within the colonial boundary. The face of the country evidently improves as it extends further to the eastward. In the neighbourhood of the Umtata it assumes a truly beautiful appearance, and the soil is known to be of the most fertile character. Most of the streams are free from that admixture of saline matter, which is peculiar to those adjacent to and within the colony, and which renders them not only unpalatable, but in some cases highly injurious. The coast here is much bolder than that which skirts the colony; and it is believed and confidently affirmed, that the Umtata offers a safe and commodious haven for shipping.

At the mouth of a small river called the Umpakoo, situated a short distance to the west of the Umtata, is one of the greatest curiosities in Southern Africa. It is described as a mass of rock or iron-stone, stretching across the stream, and forming a dam to its waters. Through this obstacle the river has, however, forced a passage, and now presents a natural tunnel, about forty feet in diameter. This remarkable spot is usually designated by travellers "the hole in the wall." Notwithstanding the stream finds an outlet through the excavation, still the rock impedes the current to a considerable extent, and hence the waters collecting at the narrow entrance, spread themselves out and form a beautiful lagoon, giving an indescribable charm to the wild but romantic scenery around. The Rev. W. Shaw, who visited the spot in 1828, describes this scene in the following striking terms: "I never before felt," says he, "such sensations of admiration on viewing a landscape as those I was constrained to indulge during the few moments we halted, to look at this spot. The undulatory hills on each side of the river; the lagoon at the foot of the iron mountain; the tremendous breakers, incessantly roaring on the beach, and foaming through the perforation in the rock; the sun just setting, and on the opposite side of the horizon, the pale moon, having filled her horn, rising above the waters of the Southern Ocean, of which we had at the same moment an extensive

view, formed altogether such a grand and beautiful constellation of objects, that I felt considerable regret on leaving the spot."

Respecting the country beyond the range of mountains to the northward, nothing very accurate is known. From the reports, however, of those who have traversed it, it is said to be a most delightful tract, abounding with wood and water, diversified by ridges and valleys, and clothed with rich herbage. The mountains which divide it from the Bechuana country on the north, and from the Amakosa territory on the south, are exceedingly rugged, particularly the former, which are described as of so formidable and impracticable a character, that even Matiwana's people, a nation of freebooters, had the greatest difficulty in descending them into the depopulated country lying between the two ranges. They present nothing but a succession of the most frightful precipices, supporting, like stupendous buttresses, the immense plains and deserts of the interior. The unoccupied land forms a kind of shelf, being considerably higher than the country occupied by the Kafirs. Its extent is not accurately known; but as it took Matiwana three days to cross it, its width may be judged to be about sixty or seventy miles; in length, it stretches from the colonial frontier to the neighbourhood of Natal, a distance of at least four hundred miles; comprising an area of about twenty-four thousand square miles. Beyond the territory of the Amapondas, the whole of the country, from the mountains to the sea, for a distance of two hundred miles, is unoccupied by man; and hence it may be fairly calculated, that the waste lands bordering on the territories of the Kafirs do not fall short of forty thousand square miles.

Natal, the *locale* which the colonists are so desirous that our government should occupy, was purchased in 1689, by order of the Dutch East-India Company, for the sum of 20,000 guilders, who directed the Governor of the Cape of Good Hope,

M. F. de Chavonnes, by letter, dated Amsterdam, 23rd Dec. 1719, to form an establishment at Port Natal, and to hold it, with the purchased territory in its vicinity, as a dependency of this colony. In 1814, the Cape of Good Hope and its dependencies (including Natal) were formally ceded by the Dutch to Great Britain, and since the year 1834, Port Natal has been almost constantly occupied by British subjects, who resided there with the express permission of the governor of this colony.

The pastures of the country are of a character highly favourable. It is well wooded with large timber, and watered with upwards of 100 rivers and running streams, some of which are larger than the chief rivers of this colony. The soil is fertile, and has produced three crops of Caffer and Indian corn in the year.

Natal is situated between latitude 29° and $31^{\circ} 30'$ south, with above 300 miles of coast, and extending above 100 miles from the ocean north-westward. Between it and the colony of the Cape of Good Hope, is a tract of country about 500 miles in length, and generally well peopled by independent natives. In 1834, an officer of great experience and known caution, Dr. Andrew Smith, was sent to Natal by the governor of the Cape, expressly to examine the nature of the soil, and the capabilities of the country for colonization. Dr. Smith's report has been laid before the House of Commons; and it contains the details which follow in his own words:—

“The district in question,” says Dr. Smith, “is

bounded on the west by the Umzimvooba River, on the south by the sea, on the east by the Umgana River, and to the northward its limits have not been correctly ascertained. It may be estimated to comprehend about 20,000 square miles, the principal part of which is peculiarly fitted either for the objects of the agriculturist or the grazier. The more western portion presents numerous extensive flats, thickly covered with luxuriant grass, and abounds in rivers and rivulets, the waters of which could be led over thousands of acres at comparatively little expense—a feature in the character of the country that is hardly within the comprehension of the Cape colonist.

The middle and eastern divisions again exhibit a broken, undulating surface, and abound with low knolls, in some places clustered together, in others separate, and connected by rich meadow, covered with a most beautiful and abundant vegetation. Here the rivers are particularly numerous; and some of them, whose sources are far in the interior, are very large. The more considerable ones commonly run in deep channels; and from the banks being generally rather precipitous, their waters could not be made available for extensive irrigation; which, however, is of no importance, as the number of small rills and powerful springs which everywhere exist, render dependence upon the larger springs quite unnecessary. In many of the meadow, water was observed oozing out in every direction. Indeed, the best idea I can give of its peculiarity in this re-

20,000,000
 800,000
 20,000
 280,000

spect, is by stating, that what the traveller has to hunt after in other parts of South Africa with the most anxious solicitude, is here everywhere so close at hand as almost to constitute an inconvenience.

Trees fit for timber exist everywhere in sufficiency, but they are more abundant towards the eastern and western extremes. In those directions, forests of considerable extent occur, but without the great proportion of underwood which exists in those of the colony.

Such an effect was produced upon one of my party, a Dutch farmer, on our entrance into this beautiful country, that for several days he could scarcely give utterance to any thing but "Wonderful! I have never in my life seen such a fine place! I shall never again reside in the colony if the English government make this a settlement!"

Although, however, there was everywhere such an abundant supply of food for cattle, our oxen evidently lost flesh, a circumstance which led us to fear the grass was either of an unhealthy nature, or deficient in nutritive principles. Our farmer soon explained from what it arose, and satisfied me that in all countries where the grass is not burned from time to time, the same occurrence almost invariably happens to the cattle depastured upon it.

On approaching Port Natal, where we first came in contact with some of the natives, I eagerly questioned them in regard to the subject. They all with one accord attributed it to the cause just mentioned; to a man affirming that, a more healthy country for

cattle could not be found, and that in former times, when it was thickly inhabited, their cows could scarcely walk from fat. This circumstance I mention to prevent it being supposed that I was unmindful of any peculiarity that might militate against the country; and also to meet remarks which might be made, were it occupied and stocked without due precaution.

Three successive crops of Indian corn are mentioned as being sometimes reaped in the course of one year. The like information I also had from unquestionable authority; but at the same time, I was not given to understand such to be a common occurrence. The natives usually sow only twice, and each time reap an abundant harvest. On casting their seed into the ground, they never fear the result; they know not what it is to have a crop burnt up, or die from drought. The rains are so regular as to render irrigation unnecessary. On some occasions I was almost disposed to consider them as indulging in exaggerations, being aware of their anxiety to have it colonized by the English; yet, when I applied to the farmer I have already mentioned, he seemed to see no reason to doubt the accuracy of their statements. That there should be no lack of water, I should myself have concluded without any other evidence than that furnished by an examination of the geological structure of the country, and of its vegetable productions, a great many of which have been found to appertain to orders known to be natural only on moist soils."

Respecting the soil near Port Natal, Dr. Smith says "grass thrives in profusion close to the very limits of the salt water, and large herds of cattle could be fed within the range of the guns of the fort."*

At the same period (1834), a large body of the inhabitants of the Cape of Good Hope applied to the government to found a colony at Natal, declaring that it was "well wooded, and watered with upwards of a hundred large rivers and running streams; that the soil is fertile; the rains periodical; and the climate cooler than that of the Cape, and highly salubrious."†

These accounts weighed so much with the governor of the Cape as to induce him strongly to recommend the formation of a colonial settlement at Natal. In a preceding year (1831), another governor, who had before doubted the capabilities of that country, changed his opinion, and reported favourably of it to the Secretary of State. The grounds of that change are fully set forth in the parliamentary document already quoted, and from which the following passage is extracted:—

"The information which I have obtained from those persons who have lately, as well as at former periods, returned from Natal," says the civil commissioner of this portion of the Cape, "has strongly impressed me with the expediency, or rather the necessity, of the British government taking immediate

* House of Commons Papers for 1835, No. 252, pp. 99, 100.

† Ibid. p. 94.

possession of the harbour, and occupying the adjacent country, with the consent of the Zoolu chief, which there is no difficulty in procuring.

That portion of the Zoolu country which is uninhabited, and which Dingan (the king of the Zoolu) wishes to be occupied by white people, may be in extent along the sea-shore about 300 miles, beginning at the Umzimvoobu, or St. John's River, and ending on the Tugala, sixty or seventy miles to the eastward of Natal. Its breadth varies from sixty to one hundred miles, and a range of high mountains separates it on the north from the populated part of the Zoolu country. The whole of this extensive tract is represented by my informants as capable of sustaining a more dense population than any other part of Africa which they have seen; and some of them having travelled far into the interior, are therefore able to contrast the one portion of the country with the other. The seasons are said to have been regular for the last eight years; that is, since King and Farewell's party have resided there. The rains begin in September and end in March, and are rarely accompanied by high wind, which is the constant attendant on rains in the Cape colony. Springs and rivulets are abundant, flowing near the surface, and easily led out. But irrigation does not seem necessary, for the former inhabitants, before Chaka destroyed them, usually chose the highest lands for cultivation. One hundred and twenty-two rivers, whose names are promised to me, fall into the sea between Port Natal and the Umzimvoobu. Some of

these are considerable streams, particularly the last ; but none besides it are navigable ; and its capabilities have not yet been clearly ascertained. Timber of the finest quality and dimensions is found in great plenty, and even forests of great extent are met with, especially on the banks of the last-named river and in the vicinity of Natal. All the productions of the earth are represented to be of a more vigorous growth than the same production in the colony, which is an additional proof that they must have a much greater portion of rain than falls to our share. The climate is stated to be milder in winter, and not warmer in summer, than in the colony.”*

Very recent descriptions of Natal, published since several thousands of the Cape colonists have migrated to that country, prove beyond the possibility of doubt that its capabilities, considered solely in reference to agricultural settlement, are very great. That emigration has, indeed, unexpectedly confirmed the views of the judicious officer whose report, published by parliament, concludes in these words :—“ A detachment of sixty men, with a magistrate to administer the law and communicate with the Zoolus, would, in my opinion, be quite sufficient for the protection of a small mercantile community. It would, however, be next to impossible to confine it long to such a class of persons. The character by which this country is known, both in the colony and elsewhere, would urge thither persons of all descriptions, and in no long time the entire of the district now lying waste

* House of Commons Papers for 1835, No. 252, p. 58.

would be covered with emigrants, who, if they were commonly industrious, would soon convert it into a most flourishing settlement."*

The sagacity of Dr. Smith is proved by the fact, that already, in the face of great disasters, and at the loss of thousands of lives, Natal has a white population of some thousands, who have begun to export fine wool and other valuable articles.

Of those recent descriptions, two are here selected as particularly good; and they are the more trustworthy, by having been published at the Cape, in the face both of those who were familiar enough with the truth to be able to detect falsehood, and of others, whose jealousy of the new colony, and other motives for opposing the settlement of Natal as British, would prompt them at once to expose exaggerations. The first is from a Cape colonist (Mr. Boshof), who traversed Natal from the mountains to the sea; the other was written by a well-known and experienced Wesleyan missionary, the Rev. Mr. Archbell, who went from the Cape colony direct to Natal.

"On the 19th May, 1838," says Mr. Boshof, "we descended the Draakberg † with six waggons and a cart, and reached its base in an hour and a half. Some parts of the descent were so steep that

* House of Commons Papers for 1835, No. 252, p. 100. Dr. Andrew Smith's Notes on the Memorial of 192 inhabitants of the Cape of Good Hope.

† A point in the Quathlamba mountains; the range running about parallel to the coast, and 120 geographical miles in the interior.

we were compelled to chain two wheels ; but upon the whole, the road is not very difficult. From the foot of the mountain to Port Natal the distance is computed at forty-two hours with horse-waggons (210 miles). In the winter the cold is severe on these mountains ;* but on descending into the level country, it is temperate, and as you approach Port Natal, it becomes still warmer. On the 4th of June (nearly the middle of winter in this latitude) we saw in the garden of a native, under a woody hill, a distance of between fifty and sixty miles from the coast, Indian corn, of luxuriant growth, in full blossom, together with tobacco plants, and pumpkins, and calabashes, all uninjured by frost. At Natal we partook of two large dishes of Indian corn in a green and unripe state.

On the whole the climate is healthy, and so mild that two crops of almost every kind of grain may be reaped in a year. The soil is a dark mould, deep, loose, and very fertile. Indian corn has been often found in the fields of the natives, of such vigorous growth that a man on horseback, standing in his stirrups, could not reach the top of the plant. This grain, as also Kafir corn, pumpkins, and tobacco, are grown without irrigation. It is said that from September or October to March, and sometimes to April, rains are so frequent that the highest hills may be successfully cultivated. Independent of this, however, there is such abundance of water, both by rivers

* For several months, the tops of these mountains are covered with snow.

and springs, that by means of irrigation a hundred times more produce might be raised within the comparatively small tract of country over which I travelled from the Draakberg to Natal, than in the whole of the eastern province. But as irrigation does not appear necessary, with very few exceptions, it appears certain, that were there sufficient population, the whole country might be converted into corn-fields and plantations.

We crossed in our progress several beautiful rivers, the largest of which are the Tugala and Um-gani. In rainy seasons I have no doubt but they are navigable for large boats for a considerable distance. The other rivers are, the Little Tugala, the Bushman, the Umbooti, the Umzalak, the Umlas, and several other streams. All these streams have their sources in the Draakberg, at a distance of from fifteen to thirty miles higher than where the road crosses the range. In many places they are capable of being led out without any other expense or labour than merely making a channel to conduct the water.

From the character of the soil and climate, I have no doubt but that every kind of fruit tree which grows in the colony will flourish there. I have seen bananas, dates, a species of medlar, and some others, growing wild—as also a sort of cane, and Spanish reed, which are indigenous.

Timber for building purposes, waggon-making, &c., is everywhere to be had. The country is hilly, but it is quite open, the wood only growing along

the margin of the rivers, and in the kloofs. Near Port Natal, for fifteen miles from the shore, it has, however, the appearance of a continued forest.

The pasturage is extremely rich, and very healthy for large cattle and sheep. The whole face of the country is thickly clothed by a great variety of grasses, growing from one to eight feet high. It sometimes for many miles in extent has more the resemblance of corn-fields than grazing ground.

Elephants, elands, buffaloes, and wild boars, are found in this part of the country ; but animals of prey are very rare. After we descended the Draakberg, we never saw so much as the footmarks of a jackal, wolf, or lion, or other noxious or ferocious animal. Sheep are permitted to graze at a distance from the camp day and night, and are uninjured.

The cattle, sheep, and horses, excepting such as have been much used, or kept close to the camp, are very healthy, and are in excellent condition. The farmers state that they have had no disease amongst either cattle or sheep all the time they have been there. The horse-sickness, however, similar to that known in the colony, is also prevalent there.

The roads are smooth and good, although the country is not level. Stones are rarely met with, except in the beds of rivers."

The Rev. R. J. Archbell, the missionary quoted, describes Natal in the following terms:—"The country from Graham's Town to Port Natal varies greatly in quality and feature ; and may, on account of the distinctness of its character, be divided into

four parts, each rising in beauty and rich fertility above the other as we proceed to the eastward.

The lines of demarcation are the principal rivers which intersect it at nearly equal distances, each part being distinguished by its peculiar mineral and botanical productions.

The parts adjacent to Natal are superior to the rest, and exceed in capability any country I have yet seen in Southern Africa. The verdant hills, and prolific valleys, fertilized by numerous inexhaustible streams, teeming with rich vegetation of great variety, fully justify the rapturous exclamations and glowing imagery employed in its description. A view of the country from an eminence is enchantingly picturesque, being agreeably broken, and richly studded with patches of jungle, just rendered pervious to the pioneers of civilization by the depredations made on its magnificent timber. Such is the country running parallel with the coast for about thirty miles inland; from whence, to the very base of the Quathlamba range, it is undulating, and entirely open. Here trees and brush of any kind are so rare, that even fuel is difficult to be obtained.

The soil is similar to that everywhere found at the same distance from the sea; but here it is rendered peculiarly fertile by its tropical position and natural structure. Near the sea it is sandy, but the interior parts are of red and fawn-coloured clay, especially on the elevations. The soil of the valleys, and about the sources of rivers and fountains, is of a black mossy loam.

Except the vine, every foreign plant has thriven well, and the native fruits are uncommonly luxuriant. Some of these are of exquisite flavour, and will doubtless be introduced into extensive use. One, the *amathlala*, is like a large orange. Another, equally abundant, and much more agreeable and useful, is the *nata kulna*. It makes a very pleasant and valuable preserve.

Sweet potatoes are raised here in almost unconsumable quantities, but principally near the coast, the sandy soil of which suits them. The banana is found in some parts; and the castor-oil tree is common and large. From its seed the natives, and I believe some of the emigrants, extract the oil, which has been pronounced good. Cane also is found here in great abundance, and from fifteen to twenty feet high. This, as well as the juice of the euphorbia, which is everywhere large, may ultimately produce articles of valuable export. Recent experiments have proved it to be reducible to a texture like that of Indian rubber.

The woods are like those of the colony of the Cape of Good Hope. There is also a kind of ebony, beautiful as rosewood, and taking a fine polish."

Unvarying fertility of Natal.—The vicissitudes which often take place in the climate of some parts of South Africa, as in New South Wales, changing fertility into the most lamentable drought, render it important to remark, that the opinion of Dr. Andrew Smith that the "geological" structure of the Natal country gives it a permanently moist character, is an

opinion borne out by narratives of three hundred years range. At the beginning of the last century, Colonel Purry, a Swiss, who afterwards founded a settlement in North America, urged the Dutch government to occupy Natal, on the ground of its being "one of the most fertile regions on earth, and capable of producing inexhaustible supplies of grain and other provisions." The same country was familiar to the English buccaneering adventurers of the seventeenth century; and Dampier has preserved a satisfactory account written by one of them almost in the terms already quoted from the modern descriptions. In 1690 also, the government of Holland actually purchased a tract of land at Port Natal, upon the urgent call of parties who shewed it to be "convenient, fertile, and abundant in timber, cattle," and other valuable commodities. This step was taken after extensive and careful inquiries in the colony, and often actual exploring expeditions, which produced evidence of the fertility of Natal.

Finally, the Portuguese officers employed so early as 1575 to survey the coast, reported "the soil of Natal to be rich, and a great part of it fit for cultivation, and that consequently the country was populous, and well stocked with animals, both tame and wild."

To these testimonies in regard to the unvarying fertility of the soil of Natal, one may be usefully added from an entirely independent quarter. An American, who was familiar with the best districts of New England and Ohio, and who in 1837 was in

London, after passing a considerable time both in Natal and in the interior towards Lattakoo, told Mr. Saxe Bannister that the part of South Africa in question surpassed all the countries he was acquainted with in agricultural capabilities, and in the advantages of its climate. He added, that when he left Natal, at which time the emigrant settlers had not arrived from the Cape colony, and none but native-grown grain could be collected, valuable cargoes of it might have been got for the provision trade of Bourbon and Mauritius.

The key to this delightful land is a small harbour, termed

The Harbour of Natal.—The advantage of the possession of this port has been strongly expressed by a public functionary of the Cape colony, the civil commissioner of Albany, of whom the governor of the Cape of Good Hope said, in transmitting his opinion in 1831 to the Secretary of State, that “he had great confidence in that functionary’s judgment.”* The words are—“If you secure Natal, you thereby secure the whole eastern coast, from Simon’s Bay to Delagoa Bay, there being no intermediate bay, or port, or inlet for shipping, that is not already in our possession.....should a foreign state that obtains possession of Natal proceed to colonize the fertile country that surrounds it, and so obtain a firm footing on the soil, it needs no laboured argument to shew that the tranquillity of this colony may be disturbed, and even its security endangered,

* House of Commons Papers for 1835, No. 252, p. 57.

whenever it may suit the policy of that state to adopt hostile measures towards it.”*

Of the character of this harbour the most recent and authentic account is that of Captain Haddon, a skilful navigator, of the merchant-service, whose chart of it has been published by the Admiralty. He died not long ago, on a voyage to the west coast of Africa. His valuable sailing directions to Port Natal from the Cape, were inserted in the Annual Register of that colony of 1838. They are as follow :—

“ In leaving Algoa Bay, steer out from the anchorage S.E. half S. per compass 40 miles; and then E.S.E. 160 miles. You will then be in one of the streams, which sets at the rate of three to four knots per hour W.S.W., and you will have a little help by a current which sets N.E. (In this part, the *Dove*, Captain Haddon, lay to for thirty-six hours, and only drifted seventeen miles.)

“ Then shape your course to bring you into latitude $29^{\circ} 30'$, and longitude $30^{\circ} 30'$. You will then be to the N.E. of Natal, and with a N.E. wind you will soon run down to it. It is easily known from the northward, as you can see the entrance better than from the southward.

“ Should the wind be from the S.W., you should only run to 30° lat., if the breeze is very strong, and the same meridian as before: but do not keep too close in-shore, as the wind dies away suddenly, and the strong current which inclines towards the shore may endanger the ship and lives. The bluff point is easily known by the back land running in a sloping direction, and several flat tops, notched here and there. The Bluff is also very thickly wooded, and the other side is low sandy shore, with bushes a few yards from the beach.

* House of Commons' Papers for 1835, No. 252, p. 58.

“ If the wind is from the N.E., keep your ship under canvas, but well off shore. Anchor in nine fathoms, the Bluff S.W. by S. If intending to enter the harbour, go in with your boats first, and sound for the deepest water on the bar, and lay buoys down, but they must be made well fast, or the tide will sweep them away.

“ The bar lies in three ridges. The wind from the S.W. causes the deepest water to be close to the reefs; and N.E. makes it deepest in mid-channel. The surf is always worst at high-water, and it is seldom that you can pass it in a small boat without risk.

“ The course over in mid-channel is S.S.W.; and you will see a large remarkable tree upon a hill ahead going in; and keep this well on the starboard side.

“ Should you not find sufficient water for your ship to cross the bar at spring-tides, and you have cargo to land there, moor with open hawse to the N.E.

“ The winds blow strong at times, but seldom last more than twenty-four hours, and then there is not such a heavy sea sets in as at Algoa Bay, and the ground is equally good. The cutter *Circe* rode out the heaviest gale ever recollected there, for four days.

“ In crossing the bar with a vessel drawing from 8 to 10 feet, if with a good commanding breeze, let hands stand by the braces, as the tide is strong, and in shallow water the ship will not answer her helm quick enough without the help of bracing about the yards as required. In coming in, you have full eight fathoms. It gradually shoals to *two fathoms* on the bar, and with a good way you have not time to get a second cast on it. You then gradually deepen to seven fathoms, and when abreast of a large coloured stone, haul sharp up, and steer for the sandy shore, and hug it as close as you can. The tide will keep you from getting on it. The anchorage is at the first commencement of the bushes on the sandy point, and a new store abreast of you. If you run past the large stone on the rocky side, you will see a sand-coloured patch half-way up the bluff side,

amongst the trees ; but if you go past that, you will be sure to be set on to a sand-point, and ground.

“ I erected a beacon at the anchorage, and placed a buoy inside the harbour, with directions for others to be placed on the bluff sides, in lieu of the large stone, and there they are sure to be seen.

“ A ship will not take any hurt heaving aground inside the harbour, as in the strongest winds it is as smooth as London Docks, provided she is not a sharp-built ship. A ship ought to be coppered, as the water fouls the wood very soon with barnacles, and the worms are bad also.”

A curious old description of this port, preserved in Dampier, in the seventeenth century, from his “ingenious friend, Captain Rogers,” is worth citing, as shewing its improving character :—

“ In the country of Natal,” says he, “ there is no want of water. Every hill affords little brooks, which glide down several ways : some of which, after several turnings and windings, meet by degrees, and make up the river of Natal, which discharges itself into the East Indian Ocean in lat. 30° S. There it opens pretty wide, and is deep enough for small vessels. But at the mouth of the river is a bar, which has not above ten or eleven feet water on it in a spring-tide, though within there is water enough. This river is the principal of the country of Natal, and has been lately frequented by some of our English ships.”

The whole south-east coast of Africa was carefully surveyed a few years ago by Captain Owen, R.N. ; and this distinguished officer, it is believed, formed a high opinion of the value of Port Natal.

At the beginning of the present year, positive

statements were published at Graham's Town upon the practicability of deepening the bar at a small expense, so that ships of a large size might safely resort thither. However such speculations may turn out upon further investigation of this important point, it is certain that iron steamers of a considerable tonnage might now get into the harbour.

The town, as seen by the Rev. Mr. Archbell, is thus described :—"Port Natal—the town itself having received no other name—possesses advantages which cannot be described in too striking colours. The contiguity to the bay; its superabundance of fuel, as well as large timber; its inexhaustible supply of water from four rivers, one of which has ten times more water than supplies the whole of Cape Town (with 20,000 inhabitants); all point out the great importance of the locality. Two of these rivers run into the bay, and a third (the Umlasi) within four miles of its margin. The stream of this river is considerable, and may be conducted over a rich and fertile flat, leading to the present town and bay. The Umgani, which nature seems to have designed for supplying the town, can be led out without difficulty, and by little more than opening a furrow, will flow through the streets with a current equal to the utmost demands that can possibly be made upon it. In short, the whole, whether viewed in reference to quality or position, presents the most suitable materials, to be transformed by art, for constituting one of the most populous and delightfully-situated towns on the coast.

The population about the bay is already considerable, and it is daily receiving new accessions by the removal of Dutch families from the interior. The eagerness of many to procure plots of ground for building upon, is a sufficient guarantee for the early and large extension of the town."

Whether good coal exists there, is still doubtful. From time to time sanguine hopes have been excited by reports of mines of that article being actually worked. Two years ago, a German naturalist, who had lived many months among the Cape emigrants, declared that he had seen it dug up, and in common use. A specimen also, asserted to be genuine, has been shewn in London; and a supply was even reported to be made to the Nemesis steam-ship, at Mozambique, from the mountains to the west, which form one chain with the Natal range, where coal has been most strongly asserted to be found. The most positive testimony on the subject was the following, published in Cape newspapers by Mr. Boshof, the colonist above quoted. "Coal," says he, "is found at the Sand River; between the Great and Little Tugala rivers; and at the Blue Krans River. We dug up some near the road between the Tugalas, of which I brought home with me a small quantity. This was taken near the surface, and it proved, on trial, to be coal of second or third rate quality."

GEOLGY, MINERALOGY, AND SOIL.—Southern Africa is evidently of diluvian origin; the formation of the peninsula is sufficiently indicated by the structure of Table Mountain, which is composed of many

strata, piled on each other in large tabular masses lying close together without any intermediate veins of earthy or other extraneous matter. The plain round the mountain is a blue *schistus*, running in parallel ridges N.W. and S.E., and interrupted by masses of a hard blue flinty rock.*

The *schistus* rests on a stratum of strong iron-coloured clay, varying from a pale yellow to a deep red, abounding with brown foliated *mica*, and interspersed with immense blocks of *granite*, some of them crumbling into fragments, and others hollowed out as if by the hand of man, but really from the operation of time.

As Table Mountain is ascended, beds of vertical *schistus* stretching east and west are met with, and higher still, veins of *granite* with distinct ramifications from the main body are observable from every side, varying in breadth from two yards to the fractional or decimal part of an inch. In some places the *schistus* has crumbled away, leaving the *granite* ramifications or dykes standing. About 300 yards further in the ascent, the mountain appears a solid mass of *granite*, characterized by large crystals of *felspar*: besides *quartz* and *mica*, large masses of *hornblend* enter occasionally into the composition of the rock. After a further ascent of 300 yards, the *granite* ceases, and is succeeded by a stratum of

* *Robben Island*, in the mouth of Table Bay, affords excellent quarries of blue flags streaked with white, the use of which contributes much to the cleanliness and neat appearance of Cape Town.

superincumbent horizontal *red sandstone* without any symptom of disturbance, and devoid of veins of *granite*, continuing in beds of no great thickness for a height of from 150 to 200 feet. From thence, to the summit of the mountain, the *sandstone* is of a much more indurated kind, quite white, and having pieces of water-worn *quartz* imbedded in it from the size of a pea to that of a potato. The weather acting on the soft *sandstone* has worn it away in various-sized excavations, causing here and there pools or holes of standing water, with a little beach of *quartz* pebbles, the relics of the strata worn away.

The upper surface of the contiguous *Lion's head* is *sandstone*, beneath which is found *granite*, and still descending, *schistus* or *killas* in vertical beds.

Captain Basil Hall thinks that the great mass of sandstone which forms the summit of Table Mountain, lying on the granite to the thickness of 1,500 feet, has been raised from its original horizontal position by the granite forcing itself up from below. Professor Playfair is of opinion that the structure of the peninsula points out two separate epochs, distinguished by very different conditions, which now compose the peninsula of the Cape, which appears to be a wall of granite, highest at its north extremity, and lowering gradually to the south; faced at its base with *schistus*, *killas*, or *grauwacke*, and covered at its top with a platform of horizontal sandstone. The penetration of the *killas* by veins from the mass of granite (which it surrounds) proves that the *killas*, though the superior rock, is of older formation than

the *granite*; the granite therefore is a mineral that has come up from below into the situation it now occupies, and is not one of the materials which have been deposited by the sea in any shape either mechanical or chemical. It is a species, therefore, of subterraneous lava, and the progeny of that active and powerful element which Professor Playfair thinks we know from the history of the present and the past, has always existed in the bowels of the earth. The introduction, therefore, of granite into the situation it now occupies must have taken place while the whole was deep under the level of the sea, previous to its elevation, or the subsidence of the surrounding waters; the granite may thus be considered as *newer* than one of the rocks incumbent on it, and *older* than the other, thus highly favouring the opinion that granite does not derive its origin from aqueous deposition.

The experiment of boring in search of coal which took place under the government of Lord Macartney at Wynberg, a tongue of land projecting from the Table Mountain, gave the following further insight into the strata of the country: *coal*, 2 feet; *blue soapy rock*, 5; *white soapy rock*, 22; *grey sandstone with clay*, 21; *chocolate-brown sandstone*, 14; *bluish soapy clay*, 31; and *striated sand, red and white*, containing *clay*, 33; total, 128 feet.

The stratum of coal* found on the banks of a deep rivulet flowing out from the *Tigerberg* (a hill that terminates the isthmus to the eastward), was

* A vein of coal has recently been discovered near the mouth of the *Kroom River*, which is accessible to small craft.

horizontal with a *super*-stratum of pipe-clay and white sandstone, and a *sub*-stratum of indurated clay. The coaly seam, from ten inches to two feet in thickness, differed in quality at various places—sometimes it was in large ligneous blocks with visible traces of the bark, knots, and grain of timber, and in the very middle of these, imbedded pieces of *iron pyrites* running through them in crooked veins, or lying in irregular lumps. Other parts of the stratum consisted of laminated coal of the nature of turf, burning with a clear flame, and leaving a light white ash; the more compact and heavy coal gave out a sulphurous smell, and left a slaty caulk with an ochreous crust.

My object in giving this section being the accumulation and registration of facts rather than the promulgation of theories, I proceed to detail the appearances observed in other parts of South Africa :—

At the Koonap post, the bed of the river is supported by an extensive substratum of sand or freestone, traversing the country nearly parallel to the plane of the horizon. At the base of the higher mountains are found large unconnected fragments of *granite* with crystallization of *felspar* and *quartz*, and *limestone* is obtruded in some places to the surface; it is always in roundish masses of a white pulverulent appearance, soapy to the touch, generally mixed with red clay, and when burnt, deficient in the properties of calcined lime, being less tenacious, durable, and impervious to moisture, and apparently an impure carbonate of lime.

The most distinguishing feature of the mountains of Kafferland, is a superincumbent stratum of sandstone; huge detached masses are found in many places standing some feet above the surface of the earth. The upper part of a mountain visited by the Rev. S. Kay, presented to the eye immense precipices capped with large rhomboidal tables and projecting angles, forming a kind of cornice to the face. On the sides of the declivities, there was a description of prismatic *quartz crystals* in a corroded state, and evidently undergoing the process of decomposition, a circumstance which is perceptible in almost all the mountains of South Africa, and presenting a fair prospect of a yearly increasing extent of fertile soil.

Ironstone is everywhere observable in Kaffraria, and likewise considerable quantities of *ochre* of different kinds, some specimens in a state of impalpable powder enclosed in crustaceous coverings of a reddish colour, of the hardness and consistence of baked earthenware; sometimes in single nodules of an inch or two inches in diameter, but more frequently in clusters of two, three, or four nodules connected by necks which are also hollow; in these stones every shade of colour has been found except the greens, but the most common are those of a pale yellow and chocolate brown.

At Griqua Town, north of the Gariap or Orange River, the valley is closed on the N.W. by a range of low hills of *argillaceous schistus*, which Mr. Thompson, when visiting them in 1823, stated to be so highly magnetic, either from the presence of iron ore

or some other cause, as to prevent the traverse of the needle. Amongst these hills *asbestos* has been found in considerable quantities.

The detached hills near the base of the Zwarteberg range are composed of *amygdaloid*, nearly allied to the *toadstone* of Derbyshire; the rounded pebbles embedded in this argillaceous matrix are almost invariably tinged with a bright grass-green colour;—the substratum of the mountains is a blue and purple coloured schistus.

In the Graaff Reinet district some specimens of *tufa* and abundance of *limestone* are found; fossil remains have also been discovered; * *common cornelian*, *topaz*, and *bloodstones* have been met with in the Orange river, and in some of the N. field cornetcies, *saltpetre*. The infinite number of large blocks of isolated stones that are to be found in South Africa, to the very verge of the Cape promontory, are aggregates of *quartz* and *mica*, the first in large irregular masses, and the latter in black lumps, resembling shot; they also contain sometimes cubic pieces of *felspar*, and seem to be bound together by plates of a clayey ironstone: by the action of the air and weather, they fall to pieces in large concentric laminæ, become disintegrated, and, finally, form a soil, at first harsh and sterile, but meliorated and enriched by time.

The soil throughout the colony is very varied—in some places a naked sand, in others a stiff clay, and in many parts a rich dark vegetable mould: fre-

* Perfect fossil remains of the mammoth species have been found a few years since in Beaufort.

quently the surface appears a dry sand, but on removing it to the depth of a few inches, a black mould is found beneath : the stiff clayey soil, sometimes red and sometimes met with of a yellowish colour, is very fertile when irrigated. The east coast border is generally an alluvial loam, as is the case with many valleys, particularly among the ravines and windings of the Fish River.

The surface of the Great Karroo is diversified : in many places it is a stiff brownish-coloured clay ; in some parts a bed of sandstone, crossed with veins of fat quartz, and a kind of ponderous ironstone ; in others, a heavy sand, with here and there a blackish loam. Near the bed of the Buffalo River, the whole surface of the country is strewed over with small fragments of a deep purple-coloured slate, crumbling from strata of long parallel ridges running E. and W. ; scattered among these fragments are black tumified stones, having the appearance of volcanic *slags* or the *scoriæ* of an iron furnace ; several conical hills, some truncated near the top, stand detached from each other on the plain : and although at first appearing as if thrown up by volcanic explosion, yet on a nearer view of the alternate strata of earth and sandstone, regularly disposed, exhibiting the effects of water, and not of fire. Some flat sandy marshes of the Karroo are overgrown with rushes, and abound in springs strongly impregnated with salt, and a species of *salsola* * (salt-wort) grows here in per-

* It is from this plant that the inhabitants make excellent soap, in conjunction with sheep's fat.

fection; the surface around its roots being generally covered with a fine white nitrous powder.

From the *Little Loorey fonteyn*, in the Great Karroo to *De Beer* valley, there are nearly thirty miles of a continued bed of solid and arid clay, without a particle of herbage; when, suddenly, as by enchantment, the *De Beer* valley, a plain of several miles in diameter at the base of the Black Mountains, is entered on, clothed with the most luxuriant vegetation; the water, however, of one of the streams which flow through it, being as briny as that of the English Channel. Beyond this valley the Karroo again expands in all its nakedness.

Of *minerals* few have yet been discovered,—indications of coal, as before observed, have been met with at the Kroom River and other places. Near the Bushman's River (*Uitenhage* district), an extensive vein of *alum* has been recently discovered, which is particularly beautiful in its structure; the colour is perfectly white, of a silky lustre, consisting of delicate fibres, of six or eight inches in length, which run parallel, sometimes perpendicular, and sometimes in an undulating direction; the vertical course of the filaments being directed by small fragments of greyish limestone, and minute particles of yellow ferruginous earth; these are found near the basis of the tender capillary crystals, which shoot from a thin stratum of concrete alum, the lower surface of which is encrusted with yellow clay and portions of blue limestone. The alum is very pure and valuable as an article of commerce.

At Camtoos Bay (twenty miles W. of Algoa Bay) a rich *lead ore* of the species known by the name of *galena* (lead mineralized with sulphur), has been found in the steep sides of a deep glen; the masses seen by Mr. Barrow had no appearance of cubic crystallization, but were granular or amorphous in some species; the surfaces, in others, made up of small facets, called by miners *white silver ore*; the vein of the ore was three inches wide and one thick, increasing in size as it advanced under the stratum of rock with which it was covered. The *matrix* is a *quartzite sandstone* of a yellowish tinge, cellular and fibrous, harsh to the touch and easily broken. This ore, when assayed by Major Van Dheu, an officer in the Dutch service, yielded from 200lbs. weight, 100lbs. of pure lead, and 8oz. of silver.

Mineral waters exist in different places; a few miles from Graaff Reinet, there is a spring of cold water, strongly impregnated with sulphureted hydrogen. About five miles from Cradock, in Somerset, there is a hot mineral spring (thermometer 86 degrees), which issues from the ground close to the bank of the Great Fish River, which is here a small stream about 200 miles from the sea. The taste of the water much resembles that of the Harrowgate or Gilsand spa, and it is resorted to for bathing by invalids labouring under various complaints. The ground in the vicinity is impregnated with saltpetre, and considerable quantities of nitre in a pure state may be collected in the neighbouring mountains. At no great distance from Cradock, near the Bamboo

mountains, are three salt lakes, similar to those in the vicinity of Algoa Bay and other parts of the country, from which the neighbouring colonists supply themselves with salt. There are two warm springs at the village of Caledon, under the Kleime Swarteberg, which contain muriate of soda;—their heat is 92 degrees. These springs are used as baths, and the water is also taken internally; they are found beneficial in cases of chronic rheumatism, diseases of the skin, and scorbutic ulcers. One spring is private property, where there is good accommodation for invalids and others visiting the baths; the other belongs to Government, and is let on lease,—the tenant being bound to allow the free and gratuitous use of the bath and buildings to poor indigent persons, of whatever description, producing certificates of inability to pay. There are two other warm springs in the district (one at Cogman's Kloof) also containing a muriate of soda, the heat of which is 114 degrees, and one at Roodeberg, containing a small quantity of carbonate of lime, the heat of which is 94 degrees. Several singular salt-pans exist; some of them 200 miles from the sea-coast, and 5,000 to 6,000 feet above the level of the sea, the salt being hard, and from five to six inches in thickness. The largest and finest salt-pan is near Zwartkops River, Algoa Bay. The soil on all sides of the great Zwartkops salt-pan is a deep vegetable earth, in some places red, in others black, resting on a bed of clay, and without a vestige of salt in its composition.

As the retreating of the ocean from, or its advance

on, different shores is now becoming a subject of investigation, I may add that, in my opinion, the sea is receding from Southern Africa. Many thousand waggon-loads of shells are met with in various places along the E. coast, the site of which is at present several hundred feet above the level of the sea, and generally in the greatest quantity in sheltered caverns. At Mossel Bay is a cave 300 feet above the ocean, but which, when explored, contained an immense quantity of different kinds of shells peculiar to the coast; and behind Table Mountain, at a similar height, are beds of shells buried under vegetable earth and clay. Seven miles N.E. of Uitenhage, and ten miles from the sea, are immense beds of sea-shells, particularly of oysters, the fish of which is petrified.

From the Cape of Good Hope along the S. coast to Algoa Bay, a bank, with various soundings, projects to a considerable distance from the land, called the bank of Lagullas. The S. extremity of this bank is nearly on the meridian of Cape Vaches, or in Long. 22 E., and is said to extend to about $37\frac{1}{2}$ S. Lat. in this part; but a little to the S. of 36 S. it converges quickly, and becomes of a narrow conical form, with very deep water on its S. end. The soundings to the westward of Cape Lagullas (to the southward of 35.15 S.) are generally of mud; to the southward of the Cape, frequently green or other sand; and on the S.E. and eastern parts of the bank to the eastward of Cape Lagullas, mostly coral, or coarse sand, shells, and small stones. This bank is

probably the deposit of the strong current which sets to the S. and W., according to the direction of the bank, and is generally strongest during the winter months, running with the greatest velocity along the verge of the bank, or a little outside of soundings. When opposed by adverse gales, a very high sea is thrown up, which sometimes lessens the strength of the current; the rapidity of the stream is, however, always less towards the shore, where the sea is smoother: by keeping on the edge of the bank, a ship will be carried eighty miles a day with an adverse wind round the Cape into the Atlantic; vessels, therefore, trusting to their reckoning should be mindful of this circumstance.

A more minute detail of the geological structure of this portion of the African continent would be out of place here.

CHAPTER III

CLIMATE AND SEASONS—VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL
KINGDOMS, &c.

THE seasons at the Cape of Good Hope are the very opposite of those of England ; for example :—

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.	September	} Spring.	March	} ENGLAND.
	October		April	
	November		May	
	December		June	
	January	} Summer.	July	
	February		August	
	March	} Autumn.	September	
	April		October	
May	November			
June	} Winter.	December		
July		January		
August		February		

This contrariety creates a singular feeling in a new comer ; but the delicious climate of the Cape soon removes any disagreeable impression arising from the change. Of course, in such an extent of country, and at different elevations, the heat varies ; but taking *Hottentots Holland*, in the Cape district, as a fair criterion for the elevated country, the following meteorological register, from the Army Medical Board Office, indicates the state of the weather throughout the year, Cape Town, of course, being warmer.

Months.	Thermometer, Fahrenheit.	Wind.	Days of				REMARKS.
			Rain.	Cloudy with rain.	Cloudy misty.	Clear and fine.	
January....	59-90	S.E.	3	..	9	19	Dry and warm, occasional showers, with N.W. winds.
February ..	61-93	Do.	7	..	5	16	Temperature variable, heavy rains occasionally, with N.W. winds.
March	60-91	Do.	8	..	9	14	Strong gale N.W., thunder, light showers.
April	63-91	Do. & N.W.	7	..	8	15	Heavy gales, temperature variable.
May	53-88	N.W.	9	..	15	11	Fine early in the month, thunder-storms.
June	47-82	Do.	11	..	4	15	Strong gales occasionally S. E. and N. E., rain, thunder, and lightning.
July	46-80	N. & N.W.	10	21	Frequent gales, cold, frost, snow, hail, and rain.
August	49-83	Do.	..	13	..	18	Ditto
September ..	52-89	S.E.	..	9	..	21	Weather variable and mild.
October	56-95	N.W. & S.E.	..	7	..	24	Heavy rain, and lightning and thunder.
November ..	55-98	N.W. & S.E.	..	4	..	26	Warm dry weather.
December ..	57-10	S.E.	..	2	..	29	Light breezes from N.W., dry and warm.
Mn. & Tot.	56-90		41	35	60	230	

MONTHLY MEAN AT CAPE TOWN FOR FOUR YEARS.

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Bar.	30.13	30.11	30.18	30.14	30.21	30.19	30.28	30.25	30.22	30.22	30.2	30.16
Ther.	76	79	75	67	62	57.23	57.1	60	63	63	73.1	75

THE CLIMATE OF THE CAPE.—In a recent letter from Sir John Herschel, full of astronomical investigations, the learned philosopher says—"You may form some idea of this climate, as regards clearness of sky, from what was told me by our professional Governor, Colonel Bell—viz., that out of forty-two

successive days he had been only three times disappointed in finding Venus with the naked eye in broad sunshine. At nine, P.M., I read with ease, a few nights ago the most involved parts of a lady's closely-crossed letter by the light of an eclipsed moon, then near the zenith."

The healthiness of the Cape district is evinced by the fact that, in 1830, out of a population of 1,500, at Hottentots Holland, the total number of deaths was only five; of which four were coloured persons, one an old Mozambiquer, another an old slave, both of whom died of chronic diseases, the third a young child, died suddenly, the fourth a Caffre girl, was burnt, and the fifth (a European gentleman of 50), principally of a mental affection. The mean temperature of Cape Town (which is heated by its proximity to Table Mountain), inferred from a Meteorological Journal kept for several years,* is $67\frac{1}{3}$. The mean temperature of the coldest month is, perhaps, 57.; hottest 79.; mean of three recent winters, 58.; of three summer months 77.; least heat during summer 63. The temperature of the district of Stellenbosch, deduced from the observations of a single twelvemonth, is $66\frac{1}{2}$.; extremes, 87. and 50. The temperature of Zwartland appears to be $66\frac{1}{3}$.; extremes, 89. and 54. The exposure of the thermometers is at neither place external; they are suspended in spacious well-aired halls. At Tulbagh, situated in a valley of the great chain of mountains which divides the western from the eastern provinces

* I am indebted for this to Mr. Greig's Directory.

of the colony, the mean temperature of the year is $66\frac{1}{3}$., that of the coldest months, $55\frac{1}{2}$., of the hottest $80\frac{1}{2}$.; extremes 95. and 52.; mean of the three winter months, $56\frac{1}{2}$.; of the three summer months, 79.; least heat in summer, 61. In this colony, as in the S. of Europe, and most of the warm climates of a temperate zone, the wind commonly blows cold in summer, at the same time that the sun shines powerfully. It is this circumstance which distinguishes a warm from a hot climate. Parched winds and frequent summer calms equally make a hot climate. In a cool one, or merely warm, the temperature of the air, in the shade, and in ventilated sunshine, several feet from the ground, does not much vary; but in a screened situation, or at the surface of the ground, the heat of a sunny exposure, at noon-tide of a summer's day, becomes intense. That intensity of heat is, in strictness, superficial, scarcely penetrating an inch beneath the surface, nor reaching more than a foot or two above it. In calm weather, the range of reflected heat is somewhat greater.

At the foot of the mountains, and within the range of their influence, the heat of the atmosphere over the valleys and the plain is mitigated by a cool wind, descending from the mountain's side, and the coldness of the blast is tempered by the reflected heat of the earth's surface. Hence a moderate temperature, where the wind has free passage, is the result in summer at the Cape. Respecting the hygrometric condition of the atmosphere, the following observa-

tions were made in the summer months. Dryness, in the morning before sunrise, is ordinarily from 6 to 7 degrees, the utmost 12 degrees, the least 3 degrees; which for a mean temperature of 77 degrees, answer to about 17 to 20 centesimals, 30 and 39 respectively. The atmospheric dryness usually augments as the day advances; for, while the temperature rises towards noon, the point at which the hygrometric thermometer becomes stationary remains more nearly uniform; mean dryness in the morning 7. at noon 14.

These observations were made at inland situations, and the minimum of humidity actually noticed has probably not amounted to a fourth of the atmosphere's real capacity for moisture. During the warm season, although the S.E. monsoon predominates, westerly winds are not unfrequent; they are always moist. When south-easterly winds blow, they bring from the shallow sea, over Lagullas bank, humidity, which is condensed upon the summits of the mountains. It is seen rolling down the western cliffs in volumes of thick vapour; and the elevation at which this is dissipated, as it descends, answers precisely to the hygrometric state of the air. Were marks noted upon the precipitous sides of Table Mountain, at intervals of 60 yards in perpendicular height from the base, the number of such divisions below the cloud, familiarly termed the *Table Cloth*, would correspond with the degrees of dryness exhibited by the hygrometer; for temperature decreases with ascents of heights, about one degree of Fahren-

heit's scale for every 90 yards of elevation. This will be made plain by citing an instance. Thus, on the 11th of Jan., at Cape Town, temperature, 71. hyg. therm. 58.; a cloud hanging over Table Mountain, not touching it, but just elevated above the summit: the height of Table Mountain, trigonometrically measured, is 1,194 yards; difference of temperature, according to theory 13, of dryness observed, 13. So on the 15th January, at the foot of Table Mountain, temperature in the shade during the whole (6 A.M. to 4½ P.M.), 70. to 71., hyg. therm. 58.; and S.E. strong breeze, cloud on Table Mountain. Noon at an elevated station, upon the acclivity, above the highest inhabited spot, temperature in wind and sunshine, 69.; hyg. therm. 58. At a station still more elevated, above the highest plantations of the silver-tree, temperature, in ventilated sunshine, 68.; hyg. therm. 58½.; the wind blowing in puffs and gusts (the temperature is depressed 2. to 1. when strong gusts blow); a dense white cloud, on the back of the mountain, receiving evidently continued accession; the vapour passing over the summit, and scarcely descending a little down the cliff, seeming to curl laterally and vertically, and pause while vanishing, as it quitted the mountain. Sometimes a very small fleece, often more considerable and dense. A small detached cloud shews itself here and there, remains awhile, and then gradually vanishes; one over the signal-post on the Lion, another in front of Camp's Bay, another again in the distance, over Tygerberg; all

apparently on the same level with the cloud hanging on Table Mountain. A mountain being colder than the plain below, condenses and renders visible the passing vapour, whenever the dryness of the wind is less than the difference of temperature between its summit and base. Owing to radiation, the influence of the mountain's summit extends to a column of air over it, and a cloud at rest is, accordingly, often seen suspended high above. The heat of the plain has a like influence on the atmosphere over it, and affects the temperature immediately above. The vapour then, as it quits the mountain, passes into a warmer region, where it is dissolved, and which thus it traverses, transparent and invisible, to be again condensed, and made apparent on approaching another mountain. This is the simple explanation of the appearances which are so conspicuous during the continuance of a S.E. wind at the Cape. Volumes of vapour are seen rolling over the summits and down the sides of Hanglip, Hottentots Holland, and the rest of the chain of high mountains. Above the valleys, and over the isthmus, scarcely a passing cloud is seen. But the vapour is thickly condensed on the peninsular group of mountains, rolls over their summits, descends to a certain distance down the cliffs, and is dissipated and becomes transparent as it passes onwards. The wind, fed by cold and damp, descending from the mountains, blows with great violence, approaching to tempestuous force. But it is partial, and extends to no distance from the shore. It is the boisterous rush of

colder air, to replace warmer in a fervent atmosphere, over an intensely-heated land. On the windward brow of a mountain the breeze is moderate; on the lee side the blast is strong; at sea, a mile from the shore, there is calm. In fact, both the S.E. and westerly winds are, to the promontory terminating South Africa, sea breezes, and the S.E. wind has not parted with that character, in a short and rapid passage across that promontory. The parched earth cannot but be refreshed by the passage of such humid air over it. Its heat is mitigated, or that of the atmosphere above is so, by cold breezes, which descend from high mountains, bringing humidity recently drawn off the sea. Clouds at rest, while the wind is blowing with violence, are frequently to be seen over False Bay, and likewise over the Cape Downs, precisely similar to clouds suspended over peaks. Generally, during a S.E. wind, the sky is clear between Hanglip and Table Mountain; but now and then a small silvery cloud suddenly appears above the sea or the shore, grows, changes shape, without change of place (although the wind, meantime, continues to blow most violently), wastes and vanishes. Dr. Arnott, in his highly interesting work, entitled "Elements of Physics, or Natural Philosophy," thus accounts for the singular beauty and density of the clouds which frequently envelope Table Mountain. The reason of the phenomenon is, that the air constituting the wind from the S.E., having passed over the vast Southern Ocean, comes charged with as much invi-

sible moisture as the temperature can sustain. In rising up the side of the mountain, it is rising in the atmosphere, and is, therefore, gradually escaping from a part of the former pressure; and, on attaining the summit, it has dilated so much, and has, consequently, become so much colder, that it lets go part of its moisture. And it no sooner falls over the edge of the mountain, and again descends in the atmosphere to where it is pressed and condensed and heated as before, than it is re-dissolved and disappears. The magnificent apparition dwells only on the mountain's top.

In Albany and the eastern districts, the climate resembles much that of England; the mountain tops are occasionally covered with snow, which, however, rarely falls in the valleys;—the winter nights are sharp and clear, while the summer heats are tempered either by the sea-breeze, or by the currents of wind which the numerous mountains and hills keep continually in play. The fact that numerous invalids from India seek and find the goddess Hygeia at the Cape speaks volumes in favour of the salubrity of the atmosphere, which would appear to be diminishing in heat, if we may judge by the large icebergs now seen even to the north of the Cape, which some years since were never witnessed but to the southward of 40° .

The S.E. and N.W. winds are the most prevalent in this hemisphere—the former in summer and the latter in winter. During the N.W. moonsoon, which prevails about the end of September, the wind blows

generally in an oblique direction off the coast;—but I do not think that during any period of the year the wind blows direct on the shore. The gales off the Cape, which were formerly so fatal in their consequences, have either diminished in their violence or ships are now better managed; I have doubled the Cape repeatedly in winter and summer, and never yet got round it, without a gale, sometimes of nine days' duration. During a storm of this violence, the sea, which is raised by the meeting of two vast oceans, aided probably by the current on the Lagullas bank, is truly magnificent; the waves resemble lofty mountains, with vast intervening valleys, from which it would seem impossible for a ship to emerge, when engulfed between two of the surrounding billows. Nothing can impress on the mind more forcibly the daring intrepidity of man than his navigating such a sea in a few frail timbers—nor can any other situation suggest more forcibly to the mind the power and protecting care of the Almighty than to witness a handful of human beings in the midst of such an awful scene, and yet in comparative safety. I defy any man to be an Atheist after suffering a storm off the Cape.

And here I am reminded of that singular phenomenon which has been seen off the Cape, and usually termed the "*Flying Dutchman*," which few sailors who have navigated the Cape disbelieve, and respecting which other people are very sceptical.

The traditional account of the origin of the "*Flying Dutchman*," is, that during the Dutch occupation

of the Cape a vessel from Batavia was on the point of entering Table Bay in stress of weather, in the winter season, when no vessel was allowed to enter the bay: the batteries fired on the distressed ship and compelled it to put to sea, where it was lost, and, as the sailors say, has continued ever since beating about, and will continue to do so till the day of judgment.

The "*Dutchman*" is said to appear generally to ships in a heavy gale with all sail set—and when the eastern navigator is in a calm, the Dutchman appears to be scudding under bare poles. As many persons think such an apparition the creation of fancy, I give the following statement which was noted down in the log-book of his Majesty's ship *Leven* when employed with the *Barracouta*, &c., in surveying East Africa, and in the dangers and disasters of which squadron I participated.

His Majesty's ship *Leven*,* Capt. W. F. W. Owen, on the 6th April, 1823, when off Point Danger, on her voyage from Algoa to Simon's Bay, saw her consort the *Barracouta* about two miles to leeward; this was considered extraordinary, as her sailing orders would have placed her in a different direction; but her peculiar rig left not a doubt as to her identity, and at last many well-known faces were distinctly visible, looking towards the *Leven*. Capt. Owen attempted to close with her to speak, but was surprised that she not only made no effort to join

* Account of the voyage, published by order of the Admiralty, 1833.

the *Leven*, but on the contrary stood away : being near the destined port, Capt. Owen did not follow her, and continued on his course to the Cape, but at sunset she was observed to heave to, and lower a boat apparently for the purpose of picking up a man overboard ; during the night there was no light nor any symptoms of her locality. The next morning the *Leven* anchored in Simon's Bay where for a whole week the *Barracouta* was anxiously expected : on her arrival (the 14th) it was seen by her log that she was 300 miles from the *Leven* when the latter thought she saw her, and had not lowered any boat that evening ; it should also be remarked that no other vessel of the same class was ever seen about the Cape.

On another occasion, a similar phenomenon was witnessed by the *Leven*, and a boat was apparently lowered, as is generally the case when the phantom seeks to lure his victim ; the veteran sailor was not, however, to be caught,* and the *Leven*, after many perils, reached England in safety.

Thrice when a passenger in a merchant ship, I saw a vessel in nearly similar circumstances : on one occasion we hoisted lights over the gangway to speak with the stranger ; the third time was on my recent return from India. We had been in " dirty weather," as the sailors say, for several days, and to beguile the afternoon, I commenced after dinner narrating to the French officers and passen-

* It is said that any vessel which the " Dutchman " can get his letters on board of is certain to be lost.

gers (who were strangers to the Eastern seas), the stories current about the "Flying Dutchman:" the wind, which had been freshening during the evening now blew a stiff gale, and we proceeded on deck to see the crew make our bark all snug for the night; —the clouds, dark and heavy, coursed with rapidity across the moon, whose lustre is peculiarly bright in the S. hemisphere, and we could see a distance of from eight to ten miles on the horizon; suddenly the second officer, a fine Marseilles sailor, who had been among the foremost in the cabin to ridicule the story of the "Flying Dutchman," ascended the weather-rigging, exclaiming "*Voilà le volant Hollandais!*" The captain sent for his night-glass, and soon observed, "It is very strange, but there is a ship bearing down upon us with *all sail* set, while we dare scarcely shew a pocket-handkerchief to the breeze." In a few minutes the stranger was visible to all on deck, her rig plainly discernible, and people on her poop; she seemed to near us with great rapidity, and apparently wished to pass under our quarter, as if for the purpose of speaking; the captain, a resolute Bordeaux mariner, said it was quite incomprehensible, and sent for the trumpet to hail or answer, when, in an instant, and while we were all standing on the *qui vive*, the stranger totally disappeared, and was no more seen. I give this, coupled with Captain Owen's statement, without remark, and, but that it would seem frivolous, could relate several other instances. The reader will, I hope, excuse this digression, which could not well

be avoided in treating of the Cape of Good Hope, whose name is almost constantly associated with the "Flying Dutchman."

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—The vegetation of South Africa is unique, varied, and beautiful. Indeed there are so many varieties of plants at the Cape, that when Linnæus received a large number of specimens from thence, he remarked to his correspondent, "*You have conferred on me the greatest pleasure, but you have thrown my whole system into disorder.*" At Cape Peninsula, in the spring of the year, the whole surface, excepting the heaths, &c., is covered with the large *Othonna* (so like the daisy as to be distinguished only by a botanist), springing up in myriads out of a verdant carpet, composed generally of the low creeping *Trifolium Melilotos*, the *Oxalis Cerima*, and others of the same genus, varying through every tint of colour from brilliant red, purple, violet, yellow, down to snowy whiteness, and the *Hypoxis Stellata*, or star-flower, with its regular radiated *corolla*, some of golden yellow, some of a clear unsullied white; others containing in each flower white, violet, and deep green, are equally numerous and infinitely more beautiful. Barrow justly observes that, whilst these are involving the petals of their showy flowrets at the setting sun, the modest *Ixia cinnamomea* (of which there are two varieties), that has remained closed up in its brown *calyx* all day, now expands its small white blossoms, and scents the air throughout the night with its fragrant odours.

The tribe of *Ixias* are extremely elegant and

numerous, one species bearing a long upright spike of green flowers.

The *Iris*, *Moraa*, *Antholiza*, and *Gladiolus* furnish a great variety of species, not less beautiful than the *Ixia*. The *Gladiolus* (Africaner), with its tall waving spike of striped, or of deep crimson flowers, is uncommonly elegant.

The *Liliaceous* class is exceedingly grand, particularly the *Amaryllis*. The sides of the hills are sweetly perfumed with the family of the *Geraniums*, exhibiting such variety of foliage that it has been supposed this tribe of plants imitate, in their leaves, every genus in the vegetable world.

The *Ericæ* (heaths) have long been acknowledged pre-eminent in variety and beauty at the Cape, and flourish equally on stony hills or sandy plains. That species called the *Physodes*, with its clusters of white glazed flowers, exhibiting in the sunshine a very beautiful appearance, is peculiar to the swampy crevices of lofty mountains, as is also a tall elegant frutescent plant, the *Cennæa mucronata*. Little inferior to the *Ericæ* are the several species of the genera *Polygala*, *Brunia*, *Diosma*, *Borbonia*, *Cliffortia*, &c., which it would be beyond my limits even to enumerate. Nowhere, in fact, can the botanist find a richer and more delightful field for his interesting pursuits than in Southern Africa and its adjacent coasts.

An endless variety of frutescent or shrubby plants grow in wild luxuriance, some on the hills, some in the deep chasms in the mountains, and others on the

sandy isthmus of the Cape ; but it is singular that, of the numerous *Protea* indiscriminately produced on almost every hill in the colony, the *Protea argentea* is confined to the base of the Table Mountain, and has not been found in any other part of the world. This beautiful shrub has been aptly termed the *silver tree*, its rich foliage being of a lustrous satin, with a soft texture, as if woven of a pillowy down, offering a deep contrast to the dark foliage of the surrounding oak, and the still deeper hue of the stone pine.

The *Conocarpa* (Kreupel broom of the Dutch) grows along the sides of the hills ; the bark is employed for tanning leather, and the branches for firewood. The *Grandiflora speciosa* and *mellifera* grow everywhere in wild luxuriance, as do also the larger kinds of *Erica*, *Phyllicas*, *Brunias*, *Polygalas*, *Olea Capensis*, *Euclea racemosa*, *Sophora*, and many other arboraceous plants. The *Palma Christi* (castor oil plant) and the *Aloe* are met with everywhere in great plenty. The *dwarf mulberry* flourishes, and the *Myrica cerifera* (from the berries of which a firm and pure wax is procured by simple boiling) is found growing wild in abundance on the heathy sides of the hills.

Avenues of *oak* (Durmast) trees, and plantations of the *white poplar*, *stone pine*, &c., are to be seen near most of the country houses.

The most valuable trees at the Cape are the *Stink wood* (a species of *Quercus* peculiar to South Africa) and the *Geel hout*, or yellow wood (*Taxus elongata*,

Lin.), both of which are excellently adapted for building, furniture, and all domestic purposes; they generally attain a height of 50 feet, with a diameter of 10.

The following table will give some idea of the variety of timber in the colony (although many sorts are not here enumerated*), and which, if there were no duty payable on its importation into England, would become a valuable article of traffic.

* The woods most used in Albany are the *red* and *white milk*, *red* and *white els*, *red* and *white pear*, *saffron*, *iron wood*, *assagai*, and *sneeze woods*.

Colonial Names.	General Size.		Quality.	Uses.	Linnean Names.
	Height, with- out a branch.	Diameter.			
Bosche bourboontjes	feet.	feet. in.			
Buffel boorn . . .	12 to 14	0 to 9	Hard and close	Wagon wheels	{ Schotia, or Guaiacum (New species)
Buckan hout . . .	15 — 25	2	Tough	Very little used	Roemeria spectosa
Camdebo stink hout	12 — 15	3	Soft and porous		Coralodendrum
Castange hout . . .	20	1	Soft	Staves for butter firkins	
Cajate hout . . .	12 — 20	1	Tough	Chests, drawers, &c.	Thuia (new species)
Cyprus, or cedar hout.	12 — 20	1	Of fir	Waggon wheels & poles	Mimosa Karroo
Doorn hout . . .	8 — 10	1	Hard and tough	Balk, beams, planks, &c.	Ekkebergia capensis
Essen hout . . .	20 — 25	10	Not unlike deal		Taxus elongata
Geel hout, Autinequa	12 — 15	1		Veneering	Taxus
Geel hout (proper) . .	14 — 16	1	Very hard	Sometimes in waggon	
Gomassie hout . . .	20 — 40	3	Like plain mahogany	Fellies and spokes, chairs	Curtisia faginea
Assagai hout . . .	12	1	Very hard		Schotia speciosa
Hottentots' Bourboontje	12 — 14	1	Hard and close	Not much used	Euclea
Hoenderspor . . .	6 — 8	10	Tough	For bows	Kiggelaria Africana
Karoo hout . . .	12	1	Light and soft	Spars, rafters, &c.	Sophora Capensis
Keur hout . . .	20	2½			

Klip Essen	20	0 1 to 10	Hard and short	Little used	
Koega	10	0 8 —	Hard and tough	Carriage poles	
Massanie hout	20	3 5	Like hyer hout	Known only eastward	
Melk hout	6	1	Very hard [ter well]	Ploughs	Sideroxylon inerme
Niest hout	15	1	Very hard, stands wa-	In Buryntjes Hoogte	
Olyven hout	6	1	Very hard	General	Olea Capensis
Rood Peer	20	3	Hard and tough	Axles, waggon poles, &c.	
Rood Els	15	2	Stands water well	Mill work	
Saly hout	15	1	Hard and heavy	Not much used	Cunonia Capensis
Saffron hout	10	1 2	Close and hard	Waggon yokes	Budicia Salvifolia
Seybast	10	7	Tough, black like silk	Carriage poles	Ilex crocea
Stink hout	20	3 5	Like walnut	Carriage poles	Celastrus
Wilgen hout	6	10	Of willow	Furniture	Laurus bullatus
Wilde grenate	12	8	Short	Little used	Salis Babylonica
Wilde Vier	10	7	Hard	Chairs, table feet, &c.	Burhelia Capensis
Witte hout	15	1 2	Light and soft	Spars, rafters, &c.	Chilianthus glabra
Wit Essen hout	12	3	Close and soft	Plank generally	Sophora Capensis
Wit Yzer hout	25	45	Very hard	Ploughs and axles	
Witte bosch hout	20	2	Light and soft	Light fellies	Sideroxylon
Witte Elis	10	3	Soft and tough	Plank for boxes, &c.	Olea sp.
Wit Peer	15	2 3	Hard and tough	For all parts of waggons	Wienmannia trifoliata
Zwart bast	12	1	Ditto	Fit for poles of all sorts	Royena
Zwart Yzer hout	25	4	Very hard	Ploughs and axles	Sideroxylon Malanophe-
Zwarte hout	20	1 2½	Hard and tough	Waggon fellies	

In the eastern districts there are various species of the *euphorbia*, *strelitzia*, *crassula*, *aloe*, *briony*, beautiful scarlet *cotyledons*, *jessamines*, &c.

In the neighbourhood of Graham's Town, where the climate is probably the finest in the world, the *coralodendron* grows as tall as the stately oak, and in the spring produces great clusters of deep scarlet flowers from a dark velvet calyx. It is hardly possible to imagine the brilliance and beauty of its appearance, the whole of its branches being covered with blossoms. The *Strelitzia regnia* produces flowers in the greatest profusion. What at home are considered beautiful specimens of *geranium* are here treated as garden weeds, and rooted out to make room for more favourite plants; the colonists indeed often form the garden hedges of the *ivy-leafed geranium*. The Karroo desert is chiefly covered with varieties of *mesembryanthemum*, *crassula*, *stapelia*, and *euphorbia*, with tufts or bunches of wiry grass, expanding widely after rain.

The botanical riches of the Cape are thus interestingly described by several travellers, and by a writer in the *Emigration Gazette*:—

“All that I pictured to myself,” exclaimed Mr. Burchell, one of the most enlightened of modern travellers, “respecting the riches of the Cape in botany, was far surpassed by what I saw in one day's walk. At every step a different plant appeared; and it is not an exaggerated description of the country if it should be compared to a botanic garden, neglected and left to grow in a state of

nature; so great was the variety everywhere to be met with. As I walked along," he continues, "in the midst of the variety and profusion, I could not for some time divest myself of feelings of regret, that at every step my foot crushed some beautiful plant; for it is not easy, during one's first rambles in this country to lay aside a kind of respect with which it is customary in Europe to treat the *Proteas*, the *Ericas*, the *Pelargoniums*, the *Chironias*, the *Royenas*, &c. To give some idea of the botanical riches of the country, I need only state, that in the short distance of one English mile, though the most favourable season had passed, and many of the bulbous and herbaceous plants had disappeared under the influence of the drought, I collected in four hours and a half, 105 distinct species, and I believe that more than double that number may, by searching at different times, be found on the same ground."

Nothing, perhaps, is calculated so much to strike the attention of a stranger as the great extent of certain groups, and the vast number of different kinds included in them. Among them may especially be enumerated the heaths, for which the Cape has long been celebrated, and the beauty and delicacy of which are familiar to all of us from the great number cultivated (no less than 500 species and varieties) in the green-houses of our gardens. Yet in the colony, notwithstanding their elegance and beauty, so little do they strike the attention of the people, that they have not even a name, but, when spoken of, are indiscriminately called bosjes (bushes). It does not

appear, however, that the range of the heaths is very extensive; for, on coming to the Karroo Pass, Mr. Burchell observes, "four of the strongest and most characteristic features of Cape botany, the *Ericæ*, the *Diosmæ*, the *Proteaceous*, and *Restiaceous* tribes entirely disappear; nor did I meet again with any of them till two years afterwards, when I re-entered the same botanical parallel at Zwartwater Poort, lying in the same parallel of latitude as Karroo Pass, but at six degrees longitude more to the eastward. The heath was *Erica plukenetia*. This lovely tribe had attended me the whole way from Cape Town, till now that I was arrived at the very door of the desert, beyond which the scorching heat rendered it impossible for them to exist; and it seemed as if this handsome species had accompanied me till the last moment, to take a long farewell in the name of the whole family."

"Amidst all these beauties," says Captain Carmichael, "the Cape heaths stand confessedly unrivalled. Nature has not restricted these elegant shrubs to one particular soil or situation. You meet with them in the marshes, and on the banks of rivers; in the richest soil, and on the barest mural cliffs; on the acclivities of the hills, and the tops of the highest mountains. The form of their flowers is as varied as their colours; some are cup-shaped, some globular, some exhibit the figure of a cone, others that of a cylinder contracted at the mouth, or swelled out like a trumpet; some are smooth and glossy, others covered with down, or mucilage. The predominant

colour is red, but you meet with white, green, yellow, and purple, of every colour, in short, but blue,—a fact, which deserves notice, when we consider the almost unlimited extent of the genus.”

The *Proteaceae* constitute an equally striking feature at the Cape, a tribe of plants almost wholly confined to the southern hemisphere. Nearly 200 species are known to be natives of southern Africa; and of these, many are conspicuous for the extreme beauty and magnitude of their flowers, which excite the admiration of the most careless observer. Those who have visited Cape Town cannot fail to be acquainted with the silver tree, no less remarkable for the delicate silver covering of its foliage, than for its large and showy blossoms; yet this is the common fuel of the place. Near Cape Town is a village called Whiteboom, a name which, with great propriety, it has received on account of the numerous plantations of large Whitteboom, or silver tree, which grow about it. The native station of this handsome tree is the sloping ground at the foot of the eastern side of Table Mountain; and at present very large groves occupy the northern side next the town. “That this place,” Mr. Burchell observes, “should be the only part in all the colony where it grows wild, can be no object of wonder to any person who has the least knowledge of the character of Cape botany; since the natural places of growth of a multitude of other plants are circumscribed by limits equally contracted.” “Next to the heaths,” says a late intelligent naturalist, “for variety and beauty,

stand the *Proteas*. In the stem, the leaves, the flower, and the fruit of these plants, there appears such diversity, as if nature had created them with a view to setting botanical arrangement at defiance: and the name imposed on the genus would seem to indicate that she had been in some degree successful. The silver tree (*Protea argentea*) grows to the height of a middling-sized tree; while the *Protea repens*, at the other extreme, creeps along the sand, and bears on its slender stem a flower which, from its size and colour, might at first sight be mistaken for an orange. The intermediate space is occupied by upwards of sixty species, which display an extraordinary diversity in form and habit. Some have small blossoms that attract the attention of no one except the botanist; others, at the elevation of a few inches, bear a flower that exceeds in size the crown of a hat, and strikes with wonder the most indifferent passenger. In the inflorescence of some species, particularly the *Protea mellifera*, a vast quantity of honey is secreted, which attracts swarms of bees, beetles, and other insects, whose variegated colours and active movements heighten the interest of the scene; nor is this interest at all diminished, when the Cape humming-bird (*Certhia chalybea*) joins the animated group, and, perching on the border of the chalice, darts its tubular tongue into the bottom of the flower, or snaps at the insects as they buzz around."

More numerous than the *Proteaceæ*, though of humbler growth, and bearing smaller but not less brilliant flowers, are the fig marygolds (*Mesembry-*

anthemum), a genus almost peculiar to South Africa. The principal species of this plant, of which upwards of 300 have been enumerated, seem admirably adapted for fixing the loose shifting sand, with which a great part of the country is covered, spreading over the ground from a central point: a single specimen shades a great extent of surface, and affords a singular relief to the eye, fatigued by the powerful reflection of light. In its thick fleshy foliage it possesses a magazine of juices, which enables it to bear, without shrinking, a long privation of moisture, at the same time that it gives shelter to the nascent shoots of other plants which spring up in its bosom. The mucilaginous capsules of the Hottentot fig (*M. edule*), are the chief material of an agreeable preserve. Nature has made a beautiful provision for the increase of some of the annual kinds of fig marygold, in the property of the capsule, which, contrary to most fruits of the kind, is firmly closed in a period of drought, and only opens and discharges the seed in the wet weather, when the parched and sandy deserts which this plant inhabits are moistened with the prolific rain. Even after having been long gathered, the capsule retains the same property, being shut in a dry atmosphere, and readily expanding wide in water, and very rapidly in warm water. *Mesembryanthemum coriarium* of Burchell is employed by the Hottentots for tanning leather.

The place of the *Cactuses* (a genus wholly unknown to the old world) seems to be occupied by a peculiar and very extensive group of *Euphorbeas*,

which have the fantastic and varied forms of that singular tribe, and occupy the very same arid and rocky situations. Many of them rise to a vast height, with their highly succulent, and often prickly and angled stems and branches, not unlike candelabra.

The *Tamus elephantopus* is a very remarkable plant, now well known in the green-houses of the curious. "The mountains of Graaf Reinet," says Mr. Burchell, "are the native soil of this extraordinary production, which is called Hottentot's Brood (Hottentot's Bread). Its bulb stands entirely above ground, and grows to an enormous size, frequently three feet in height and diameter. It is closely studded with angular ligneous protuberances, which give it some resemblance to the shell of a tortoise. The inside is a fleshy substance, like a turnip in consistence and colour. From the top rise several annual twining stems. The Hottentots eat the inner substance, which is considered not unwholesome baked on the embers. It will easily be believed that this food may not be very unlike the East-India yam, since the plant belongs to a very closely allied genus.

Indigofera prevail very much, and the acacias, which present some remarkable species. *A. vera* and *A. capensis* are often loaded with large lumps of very good and clear gum, and they have so great a resemblance to the true acacia of the ancients, or the tree which yields the gum-arabic, as to have been considered the same species. Whenever these trees are wounded, the gum exudes; and it is probable that a large crop might thus be annually obtained

without destroying them. If a computation could be made of the quantity that might be obtained from those trees only which skirt the river Gariep and its branches, amounting to a line of wood (reckoning both sides) of more than 2,000 miles, it might be worth while to teach and encourage the natives to collect it, which they would readily do, if they knew that tobacco could always be had in exchange. Indeed, the supply thus obtained would be more than equal to the whole consumption of Britain. The *Acacia capens* (*Doornboom*) or thorn-tree, *Witte-doorn* (white-thorn), and *Karradoorn* (colotrothorn), has straight white thorns, two to four inches long, and is certainly the most abundant and widely disseminated tree of the extra-tropical parts of Southern Africa. *Acacia giraffæ* abounds in the Bechuana country, and was first noticed by Mr. Burchell, who saw it there for the first time, and describes it as a remarkable species, having thick brown thorns and an oval pod of a solid mealy substance within, and which never opens as those of other acacias: in this resembling only the *A. atomiphylla*. The head of it is thick and spreading, and of a highly peculiar form, which distinguishes it at a great distance. It is called Kameeldoorn (camel-thorn), because the cameleopard browses chiefly on it, and is one of the largest trees in these regions. Its wood is excessively hard and heavy, of a dark or reddish-brown colour, and is used by the Bechuanas for their smaller domestic utensils, as spoons, knife-handles, &c. Though other species resemble the *A. giraffæ* in

form and growth, yet the pod alone is sufficient to distinguish it easily from all others. *A. detinens* is so called by Mr. Burchell from the following circumstance. Describing the country about Zand Valley (Sand Valley), in lat. 29 deg. 48 min., he says —“ The largest shrubs were nearly five feet high, a plant quite new to me, but well known to the Klaarwater people, by the name of Haakedoorn (hook-thorn). I was preparing to cut some specimens, when, though proceeding with the utmost caution, a small twig caught hold of one sleeve. While trying to disengage myself with the other hand, both arms were seized by these rapacious thorns, and the more I tried to extricate myself, the more entangled I became; till at last it seized hold of my hat also, and convinced me that there was no possibility of getting free but by main force, and at the expense of tearing all my clothes. I therefore called for help, and two of my men came, and released me by cutting off the troublesome branches. In revenge for this ill-treatment, I determined to give to the tree a name which should serve to caution future travellers against venturing within its clutches.” The roots of *A. elephantinum* constitute a favourite food of the elephant. The *Compositæ* are extremely widely dispersed, many being woody kinds, especially of aster, while the number and variety of the gnaphaliums and xeranthemums are quite astonishing: many of them retain the form and colour of the flower long after they have been gathered, and hence derive their name of everlasting. A great variety of timber is found

along the tract of coast to Plettenberg Bay, a distance of nearly 200 miles; but the indolence or apathy of the Dutch rendered it of little use to the colonists. The only kind that has been introduced into general use is the geel hout (*Taxus elongata*), which is employed in house-building. For furniture they occasionally use stink hout (*Laurus teterrima*), though the execrable odour it diffuses for some time after it has been worked forms a well-grounded objection to its general adoption. It possesses the colour, hardness, and durability of the heart of oak.

The vegetable productions of the country surrounding Algoa Bay are, in many respects, different from those of the vicinity of Cape Town. The heaths and proteas almost disappear, and in their room are numerous species of aloe and euphorbea. These, for the most part, garnish the rocks and precipices: the *Aloe perfoliata* alone occupies the plains, and with its superb scarlet spikes resembles, at a distance, skirmishing parties of British soldiers. A singular species of euphorbea (*E. caput Medusæ*) grows also in the plains among the grass, where it appears as a round ball, without stem or leaves, and bears a striking resemblance in shape to the common echinus. In dry weather the cattle eat it for the sake of its juice. Many useful plants grow here; the stem of *Zami cycadifolia*, when stripped of its leaves, resembles a large pine-apple. It is called the Hottentot bread-fruit. These people bury it for some months in the ground, then pound it, and extract a quantity of farinaceous matter of the nature

of sago. With infinite labour they dig the root of a species of antholyza, which lodges at the depth of a foot or more in the hardest gravelly soil. To accomplish this, they are under the necessity of using an iron crowbar, and the produce of half an hour's toil, which they call untjie, does not exceed the bulk of a chestnut. Various other bulbs, of the classes hexandria and triandria, are esculent; but the long period of time requisite for their full devopment will for ever prevent their cultivation as an article of food. The flowering spikes of the *Aponogeton distachyon*, known by the name of water untjie, are in high repute as a pickle. The *Aretopus eschinatus* has recently acquired a considerable share of reputation as an antisyphilitic. It was tried by some British medical men, whose report was favourable. The discovery of its virtues is due to the Malays, who have long used it. The root bears some resemblance to that of the parsnip, and is the only part employed, being boiled in water, and the decoction administered to the extent of a quart daily, operating without any perceptible effect on the constitution. The candleberry myrtle (*Myrica quercifolia*) grows along the coast on dry sandy plains, exposed to the sea air where hardly any other plant will vegetate. The wax is in the form of a rough crust, investing the berries, and is extracted by boiling them in water, straining the decoction, and suffering it to cool. It is of a greenish colour, and possesses the hardness, without the tenacity, of bees'-wax. When made into candles, it gives a very fine light.

Several species of the *indigofera* (*indigo plant*) grow wild; the *cactus* (on which the cochineal insect feeds) thrives; various species of the *gossypium* (*cotton plant*) flourish in the eastern parts of South Africa;* the *tea plant*, a hardy shrub, which, when once planted, is not easily eradicated, has long been in the country, the soil, climate, and face of which bear so strong a resemblance to Fokien and the other tea provinces of China, that it is singular no attention has yet been paid to its culture: flax yields two crops in the year, and the tobacco plant is large and of a fine odour.† Hemp, tobacco, opium, cotton, silk, and even tea, may one day become extensive articles of export from South Africa.

Of fruit there is every variety belonging to the tropical and temperate zones—*oranges*, *lemons*, *citrons* (several kinds), *figs*, *guavas*, *grapes*, *melons*, *pomegranates*, *shaddocks*, *quinces*, *jambos*, *loquats*, *peaches*, *nectarines*, *pears*, *apples*, *plums*, *mulberries*, *raspberries*, *strawberries*, *gooseberries*, &c., *almonds*, *walnuts*, *chestnuts*, *hazelnuts*, are all large and of excellent flavour.

There are a great variety of grapes grown at the Cape, and equal to those of any part of the world; a

* I found a very fine creeping cotton plant at Delagoa Bay, growing on the Red Cliffs, along English River; the pods were very small, but the fibre, long, elastic, and easily separated from the seed.

† The slaves and Hottentots are passionately fond of smoking the dried leaves of a plant called *dacha* (in India *bang* or *beng*—a species of wild hemp), generally mixed with tobacco. It has the same stimulant effect as opium.

large white Persian grape (*haenapod* or *cocksfoot*) yields a delicious but costly wine; the grape being fleshy, is generally reared for the purpose of being converted into raisins.

The vine is generally planted at the Cape of Good Hope as in Normandy, in rows like gooseberry-bushes;—at some vineyards, such as Constantia, the vine is supported on frames, raised a few feet above the earth, or on lofty trellises, along which they spread in luxuriant richness. On an acre of ground may thus be planted 5,000 vines, which will yield five leaguers or pipes (760 gallons) of wine. The average wholesale price of the leaguer is 80 shillings.

Of culinary vegetables, every variety, and of the finest quality, is grown at the Cape: the potatoes are such as would please the most fastidious Corkonian, and the excellent kitchen market at Cape Town would, in variety and excellence, outvie Covent Garden on its palmiest May-day.

The various grains cultivated are now much improved by the introduction of fresh seed from England, India, and Australia; new grasses have been laid down, and the system of turnip husbandry, commenced in the English districts, is extending among the Dutch agriculturists.

ANIMAL KINGDOM.—In South Africa are found the largest and the smallest of the animated kingdom. Among the beasts are the elephant, weighing 4,000 lbs., and the black streaked mouse, only the fourth part of an ounce! The *Cameleopardalis* or *Gi-*

raffe, 17 feet high, and the elegant *Zenik* or *Viverra*, of three inches; and among the feathered tribes, the *ostrich*, six feet high, and the *creeper*, about the size of a cherry.

Of the thirty different species of *antelope* known in natural history, South Africa possesses eighteen; besides these, there is the largest of the *eland* or *oreas* that exists, *viz.* six feet high, together with the *pigmy* or *royal antelope*, which is little more than six inches; the *springbok* or *leaping antelope* is met with in herds of 4,000 or 5,000.

The *lion*, the *leopard*, the *panther*, and various species of the *tiger-cat* (but not the *striped Bengal tiger*), are indigenous. The *wolf*, the *hyena*, and three or four different kinds of *jackal*, are everywhere found, as also the *ant-eater*, the *iron hog*, or *crested porcupine*, the *viverra* (that burrows in the ground), the *jerboa* (nearly allied to the *kangaroo*), and several species of *hares*.

Buffaloes are numerous in the woods and thickets; many of the plains abound with *zebras*, with the stronger and more elegant *quagga*, as well as with large herds of that singular-looking animal the *gnu*, which partakes of the form of the ox, the horse, the antelope, and the stag.* In the mountains there are large troops of the *dog-faced baboon*, and swarms of *apes* and *monkeys* of all sizes. The vast *hippopotamus*, and equally bulky *rhinoceros*, likewise abound in the eastern district.

* As cultivation and civilization extend, the wild animals retreat towards the north and east.

A few brief notices of some of these animals may serve to diversify a work at times unavoidably tedious and dry; with this view I subjoin the following, in the hope of attracting some readers to examine the resources, &c., of our colonies.

Lion.—Of this noble animal two varieties (the yellow and the brown or black) exist in South Africa, both, however, retreating before the progress of European colonization; the dark-coloured is the stronger and fiercer of the two: their strength is prodigious. Well-authenticated accounts prove that a lion can carry off an ox or a horse with nearly as great ease as a fox does a goose. A young lion has been known to carry a good-sized horse a mile from the spot where he killed it; and an instance occurred in the *Sneeuwberg* where a lion carried off a two-year-old heifer, and when his track or *spoor* was followed by the hunters for five hours on horseback, throughout the whole distance the carcase only once or twice was discovered to have touched the ground. Sparrman says he saw a lion at the Cape take a heifer in his mouth, and though the legs trailed on the ground, he carried it off as a cat would a rat, and leaped a broad dike without the least difficulty. Like the rest of the feline tribe, the lion lies in wait for his prey, crouching among grass and reeds near pools and fountains, or in narrow ravines;—he will spring from nine to twelve yards at a bound, and can repeat these springs for a short time. Denied, however, the fleetness of the hound or wolf, the lion, by a few quick and amazing

bounds, can seize the tall giraffe or cameleopard ;—
 this circumstance has been thus beautifully described
 by the late Mr. Pringle :—

THE LION AND THE GIRAFFE.

Wouldst thou view the lion's den ?
 Search afar from haunts of men—
 Where the reed-encircled rill
 Oozes from the rocky hill,
 By its verdure far descried,
 'Mid the desert, brown and wide.

Close beside the sedgy brim
 Couchant lurks the lion grim ;
 Watching till the close of day
 Brings the death-devoted prey.
 Heedless at the ambushed brink,
 The tall giraffe stoops down to drink :
 Upon him straight the savage springs
 With cruel joy. The desert rings
 With clanging sound of desperate strife—
 For the prey is strong, and strives for life.

Plunging oft with frantic bound,
 To shake the tyrant to the ground,
 He shrieks—he rushes through the waste,
 With glaring eye and headlong haste :
 In vain !—the spoiler on his prize
 Rides proudly—tearing as he flies.

For life—the victim's utmost speed
 Is mustered in this hour of need
 For life—for life—his giant might
 He strains, and pours his soul in flight ;
 And, mad with terror, thirst, and pain,
 Spurns with wild hoof the thundering plain.

'Tis vain ; the thirsty sands are drinking
His streaming blood—his strength is sinking ;
The victor's fangs are in his veins—
His flanks are streaked with sanguine stains—
His panting breast in foam and gore
Is bathed—he reels—his race is o'er :
He falls—and, with convulsive throes,
Resigns his throat to the rav'ning foe !
And lo ! ere quivering life has fled,
The vultures, wheeling overhead,
Swoop down, to watch, in gaunt array,
Till the gorged tyrant quits his prey.

Instances have been known of the giraffe thus carrying a lion twenty miles before sinking under the attack of its destroyer.

The lions inhabiting the Bushmen's country are said to be remarkably fierce, and it is generally credited, that though at first averse to attack man, yet when they have once tasted human flesh, they lose that awe of him which they usually evince unless when extremely hungry ; indeed it is asserted, when a lion has once succeeded in carrying off some unhappy wretch, he will return regularly every night in search of another ; and there are instances where the native tribes have been so dreadfully harassed, as to be forced at times to desert their station and seek another settlement. It is also a singular fact, that he prefers black men to whites.

An instance of this occurred when I was on board his Majesty's ship *Ariadne*, where Captain Chapman had a huge pet lion named *Prince*, which he had reared from a cub : *Prince* was good friends with

the sailors, and in particular with the marine drummer, whom he delighted to seize by the shoulder-knot and pull on his back.

Having captured a slave ship, the unfortunate beings were sent in our ship from the Seychelles to the Mauritius; the moment they came on board, *Prince's* manners were quite altered; he soon tore one of them down, and until they were disembarked, it was necessary to keep him in durance vile instead of allowing him to scamper about the decks like a huge playful cat.

Several curious instances have been narrated of the unwillingness of the lion to attack man: the following will suffice, and at the same time demonstrate the courage of the Cape Dutchman.

Diederick Muller, one of the most intrepid lion-hunters in South Africa (he and his brother Christian having killed upwards of thirty), was once hunting alone in the wilds, when he came suddenly on a lion, who, instead of giving way as they generally do, seemed disposed to dispute with him the dominion of the desert. Diederick alighted, and when at 15 yards distance, took aim at his forehead, the lion being then couched and in the act of springing; the moment the hunter fired, his affrighted horse started back, and the bridle being round his arm, caused him to miss. The lion bounded forward, and at a few paces distance confronted the hunter, who stood defenceless, his gun having been discharged and his horse fled.

The man and the beast stared at each other with

fixed eyes for a few moments : at length the latter slowly drew backwards, whilst Diederick began to load his gun ; at this movement the lion growled, looked over his shoulder, and returned. Diederick stood still ; the lion again sneaked back, when the boor proceeded to ram down his bullet, on which the lion again returned, growling angrily. At length, when he had increased his distance to 20 yards, he suddenly turned round, and fairly took to his heels. There can be no doubt that the resolution of Diederick saved his life, for had he exhibited the least sign of fear, or given way one inch, the savage beast would have sprung upon him instantly.

The encounter of Gert Schepers, a Vee Boor of the Cradock district, with a lion, had, however, a less fortunate result. Gert was out hunting in company with a neighbour, and coming to a fountain surrounded with tall reeds, he handed his gun to his comrade whilst he proceeded to search for water. He no sooner approached the spring than an enormous lion sprang up close at his side and seized him by the left arm. The man thus taken by surprise, aware that the least motion would insure his instant destruction, stood stock still and fixed his eyes on those of the lion, who, unable to withstand the gaze of his victim, closed his own, still holding him fast with his fangs, but without biting him severely. As they stood in this position for some moments, Gert beckoned to his companion to approach and shoot the lion in the forehead, which he might easily have done, as the animal still kept his

eyes fast closed, but his cowardly comrade retreated to the top of a neighbouring rock.

Had Gert remained quiet for a few moments, the hunters affirm that the lion would have released his hold and left him uninjured, but he lost patience, and seeing himself abandoned, drew his knife, and with his whole force plunged it into the animal's breast. The thrust was a deadly one, but the enraged beast now strove to grapple with him; the hunter, who was a powerful man, used his utmost efforts to keep him at arms' length, but the beast in his dying agonies so dreadfully lacerated his breast and arms as to lay the bones bare. At length they fell together, and his cowardly companion, who had witnessed the fearful struggle, took courage to advance and succeeded in carrying his mangled friend to the nearest habitation, but he expired on the third day, of locked jaw.

Numerous instances are related of the forbearance of the lion towards the human race, especially when satiated with his favourite meal of horse-flesh. Mr. Pringle, in his delightful *African Sketches*, relates an instance of which he was an eye-witness, where a party of Scotch settlers at Albany went out to destroy a lion who had been eating their horses;—they bearded the monarch of the forest in his den, and fired at him without effect; the noble beast sprang at them, and with one stroke of his paw dashed the nearest to the ground—placed his terrific paw on the prostrate Scotchman, and with the most imposing port imaginable looked round on his assail-

ants, conscious of his power, but with clemency towards his victim; satisfied with this exhibition of what he could effect when roused, the majestic animal turned calmly away, bounded over the adjoining thicket, clearing brakes and bushes 12 or 15 feet high, and returned to the mountains.

Many authentic instances have been recorded of the affection and gratitude of which the lion is susceptible; with the brief narration of one that was witnessed by myself, I close this account of the African Lion. *Prince* (the tame lion before mentioned) had a keeper to whom he was much attached; the keeper got drunk one day, and as the captain never forgave this crime, was ordered to be flogged; the grating was rigged on the main deck opposite *Prince's* den, a large barred-up place, the pillars very strong and cased with iron. When the keeper began to strip, *Prince* rose gloomily from his couch and got as near to his friend as possible; on beholding his bare back he walked hastily round the den, and when he saw the boatswain inflict the first lash, his eyes sparkled with fire, and his sides resounded with the strong and quick lashings of his tail; at last when the blood began to flow from the unfortunate man's back, and the clotted "cats" jerked their gory knots close to the lion's den, his fury became tremendous, he roared with a voice of thunder, shook the strong bars of his prison as if they had been osiers, and finding his efforts to break loose unavailing, he rolled and shrieked in a manner the most terrific that it is possible to conceive. The

Captain, fearing he might break loose, ordered the marines to load and present at *Prince*: this threat redoubled his rage, and at last the Captain (whether from fear or clemency I will not say) desired the keeper to be cast off and go in to his friend. It is impossible to describe the joy evinced by the lion; he licked with care the mangled and bleeding back of the cruelly treated seaman—caressed him with his paws, which he folded around the man as if to defy any one renewing a similar treatment, and it was only after several hours that *Prince* would allow the keeper to quit his protection and return among those who had so ill-used him.

Elephants are met with in the E. district of the colony, and become numerous as we proceed eastward. I saw a herd of them at Delagoa Bay to the number of about fifty, and as they had young with them, I had a narrow escape; owing my safety, in fact, to climbing a large tree, where I remained some hours, firing with my fowling-piece leaden balls, which did not appear to produce the slightest effect. Elephants seldom attack man, unless they have young with them, or when one is driven from among his companions, or when wounded; in the latter case, the usually passive nature of the elephant is changed into the fury of the lion; yet the Dutch colonists boldly attack him. Mr. Thomson, in his interesting travels, relates a curious and fatal instance of hardness towards an elephant:—

“Our hostess gave the account of the recent death of one of her relations in the following man-

ner. On the 1st of January a party of friends and neighbours had met together to celebrate New Year's Day, and having got heated with liquor, began each boastingly to relate the feats of hardihood they had performed. Marè, who had been a great hunter of elephants (having killed in his day above forty of these gigantic animals), laid a wager that he would go into the forest and pluck three hairs out of an elephant's tail. This feat he actually performed, and returned safely with the trophy to his comrades. But not satisfied with this daring specimen of his audacity, he laid another bet that he would return and shoot the same animal on the instant. He went accordingly, with his mighty *roer*, but never returned. He approached too incautiously, and his first shot not proving effective, the enraged animal rushed upon him before he could reload or make his escape, and having first thrust his tremendous tusk through his body, trampled him to a cake."

The Caffres usually steal behind the huge beast, whose eye is not so quick as his scent, and hamstring him.

The Rhinoceros.—There are two distinct species of the *two-horned*, found in South Africa; the horn next the snout is the largest, and in the female it is longer and more slender than in the male, being from three to four feet; strong, ponderous, and elastic. The second horn is, in many instances, especially in the female, so small as to be scarcely perceptible at a little distance. The general figure of the rhinoceros is that of an enormous hog, and of

prodigious strength. It is, probably, the unicorn alluded to in scripture.

Hippopotami, probably the leviathans of Scripture, are numerous to the eastward. I have seen them along the coast of Africa, as large as those caught on the Nile, viz. 17 feet from the extremity of the snout to the insertion of the tail; 16 feet round the body, and above seven feet in height; head four feet long, and upwards of nine in circumference; and that of a small-sized animal, weighing without the tongue 300 lbs. Jaws opening two feet, cutting teeth (four in each jaw), one foot long. The feet, broad and flat, like those of an elephant, and divided into four parts; tail short, flat, and pointed, and the hide of extraordinary thickness, with a few scattered greyish hairs. While at Delagoa Bay and on the coast we tried repeatedly to shoot one, but without effect; I have fired at them close, and the ball fell from the back as from a flexible but impenetrable surface. They are herbivorous, and delight to come on shore at night to feed, and, when living in salt water, to drink. Many of my brother officers have, on such occasions, assisted me for whole nights in endeavouring to shoot them, to intercept their return to the sea; but we nearly paid the penalty of life for our sport, as the hippopotamus when enraged is as furious as the elephant. Going on shore one day at Quiloa, on the east coast of Africa, several of those huge monsters rose close to the boat. I fired with a ship's pistol, at the distance of ten yards, without the slightest effect; one of them appeared

enraged, and came up close as if he would gripe the cutter; when the bowman thrust his oar down his throat, and was nearly pulled into the horrid gulf after it. In the Maputa River, an hippopotamus did actually seize in his jaws, and stave in, an eight-oared cutter belonging to His Majesty's ship *Leven!*

The *leopard*, *hyena*, *wolf*, *wild dog*, *ant-bear*, &c., are all retiring before the progress of civilization, but still afford good hunting in the eastern districts; where the *zebra* and *nilghau* are occasionally met with. The great variety of the *antelope* tribe has been before mentioned: that beautiful species the *Spring-Bok*, in seasons of drought, spreads over the fertile districts in swarms like locusts, returning again to the vast tracts of uninhabited country W. of the Zekoe River, when the drought ceases.

The *Klip-Springer* (*rock-leaper*) is of amazing agility; its cloven hoofs are each of them subdivided into two segments, and jagged at the edges, which gives it the power of adhering to the steep sides of the smooth rock, without danger of slipping. The colour is cinereous grey, the hair extremely light, adhering loosely to the skin, and so brittle that it breaks instead of bending. The horns are short, straight, erect, and annulated one-third of their length from the base.

The *Griesbock*, or *Grizzled Deer*, is of a grizzled or greyish colour, the ground, bright brown interspersed with silver hairs; length, two feet nine inches; height, one foot nine inches; ears five inches, black

and naked, *sinus lachrymalis* very distinct; the male is black, horns four inches, tapering to a point; the female has no horns.

The *Diüker*, or *Diver* (so called from its manner of plunging among the bushes), is of a dusky brown; length, three feet; height, two feet and a half; ears, seven inches; horns, four inches, straight, black, nearly parallel, but diverging towards the points, annulated close to the base; the female is without horns. The *sinus lachrymalis*, or *subocular indent*, which most of the antelope tribe have, is in the *Diver* so conspicuous, that the Dutch say it carries the gall bladder under the eye. There are several of the *Simia* tribe; the most remarkable is the *Ursine* or *dog-faced baboon*, of considerable strength, attaining, when full grown, the size of a large mastiff or Newfoundland dog, which latter it resembles in the shape of its head; it is covered with shaggy hair of a brownish colour, except on the face and paws, which are bare and black; on level ground it goes on all fours, but among the rocks and precipices, its natural habitations, it uses its hinder feet and hands, as a human being would do, only with greater activity. The *ursine baboons* are not carnivorous;—they associate in large troops for mutual protection.

Of domestic animals, the colonists have those of Europe in abundance, and it is hoped that the camel may, in addition, be soon introduced. The Cape horse is not generally large, but it is extremely hardy. I have ridden one upwards of 20 miles

without ever going out of a canter, the usual pace of the animal. The Cape *ox* is large, and unsightly, by reason of his wide branching horns and great limbs, and of considerable strength, though if regard were not had to the sandy roads, it might appear otherwise, when 20 or 24 are seen yoked in one waggon. A stall-fed Cape ox will weigh from 800lbs. to 900lbs. Dutch, without the offal. The beef is excellent, if the animal has not been driven a long fasting journey across the Karroo; sea-stock, which I laid in at Algoa Bay at $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ per lb., could not be surpassed at Limerick or Cork. The Cape *sheep* are long-legged, small-bodied, thin before, and with their entire fat concentrated upon the hind part of the thigh and tail, the latter being short, flat, naked on the under side, and weighing six, sometimes 12 lbs. The fat, when melted, retains the consistence of vegetable oil, and in this state is used by the Dutch as a substitute for butter, and by the English for making soap. The general weight of the sheep is from 40 to 60 lbs.; the wool (if it may be so called) is a strong frizzled hair, dropping off in September and October, and scarcely fit for stuffing cushions, &c. A Cape sheep, killed by George Muller, 3rd February, 1822, four years old, stall-fed, weighed 160 lbs. Dutch weight, alive; or 174 lbs. English, when dead. Meat, 93 lbs.; tail, 10 lbs.; fat inside, 15 lbs.; head, skin, and offal, 42 lbs.; total, 160 lbs. Dutch. Merinos are now being extensively introduced.

Birds are in great variety at the Cape; their de-

scription would alone occupy a volume. *Ostriches*, forming the connecting link between animals and the feathered tribe, are numerous. A herd on a vast plain, with their white and black plumes waving in the wind, is a magnificent sight. When not incubating, the wings are laid close to the body, and with their strong jointed legs and cloven hoofs they outstrip the courser in speed. The neck, shaped like the camel's, is covered with hair, the voice is a kind of mournful lowing, and they graze on the plain with the *zebra* and *antelope*. The *ostrich* is one of the few birds that are polygamous in a state of nature, the male, distinguished from the dusky grey female by its glossy black feathers, being generally seen with from two to five mates, who all lay their eggs in one spot. Incubation lasts six weeks, and it is said that the hatching ostrich breaks the eggs placed round the nest, when the young are brought forth, in order that they may be fed, the sandy desert yielding no immediate supply of food; if such be the case, it is another among many instances of the care which the Creator bestows on His creatures.

The *Falco serpentarius* (called the *secretary bird*, from the long feathers of its crest resembling the pens worn by a clerk behind his ears) is, I think, peculiar to the Cape; it is the inveterate enemy of snakes, and is on that account much cherished. *Eagles* (a fine species in particular nearly black), *vultures*, *kites*, *pelicans*, *flamingoes*, *cranes*, *spoon-bills*, *ibises*, *wild geese*, *ducks*, *teal*, *snipes*, *bustards*, *partridges*, *turtle-doves*, *thrushes*, and *humming birds*

of every sort are in abundance. The plumage of many of the feathered tribes is of surpassing beauty. The male of the *Loxia Orix* is remarkable for its grand plumage during the spring and summer months; in these seasons the neck, breast, beak, and upper and under part of the rump, are of a bright crimson; the throat and abdomen of a glossy black: during the other six months it adopts the modest garb of the female—a greyish brown.

The *Loxia Caffra* (*emberiza longicauda*) undergoes even a more extraordinary change than the *loxia orix*; the black feathers of the tail, which are 15 inches long, while the body is barely five, are placed in vertical positions, like those of the cock, but which it is unable to contract in its flight; the long tail, however, only continues during the cooing season; in the winter it assumes the same as that of the female, short, brown, and horizontal, when it flies like other birds. They are gregarious, build near the water on slight overhanging branches, and their nests are entirely composed of green grass, neatly plaited and knotted, with a tubular entrance on the under side next the water, as is the custom with many S. African birds, to protect the young against snakes.

Numerous birds cling to the branches of the lofty coral tree; and their dazzling plumage, reflected by the sun's rays, is most brilliant. The *sugar bird*, of dark green, hangs by its legs, and never quits the tree till the flowers fade. The *lori* is also very fond of this shrub. The nests of the birds are generally

pendent from the trees, and, waving with every breath of wind, present a singular appearance. The *woodpecker*, *kingfisher*, &c., have varied and beautiful plumage. The process of making his nest by the *tailor bird* is extraordinary: he hangs by his feet, uses his bill as a needle, and the female supplies him with long grass for thread; in this manner he actually sews the materials together, generally resting himself on the nest when he has expended one length, and waits for a further supply. The *locust bird* deserves notice. The year 1828 was ushered in by such immense swarms of *locusts* in Albany, that every part of the country was covered with them for several days, and the heavens actually darkened. It was with the greatest difficulty they were kept out of the houses. The streets and water drains were filled with them, and the putrid stench arising from the dead gave great alarm for the consequences; they devoured every vegetable thing, except French beans and peas, and, though they destroyed every vine leaf, they did not touch the grapes. They were followed, in a short time, by myriads of *locust birds*, who fell upon them and speedily cleared them off. These birds, a species of thrush, congregate in the places where the locusts migrate, and feed upon the young. It is of a pale colour on the breast and back, the rump and belly being white, and its whole food seems to consist of the *larvæ* of the insect. Their nests are formed in a ball containing cells of from ten to twenty, and each cell is a separate nest, the whole being covered with twigs,

and having a tube leading into it from the side—a mode of entrance peculiar to almost all the birds in Southern Africa. Their eggs are of a pale blue, spotted with red, and five or six are deposited in each nest.

I conclude this section with the *Honey Bird*, which the natives thus make use of. The Hottentots desirous of wild honey go to a place which they think is likely to contain the hives, and, by a kind of whistle, summon the *honey bird*, which is always lurking in the neighbourhood; this bird seems endowed with instinct to perform his part of the proceeding, for he soon appears, and actually leads the hunters to the very spot where the honey is deposited; he then takes his station on a bush, and waits until they have secured the honey, when he becomes possessor of the vacant nest and the share of the spoil, which is invariably left for him, the Hottentot having an idea that this will cause the bird to remember him, and lead him to another nest in preference to any other person. When the bird, which is rather larger than a sparrow, has eaten his fill, the hive is again closed with stones, to prevent the *badger* from destroying the young bees. There is always a plentiful supply of flowers, so that however often robbed, the bees never suffer from hunger, neither do they sting unless when hurt.

Insects. The entomologist cannot have a wider field for his pursuit than South Africa. *Ants* are very numerous; some of their hills I have seen six feet high and 12 feet in circumference at the base;

they appear to be constructed with great care, divided into galleries and apartments, and their structure is so firm, that it requires no small portion of labour with a pick-axe to destroy one of these fabrics of industry. The visitation of the *locust* is now rare.

Reptiles are not numerous. There are different species of *snakes*; but few accidents occur. The boa-constrictor, of a large size, has been killed near Natal, and also a new species of alligator; but the crocodile has not, I think, been met with; I have seen it, however, of a large size at Delagoa Bay, and, once stepping ashore, I nearly trod on one, as it lay basking in the mud, mistaking it for a log of wood. The *boa-constrictor* is much dreaded by the Caffres; and those who happen to kill one are supposed to have committed an offence which it requires the penance of lying in a running stream during the day, for several successive weeks together, to expiate. They also bury the body of the *snake* near their cattle folds with great solemnity, and no beast is allowed to be killed at the hamlet to which the offender belongs, until all those observances have been completed.

Fish are extremely abundant, and of every variety, in the bays and along the coasts; the best fish for the table is the *Roman*,* a deep rose-coloured perch,

* I have observed the fishermen at Simon's Bay continue for several days hauling up the *roman* off the rock called the Roman, at the entrance of Simon's Bay (the anchorage of False Bay), in considerable quantities. While on the coast of

caught only on False Bay and on the coast to the eastward of it. The *roman* has one back fin, with twelve spines, and a divided tail; a silver band along each side of the back fin, turning down to the belly, and a blue arched line over the upper mandible connecting the two eyes. There are several other varieties of the *perch* kind, such as the *red* and *white stone-breams*, weighing from one to 30 pounds; the *cabeljau*, with the root of the pectoral fins black, tail undivided, and one back fin grows to the weight of 30 pounds; the *silver fish* has one back fin, bifid tail, ground of a rose-coloured tinge, with five longitudinal silver bands on each side; the *stompnecus* has six transverse bands of black and white spots down each side; the *Cape herring* (a *clupea*) is a good fish; the *klip*, or *rock fish* (*Blennias viviparus*), makes an excellent fry; the *horse mackerel* (*Scomber tracheurus*) has not a bad flavour; vast shoals of the *common mackerel* come into the bays in bad weather; the *springer* is esteemed for the thick coating of fat that lines the abdominal cavity; the *speering* (an *antherina*) is a small transparent fish, with a broad band, resembling a plate of silver, on either side; the *gurnet* is plentiful; the *sole* equal to that of Europe; the *skate* capital, and *oysters* equal to those of Carlinford; different sorts of *crabs*, *muscles*, &c., are abun-

Africa, in H.M.N., I often went on shore with our boats to haul the sein, and never failed to return on board with a sufficient supply for 200 men. The Lagullas bank swarms with the finny tribe, as may indeed be inferred from the flocks of sea-birds always feasting at this famed spot.

dant and good; many varieties of fish occasionally frequenting bays; such as the *dolphin*, *silurus*, *electrical torpedo*, &c. During the winter season, *whales*, *porpoises*, and *sharks* enter the bays, and the *seal* and *penguin* (which latter animal forms the connecting link between the feathered and finny tribes) frequent different parts of the coast.

The foregoing details are all that my limits will permit, and we may now proceed to investigate the number and variety of the human race in the colony.

CHAPTER IV.

POPULATION — TERRITORIAL DIVISION — STOCK AND PRODUCE — DESCRIPTION OF THE VARIOUS CLASSES OF INHABITANTS — THEIR MANNERS — CUSTOMS — LANGUAGE — CIVILIZATION, &c. &c.

SOUTH AFRICA, when first visited by the Portuguese, Dutch, and English, was, considering the country and barbarous state of the inhabitants, extensively peopled by a race termed Hottentots, who together with other nations and tribes, will be subsequently treated of. The Hottentots, from being masters of the soil, became in a short time the servants of the Dutch settlers, and, as in the West Indies and North America, sank before the white race; their numbers, though still considerable (upwards of 30,000), being very much reduced.

The first authentic account of the state of the colony is furnished by the *Oppgaff* or *tax* lists for 1797, when the Cape was in our possession, and the returns were required to be made for the first time on oath.*

* For extended details, from 1797 to 1834, see the large Edition of this work.

According to the Oppgaff returns, the population from 1797 to 1807 had augmented upwards of 10,000 : its progress at intervals is thus shewn :—

Years.	Christians.		Free Blacks.		Hottentots.		Negro Apprentices.		Slaves.		Total.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
1797	61947
1807	13624	11990	529	605	8496	8935	18990	10313	73482
1810	16546	14648	9553	10302	18873	10521	80443
1813	17714	14154	9936	10250	19238	11081	82373
1817	20750	18884	918	958	11640	11796	411	132	19481	12565	77535
1820	22592	20505	905	1027	13445	13530	1061	492	19081	12668	105336
1823	25487	23212	891	1098	15336	15213	1118	652	19786	13412	116205
1833	50881	45210			No disfunctions.				19378	14244	129713

* Under this denomination there are free coloured people as well as whites.

As it may serve for future reference, I give here the Oppgaff returns of the population of the whole colony in 1806.

	Christians.				Hottentots.				Slaves.				
	Men above 16 years.	Men under 16.	Women above 14.	Women under 14.	Servants.	Men above 16.	Men under 16.	Women above 14.	Women under 14.	Men above 16.	Men under 16.	Women above 14.	Women under 14.
Cape Town...	1775	1326	1462	1758	114	227	97	215	87	4603	1342	2234	1188
Cape District	352	322	250	421	78	255	168	306	203	2537	518	764	497
Stellenbosch	1469	1185	950	1339	..	1172	738	1162	845	4942	998	2240	927
Swellendam ...	1300	1324	874	1381	10	1396	981	1529	911	1369	349	809	281
Graaf-Reinet	1027	1367	790	1313	..	1307	932	1540	951	782	117	387	96
Eutenhage ...	575	748	422	706	3	595	593	854	626	186	108	147	82
Tulbagh	528	367	378	650	4	738	585	823	590	1094	401	537	326
Total	7026	6839	5126	7568	209	5690	4094	6429	4213	15513	3833	7118	3397

It is not possible to rely on the foregoing; because both being derived from the Oppgaff, or tax rolls, they do not include a number of people who wander about the country, without any fixed location; and in con-

sequence of the poll tax, many heads are, for obvious reasons, not counted in a large establishment: there can be no doubt, however, that the present population is upwards of 15,000.

RETURN OF THE POPULATION, 1840.

County or Parish.	Area in square miles.	Whites.		Coloured.		Total.	Res. Strangers not included in preceding list.	Population to the square mile.	Persons employed in		
		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.				Agriculture.	Manufactures.	Commerce.
Cape Town	About 9½	5110	5486	4969	4691	20256	63	{ about } 2100	1800	1500	2000
Cape Division	3584	2680	2324	4115	4092	13211	250	{ 3 5-7 } 5 3-4	4097	60	400
Stellenbosch	2280	3593	3180	3716	2676	13165	30	{ See re- } mark.*	2763	250	59
Worcester	20000	1849	1862	2234	2084	8029	..	{ 3-8 } 2-5	*
Clanwilliam	22111	1466	1365	2308	3086	6825	..	{ 2-5 } 2 1-6	*	250	300
Swellendam	7616	4369	4066	4199	3396	16870	..	{ 2 3-5 } 1-3	*	900	400
George	4032	2903	2658	2832	2792	11183	139		9000	3	11
Beaufort	13050	985	951	1185	1154	4275	27		*
Total Western Divisions	72682½	22885	21692	36158	24511	95516	{ inde- } term.*	abt. 1 1-3	{ See re- } mark.*	2963	3170
Uitenhage	8960	2469	2159	3393	2998	11019	66	1 2-9	6000	150	250
Albany	1792	3362	3246	3131	2664	12403	357	7	7790	2314	2249
Somerset	4000	1261	1179	1535	1412	5387	{ unde- } fined.	1 1-3	1200	150	150
Craddock	3168	1311	1274	1249	1163	4997	do.	1 1-2	1300	20	30
Graaf-Reinet	8000	1700	1700	2000	2000	7400	1000	1	4500	250	150
Colesberg	11654	1915	1757	1510	1387	6549	1406	3-5	5764	550	225
Total Eastern Divisions	37574	12018	11315	12818	11604	47755	{ uncer- } tain.	abt. 1 1-3	26554	3434	3104
Grand Total	110226½	34903	33207	36876	36115	143271	indet.	abt. 1 1-3	*	6307	6274

* The greater part of the population is employed in agricultural pursuits.

Emigration has slightly added to the population : our accounts of the settlers arriving in the colony are imperfect, but the nearest estimates on record, since 1815, are the following :—

	1815	1816	1817	1818	1819	1820	
	46	85	419	230	429	4300	
1825	1826	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	1832
114	116	114	135	197	204	114	196

Emigration is now extending from England to the colony.

Before proceeding to treat of the different classes of the population, and their neighbours the Caffres, &c., it may be well to shew more in detail, the state of each district, according to the method followed when delineating the geography of the colony. Beginning with the *Cape district* (exclusive of Cape Town), the Oppgaff for the year 1797 shews :— population, male heads of families, 1,566; female do., 1,354; sons, 1,451; daughters, 1,658; servants, 232; total of Christians, 6,261; men-slaves, 6,673; women-slaves, 2,660; slave-children, 2,558; total slaves, 11,891; total population of the Cape district, 18,152. Of the above number of Christians, or free people, 718 are persons of colour, and nearly 1,000 are Europeans.

Statistics of the Cape District (including Simon's Town and excluding Cape Town). *Produce Stock, &c.*—Wheat, bushels, 81,916; barley, bushels, 17,320; rye, bushels, 4,560; oats, bushels, 26,000; oat-hay, pounds, 2,400,000; potatoes, bushels, 1,426; wine, leaguers, 1,479; brandy, leaguers, 93; horses, 4,020; horned cattle, 17,260; sheep, 21,300; goats, 15,810.

The area of this district is 3,700 square miles, or 2,368,000 acres, of which 30,000 are under cultivation, 2,200 in vineyards, 52,000 fallow, and 740,000 waste.

The next district is *Stellenbosch*, in the western division of the colony, and separated from the sea-coast by *Cape district*; it is populous, fertile, and in many parts beautiful; its condition in 1840 is thus shewn:—

Produce, Stock, &c.—Wheat, muids, 63,021; barley, ditto, 18,030; rye, ditto, 10,368; oats, ditto, 55,893; wine, leaguers, 15,141; brandy, ditto, 663; horses, 4,901; horned cattle, 18,134; sheep, 21,048; goats, 9,092.

The large district of *Worcester*, with its sub-division *Clanwilliam*, is still further to the west, and northward of *Stellenbosch*; its produce was thus registered in 1840:—

Produce, Stock, &c.—Wheat, muids, 12,932; barley, muids, 7,795; oats, muids, 9,907; rye, 1,928; horses, 4,422; horned cattle, 15,506; sheep, 109,426; goats, 30,200; wine, leaguers, 525; brandy, ditto, 71.

Swellendam district, to the eastward of the *Cape*, and lying between the sea-shore and the first *steppe* or range of mountains, is, as will be seen by the accompanying returns, a valuable and thriving part of the colony.

Produce, Stock, &c.—Wheat, muids, 16,033; barley, ditto, 15,716; rye, ditto, 279; oats, ditto, 11,185; maize and millet, bush. 1,188; peas, beans, and lentil, ditto, 1,095; potatoes, ditto, 1,222; wine, leaguers, 497; brandy, ditto, 210; horses, 9,797; horned cattle, 33,598; sheep, 168,722; goats, 72,612; mules, 233.

George district is situated along the sea-coast, to

the eastward of *Swellendam*: it is to be regretted that there is no return for 1833, the following being for 1830:—

GEORGE DISTRICT. — Population, 8,223; horses, 3,685; horned cattle, 24,242; sheep, goats, and pigs, 54,681; grains, muids, 13,550; wine, leaguers, $194\frac{1}{2}$; brandy, ditto, 158; waggons, 583; carts, 36.

Uitenhage district has prospered much since I visited it; its produce is thus shewn for 1830, and its population, for 1829, since which periods it has greatly improved:—

UITENHAGE DISTRICT, 1830.—Horses, 3,558; neat cattle, 47,710; sheep, goats, and pigs, 100,091; grains, muids, 14,089; wine, leaguers, $43\frac{1}{4}$; brandy, do. $71\frac{1}{2}$; waggons, 655; carts, 22.

Albany, to the eastward of *Uitenhage*, was the chief location of the English and Scotch settlers in 1820, and is but a young district; when we consider the numerous difficulties with which the emigrants had to contend, until the last three or four years, the wonder is that it exhibits the following results:—

ALBANY.—Wheat, bushels, 6,000; barley, ditto, 18,000; oats, ditto, 12,000; oats, hay, pounds, 2,400,009; maize, millet, bushels, 12,000; peas, beans, &c., bushels 1,000; potatoes, ditto, 15,000; horses, 2,500; horned cattle, 25,000; sheep and goats, 165,000.

Albany, it will be perceived, has very few slaves, and produces no wine or brandy; it is, in fact, principally an agricultural and grazing district; the attention of the inhabitants being now particularly directed to the growth of fine wools, which may be

expected ere long to rival the vine or the cow, and set at rest the question of the pre-eminence of either as the chief staple of the colony. Mr. Oliphant, the attorney-general, stated that, at the Cape, the cow produced more wealth than the vine, and in support of the assertion quoted the following table of the value of exports in the year 1832:—

The Cow.—Cattle, 402*l.*; hides, 31,076*l.*; leather 30*l.*; horns, 4,292*l.*; butter, 5,546*l.*; cheese, 40*l.*; beef, 4,007*l.*; tallow, 8,274*l.*; candles, 392*l.*; hoof, 140*l.*; Algoa Bay, 24,000*l.*; total, 78,199*l.*

The Vine.—C. wine, 58,315*l.*; Constantia, 3,006*l.*; Argol ditto, 1,409*l.*; brandy, 761; total, 63,491*l.*; balance, 14,708*l.* less a trifle for some pork, a few horse hides, and a little sheep fat.

Somerset district, which was formed in 1825, from a tract of country portioned off from *Albany* and *Graaf-Reinet*, contains 10,869,964 acres, with a population of little more than five-eighths to the square mile: it will be observed that it is principally a grazing country.

SOMERSET, 1840.—*Produce, Stock, &c.*—Wheat, bushels, 6,309; barley, ditto, 2,040; oats, ditto, 60; oat-hay, pounds, 34,000; maize and millet, bushels, 850; peas, beans, and lentil, ditto, 15; potatoes, ditto, 300; wine, leaguers, 15; brandy, ditto, 12; horses, 2,300; horned cattle, 22,500; sheep, 253,000; goats, 69,980.

Cradock was formed into a district, in 1837, by cutting off part of *Somerset*. Its produce for 1840 is thus shewn:—

Produce, Stock, &c.—Wheat, bushels, 20,115; barley, ditto, 2,400; oats, ditto, 625; maize and millet, ditto, 800; peas, beans, and lentil, ditto, 750; potatoes, ditto, 640; wine,

leaguers, 175 ; brandy, ditto, 70 ; horses, 4,250 ; horned cattle, 31,013 ; sheep, 280,075 ; goats, 65,327.

Colesberg district is composed of seven field cornetcies, separated from *Graaf-Reinet*, and one from *Cradock*. Its produce is as follows :—

Return of Produce, Stock, &c.—Horses, 6,920 ; horned cattle, 48,802 ; sheep, 586,179 ; goats, 35,882 ; wheat, bushels, 16,040 ; barley, ditto, 2,260.

Graaf-Reinet is as yet thinly peopled. Its stock are thus estimated in 1840 :—

Produce, Stock, &c.—Wheat, bushels, 22,000 ; barley, ditto, 5,600 ; oats, ditto, 2,000 ; rye, ditto, 100 ; wine, leaguers, 150 ; brandy, ditto, 60 ; horses, 4,600 ; horned cattle, 25,009 ; sheep and goats, 440,000.

The population of the colony is very varied in national peculiarities, as well as in pursuits. Of the white inhabitants, the most numerous are the original European settlers, or their descendants (termed *Africanders*), and consisting chiefly of Dutch, with a small intermixture of the offspring of the refugee Protestants, who were expelled from their country by the edict of Nantes. The Dutch have been generally divided by travellers into three classes, *viz.* those who live by their vineyards, by agriculture, or by grazing ; the latter, termed *Vee boors*, being now the most numerous, and probably the wealthiest class, as may be seen from the preceding table of their flocks and herds. To enter into a discussion as to whether Barrow has exaggerated the rudeness, or Lichenstein the refinement of the Dutch boors, would be beyond my limits : in all countries where men

are struggling for existence, and endeavouring to reclaim the forest from the savage, or beast of prey, the refinements of life are necessarily few, and roughness of manners characterizes individuals thus situated. Even so has it been at the Cape, where the early colonists had so much to contend with; now, when competence is taking the place of poverty, social refinements are everywhere springing up, and will, in time, extend even to the back country boors on the verge of the settlement, as rapidly as the thin scattering of a small population over a great extent of country will permit. Two features especially mark the Dutch colonists—hospitality and bravery—the latter is evinced in their hunting of the lion and the elephant.* The former is a general theme of

* The frontier boors revolted against the British shortly after our occupation of the colony: knowing that the military sent against them had artillery, they resolved on having some also, and, as the British field-pieces were only four-pounders, they determined on surpassing them; accordingly, having procured a tree, scooped it out, and bound it together with iron hoops, they proceeded to load it, and as they had fixed on calling it a nine-pounder, they of course charged it with nine pounds of powder; but a difficulty arising as to who should have the honour of firing it, they dug a hole in the ground, deep enough for a man to get into, and laid the train to this spot—off it went, and burst into a thousand pieces, and before they had time to prepare another, they were surprised by our troops and taken prisoners.

On the frontiers most of the farm-houses have a contiguous mud-built rampart, with loop-holes for musketry, to be resorted to in case of an attack from white or black foes; and a Dutch boor, with his huge gun (*roer*) is a dangerous antago-

eulogium; indeed, I have often received the most marked attention and kindness from the Cape colonists, who, when extending to me their hospitality with a generous, I may add, profuse hand, had never seen me before, never expected to see me after the ensuing day, and would feel highly offended at the slightest offer of compensation.

In physical structure, the Cape Dutchmen are a fine race; in some districts their stature and strength are gigantic, and not less so on the frontiers, where little vegetable food is consumed, mutton stewed in fat sheep's tails being the standing dish three or four times a day throughout the year. In mental attainments they are by no means deficient, when educated in youth, and a proper stimulus given to the development of their talents.* The witchery of the Cape ladies has robbed many an Englishman of his heart, and our naval officers especially have frequently an *affaire du cœur* while on the station. In the interior of the country, *embonpoint* is one of the chief beauties of a Dutch housewife: perhaps the Hollanders (who are no bad judges of character) consider that plumpness and good temper are in an equal ratio, and, without puzzling their minds as to cause or effect, desire the former for the sake of the latter.

nist, within rifle range, as the lions would vouch for if they could speak.

* One of my brother officers in H.M.S. *Leven*, Lieutenant Reitz, a Cape Dutchman, was one of the most talented young men I ever met with; his bravery, accomplishments, and amenity of manners rendered him an universal favourite: he was another of the victims of our ill-fated expedition.

The English, with the exception of those located in the *Uitenhage*, *Albany*, and *Somerset* districts, are principally confined to Cape Town, or are traders at different stations. Their character is similar to that observed in other colonies—shrewd, generally intelligent, attached to political liberty, careful of its preservation, hospitable to strangers, and enterprising in their commercial pursuits.

Slaves formed a numerous class of people in the colony, their number amounting to near 35,000. These unhappy beings were introduced into the country by the Dutch settlers, and their numbers yearly augmented by birth after the abolition of the slave trade. They were divided into three classes—the Malay from the Indian Archipelago, the E. or W. coast negro, and the Africander, who is the descendant of an European man and Malay or negro girl, varying in hue, according to the consanguinity of the child to the original dark stock. These three classes keep themselves perfectly distinct from each other, and will not intermarry. The Malays, who are in general artizans or fishermen, and I should think, the best and most valuable, are numerous (probably about 5,000) : then follow the Africanders (some of whom are nearly white) :—followed by the Mozambique, or Malagash negro. No small number of each of these classes are free, either by self-purchase, or by being emancipated by former owners, and, together with their offspring, form a large portion of what are termed the coloured Christians ; for the moment a man ceases to be a slave, his earnest desire is to

secure and extend his respectability by professing himself a Christian, which many Dutch proprietors are averse to, so long as the negro or Africander continue slaves. The prevailing creed of the Malays is Mahometanism.

Slaves.—The following were the compensation sums awarded by the Emancipation Commissions at the Cape of Good Hope, up to the 24th June, 1836:—

The number of slaves manumitted was 35,745. The following is the manner in which they are classed, with the amount to be awarded for each:—Prædial, unattached, 399 head of people, at 65*l.* 0*s.* 4*d.* each; 297 tradesmen, 64*l.* 2*s.* 5*d.* each; 132 inferior tradesmen, 49*l.* 0*s.* 10*d.* each; 5,671 field labourers, 54*l.* 11*s.* each; 5,333 inferior field labourers, 35*l.* 17*s.* 1*d.* each. Non-Prædial—1,195 head tradesmen, 61*l.* 13*s.* 3*d.* each; 953 inferior tradesmen, 41*l.* 13*s.* 5*d.* each; twenty head people employed on wharfs, 40*l.* 3*s.* 10*d.* each; twenty-three inferior ditto, 41*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.* each, 5,239 head domestic servants, 47*l.* 4*s.* 3*d.* each; 9,860 inferior domestics, 29*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.* each; 5,731 children under six years of age, 6*l.* 13*s.* each; and 892 aged, diseased, or otherwise non-effective, 5*l.* 13*s.* 8*d.* each.

The *Hottentots*, or original possessors of the soil, are next in number, and least in importance or social worth, in the eyes of many of the colonists; but if the latter knew their own interest, they would endeavour to perpetuate this unfortunate race. It has been before observed that when Europeans first visited the Cape, the *Hottentots* were found scattered, as a pastoral people, over the country; even on the shores of Table Bay, where Cape Town now

stands, their rude hamlets stood. Of their numbers, at that period, no accurate idea can be formed; they must, however, have been considerable; at present, after two centuries of persecution, they probably do not amount to 30,000.

The Hottentots, when young, are clean limbed, and well proportioned, their joints, hands, and feet remarkably small; in some the nose is flat, in others raised; the eyes, which are of a deep chestnut colour, are very long, narrow, and removed to a great distance from each other; the eyelids at the extremity next the nose, instead of forming an angle as in Europeans, are rounded into each other exactly like the Chinese, between whom and the Hottentots, Barrow thinks there is a resemblance, which indeed struck me in some instances, if the colour and hair be excepted; the former being of a clear olive or rather yellowish brown, the latter growing in hard, knotted, or shoe-brush-like tufts at a distance from each other, of course not covering entirely the surface of the scalp, and when left to grow, hanging on the neck in hard twisted, fringe-like tassels. The cheek bones are high and prominent, forming with the narrow-pointed chin nearly a triangle; the teeth small, and of exquisite enamel.

Herding cattle is the principal occupation of the Hottentots, a duty for which they are well qualified. That they are not the indolent, improvident race which many have described them to be, is evident from the manner in which they have conducted themselves since their location at the new settlement

on the Kat River, where the desire of accumulating property has given that natural stimulus to the industry of the Hottentot, which even the Englishman requires.

The Hottentots hire themselves out to the farmers, receiving as wages a certain number of cattle, sheep, or goats, and their services are of considerable utility in the various situations they fill. Some are employed as waggon drivers, and the skill of these men would put the best whip of the *erst* "Four-in-hand Club," to shame. They drive *eight* horses, with perfect ease, over bad roads, avoiding every hole and rut, and proceeding at a smart gallop; whether with horses or oxen, the long whip serves not only to regulate their pace, but to guide them, and keep them in a straight line, and so adroit are they in the use of it, that they have been known to strike a bird with a flourish of the whip: the sharpest corners are turned at full trot, and the greatest nicety in driving performed by means of the long whip alone. Their fidelity and honesty, when well treated, entitle them to rank with any European. It is to be hoped that under the present course of wise and generous policy their numbers may be increased.

Several varieties of the Hottentot race exist on the skirts of the colony: the principal is a mild race, denominated *Koras* or *Korannas*, a nomade tribe located along the banks of the Gariep or Orange River, divided into a number of independent classes, each under the authority of a chief, but all speaking

an imperfect language, similar to that of the Bosjesmans, or Bushmen, with whom they are nevertheless at deadly enmity, on account of the ravages committed by the latter on their cattle. The *Korannas* would appear to be a mixed breed, between the Hottentots and Caffres; they are, however, superior to the Gonaqua or Namaqua Hottentots; their dwellings, constructed in a circle, with the doors inwards, are like large bee-hives, covered with folds of neat matting, for the convenience of removing with their flocks and herds, as pasturage becomes scarce on the banks of the river where they have found a temporary abode. The habits of this nomade people have been thus beautifully described by the late Mr. Thomas Pringle, a writer whose genius has called into activity a large portion of sympathy for the semi-civilized tribes of South Africa:—

Fast by his wild resounding River
 The listless Córán lingers ever;
 Still drives his heifers forth to feed,
 Soothed by the gorrah's humming reed;
 A rover still unchecked will range,
 As humour calls or seasons change;
 His tent of mats and leathern gear,
 All packed upon the patient steer.

'Mid all his wanderings hating toil,
 He never tills the stubborn soil,
 But on the milky dams relies
 And what spontaneous earth supplies.

Or should long parching droughts prevail,
 And milk, and bulbs, and locusts fail,

He lays him down to sleep away
 In languid trance the weary day ;
 Oft as he feels gaunt hunger's stound*
 Still tightening famine's girdle round,†
 Lulled by the sound of the Gareep,
 Beneath the willows murmuring deep ;
 Till thunder clouds, surcharged with rain,
 Pour verdure o'er the panting plain,
 And call the famish'd dreamer from his trance,
 To feast on milk and game, and wake the moonlight
 dance.

The dress of the Koranna, or Coranna, is the caross or sheep-skin cloak of the colonial Hottentot; his food, curdled milk, supplied by his kine, which he seldom or never kills, aided by berries, bulbous roots, locusts, and sometimes whatever game he can obtain. A wild superstition stands in the place of religion. Of their numbers no correct estimate has been formed; but it is not probable that they exceed 10,000 on either side of the *Gariiep*. I trust that when European colonization shall have extended to this river, the simple Coran may not be sacrificed; but, like the Hindoo and Cingalese, preserved, if not for his own sake, at least for the advantages which his existence will confer on the white trader, agriculturist, or grazier.

Of the miserable and, alas! persecuted *Bosjesmans*,

* *Stound*, a sharp pang, a shooting pain.—*Spencer, Burns.*

† Most savages wear a girdle, which they draw tight round the stomach when in want of food, and for which it is no bad substitute.

probably the aborigines of the country, few are now in existence, at least on the S. of the *Gariép*. This race has been often described: they are small in stature, but well made; of an olive colour, or rather of the hue of a faded beech leaf; the eyes extremely small, deep seated, roguish and twinkling incessantly, thick projecting lips, and a small depressed nose. In cold weather, a skin is used for covering, and a mat placed on two sticks over a hole scraped in the earth serves as a house, in which no other domestic utensil is found but a wild gourd, or ostrich egg-shell, to carry water. The weapon with which this untutored race have so often avenged themselves on the Dutch frontier boors, is a poisoned arrow, which, shot by them with unerring aim, inflicts certain and speedy death.

Adolph Bonatz, one of the good Moravians to whose interesting Settlement at Shiloh in the Tambookie country I shall have occasion to advert, thus speaks of the Bosjesmans or Bushmen, as the English call them:—"Their constitution is so much enfeebled by the dissolute life they lead, and the constant smoking of *dacha*, that nearly all, including the young people, look old and wrinkled: nevertheless, they are remarkable for vanity, and decorate their ears, legs, and arms with beads, and iron, copper, or brass rings. The women likewise stain their faces red, or paint them either wholly or in part. Their clothing consists of a few sheepskins, which hang about their bodies, and thus form the mantle or covering commonly called a *kaross*.

This is their only clothing by day or night. The men wear old hats, which they obtain from the farmers, or else caps of their own manufacture. The women wear caps of skins, which they stiffen and finish with a high peak, and adorn with beads and metal rings. The dwelling of the bushman is either a low, wretched hut, or a circular cavity, on the open plain, into which, at night, he creeps with his wife and children, and which, though it shelters him from the wind, leaves him exposed to the rain. In this neighbourhood, in which rocks abound, they had formerly their habitations in them, as is proved by the many rude figures of oxen, horses, serpents, &c., still existing. It is not a little interesting to see these poor degraded people, who formerly were considered and treated as little better than wild beasts, in their rocky retreats. Many of those who have forsaken us live in such cavities, not far from our settlement, and we have thus an opportunity of observing them in their natural condition. Several, who, when they came to us from the farmers, were decently clothed, and possessed a flock of sheep, which they had earned, in a short time returned to their fastnesses in a state of nakedness and indigence, rejoicing that they had got free from the farmers, and could live as they pleased, in the indulgence of their sensual appetites. Such fugitives from civilized life, I have never seen otherwise occupied than with their bows and arrows. The bows are small, but made of good elastic wood; the arrows are formed of small reeds, the points furnished with a well-

wrought piece of bone, and a double barb, which is steeped in a potent poison of a resinous appearance. This poison is distilled from the leaves of an indigenous tree. Many prefer these arrows to fire-arms, under the idea that they can kill more game by means of a weapon that makes no report. On their return from the chase, they feast till they are tired and drowsy, and hunger alone rouses them to renewed exertion. In seasons of scarcity they devour all kinds of wild roots, ants, ants'-eggs, locusts, snakes, and even roasted skins. Three women of this singular tribe were not long since met with, several days' journey from this place, who had forsaken their husbands, and lived very contentedly on wild honey and locusts. As enemies, the bushmen are not to be despised. They are adepts in stealing cattle and sheep; and the wounds they inflict when pursued, are ordinarily fatal, if the wounded part is not immediately cut out. The animals they are unable to carry off, they kill or mutilate.

To our great comfort, even some of these poor outcasts have shewn eagerness to become acquainted with the way of salvation. The children of such as are inhabitants of the settlement, attend the school diligently, and of them we have the best hopes.

The language of the bushmen has not one pleasing feature; it seems to consist of a collection of snapping, hissing, grunting sounds, all more or less nasal. Of their religious creed it is difficult to obtain any information; as far as I have been able to learn,

they have a name for the Supreme Being; and the Caffre word *Tixo* is derived from the *Tixwe* of the bushmen. Sorcerers exist among them. One of the bushmen residing here being sick, a sorceress was sent for before we were aware of it, who pretended, by the virtue of a mystic dance, to extract an antelope horn from the head of the patient. The bushmen in general understand a little Dutch.

All efforts to preserve the remnant of the *Bosjesmans* have proved abortive; and some boors have been known to boast of the number of the earliest proprietors of South Africa whom they have slain, as if they were so many reptiles whom it was an honour to have annihilated. On the other hand, I am happy to say, some boors have allowed them yearly a stock of sheep for their support; which, however, they seem unable to take care of.

The *Namaquas*, like the Korannas, are a pastoral people, and a branch of the Hottentot race, inhabiting the country adjoining the coast on both sides of the *Gariiep*. They differ little from the former in their habits, living chiefly on milk, and are addicted to a migratory life. Their country is called on the map *Great and Little Namaqualand*, a great part of which consists of an extensive plain, watered by the *Fish River* of Valliant, and as that traveller informs us, falling into the sea to the northward of *Angra Pequiny Bay*; the river is, in fact, but one of the many branches of the *Gariiep*, and, like other rivers in the country, its channel is occasionally dry. The soil is in general light, sandy, and arid, clothed with a sort of grass,

which vegetates surprisingly after occasional rain. This tribe is governed by chiefs, and their mode of life closely resembles the Korannas in all respects. They have a breed of sheep different from those of the colony, being destitute of the large tails of the latter. The climate of *Namaqualand* is hotter and drier than that of the E. coast; the heat, indeed, is intense on the banks of the *Gariep*—in the summer months the thermometer rising to 120. This district is noted for its numerous reptiles, amongst which is the snake called *cobra capello*, which attains a length of 15 feet. The *puff adder*, *scorpions*, *tarantulas*, and venomous and deadly insects, are very numerous.

The *Damaras* inhabit the W. coast beyond *Great Namaqualand*, and are supposed to be a tribe of the *Caffre* race. Their country is considered fertile, and they grow various kinds of pulse, but flocks and herds form their principal wealth. They possess copper ore, which they manufacture into rude ornaments, and barter with the neighbouring tribes. They are associated in large villages, substantially built. Their weapons are the bow and arrow and the assagais. The river discovered by Captain Chapman of the *Espiegle*, in 1824, and named by him the *Nourse*, belongs to this country. Captain C. found it with nine feet water on the bar, and navigable for small craft; but the surveying expedition, under the *Leven* and *Barracouta*, could discover no traces of such a river.

It may here be remarked as not a little singular,

that none of the natives of South Africa, either on the sea-coast or in the interior, possess such a thing as a canoe, even of the simplest construction; when the *Korannas* or *Namaquas* have to cross the *Gariiep*, their only means of doing so is a log of wood, on which they lie at full length, using the hands and feet as oars. Those tribes who live on the sea-shore appear to shun the ocean, and disdain the use of a fish diet; while the rude New Hollander, that last link in the human race, has learnt to hollow the tree with fire, and commit himself thereon to the bosom of the great deep. The Cafres call a ship "the White Man's House," and suppose it to be our chief dwelling.

A numerous race, and one which may either prove of considerable value or of great injury to the colony, is rapidly rising on the northern frontier, and termed the *Griquas*; they are the result of the intercourse between the Dutch and female Hottentots, and evince a bold, warlike, and, at the same time, industrious disposition.

The *Griqua* or *Bastaard* population are spread along the banks of the *Gariiep* for 700 miles, and are in number from 15,000 to 20,000, of whom about 5,000 are armed with musketry. They possess numerous flocks and herds and abundance of excellent horses. *Griqua Town* is their principal location, where also the elders of the people reside, aided by two or three excellent missionaries, who, in South Africa especially, are the beneficial pioneers of civilization.

Kaffres, *Amakosæ*, or *Amazosæ*. I shall include in this section the various tribes of *Tambookies*, who by intermarriage are so closely connected, as to leave little perceptible difference between them. The *Tambookies* are probably the original stock, but the *Caffres* have attained to greater civilization both in language and customs, in the same manner as the inhabitants of cities are more refined than those scattered over a country. *Kaffre*, or *Caffre*, indifferently applied to these tribes, is a term of reproach, signifying infidel, and used by the Moors to designate those nations in South Africa who would not conform to the Mahometan faith. Mr. Kay attributes their descent to the *Bedouins*, or wandering Arabs, because these people have penetrated into every part of Southern Africa, even into the islands, and he supposes their ancestors might have reached that country by skirting the Red Sea, and journeying southward by the sea-coast; thus avoiding the great desert of sand that divides Africa into two parts. Nothing is to be gathered from the people themselves, who have no records of their origin; but the assumption of Mr. Kay is rendered probable by many circumstances, such as their hospitality, their pastoral manners, mode of shaping their houses, practice of circumcision, &c. It is supposed they first settled on the *Kae River* about the middle of the 17th century, at the time they were governed by a chief named Togah, and that they acquired territory westward, as far as the Great Fish River, by conquest from the Hottentots.

Excepting the woolly hair, the *Caffre* exhibits no similarity to the *Hottentot* or to the *Negro* race; for although the colour is a dark brown, nearly black, the features are regular, having an Asiatic cast, and the form symmetrical, the men in particular being of a fair average height, and extremely well-proportioned. The head is not, generally speaking, more elongated than that of an European; the frontal and occipital bones form nearly a semicircle; and a line from the forehead to the chin drawn over the nose is in some instances as finely rounded and as convex as the profile of a Grecian or Roman countenance. Their women are short of stature, very strong limbed and muscular; and they attribute the keeping up the standard of the men to their frequent intermarriages with strangers, whom they purchase of the neighbouring tribes—the barter of cattle for young women forming one of the principal articles of their trade. All the principal chiefs purchase* Tambookie wives, who are short and stout, with muscular legs, and without a taint of the *Hottentot* or African negro, in preference to an alliance with their own people.

Unlike the *Hottentots*, they are remarkably cheerful, frank, and animated, placing implicit confidence in visitors, and using every means to entertain them. The *Caffres* prefer a state of nudity, with a scanty apron in the warm season, but in winter a cloak is used, made of the skins of wild beasts, admirably

* In most parts of Africa a father sells his daughters as soon as they are marriageable.

carried. Their arms are the javelin, a short club, and a large shield of buffalo hide; but their wars, which often arise about disputed pasture-ground, are generally decided without much bloodshed. They never wear a covering on the head even in the hottest weather, frequently shave their hair off, and seldom use any kind of shoes, unless on undertaking a long journey, when they strap a kind of leather sole to the foot. Both sexes have the bodies tattooed, especially on the shoulders; and young men who consider themselves dandies have their skins painted red, and their hair curled into small distinct knots like peas.

The dress of the females is of the same materials as that of the men, but they append a kind of loose flap to the collar, which is ornamented with buttons, and sometimes forms a train behind. They display considerable taste in the arrangement of their dress, particularly for the head, which is covered by a turban made of the skin of the '*ipicte*,' a species of antelope, and profusely ornamented with beads, &c. The tambookie ladies, who are the head wives of the Caffre lords, wear a head-dress made of leather, or skin with the hair off, and a profusion of beads studded close together on the crown; there is a broad band round the forehead, which gives it a kind of turban-like appearance. The mantle is made of the skin of the otter or antelope, with the hair outside, and reaches from the neck to the ankle; there are three rows of buttons behind, and on the right side hangs a small tortoise-shell, containing

perfume. They wear a profusion of beads round the neck: indeed all they possess or can procure, and often several brass rings on their arms. The robe of the Queen is not distinguishable from that of any other woman of the tribe; change there is none—each carries her own wardrobe on her back, and she has no other bed-clothes. The mantles are generally renewed once a year. The only distinction between the wives of the chieftains and the poorer women consists in the profusion of ornaments worn by the former, and of these they are very vain.

Their huts, which are constructed by the women, are but temporary, and fashioned somewhat after the manner of the *Korannas*; poles are set up, then bent and the tops brought together, tied with fibres, thatched with rushes, and the inside plastered with clay or cow-dung, having much the appearance of a bee-hive; the door serves all the purposes of window and chimney. The diameter of the whole is generally about 10 or 12 feet, with a raised floor and a gutter for a drain. They spend little of their time in these, however, for the climate is so fine, that they live in the open air, and it is only in the night or in case of bad weather or sickness that they remain within doors. The sites of the villages, which generally consist of a dozen of these huts, and the cattle folds are chosen with reference to the pasturage ground, as the increase and maintenance of their flocks seem their only and unceasing care; their diet being extremely simple, principally milk in a sour curdled state. Horses have been lately introduced

amongst them, before which the ox was their only beast of burden. Sheep and goats have also multiplied exceedingly.

The grain generally cultivated is a kind of *millet* (*holcus sorgium*), which they eat in a boiled state, seldom or never pounding it. They also grow a small quantity of *Indian corn* and *pumpkins*; but a species of *sugar-cane*, called *mifi*, is produced in great abundance, and of this they are extremely fond. They are almost strangers to the use of spirituous liquors, having only a sort of mead, made from the wild honey, and a pretty good beer, prepared with malted millet, with which, however, they sometimes become intoxicated: swine's flesh is abhorred; they keep no poultry, and are prejudiced against eggs; neither will they eat the flesh of the elephant, which the *Beechuana* tribes devour so greedily; and, singular to say, they have a great aversion to fish. In their mode of cooking and eating the flesh of their cattle, they are, however, extremely disgusting; and the only purification their cooking utensils obtain is to be placed before the dogs to be licked.

The men are brave and warlike. In 1820, about 10,000 *Caffres* attempted to storm the barracks of *Graham's Town*, which were garrisoned by about 250 soldiers; the action was most spirited, and if the *Caffres* had been provided with better arms than their usual slender missiles, they would have been successful; but at length giving way, some field-pieces were turned upon their encumbered masses, and upwards of 1,300 were left dead on the ground.

The natural bravery of the *Caffres* had been excited to a great pitch, by a pretended prophet, *Makanna* (*Lynx*), who assured his countrymen that his magic would turn the balls of the English troops into water. In the late contests with our troops, the *Caffres* on several occasions displayed considerable skill in manœuvring with large bodies of men, sometimes extending the wings of their armies to hem in the British, or advancing in dense bodies, and then suddenly expanding like a fan. Their great forte, however, is bush fighting. In time of peace, hunting is their favourite pastime; the care of their herds seems their employment. They are extremely fond of news, however, and will make long journeys in quest of intelligence, as to what is passing in their political world. Although every man is a soldier, they are seldom called on to serve, and never to exercise, their wars being unfrequent; their principal occupation is, therefore, that of herdsmen, in which they cannot be excelled, and it is astonishing how they will distinguish an animal that they have once seen. They are extremely expert in the management of their oxen, and train them to perfect obedience to the will of their masters; they even race these animals when young, and oblige them to gallop at an astonishing rate. Their cattle folds are constructed of a quantity of thorns, made into a circular hedge, with gaps or openings, filled up in like manner. Sometimes their pens are made of upright posts, and branches interwoven, choosing always the most sheltered and the driest situation

for them, as the cattle are obliged to be inclosed every night, on account of the danger from wild beasts. The cows are milked morning and evening in their folds, and not let out until the day is pretty well advanced, when they are guarded by the village boys. The men not only dress the hides for clothing, but make the garments for their wives and children, there being a general renewal of mantles about the months of May, July, and August. Some of them are by no means bad artizans, considering their ignorance of European improvements; their smiths, in particular, make weapons and axes, which answer their purpose very well, and if instructed they would no doubt excel at this craft.

The Caffre women weave a superior sort of mat from a fine rush, which displays some taste in the execution. The sleeping mat, a leathern milk sack, a calabash, and an earthen pot for cooking, form the whole of their furniture and household utensils.

We had several Caffres on board the *Leven*, who were sent down the coast with us from Cape Town, to serve as interpreters; their mild, frank, and pleasing manners won them many friends among our hardy seamen. *Gaika*, one of the Caffre chiefs, of the *Amakosæ* tribe, not long since visited one of our military outposts, some time after there had been fighting between the colonists and the Caffres. "How long," said *Gaika*, to the officer in command of the post, "how long are we to continue at war? shall we never eat our corn together in peace?" The officer replied, "Are we not at peace? have we not

been so for a long time?" "Do you white men call this peace?" said the African, "it is not so with us. After our wars are over we trade together; my people want beads (the money of the country), and knives, and hatchets; and your people want ivory and cattle. Let them exchange with each other at daylight, instead of shooting at them when they attempt by night to cross yonder river; let the waters of the *Keiskamma* flow in peace to the great ocean, without being discoloured by our blood, and then we shall know that war has really and indeed ceased!" Since that, unfortunately, the waters of the *Keiskamma* have been again empurpled with human gore.

Respecting their government, which is that of hereditary chieftains, or clansmen, the Caffres have traditionary accounts which are, however, extremely vague and contradictory. It is most probable that their present form of government has existed for many generations. A custom exists of swearing by the names of the most ancient and celebrated of their chiefs, and they avow them to be descended from *Togah*, the remotest they remember to have sworn by; and from him they trace a direct descent to the reigning family. The chiefs are legislators as well as judges, but they assemble the old men of the tribe as a kind of jury, and also permit them a voice in their decisions. The courts are held in the open air, and persons of all distinctions are admitted to be present. Every party to a suit pleads his own cause; hired counsel, learned in the law, being

unknown, and notwithstanding their want of education, they conduct their business with a decorum which our Old Bailey advocates would do well to imitate; never giving the lie direct, or interrupting the harangue of the speaker in possession of the court.

The decisions of the council are generally founded upon precedents, treasured up in their memories, and which the old are careful to impress upon the young, so that they may not be forgotten. Their laws are few, simple, and easily understood, so as to leave no excuse for violating them. They are founded on reason and justice.

Murder, adultery, sorcery and theft, are the crimes which generally fill their calendars: murder is seldom punished with death; the murderer being generally mulcted in a fine proportionate to the supposed importance of the person he has slain. Polygamy is allowed.

No regular system of idolatry exists among them, but they are much addicted to sorcery, spells, and charms, and some scattered traces may even be found of the remains of religious institutions. They believe in a Supreme Being, to whom they apply the term *Uhlanga* (Supreme), or frequently the Hottentot name *Utika* (Beautiful). What a delightful host of ideas the application of this attribute to the Creator of the universe suggests! The immortality of the soul is believed in, but, strange to say, unconnected with any idea of a future state of rewards and punishments. Formerly they buried the dead, but

latterly only the chiefs and persons of consequence are interred ; and such is their dread of touching, or even being near a corpse, that a sick person, when supposed to be past all hope, is carried out into a thicket, and either buried before life be extinct, or left to perish alone. Those who are considered dead sometimes recover, and return home. The chiefs are interred in the cattle-fold, as the place of greatest honour. When a person dies, a fast is held for an entire day, by the whole hamlet ; the husband or wife of the deceased is considered unclean, and must separate himself from society for two weeks, and fast for some days ; their food being brought to them in the fields, and before they can be readmitted into society, the old dress must be destroyed and new clothing put on. The period of probation for a widow is longer than that for a widower. Every part of the clothing of the deceased is considered unclean, and must be destroyed ; the house wherein he lived, although he should have removed from it before death, must be shut up ; no person ever again to enter it, and the children are forbidden to go near it ; it is called the house of the dead, and is left to fall gradually to decay, no one daring to touch even the materials of which it is composed, till they have crumbled into dust. In order to throw as much light as possible on this singular people, I subjoin an interesting account of the Tambookies, by Brother Adolph Bonatz, the good Moravian who dwelt among them at Shiloh.

“One of the leading features in the character of

the Tambookies and Caffres, and which appears, as it were, to be born with them, is an unbounded desire to possess whatever they see. To this is to be ascribed their shameless and most annoying practice of begging. They are quite astonished that it is considered discreditable by us, since with them it is an art, in which every one studies to perfect himself. The richest chieftain is not ashamed to beg; indeed, one might almost say, that those who possess most, are the most greedy. The proudest and most wealthy assumes a character of lowliness and poverty, and employs a kind of winning address, which might almost be called eloquence, in order to gain his object. It need, therefore, be no matter of surprise, that our brethren, on their first arrival, were deceived by their smooth speeches, and induced to think them in earnest, when they expressed a desire after the word of God. Lying and deceit, in fact, seem with them to be the order of the day.

Tobacco and snuff appear to be yet more essential to them than food; and I question whether a single person is to be found, of either sex, who neither smokes nor takes snuff.

The custom of saluting each other is not general among the Tambookies. A captain alone receives this mark of respect. Thus, the captain of a kraal, on his entrance, would be saluted by the men with "A Mapasa," or "Hail to thee, Mapasa!" They also swear by the name of their captain. Profane oaths I have not heard among them; nevertheless, they often taunt each other with their personal

defects. One will address another who has a prominent forehead, "Thou forehead;" a second who has lost his teeth, "Thou hare's mouth," &c. Sometimes they merely exclaim, "Eyes," which is as much as to say, "Look at those spiteful eyes."

Though the Tambookies are, on the whole, of a friendly and sociable disposition, they are easily excited to anger. When their passions are once roused, they are not long in coming to blows. Their eyes begin to roll, and their countenance becomes so distorted by rage, that the features can no longer be recognized. In a short time they have recourse to their assagays, and, if left to themselves, a bloody fight is the never-failing result. In this manner many lives are lost. It is, indeed, a matter of thankful astonishment to us, that often as our Tambookies have quarrelled and prepared for an encounter, they have, in every instance, yielded to our entreaties to desist, and accepted our mediation. These quarrels are most frequent in the spring of the year, when, as they themselves confess, they are intoxicated, as it were, with abundance of milk. Hence arise excesses of all kinds—jealousies, disputes, and murders.

Polygamy prevails among the Tambookies; the only question being, whether a man has sufficient cattle to purchase many wives. As may be imagined, the inclination of the female is little consulted in these cases. In the contracts that are formed, from six to ten head of cattle may be stated as the average price for a wife. It often happens that a woman,

who has been ill-treated by her husband, takes refuge with her parents. If he wishes to have her back again, he is expected to pay several oxen, as a compensation to her family.

It is the universal practice of the Tambookies and Caffres to besmear their whole body with fat, in order to make their limbs supple, and to prevent the skin from chapping. In the spring they paint their face and body red, using for this purpose a kind of red stone found in Caffraria. Of their heathenish dances, I can say but little, never having been present at one: they are said to be of various kinds, and to be generally performed in the houses. Only at weddings, or on other festive occasions, do they take place in the kraal. If any one is suddenly taken ill, an old sorceress is consulted, who orders, according to circumstances, a nocturnal, or else a smelling, dance. The object is to discover who has occasioned the illness of the patient. The individual fixed upon is generally a man of property, who must then fly for his life, and leave his cattle as a spoil to the captain. It is hardly necessary to add, that these heathenish and disgusting superstitions are absolutely prohibited to the dwellers on our land.

As the Tambookie must pay for his wife, his chief wish is to see her the mother of many children, especially girls, whom he may, in turn, dispose of. As soon as she is past child-bearing, she is treated with neglect, and may be thankful if she is supplied with the necessaries of life. A pretext is soon found for putting away a wife who remains childless. It

is a rare thing to see boys and girls playing together; the children of one sex generally keeping separate from those of the other. The eldest son takes precedence of his brothers and sisters, and has a certain authority over them.

Many, if not most, adults and children, have one finger mutilated. It is usually the third finger on the right or left hand, from which the first joint is removed, so as to make it of the same length as the little finger. This abominable mutilation is accounted among them as an ornament, or a mark of honour. Circumcision is practised among them, and the rite is commonly performed by the father.

The custom of leaving the dead unburied is, to the last degree, revolting to the Christian mind. As soon as the sorcerers declare the patient to be past recovery, he is laid upon a skin, carried out into the field, and left there to die; nor do the relatives visit the place, till they have reason to believe that the corpse has become the prey of wolves and vultures. It often happens, that the patient thus doomed to death recovers, returns home, and lives many years. We have found it a work of great difficulty, to induce these superstitious people to bury their dead. For a considerable time, our Hottentots performed this service for them; but, at length, we found it necessary to insist upon their undertaking it themselves. Sometimes I assisted them myself, in the labour of digging a grave. This they soon learnt to do, but none was to be induced to touch the corpse; they preferred rather to hire

the Bushmen, at the expense of a cow, to perform the interment. Nevertheless, we have lately had an instance of a baptized Tambookie, in whom a real change of character is perceptible, burying the bodies of his twin children; shortly after, an unbaptized man followed his example, and interred his departed child. How it will be when the death of an adult takes place, we know not. It is remarkable, that when they kill their enemies in war, they have no scruple about seizing hold of the dead bodies and stripping them of their ornaments.

The Tambookies worship an invisible and Supreme Deity named Tixo, to whom they ascribe all power, as having created and preserved every thing. The Tambookies, living dispersed in this country as fugitives, know nothing of the word Tixo; but it seems that only this generation has lost the knowledge of it. They say, that their parents had it frequently on their lips, but that they had not attended to their words, considering them old, ignorant people. The *Mambookies* and *Tambookies*, who live in the territory of the *Zoolahs*, not far from *Port Natal*, assert, that in their country, both old and young are well acquainted with Tixo: they add, "when we go to war, we pray to him to protect us; and if any one is killed in battle, we say God has forsaken him. If any one sneezes in the heat of the sun, we say, *Diakubulela-Tixo* (God, I thank Thee). If a person sneezes in sickness, we believe that he will recover, and thank God.

Their language is sonorous, and appears to be

inexhaustibly rich in words and phrases, although every one that becomes acquainted with it, soon discovers it to be a very imperfect dialect, abounding in obscure and doubtful modes of expression. Besides grammatical knowledge, the learner has great need of a fine ear and a voluble tongue. Whoever has a partiality for studies of this kind, will find in the structure of this language, which is so different from all other known ones, a rich field for curious investigation. I consider the acquisition of it a very important object, inasmuch as it is spoken, with more or less variation, by at least a hundred thousand persons; few, if any, of whom are likely ever to become familiar with the languages of Europe. I know *Tambookies*, now residing here, and who have long worked with the farmers, who remain altogether ignorant of Dutch.

In the more distant regions of Caffraria, it is said that coals are found, and iron smelted, superior in quality even to that of Sweden. It appears certain, that the farther the traveller penetrates into the interior of the country, the more he is convinced, that the barbarians by whom we are surrounded are a race of men who have fled from the restraints of law and of social life, preferring to live by plunder. In this manner, also, the many petty chieftaincies have doubtless originated. As every chief has a number of children, and although only one son can be his legitimate successor, yet all wish to exercise authority, it follows that one brother is always ready to revolt from the other, and, not unfrequently, the

son from the father, and to erect, with the help of his adherents, an independent state. It may easily be imagined, that the consequence of this state of things is a succession of quarrels and bloody wars. We are, therefore, accustomed to consider ourselves as called to live among men, who are accounted as outcasts by others; in short, among murderers and thieves, and malefactors of every kind, who, to save their own lives, have fled to this place as an asylum. The relation in which the chieftains stand to each other, helps to explain the circumstance, that the Tambookies who reside in our neighbourhood have no fixed dwelling-place, but are always in a state of locomotion. This habit of wandering is indeed strengthened by the pastoral life to which they are addicted, and on which they are entirely dependent for support; for the failure of pasturage often compels them to change their place of abode. Such changes, however, take place more frequently than would be necessary, were they not so often roused by the news of an approaching enemy, and compelled suddenly to leave their huts, to take refuge in almost inaccessible ravines, or upon steep and high mountains.

The colour of the Tambookies is brown, passing into black. Some might be called perfectly black, others simply brown. In the form of their bodies, as well as in their gait, they are much superior to the Hottentots. The Tambookie man is, in general, tall and slender, but, at the same time, strong and muscular; shortness of stature is rare among them,

and it is considered a disgrace to be small or weakly, or a cripple. The women, though shorter than the men, cannot be termed low in stature. Altogether, they are a well-proportioned race; and, as one of their besetting sins is personal vanity, they accustom themselves early to a graceful carriage, which is particularly observable when they walk. Neither is there any thing unpleasant in the Tambookie features. On the contrary, they may rather be pronounced attractive; many countenances are marked by an expression so soft and amiable, that one is tempted to ask if they can possibly be those of wild Tambookies. Their brilliant white teeth are considered by themselves as a great beauty. Their hair is short and curly, and of a jet black colour; the men are not accustomed to pull out the hairs of the beard, like other barbarous nations, but to let them grow; yet their beards never become long. Our long hair they behold with amazement; and this feature, together with that of our white complexion, induces them to call us "things," and not "men." The eyes of the Tambookies are universally black.

The clothing of the men consists merely of a kaross, formed of the skins of sheep or oxen; it has no sleeves, but is simply thrown over the shoulder, and fastened in front; when they wish to engage in any labour, they usually throw it off. A small strap is frequently attached to the upper part of the kaross, from which is suspended a leathern sheath, containing an iron needle about six inches long. The chiefs are ordinarily distinguished by a kaross of panther-

skin. The men wear a girdle about the loins, composed either of brass or of strings of beads, and furnished with little pieces of copper or tin, or other ornaments. Under the knee they often wear the tuft of a cow's tail. The arms are adorned with rings of ivory and brass, and, about the neck, the ears, and the hair, they wear all kinds of beads. Coverings for the head they have none, except occasionally a handkerchief in winter. They go for the most part bare-foot, but when engaged in a long journey, or in warfare, they make use of a kind of shoe or sandal. In war, they adorn their head with a pair of crane's wings, or else with tails of animals of various kinds.

The dress of the women is not devoid of taste. Their kaross is well shaped, and neatly sewed, but, like that of the men, without sleeves. Upon the back there hangs a strip of ox-skin, with the hair outside, about ten inches wide, of the same length as the kaross, and plentifully studded with rows of buttons. To this appendage is attached the shell of a small tortoise, which serves to hold their ornaments and implements for sewing, &c. To look at a company of Tambookie women, vying with each other in the brightness of their metal buttons, and each trying to excel the other in elegance of carriage, would lead one to the conclusion, that in vanity they come behind no European ladies. Caps of various forms and materials cover their heads, and a profusion of beads decorates every part of their body.

The occupations of the men are, to milk the cows, to hunt game, or else to sit the whole day in the kraal, reciting news and adventures, and likewise to carry on war. At sunrise, they creep out of their round huts, each with a round milking basket in his hand, skilfully manufactured by the women, and hasten to the cattle kraal. Every one pays the greatest attention to his cows, and endeavours to obtain from them as much milk as possible. He therefore, while milking, whistles or sings to them all kinds of songs, in which he tells them many stories and makes them many promises. To give an instance,—a Tambookie who had come to live here after many wanderings, and who had seen our large soap-pot boiling upon the fire several days together, sang to his cow as follows :—“ Think thyself happy, thou beloved, that thou hast at length been brought to a secure place of rest, to a place where there is no end of food and drink, where the pot, full of precious meat (this was our soap-pot), is constantly boiling upon the fire. For a long season there was no end of thy wanderings : terror reigned both day and night ; there was no day of rest—nowhere an abiding place—nowhere a kraal ; to day upon the mountains, to-morrow behind the bushes, or in the kloofs ; not two nights together hadst thou the same bed. Now thou art well off : we have found a place of rest, where there is no end of food and of drink.” Some whistle, others utter loud cries, and thus the milking time generally proves a season of boisterous mirth. As soon as a cow is milked, her calf is called

by name out of the *calf kraal*, upon which it immediately comes, to get its share of the mother's milk. Many cows seem to provide faithfully for their offspring, giving but little when milked, and keeping back nearly the whole for the calf. It is pleasant to watch the opening of the *calf kraal*. On these occasions one would naturally expect, that the strongest and liveliest would be the first to escape from the inclosure; this is, however, not the case—only the one that is called by its name comes gambolling forwards. All seem to know their names perfectly well. After the evening milking, at the sound of the word, *hock, hock!* the calves retire into their own kraal. This practice of directing the cattle with the voice, prevails throughout Southern Africa, and it is surprising to observe the success which attends it. Every traveller in this country has occasion to notice it. The driver uses no reins, but merely a whip. Seated aloft upon the driving seat, he is continually talking to his oxen, calling first to one, and then to another; and I have remarked with astonishment, how well they seem to recognize their names, especially when the leaders of a long team are told to go right or left. The last-mentioned remark does not, however, apply to the Tambookies, who are ignorant of the use of vehicles. They accustom the oxen to carry burdens upon their heads, an art which they have also taught their wives. The produce of the morning milking is poured into milk sacks, made of ox leather, and in which the process of churning is afterwards car-

ried on. The sack being hung upon a pole, is beat from side to side, till the butter is made. These duties having been performed by the man, dinner-time approaches. All the men belonging to the same kraal eat in common, sitting in circles on the ground. The meal being over, the boys are sent to look after the cattle. They are permitted at these times to exercise themselves in riding upon the oxen, and to drive the cattle rapidly before them. The object hereof is probably to accustom both to a hasty flight in the event of a hostile attack.

The rest of the day is commonly spent by the men in idleness. They either sit gossiping in the cattle-kraals, or lie sleeping in the sun. If they engage in any thing, it is in the chase. For this, they arm themselves with assagays (light missile darts), and with kirris (sticks with or without knobs), which they cast at their game. They only make use of a shield when they go on the lion or tiger hunt, or into the field of battle. Great numbers of dogs accompany them, on whose courage and prowess they mainly rely. During these hunting expeditions, it often happens that they set fire to the grass upon the mountains, perhaps with the design of driving the game out of the clefts of the rocks. The fire thus kindled sometimes extends to the plains, and much provender is hereby needlessly consumed.

The Tambookie women are considered as the slaves of their husbands, because the latter have bought them, and it is they who have to perform

manual labour of every kind. On a journey, the husband thinks it sufficient to carry his shield and assagays, while his wife carries the infant upon her back, and a great burden upon her head, consisting of household articles rolled up in a large mat. On arriving at a new dwelling-place, the women must build the round huts, a work which they understand well. The cultivation of the gardens is likewise their incumbency. This labour they perform on their knees, with wooden spades. A yet severer duty is the gathering of fire-wood on the neighbouring hills. The women also manufacture baskets of various kinds, which will hold both milk and water, and round earthenware pots, which they mould and bake with great cleverness. For the grinding of Caffre corn, they use a flat stone, crushing the corn against it by the help of another pointed stone, or iron pestle. It is astonishing to see, in what a short time they are able to fill a large jar with flour, by means of such an imperfect apparatus. The flour they bake into little loaves, kindling a fire, after the fashion of almost all uncivilized nations, by rubbing together two pieces of wood. With the cattle they have nothing whatever to do."

The huts of the Tambookies are nearly hemispherical in shape, and disposed in several rows. The doors are all on the eastern side, and so low that it is impossible to enter them without stooping considerably. Between the huts are the kraals, or inclosures for cattle, the fences of which are constructed

of stems and branches of acacia thrown loosely together, and to the height of a few feet. This tree, the well-known *acacia capensis*, from which a gum resembling gum arabic is extracted, is found growing abundantly on the neighbouring mountains. A kraal, like that described, has the appearance of a hedge, the trees of which are all dead. As the wood soon becomes the prey of worms, and the fence is thus gradually destroyed, the cattle often break loose in the night, and trespass upon the gardens, whereby much mischief ensues. Even in their best state, the kraals afford a miserable shelter, and the cattle suffer much from the violent rains and high winds. On this account the Tambookies are accustomed, when the winter sets in, to retire with their cattle into the narrow mountain glens, where they meet with better protection from the inclemency of the weather.

The houses of the Tambookies are built of thin and flexible pieces of wood; the staves which compose the framework, and are arranged in a circle, are bent towards a common centre, so as to form a rude vault, and are bound together with rushes. The wood work is then covered over with reeds or long grass, which, in like manner, is fastened to the frame beneath, by a kind of rush-net of very neat manufacture. To render their houses warmer in winter, they plaster the sides with clay; the roof, however, remains without this additional covering in order that the smoke may find its way through the

interstices. The dwellings of the Mambookies and Sootoos are distinguished from the rest by their neatness and cleanliness.

Desirous of throwing every possible light on this singular nation, I subjoin the following account of the Kaffirs, as detailed by the intelligent Editor of the *Graham's Town Journal*:—

“ There are many other peculiarities in their manners and customs which discover a much higher state of morals than that which they now enjoy. Among these remains may be enumerated that scrupulous regard in abstaining from the most distant approach to incestuous intercourse. The absurd length to which this is carried at the present day only goes to prove that a custom which was, in its origin, praiseworthy, has been corrupted by the lapse of time so as to deaden the most sacred affections of the human mind, and to mar the most pure and amiable associations—that of social family intercourse. So rigid are the Kafir customs on the subject of consanguinity, that the most distant relationship is a sufficient bar to future marriages between the members of the family who are thus connected ; and so suspiciously guarded are they upon this point that sisters-in-law and brothers-in-law dare not even sit in the same room or company, nor will they meet each other in the field if it can be avoided : when by accident they happen to meet on the high road, the woman always turns aside or stands behind some screen, as a bush, &c., till her relative has passed. They may converse, but it must be at such a distance that the pos-

sibility of every thing being heard around is fully secured.

In the formation of missionary establishments in Kaffraria this has been found a serious difficulty ; it being quite opposed to their ideas of propriety for those related by marriage to assemble promiscuously together, even for Divine worship. It may appear to be a matter of extreme difficulty to pay attention to this observance where the parties reside in the same hamlet, as is commonly the case ; but, however difficult, it is nevertheless carefully attended to. Abundant proofs may be found where persons so circumstanced reside at the distance from each other of merely a few yards, and yet, for ten or twenty years together, have never been known to sit in the same room, or mix in the same company. All communication between them has taken place at a certain distance apart, or through the medium of a third person. Instances have been known where a strong temptation, in the shape of a present, has been purposely held out to a Kafir female in order to induce her to violate this custom, but it has been ineffectual : no gift whatever could induce her to infringe upon what she had been taught to esteem a sacred observance.

Another custom which is scrupulously regarded is, that no stranger can be allowed to sleep in a hut occupied by married people. Thus, should a traveller arrive ever so late at night, and there are no huts but such as are occupied by married persons, the custom of the country refuses him a shelter.

Nor does this arise from a want of hospitality, for they have another law which provides that if a traveller should stop at a kraal or hamlet without being supplied with food, and should he be subsequently found dead upon the road, the inference is—unless he discover any mark of violence on the person—that he died of hunger, and the captain of the kraal where he last slept is held responsible for his death, and is amerced in a serious fine accordingly.

The Kafir tribes may now be considered as divided into six great divisions: *viz.* the Mambookies or Amapondas, under Faku: the Amatembu or Tembookies, lately under Voosani (now deceased). The Amakosa, lately under—1st, Hintza, 2nd, Gaika, 3rd, T'slambie, 4th, Pato, Kama, and Cobus. From the best information that can be obtained, the total population, antecedent to the late war, was as follows:—

POPULATION OF KAFFRARIA IN 1834.

Nation.	Principal Chiefs.	Petty Chiefs who divide the power of the principal Chiefs among them.	No. Men.	No. Women.	TOTAL.		TOTAL.
					Men.	Women & Children.	
<i>Amayonda,</i>	F'AKU,	Capai, and others	33,000	132,000	33,000	132,000	165,000
<i>Amatembu,</i>	Late VOOSANI,	Umyeki, Depa, Fubu.	12,000	48,000	12,000	48,000	60,000
<i>Amakosa,</i>	GAIKA,	Botma, Guno, Macomo, Tyali, Norjinka, and others	8,000	32,000			
	T' SLAMBIE,	Umhala, Umkay, Dushani's son, now a minor, Kasana, Sivolo, Habana, Funo,	8,000	32,000			
	PATO, KAMA, CORUS,	Several petty Chiefs, but not of note.	2,000	8,000			
	HINTZA,	Buku, Umpethla, Umgundu, Magwa, and others.	16,000	64,000	34,000	136,000	170,000
				Grand Total	79,000	316,300	395,000

The polity or form of government existing amongst the Kafirs is remarkable, not more for its simplicity than its efficiency. With reference to their judicial proceedings, although they have no records, yet their laws are as well understood, and their forms of court as rigidly observed, as though jurisprudence had been reduced to a profession, and its study made the business of a life. Every chief is the supreme magistrate or judge in his own tribe, and he alone has the power of life or death. Instances have occurred where petty chiefs have exercised this power; but this is always considered an infringement on the unquestionable prerogative of the principal, and the party assuming this power is liable to be mulcted in a severe penalty.

The chief of the tribe has associated with him in his judicial capacity a number of inferior magistrates or officers, whose duty it is to assist in the preservation of good order. Amongst these the gradation of power is very simple and well defined. For instance, the master or head man of every kraal or hamlet, is magistrate of that particular kraal, and all differences amongst the people who compose it are expected to be brought before him; and it is his business to use his endeavours to adjust the dispute in such a way that it shall proceed no further. If, however, it be found in the sequel that the parties will not submit to his decision, or that either of them is dissatisfied, the dissentient has the right of appeal to the chief, or magistrate of the river on which that particular kraal is situated; there being

always an officer appointed to preside over each neighbourhood or section of country inhabited by the respective tribes. The individual exercising this authority is usually a man possessing considerable property, and who is also a member of the national council.

But even from his award the litigants have the power of removing their cases to a still higher power. The supreme court is open to them, and to this tribunal they can always appeal; and do not scruple in numerous cases to avail themselves of the privilege. In taking this step the parties are, however, required to explain minutely the whole case, to detail its progress through each inferior court, as also the finding of the several magistrates, together with the reasons assigned by them for their respective conclusions; finally, they are requested to state explicitly the exact cause of their dissatisfaction with the adjudication in the case in question. All this having been heard, the case is either re-opened, or a former judgment is confirmed, at the option of the principal chief, who generally presides himself on such occasions. From this decision there is no appeal, except the party concerned be a member of the "great house," or family of the hereditary chieftains; in which case the appeal may be prosecuted through every tribe in Kafirland, until it reaches the head of Hintza's family, who is acknowledged the chief magistrate of the Amakosa tribes, and beyond whom they admit no jurisdiction.

In respect to their criminal proceedings, it is to

be remarked that murder is not held as a crime punishable by death. The assassin is amerced in a fine; and if the cause of this lenity be inquired, the reply is generally that the people have already been made sorrowful by the loss of one of their number, and there is no reason why this should be increased by the death of a second; more especially as it would also be an injury to the state, and so far weaken the power of his chief. The most heinous offence in the opinion of a Kafir is the crime of witchcraft, and under this plea are the most dreadful cruelties practised, and the grossest injustice exhibited. It is not a very unusual case that when an individual has had the misfortune to make him or herself obnoxious to a Kafir doctor, or has excited by his property the cupidity of an influential person, that he is marked down as a future victim to this horrid custom. When the plot is ripe for execution, and a suitable opportunity occurs, such as the illness of a person of rank, or any unusual mortality among the cattle, the party denounced is immediately seized by the ministers of vengeance, and led away in a state of indescribable horror to the spot where it is intended he shall undergo the dreadful ordeal. All this time the witch doctors, who are not unfrequently females, continue their frightful incantations, until the assembled multitude are wrought up to such a pitch of frenzied excitement as to lose entirely all self-control, and thus they are prepared to execute, without the slightest demur, the appalling demands which are from time

to time muttered; and to inflict the most excruciating pangs upon the trembling culprit which cruelty ever devised, or which it is possible for diabolical malice either to contemplate or to suggest. In all this the object in view appears to be, not so much the idea of punishment for an offence committed, as an intense desire to extort from the accused a confession of guilt, to discover where the charm lies hid, and to unmask the accomplices in the guilty act. Protestations of innocence are alike perfectly futile, with the most pathetic appeals to the compassion of the ruthless tormentors, or appalling cries for mercy to the inexorable judges. The prisoner is first severely beaten with sticks, and if this does not lead to the expected discovery or confession, he is next thrown violently on the ground, where he is extended on his back, with his hands and feet firmly bound to stakes driven down for the purpose. Whilst in this helpless situation a nest of the large bush ant—an insect particularly ferocious and venomous when thus disturbed and irritated—is broken in pieces and strewed over the naked body of the wretched sufferer, which is sprinkled with water. The pangs endured by this mode of torture are frightful, and generally extort the most piercing cries and groans from the unhappy victim; and in most cases, an assent to all the demands of his fiendish tormentors. When, however, this is not the case, or when his promises are not satisfactorily fulfilled, he is again seized on the instant, and a new mode of torment resorted to, with

the view of making him reveal some secret charm which they imagine he is in possession of. The usual mode of torture is by distending the wretch as before, and whilst in this helpless situation, applying to the most sensitive parts of the body red-hot stones; under which, exhausted and suffering nature soon sinks, unless such disclosures are made as procure a speedy respite from his dreadful sufferings. In the latter case some bone, or mass of hair, or piece of putrid flesh—most generally conveyed to the unfortunate victim by some friend or relative—is pretended to be found, and this is said to constitute the charm that has enabled him to bring disease or misfortune on his chief or kraal.

If the disclosure be satisfactory, the victim may possibly escape with life; but his cattle are seized and confiscated, the greater part being added to the property of the chief, and he is turned upon the world a maimed and wretched outcast. It is not unusual when a chief of rank dies, to inquire how many died with him? meaning what number were put to death. On these occasions some three or four persons are selected, and against these some charge, to give a colour to the proceedings, is brought, which usually ends in the murder of the parties, when poor; and the confiscation of property, when rich.* The class of persons who stand

* It is affirmed that on the death of the mother of Chaka, the great Zoola chief, a public mourning was held, which lasted for the space of two days, the people being assembled at the kraal of the chief to the number of 60,000 or 80,000 souls.

forth as the accusers in such cases are peculiar to the Kafir people; they are styled Doctors, professing in general, in addition to their occult skill, to possess a knowledge of medicine, and its application to the cure of disease. They are supposed to be skilled not only in divination, but also to have power over the elements of nature; and hence when the country, as is often the case, is suffering from drought, their aid is sought for, and their absurd and often obscene and diabolical rites are called into exercise to produce rain, and thus revive the perishing herbage.

Dr. Vanderkemp in his account of the Kafirs thus speaks:—

“ If by religion we mean reverence for God, or the external action by which that reverence is expressed, I never could perceive that they had any religion, nor any idea of the existence of a God. I am speak-

Mr. Fynn, who was present, describes the scene as the most terrific which it is possible for the human mind to conceive. The immense multitude all engaged in rending the air with the most doleful shrieks, and discordant cries and lamentations: whilst in the event of their ceasing to utter them, they were instantly butchered as guilty of a crime against the reigning tyrant. It is said that no less than six or seven thousand persons were destroyed on this occasion charged with no other offence than exhausted nature in the performance of this horrid rite, their brains being mercilessly dashed out amidst the surrounding throng. As a suitable *finale* to this dreadful tragedy, it is said that ten females were actually buried alive with the royal corpse; whilst all who witnessed the funeral were obliged to remain on the spot for a whole year.

ing nationally, for there are many individuals who have some notion of his existence, which they have received from adjacent nations. A decisive proof of what I say with respect to the national atheism of the Kafirs, is, that they have no word in their language to express the idea of the Deity; the individuals just mentioned calling him Thiko, which is a corruption of the name by which God is called in the language of the Hottentots, literally signifying one that induces pain."

The extent of the knowledge of divine things among the natives of South Africa is thus stated by Mr. Moffat:—

"I am aware that the popular opinion is, that man is a religious creature, that wherever he is to be found, there also are to be traced the impressions and even convictions of the existence of a God. It is also commonly believed that wherever man is found scattered over the wide-spread surface of earth's domain, the knowledge of a vicarious offering or sacrifice, by way of atonement, has retained its seat in the human mind. Such were my own views when I left my native land; and entertaining such views, I persuaded myself, or rather tried to persuade myself, that I could discover rays of natural light, innate ideas of a Divine Being, in the most untutored savage—that I could never be at any loss to make appeals to something analogous to our own faith in the religious notions even of those among whom not a vestige of temple, altar, image, idol, or shrine was to be found. When I was unsuccessful,

I attributed it to my ignorance of the language, or the paucity of competent interpreters. So great was the force of early prejudices, that it was a long time before I could be induced to embrace what I once considered an erroneous view of the subject. Living among a people who were not in the habit of metaphysical disquisitions, which so often bewilder the understanding, I had only to draw conclusions from facts, which according to the proverb are stubborn things, though even these sometimes fail to convince. Having asked the opinion of Mr. Campbell, as we were walking together, upon the views of a native Christian from Namaqualand, with whom we had been conversing on this subject, and who had been giving us an ample and descriptive account of his former ideas, Mr. Campbell remarked in his usual pithy style, 'Ah, Sir, the people in England would not believe that men would become like pigs, eating acorns under the tree, without being capable of looking up to see whence they came. People who have had the Christian lullaby sung over their cradles, and sipped the knowledge of divine things with their mother's milk, think all men must see as they do.' One of the most convincing proofs that the minds of the people are covered by the profoundest darkness is, that after the missionary has endeavoured for hours to impart to them a knowledge of the Divine Being, they not unfrequently address to him the question, 'What is it you wish to tell me?'

"And if any thing were wanting to confirm this conviction, surely this fact will be sufficient, that

even where he has succeeded in conveying to the vacant mind of the savage, ideas which he considers as paramount to all others, he is told, that certainly these fables are very wonderful, but not more so than their own. Inquiring one day of a group of natives whom I had been addressing, if any of them had previously known that Great Being which had been described to them, among the whole party I found only one old woman, who said that she remembered hearing the name *Morimo* when she was a child, but was not told what the thing was. Indeed, even in towns, the general reply to that subject is, that these are things about which the old people can speak; but as they are not in the habit of instructing the rising generation on such topics, it is easy to see how even these vague notions become extinct altogether, as they have done in many parts of the country. Nor is it surprising that a chief, after listening attentively to me while he stood leaning on his spear, should utter an exclamation of amazement, that a man whom he accounted wise should vend such fables for truth. Calling about thirty of his men who stood near him to approach, he addressed them, pointing to me, 'There is Ra-Mary' (father of Mary) 'who tells me that the heavens were made, the earth also, by a beginner whom he calls *Morimo*.' (Among the Bechuana tribes, the name adopted by the missionaries for God is *Morimo*. This is said to have the advantage of the names used by the Kafirs and Hottentots, being more definite, as its derivation at once determines its meaning. *Mo* is a personal

prefix, and *rimo* is from *gorimo*, above.) 'Have you ever heard any thing,' continued the chief, 'to be compared with this? He says that the sun rises and sets by the power of Morimo; as also that Morimo causes winter to follow summer, the winds to blow, the rain to fall, the grass to grow, and the trees to bud;' and, casting his arm above and around him, added, 'God works in every thing you see or hear! Did you ever hear such words?' Seeing them ready to burst into laughter, he said, 'Wait, I shall tell you more; Ra-Mary tells me that we have spirits in us, which will never die; and that our bodies, though dead and buried, will rise and live again. Open your ears to-day; did you ever hear *litlamane* (fables) like these?' This was followed by a burst of deafening laughter, and on its partially subsiding, the chief man begged me to say no more on such trifles, lest the people should think me mad."

Like all barbarous people, the Kafirs are lamentably superstitious; and hence they have the most implicit dependence on these wretched impostors; and though in causing rain by their incantations, and in many other respects, their impositions are so frequently exposed, yet so credulous are the people, and so infatuated in a belief of the infallibility of the wizard or witch doctor, that they will readily admit the most flimsy excuse as a sufficient plea for the failure.

Voosani, the great chief of the Tambookies, died, and Mr. Haddy, who was present at the funeral, gives an account of the ceremony of interment, from

which we make the following extract:—"Four or five men," says he, "were selected to bear him to the grave, which was a small hole about three feet deep, and sufficiently large to contain the body in the position in which the Kafirs sit, dug very near the hedge of the cattle kraal on the outside. These men have also to take care of the grave, which they will have to do, unless driven away by the enemy, for some years. They will not be allowed to go off the place, not even to go to their wives and families; and whatever they may be guilty of, none dare punish them. The grave will be enclosed by a sort of fence, forming a kraal, into which will be put every night a certain number of cattle selected for the purpose, which will never be slaughtered. Instead of bringing the body out of the hut by the door, a place was broken in the side of it for that purpose, which was done by one or two of the chief's wives. He was carried to the grave in the kaross he wore when alive. When arrived at the grave, he was laid by its side, and first one and then another of the men appointed to bury him took an assagai and cut off some part of his hair. His ornaments, and the little furniture he possessed, were put into the grave with him. Before the body was deposited in the grave, they washed it, by dipping a handful of leaves in a basin of water, and gently rubbing it over the different parts thereof. When the mortal remains of the chief had been committed to the ground, the captains and all arose, and moved a little nearer the grave, and standing altogether, about the dis-

tance of six or eight yards from it, took their leave of him by saying simultaneously ' Chief, look upon us ;' they then retired."

Such is a brief outline of an interesting and war-like people, who inhabit the E. shores of South Africa, and among whom indefatigable and benevolent missionaries, and active and enterprising British traders, are now introducing, it is to be hoped, the blessings of civilization and Christianity.

There are, in the vicinity of *Port Natal*, and probably in the interior, tribes of yellow men, with long reddish beards and flowing hair, the descendants of shipwrecked Europeans. On the 4th of August, 1782, the *Grosvenor*, East Indiaman, was wrecked on the coast of *Natal*; most of the crew got safe on shore, but a few of them were able to reach the Cape, at that time a Dutch colony, where they reported that many of their companions had been left alive amongst the natives. About ten years afterwards, the Dutch government sent a party in search of them, which penetrated only as far as the river *Somo*, one of the branches of the *Kei*, and returned unsuccessful.

At the request of the English government, another attempt was made in 1790, and an expedition, formed by order of the Dutch authorities, was undertaken by Mr. Jacob Van Reenen, who discovered a village, where he found the people were descended from whites, and that three old women were still living, who had, when children, been shipwrecked, and whom *Oemtonoue*, the chief of the *Hambonas*, or

yellowish-coloured men, had taken as his wives. These women said they were sisters, but being very young at the time of the shipwreck, they could not say to what nation they belonged. These old women seemed at first much pleased at Mr. Van Reenen's offer to restore them to their white country people, but on his return from the wreck they refused to leave their children and grand-children, and the country in which they had been so long residing; where, it should also be observed, they were treated as beings of a superior race. Mr. Van Reenen's party also discovered the remains of the wreck of the *Grosvenor*, and at the time of his visit the descendants of the white people amounted to about 400.

It appears that this tribe of mulattoes have been driven from their settlement in *Hambona* by the *Zoolas*, who have invaded that country. Mr. Thompson, in his interesting journey to *Litakoo* says, that yellow men, with long hair, who were described as cannibals, were among the invading hordes, who were then scouring the country, devastating all before them, like a flight of locusts, and driving thousands of desolate people on our frontier for shelter. The unfortunate Lieut. Farewell, when residing at *Natal*, had pointed out to him one of these yellow men among the king's suite, who was described to be a cannibal; the yellow man shrunk abashed from the lieutenant. There can be no doubt that these descendants of Europeans and Africans are now widely diffusing their offspring

throughout the country; and their services might be turned to good account in civilizing the native tribes.

Of the numerous hordes to the northward and eastward, with whom our enterprising colonists are now opening a valuable trade, we know little more than that their commercial habits may render them valuable neighbours, British traders having, it is supposed, penetrated the interior of South Africa nearly as far as the tropic, to within 150 miles of the great bay of Delagoa, where the country is more fertile and populous, and trade brisk,* at the distance of 500 or 600 miles from the frontier of our own colony.

Dr. Smith has recently performed a most interesting tour into the interior, and the following account of his expedition will excite curiosity to know more of the regions thus imperfectly explored:—

About seventy years ago (in 1777), the Great River in South Africa was first discovered by Colonel Gordon, a British officer in the Dutch service, who named it the Orange River, in honour of the prince who employed him. The river where he fell in with it was as wide as the Meuse at Maestricht, and

* In 1827, Mr. Scoon visited the town of the chief Malacatzi, at the sources of the Mapúta, by the route of 1,400 miles from Cape Town, and traded with that chief, in a few days to the amount of 1,800*l.* Malacatzi sent oxen to support him during the last 200 miles of his journey. Mr. Hume has recently proceeded 200 miles further north (Missionary Register, Feb. 1834), and found many peaceable tribes, speaking the Sichuana language, and obtaining European goods from the Portuguese.

flowed nearly north, a circumstance which threw more mystery round it, as it was not easy to conjecture at which side of the continent it discharged itself; and, at the same time, gave large scope to exaggeration of distance. Colonel Gordon told Labillardière that, travelling over the plains through which the Orange River flows, he had penetrated 150 miles beyond the tropic, or to the twenty-first degree of south latitude. Stavorinus has it (probably owing to a misprint) to the second degree. But these exaggerations of Gordon's are not to be ascribed to his boastfulness (for he appears to have been a plain and honest, as well as very enterprising man), so much as to the idiom of the language which he was in the habit of speaking. The Dutch colonists at that time regarded the *Groot Revier* as infinitely distant, and their mode of thinking and speaking is still preserved by some of the boors, who, snugly ensconced in the *hoeks* or corners of the Sneeuwbergen, and untaught either by the experience of their roving brethren or the activity of the English, persevere in calling the country near the Orange River literally *the place where the world begins to end*. In 1801, under the English government, the Orange River was crossed for the first time in the interior (Paterson had crossed it in 1778 near its mouth) by Messrs. Truter and Somerville. Since that time our adventurous countrymen, prompted by curiosity and love of gain, have nearly realized the fancied exploit of Colonel Gordon; several English traders are continually traversing with loaded waggons the country

beyond the Orange River, and some of them appear to have approached very nearly the twenty-first parallel of south latitude; at all events, their journeys, including the windings of their routes, must have often extended 1,000 miles at least from the frontiers of the colony, or 1,500 miles from Cape Town.

The accounts brought back by some traders who penetrated a long way northward in 1832, respecting the luxuriance of the country near the tropic, and the friendly disposition of the natives, gave rise to an association, formed at the Cape, for the purpose of exploring Central Africa. Dr. Andrew Smith, already known as a zealous naturalist by the collections which he had made at Natal, was appointed leader of the expedition, and round him gathered a corps of scientific volunteers. The expedition, which was on a large scale, consisting, we believe, of 18 waggons, 160 head of cattle and horses, and 40 or 50 people, set forth from Graaf-Reinet, in the eastern district of the colony, in August, 1834, and returned at the commencement of the present year. Immediately on its return, an account of its proceedings was laid before the association in a report, which has been kindly sent to us by a friend in the city, and of which we shall now hasten to present our readers with an analysis.

Dr. Smith found great difficulty at first starting in procuring oxen in good condition for draught, owing to the continued dryness, and the same cause deterred him, after he had set forward, from crossing the arid plains to Latakoo. He resolved, therefore, having

reached Philippolis, a missionary station 16 miles beyond the Black River (the southern branch of, and that originally named, the Orange River), to turn eastward and explore the little-known country of the Bashootoo. His progress shall be now related in his own words:—

“Where we first saw the Caledon River, which was several miles above its confluence with the Nu Gariep, or Black River, it was a stream of considerable size, little inferior as to the quantity of water it contained to the Black River itself. Our course from thence was nearly parallel with it, though generally at a considerable distance either on the one side or the other. In proportion as we receded from Philippolis, in the same proportion did vegetation improve, and by the time we arrived towards the higher parts of this river, every plain was found to be covered with a continuous sward of most luxuriant grass, which continued to the very limit of our journey in that direction. Water was also found in much greater abundance, and the number of small limpid streams which occurred gave an agreeable and interesting character to the country, as well as a degree of comfort, which we had not experienced since leaving Graaf-Reinet. * * *

On approaching the territory of the Bashootoo, the character of the country began to change, the low primitive hills, which in the district of Philippolis were only in a very few instances found to be surmounted by a capping of sandstone, rose to a greater height, and were almost invariably so covered.

The surface of the flats, which in the former district either consisted of a firm ferruginous clay or of the bare primitive rock, was here either a mixture of vegetable mould and ferruginous clay, or of a silicious or a coarse-grained sandstone. Small trees and brushwood, neither of which had been seen in any quantity since leaving Graaf-Reinet, began to clothe the ravines and breaks in the hills, whilst *proteas* and a variety of other dwarf trees skirted the bases of some of the more considerable ones, and reminded me strongly of the country about Plattekloof, in the district of Swellendam. Near this spot we ascended one of the highest hills in the district, and obtained a distant view of the high mountain-range already mentioned, when speaking of the Kous Berg, and which is known to the colonists by the name of 'Witte Bergen.' Travelling, which to this point had been attended with but few difficulties, as far as regarded the road, now became irksome, in consequence of the rugged and broken nature of the sandstone over which we had frequently to pass; we could no longer, as formerly, proceed from point to point almost in direct lines; precipices and broken ground stood between us and our object nearly in every direction, and rendered our path so intricate, that neither by the direction we had received from the natives, nor by the assistance of our interpreter, who had formerly visited Moriah, could we ascertain its position, till after halting and sending out men to examine the country. By that means it was discovered that the site of the mission was at no great

distance, and that, by immediately proceeding, we should reach it before dark the same day, *viz.* the 12th of October. There we found a large substantial stone house, and the Rev. Mr. Casillis, the only white inhabitant of the place, ready and delighted to receive us.

From him we learned that the abode of the principal chief of the tribe was at some considerable distance to the eastward, but that his son was present on the station, and that he had despatched a messenger to inform his father of our approach, so that we might expect a visit from him in a few days. The situation of Moriah is very picturesque, and its inhabitants, as well as those in other parts of the country, observe considerable caution in guarding against attacks from enemies. They had all placed themselves in situations where they could not be assailed on all sides, and where an assault from any quarter could not be effected without considerable inconvenience and exertion. To such precautionary measures they have been driven, from having so long been subjected to the ravages of the tribes which have been expelled from their native country by the successful arms of Chaka. The people resident at this station may amount to about 300, and are all under the immediate government of the oldest son of Moshesh, the present king of the tribe. On the afternoon of the 14th, the latter arrived on horseback, accompanied by several mounted attendants, and on approaching our camp, all, excepting himself, dismounted and fired a salute. He then advanced

towards our tents, where he alighted with ease and freedom, offered his hand, and in other ways evinced indications of friendship and marks of great delight. A very trifling degree of physiognomic knowledge was required to generate the most favourable impressions as to this individual, and all of his proceedings whilst we were in his country went to justify the high opinion formed of him at first sight. The candour he evinced, and the freedom with which he talked of the early and present history of his tribe, particularly of its manners, customs, superstitions, &c., proved sufficiently that he had either never suffered under the same mental degradation as the majority of savage rulers, or that he had made a considerable advance in knowledge, and got rid of many of the vile trammels which corrupt the ideas and vitiate the imagination. * * *

Here I met with the first instance that has ever occurred to me of the principal chief of a clan condescending to furnish information on every subject desired. Persons of the rank in question are generally ready and willing to state their complaints and grievances, but to touch upon any thing beyond those would be found sufficient to drive them from your society. Moshesh stated that the Bashootoo were originally Baquaina, and that they left the country of their forefathers in consequence of oppression and poverty. * * Their language is the Sichuana, with a few trifling variations—the origin or import of the national name could not be discovered.”

It must be observed, that the French Protestant

missionaries had resided only a year with the Bashootoo, and the civilization of that tribe was consequently only in its commencement when Dr. Smith visited them. He next proceeded north-eastward to the Mantatees, by a route which the brevity of his report does not allow us to trace with precision. His account, however, of that tribe, so unhappily celebrated for the devastation which it spread a few years ago through the interior of South Africa, is not uninteresting.

“ On adverting to the history of his tribe, Ciconiæli betrayed the reluctance already remarked as characteristic of the majority of savage chiefs ; what information he furnished was actually wrung from him, and he took the first opportunity of avoiding the inquiry. His mother, on the other hand, resembled Moshesh, and it was from her principally that we obtained the knowledge we possess of the nation. * * Whilst residing on the Namahari River it was known by the name of Baklokwa, or Bakora ; but on flying from thence, and coming in contact with the Bashootoo and other Bechuanas, when it was under the government of Mantatee, they characterized the tribe by the name of its leader, and ever since it has been better known by the term of Mantatees than by the one it originally possessed.

The descent of the Baklokwa could not be traced, owing, in some measure, to their ignorance of its ancient history, but principally, I am inclined to believe, to their pride. A mere allusion to the probability of their being a portion of an older commu-

nity, was opposed with all their energies, and invariably led to the assertion, that they were from the beginning as they now are, unconnected with any other people. The entire of the country towards the sources of the Gy Gariep or Vaal River, was some time ago inhabited by tribes resembling them in manners, customs, &c. ; but they would not admit their derivation from any of them, nor did they demand for themselves the honour of having given birth to any separate community. Their dress and war implements are the same as those which were in use among the tribes more to the eastward. * *

The Baklokwa, like the Bashootoo, principally reside upon the tops of the hills ; and the one upon which we found Ciconiæli was better adapted for defence than any we had previously seen. It could be readily ascended only by one narrow footpath, which, towards the top, passed between perpendicular rocks only a few feet apart. There they have a wicket door of great thickness, and over it the space between the rocks to a considerable height is closed by a wall of stones."

The Doctor, it appears, still continued to penetrate in the same direction.

" On the 8th, we proceeded to the eastward, in order to ascertain the sources of the Caledon, which were represented as being about fifty or sixty miles distant in the high mountain range, which now lay about thirty miles to the southward of us. On approaching it, we found the information we had received to be correct, and that it issued from the

mountains by two principal branches. It was during this part of the journey, that the accident occurred to Captain Edie, which eventually deprived the expedition of his services. * * As soon, however, as he was in a state to travel, we moved in a south-west direction towards the range already mentioned, and, on reaching it, ascended one of its highest peaks, from whence we enjoyed an extensive view towards the north, but a limited one to the other quarters, arising from our position being upon the northern limit of a belt of broken porphyritic mountains, at least thirty miles in breadth, and in which are situated the sources of the Nu Gariep or Black River."

The sources of the Caledon were, we believe, ascertained by him to be in about longitude 29° E., and latitude $29^{\circ} 53'$ S.

The Report affords us little that is novel in the way of incident or description previous to the arrival of the expedition in the country of the dreaded Umsiligas (or Motsilihatsi), chief of that branch of the Amazula nation which the Bechuanas call Matabili. We shall make one great stride, therefore, to the dominions of that chief, on whose friendly reception the ultimate success of the expedition almost wholly depended.

"After leaving the neighbourhood of Latakoo, we met with few inhabitants till we reached the country of the Matabili, distant about two hundred miles in a north-east direction. In former days, this intervening district was inhabited by Batclapi and Bara-

long, but at present it is only the resort of the poor of those tribes, and of the Baharootzi. It may be said to consist almost of one extensive flat, which, during and for some time after the rainy season, is thickly covered with luxuriant grass, but at other times is barren, and, except in a few places, nearly destitute of water. When within a moderate distance of the Molopo, we despatched messengers to inform Umsiligas of our approach, and to state that we should remain at that river, which is considered the western boundary of his territory, until we should receive further information. On the third day after our arrival, and whilst I was absent to examine the source of the river, a chief and three attendants reached our encampment, with a request that we would immediately proceed to Mosiga, where the king would be delighted to receive us. With this invitation we readily complied, and towards noon of the 2nd of June, descended into a fine valley or basin, bounded on the north and north-east by the Kurrichaine range, and which, previous to its occupancy by the Matabili, formed the principal residence of the Baharootzi tribe. Here, as we had been given to understand whilst at the Molopo, Umsiligas awaited us; but scarcely had we halted, before it was discovered that he was yet considerably in advance, though in what direction was not to be ascertained. In our way to a convenient halting-place we passed several large kraals, out of which rushed great numbers of men, women, and children, each more anxious

than another to see the waggons and the people. Their near approach, however, was prohibited; strict orders had been given that nobody was to approach the party, so that when any such attempt was made, a word from the chief, or a shower of stones from his attendants, soon placed all spectators at a respectable distance. A similar system, though not always equally rigid, was observed during our residence in the country; and more than once, when I urged our guard to permit individuals to gratify their curiosity, it was stated to be impossible, because the positive orders of Umsiligas were, that we should in no way be incommoded by his 'dogs.'"

Here follows the travellers' reception at the court of the renowned African potentate:—

"The first kraal we approached was stated to be that of which we were in quest, and though it was little calculated to impress us with the idea of its being the royal lodge, yet the appearance of Mr. Moffat in the distance soon satisfied us that Umsiligas was there, and a further proof was immediately given by his own actual appearance in front of the door, ready and anxious to acknowledge us as we passed to a halting-place. Curiosity, as well as etiquette, required that we should not be slow in paying our respects, so the moment the waggons were placed in their proper position, we proceeded to the kraal with Mr. Moffat, as lord in waiting. On entering, we found Umsiligas seated on one side of the cattle-kraal, with our messengers and a number of petty chiefs immediately around him, and at a distance

was a guard of about fifty or sixty of his warriors. As we approached, he stood up, offered his hand to each in succession, and uttered repeatedly, but indistinctly, *goeden dag*. It having been understood that nothing in the form of seats would be offered us, Mr. Moffat and myself took care to be provided with stools, but the others of the party, who disregarded that precaution, found it necessary to squat themselves upon the dry cow-dung. For some minutes after the ceremony described, a perfect silence prevailed, during which time the chief was not inactive with his eyes, and whenever they met those of any of the party, he smiled with apparent satisfaction. After this, orders were issued to several individuals present, and almost instantly a portion of the breast of an ox, finely stewed, and contained in a wooden dish, was placed in the middle of the group, and several calabashes, well filled with what he called his beer, were carried to him, and set at his feet. The interpreter was now desired to request us to eat, an invitation which we did not require to have repeated. To supply knives, not being regarded as part of *his* duty, Mr. Bell immediately made up the deficiency by producing one, which performed the dissection well, and soon enabled each to fill his hand with a mass of well-cooked meat. After eating was concluded, the chief drank a large cupful of beer himself, and then handed one to each of us in succession, and had we been as anxious for repetitions of the dose as he was to supply them, some at least would have found difficulty in reaching the wag-gons."

It is pleasing to observe, that the chief evinced the greatest respect and personal regard for Mr. Moffat, the benevolent and well-informed missionary stationed at New Latakoo. He assisted in procuring provisions for the expedition, and appointed a guard to attend it, whom he assured, with genuine African kind-heartedness, that if any thing befel the expedition, they should be all killed.

Passing over all the lateral explorations, we shall continue to follow Dr. Smith and his party in their northward journey.

“ Our course was now directed to the Marikwa, and from the point where we reached it we travelled along its banks to where it joins the Oori, and forms the Limpopo. Much of the country on both sides of that river is thickly covered with high bush, which here and there impeded our progress, and seriously injured the canvas of the waggons. The road in several places was rugged, and the ranges of hills through or over which we had occasionally to pass, affected the waggons considerably, and led to several serious accidents, which, however, were rendered comparatively unimportant, from our possessing in the party the means of effectually remedying them. On arriving in about latitude $24^{\circ} 30'$, we found ourselves upon the northern limit of the Matabili territory, and at the last kraal of Umsiligas in that direction, which kraal was inhabited principally by conquered Bechuana tribes, under a Litabili chief. For some distance after passing this outpost, we met with poor natives in considerable numbers, near to

the river, all of whom acknowledged themselves as tributary to the Matabili, and even wore, to a certain extent, their dress. * * They all appeared in a very dejected state, which was not to be wondered at, considering they were almost perishing from starvation. As we advanced, the number gradually diminished, and eventually not a human being was to be seen. This occurrence led us to fear that one of the most desirable sources of information was now out of our reach ; but after travelling three days farther, it was again available. Here we met with the surviving portion of the Baquaina nation, which had formerly held a high rank amongst the Bechuana tribes. This tribe, after having defended itself against the Mantatees, who were defeated at Old Latakoo, eventually sunk under the power of Umsiligas, and became tributary to him, in which condition it continued till he put to death the principal chief, when every individual, with one accord, fled from the country they were then occupying, and established themselves in their present position, where they now live in terror of the Matabili. * *

The people of this tribe seemed to feel their destitute condition more than any we met during the whole journey, which was owing, probably, to their having formerly stood highest in point of rank, having by universal consent been admitted to have first issued from the great cave, out of which, in their idea, the various Bechuana and Bushmen tribes proceeded at the beginning of the world. From them we obtained much interesting information relative to

the interior, which would be out of place to notice here. It may, however, be remarked, that two of the most important points established through them were,—first, the existence of a large fresh-water lake at a great distance to the northward; and, secondly, the occurrence of a scattered Hottentot population, not only over all the neighbouring districts, but as far as, and even beyond, the lake; and that, in the latter position, tribes resembling, to all appearance, the Corannas, and speaking a similar language, existed yet in a state of independence, under chiefs of their own nation. The statements made in regard to the lake were vague and unsatisfactory on every point, except as to its existence—on that no discrepancy occurred—the appearances of the water during stormy weather were so naturally detailed, and the form of the boats and the method of making them ‘*walk,*’ so minutely and clearly described, as proved at once that all must have actually seen what they attempted to picture. On the subject of the direction and distance, little could be ascertained with certainty; some stated it bore north-west from us, others north-east; some that they could reach it in three weeks, others that it would require three moons. If it be kept in view that almost no two of our informants reached it from the same place, and, perhaps, not one without wandering and halting amongst the intermediate tribes, it will be evident that none of them were fitted to form a correct estimate either of the actual distance or direction. There can be

no doubt, however, that we were still far from it, as one of our men, who had been there, and who is a resident of Kuruman, declared that we were at a much greater distance from it than from Latakoo."

The lake here alluded to is evidently the same which Campbell and Dr. Philip have described as having been visited by some Bechuanas, who had journeyed three months or more from Latakoo, and who were five months in returning. The former writer, supposing that the *great water* seen by the Bechuanas, and which they called *Mampoor* (a cockney mode of writing Mampooa, or rather M'búa, which, we believe, simply means *the sea*), must have been the Atlantic Ocean, says that their journey was to the north-west. Dr. Philip states, we think with more accuracy, that they travelled northward. At all events, their accounts of the islands near the shore, the quantities of cattle, and the canoes (or *bowls*, as they termed them), in which the people crossed to the islands, are totally inapplicable to any part of the western shores of the continent to which the Bechuanas could possibly have reached. A more recent and very interesting account of the same lake, obtained from a Bechuana, who visited it, and afterwards accompanied Dr. Smith's expedition, has appeared in the *Athenæum*.

The prevalence of a general drought, and the consequent exhaustion of the oxen, now forced Dr. Smith to weigh maturely the prudence of venturing any further with the expedition. Selecting, there-

fore, the best oxen, he went forward with a light waggon to reconnoitre the country. He thus narrates the issue :—

“ After travelling four days in a north-east direction near to the river, and to a point where it turned to the south-east, without any signs of improvement, nay, I may safely say, with every symptom, if possible, of increasing sterility, we halted near to a kraal of Baquaina, to discover if it were not possible to cross from thence to the Baka hills, where we had been told there was both water and grass in abundance.

Having found from experience that direct questions are often not well calculated to elicit the truth from savages, I determined here to wait, and see if some circumstance might not occur which would enable me to obtain the information we wanted, without making it appear our principal object. That soon happened, for scarcely had the natives joined us, before they began to beg for food, and entreat that we would shoot some game for them, as, according to their own expression, they were dead from hunger. I immediately told them we were ready to do that, if they would accompany us on our journey, which remark caused joy to beam in every countenance, as they took it for granted we intended to follow the river. Upon understanding, however, that such was not our meaning, their disappointment was extreme, and all declared it perfectly impossible to cross, at this season, to the Baka, as not a drop of water was to be found before arriving at the moun-

tains, which would be six days' journey for us; and, in farther proof of the difficulty and danger of the undertaking, they stated that two members of their own community, who had lately arrived from thence, were quite exhausted from thirst, though they had carried with them several large horns filled with water. Having ascertained this much, I began to question them, and the following was the result, *viz.*—during the rainy season the journey could be accomplished without difficulty, but at present it was impracticable. * *

As soon then as the necessary observations were made, in regard to the surrounding country, we moved back to the other waggons, for the purpose of returning to Mosiga. In one excursion, we left the river and travelled to a distance of some miles beyond the tropic, where, from the top of one of the highest trees, we could just faintly discern the summit of the Baka hills, due north of us. In every other direction the country between the eye and the horizon appeared nearly flat, and densely covered with brushwood; and, if we are to believe the natives, the districts beyond the range surveyed exhibited nearly similar characters, particularly those to the east and north-east."

The furthest point reached by Dr. Smith was in lat. $23^{\circ} 28'$ S., or two miles beyond the tropic; but the traders had previously gone much farther—one of them, Mr. Hume, had crossed the Baka hills, and gone two days further, to the tribe called Bameng-water; in all, ten days' journey beyond Dr. Smith's furthest point. The latter appears to have been par-

ticularly unfortunate in encountering one of those periods of severe drought, which occur so frequently in South Africa. But, nevertheless, when the large collections in every department of natural history, which he brought back with him, are taken into consideration, his expedition must be looked upon as highly successful.

I subjoin a few additional remarks as prepared for the Geographical Society by a distinguished geographer :*—

“The *Bechuána* tribes, situated in the interior, about 300 miles north of the *Gariép* or *Orange* River, are superior to the *Caffres* in arts and civilization.† They inhabit large towns, their houses are well constructed and remarkable for their neatness; they cultivate the soil, and store their grain for winter consumption. In their physiognomy also they rise a degree above the *Amakosæ* or *Caffres*; their complexion is of a brighter brown, their features more European, and often beautiful.

As we proceed north-eastward from the country of the *Batclapis*, the most southern of the *Bechuána* tribes, along the elevated tract which limits on the west the basin of the *Gariép* or *Orange* River, we find the industry and civilization of the inhabitants increasing at every step. In the country of the *Tammahas*, near the town of *Mashow*, which has a population of at least 10,000, Mr. Campbell saw

* W. D. Cooley, Esq.

† Lichtenstein. *Reison im Südlichen Afrika*, i. 404, Berl. 1811.

fields of Caffre corn (*Holcus Sorghum*), of several hundred acres in extent. In another place he saw a tract of cultivated land which he supposed could not be included within a circumference of less than 20 miles.* But among the *Murútsi*, whose chief town, *Kurrichane* or *Chuan*, is distant probably about 160 geographical miles, N.E. by E. from *Litáko*, the same traveller found a spirit of industry, and a progress in the arts, which appear to have surprised him.

The town of *Kurrichane* appeared to Mr. Campbell to be about four times the size of *Litáko*, the population of which he estimated at four thousand.† In the construction of their houses many circumstances are observable, which mark a broad line between the *Murútsi* and their southern neighbours, in respect to proficiency in those arts which are most intimately allied to civilization. The fences encircling their houses are built of stone, without cement, but of masonry in other respects equal to that of Europe. The houses themselves are plastered and painted yellow; some of them are ornamented with pillars, carved mouldings, and well-painted figures. The jars in which the corn is stored are from six to ten feet in height and diameter, formed of clay, painted and glazed. The most scrupulous neatness reigns through the habitations.

* Campbell's Second Journey, i. pp. 93, 121, 177. 1820.

† Mr. Thompson supposed *Litáko* to contain six, eight, or ten thousand inhabitants.—Travels and Adventures in South Africa, i. pp. 168, 216. 1827.

The *Murútsi* cultivate tobacco and the sugar-cane, in addition to beans, Caffre corn, millet, and other objects of *Bechuána* tillage. They are so rich in cattle, that the droves returning home in the evening extend two miles from the town.*

The *Murútsi* manufacture large quantities of iron and copper. They melt and alloy the latter metal, draw it into fine wire, and make elastic chains of considerable beauty. Their iron is of so fine a quality as to be little inferior to steel. They supply their neighbours with knives, razors, iron implements of husbandry, &c. It is even probable that they have the art of casting iron, for at *Delagoa Bay* the natives have cast-iron tobacco-pipes, differing little in shape from our clay pipes, and obtained by them from an inland nation.† Now the *Murútsi* are among the most expert of those nations in the art of working the useful metals, and as they are known to trade to *Delagoa Bay*, there is a strong likelihood at least, that the cast-iron pipes are of their manufacture.‡ The *Murútsi* supply their southern neighbours with wooden ware, with bowls, carved spoons, &c. ; and as the *Batclapis* were able to name to Mr. Campbell several handsome kinds of wood which grow in the country of the *Murútsi*, it may be fairly inferred, that the latter people display no less ingenuity and refinement in their manufactures of wood than in those of metal.

* Campbell, i. pp. 220, 248.

† I bought some of these at *Delagoa Bay* in 1823.—R. M. Martin.

‡ Lieut. Rozier.

The arts, industry, and social order which are observed to increase progressively as we advance north-eastwards from the *Batclapis* to the *Murútsi*, cannot be supposed to cease abruptly at the limits of the latter nation. Beyond the *Murútsi*, according to the accounts of natives, towards the north-east or east, are the *Maquaina*, a numerous and powerful nation, equalling the *Murútsi* in industry, and far surpassing them in wealth and numbers.* They are known to all the southern nations, even to the *Amakosa*, who are at least five hundred geographical miles distant from them, but who describe them (under the name of *Maquini*), as the people from whom all other nations receive their iron and copper wares.† The *Murútsi* and other southern tribes obtain from the *Maquaina* beads, the money of the country, which are brought to the latter people by the *Mollaquam*, who live near the great water (I presume towards *Delagoa Bay*), or derived from commerce with the *Mahalasely*, a great nation situated to the north-east of the *Maquaina*, and who trade with a white people living near the great water, and speaking an unknown language.‡ By this description, it is evident that we must understand the Portuguese at *Inhamban*. Beyond the *Mahalasely* are said to be a half-white

* They are called by Lichtenstein, *Maquini*; by Burchell, *Makwins*; by Campbell, *Moquana* and *Baquana*; by Thompson, *Maqueans*; and by Philip, *Maquaina*.

† Licht. i. 465.

‡ Campbell, i. 240.

people, who are extremely savage.* These are the 'Wild Men of the Woods' described by the Portuguese, and who are probably descended from the Moors, driven southward by them after the conquest of Sofâla.†

Now the information which the *Murútsi* communicate respecting the nations situated to the north-east of the *Maquaina* deserves our particular attention. The *Mahalasely* (as well as the *Mateebeylai*, a neighbouring nation) are of a brown complexion, and have long hair.‡ They wear clothes, ride on elephants, which they likewise use for draught, they climb into their houses, 'and are gods.'§ This last emphatic expression is usually applied to Europeans, with whom the *Mahalasely* are thus raised to a level. All the nations, from the *Mahalasely* to the *Murútsi* inclusive, obviate the virulence of the small-pox by inoculating between the eyes.||

The various Austral-Ethiopian tribes, or nations south of *Inhamban*, habitually regard each other as members of the same family: they are, as they express it, *one people*, and, unless when wars disturb their harmony, they mingle together without

* Philip, Researches in South Africa, ii. 154. 1819.

† Lieut. Rozier.

‡ Campbell's First Journey, 216. 1825. Second Journey, i. 272, 308.

§ The *Mucurangas* and *Amakosæ* make use of a similar expression. By the former, Europeans are called *Musungu*; by the latter, *Malungo*; that is, Lords.

|| Campbell, i. 613.

fear or mistrust. Their young chiefs make distant journeys, confident of being hospitably received wherever they arrive. To this circumstance, and the commercial disposition of the *Murútsi* and their neighbours, it may be ascribed that their geographical information is so much more accurate and extensive than is usual among rude nations. The industry and commercial habits of the inland tribes are sufficiently matured to operate on opinion and to feel its reciprocal influence. Even among the *Batclapis*, who are less strenuous and ingenious than the *Murútsi*, an individual of industrious habits is commended and esteemed by all.* Mr. Campbell met a family, with all their property packed on oxen, travelling from the country of the *Tammahas* to that of the *Murútsi*, a distance of one hundred miles, to reap the harvest.†

The *Murútsi* carry their manufactures, their copper ornaments, iron and wooden wares to the *Batclapis* and other southern tribes; from whom they obtain in return, skins, ivory, and *síbilo*, or glittering iron ore, with which they powder their hair. These articles they again carry north-eastward to the *Maquaina*, with whom they exchange them for beads and clothing. Thus the trade in which they are immediately concerned probably extends from four to five hundred miles. At the chief towns, to which they resort, they have commercial agents, called *marts*, with whom they are

* Burchell, Travels in South Africa, ii. 555.

† Campbell, i. 283.

allied by interest, and bound in reciprocal obligations of friendship and hospitality.* The *Mahalasely*, whose civilization is so much vaunted by their southern neighbours, are said to carry their hospitality and encouragement of trade so far as to support, at the public expense, all strangers who enter their country.† They purchase great quantities of ivory, which they superstitiously anoint, and pretend to the *Maquaina* or *Murútsi* merchants (who readily believe them) that they eat it. This strange fiction is evidently intended to protect their monopoly of the trade with *Inhamban*.

The *Murútsi*, *Maquaina*, and *Wankútsi* are said to trade with the *Dmaras* on the western coast of Africa, and there can be little doubt that their northern and north-eastern neighbours, the *Seketay*, *Bamangwatú*, and *Mahalasely*, maintain a commercial intercourse with the empire of *Monomotapa*. We are informed, that the beads with which the Portuguese on the *Zambese* carry on their trade with the natives are of three colours, viz. black, white, and blue; ‡ these are precisely the colours on which the *Bachapins* set a value; beads of any other hues are not considered by them as money.§ Now this uniformity in the appreciation of a circulating medium, the value of which is altogether conventional, can be reasonably ascribed only to an active commerce

* Campbell, i. 274.

† Ibid. 308.

‡ Thomann. Reise und Lebenbeschreibung, 115. 1788.

§ Burchell, ii. 569. Red and yellow beads are preferred to blue on the coast.

pervading the countries in which it is observed. The Portuguese say, that ivory is brought from the *Orange River* to *Zumbo*, a trading town on the *Zambese*, 400 or 500 miles from the sea;* which account, stripped of misconstruction and erroneous inference, amounts to this, that a commercial intercourse exists between the nations dwelling among the sources of the rivers which discharge themselves into *Delagoa Bay*,† and those which are situated due north of them, near the *Zambese*. Thus it is evident, that the trade of the Austral-Ethiopian nations may be traced from *Delagoa Bay*, on the eastern, to *Whale Bay*, on the western coast; and from *Latakoo* northwards to the *Zambese*. From *Téte*, on this river, the commercial route of the natives runs northwards about 150 miles, through the high country of the *Maravis*, and then turning to the north-west, intersects several rivers which flow towards the interior (probably, like the *Zambese*, to wind round afterwards to the eastern coast). Having pursued this direction about 200 miles, the route turns westward to *Angola*."

The kindness and humanity of the natives of what is vaguely denominated the *Caffre Coast*, as displayed towards shipwrecked seamen, have often been the theme of just and warm commendations.‡ "They

* Bowdich, Discoveries of the Portuguese, 108.

† The *Leven's* boats went 50 miles up the *Manisse*, which disembogues itself into *Delagoa Bay*; the waters were still fresh,—stream increasing 18 feet, mud bottom soundings, and the natives said it would take two moons to reach its source.

‡ Hamilton, New Account of the East Indies, i. p. 6.

are very just," says Captain Rogers, "and extraordinarily civil to strangers."* When the missionary, Mr. Archbell, visited the *Zoolahs*, he was met at the distance of three days' journey from *Chaka's* residence, by women bearing calabashes of beer for his use.† He found the *Zoolahs*, whose conquests have been attended with so much desolation, a remarkably neat, intelligent, and industrious people; rich in cattle, cultivating a fine country, and dwelling in large towns. The nations of the interior are no less friendly in their conduct. The European travellers who have visited the *Batclapís*, the *Tammahas*, the *Murútsi*, and *Wankítsi*, have experienced in every instance kindness and civility.‡ *Makabba*, the much-dreaded chief of the last-named people, told Mr. Moffat, that "he hoped no grass would grow on the road from the Cape colony to his principal town, *Quaque*." The *Murútsi* lamented only that Mr. Campbell had no merchandize with him.

The geographical situation of the nations which

* Dampier's Voyage, ii. part iii. 112.

† Missionary Register, p. 49. 1830.

‡ We visited in the *Leven* and *Barracouta* the numerous Arab settlements on the N.E. coast of Africa, and were everywhere received with hospitality, and I may add enthusiasm. The principal settlements to the northward of *Mozambique* are *Mukeedesha*, *Marka*, *Brava*, *Patta*, *Lamoo*, *Mombas*, *Quiloa*, *Pemba*, and *Zanzibar*, together with several fortresses at different parts of the coast. *Mukeedesha* (in lat. 2. 01. S., long. 45. 19. E.) is a large place, with great traffic, and the houses built in the Spanish style. *Mombas*, *Pemba*, *Lamoo*, and *Zanzibar* are subject to the *Imaum* of *Muscat*.—R.M.M.

are pre-eminent in industry and population is thus stated by Mr. Cooley:—The position of *Litáko*, the chief town of the *Batclapís*, is tolerably well ascertained, the lat., 27. 6. 44. S., being fixed by observation, and the long. 24. 40. E., calculated from several itineraries.* Eastward from the *Batclapís* are the *Tammahas*, who, enjoying a more humid climate, are superior to them in wealth and numbers, though more recently reclaimed from the bush-ranging life. Their chief town, *Mashow*, containing 10,000 or 12,000 inhabitants, is probably 190 miles E.N.E. from *Litáko*.† The *Murútsi* are to the N.E. of the *Tammahas*: their chief town, *Kurrichane*, being 150 miles from *Litáko*, according to Mr. Thompson; 250 according to Mr. Campbell, who actually visited it. Calculating, however, with the elements which Mr. Campbell affords, we may venture to place *Kurrichane* in long. 27. 10. E., lat. 25. 40. S., about 160 geographical miles from *Litáko*, and 300 from *Delagoa Bay*. The *Wankítsi*‡ are probably 70 or 80 miles W. or W.N.W. from the *Murútsi*, whom they resemble in manners. Their country, which is hilly towards the E. and N., though refreshed by abundant rains, is deficient in running waters. It lies apparently to the W. of the sources of the rivers which flow through the country of the *Murútsi*.

* Burchell, ii. 488.

† Lichtenstein, Burchell, and Thompson.

‡ I have seen a people termed the *Wankítsi*, at different parts along the coast as far as Mombas, in 4. S. latitude; they come from the interior as traders.—R. M. Martin.

But though on opposite sides of the ridge, these countries resemble each other in the luxuriance of their vegetable productions. The waggon-tree, which, within the limits of the colony is found to flourish only near the coast, is again seen here, after disappearing for a space of seven degrees. An increasing moisture of climate, in consequence of an approach to the sea-coast, is perceptible at every step of the journey from *Litákoo* to *Kurrichane*, in the increasing vigour and profusion of the vegetable kingdom. The harvests of the *Murútsi* are three weeks earlier than those of the *Tammahas*, yet *Kurrichane* stands at a great absolute elevation, perhaps 5,000 feet at least above the sea; it certainly cannot be lower than the plain on the N. side of the *Sniewberg*. The *Batclapís* describe it as a very cold situation; but the grass near it, they add, is extremely sweet. At *Litákoo*, the thermometer often sinks in winter (in June and July) to 24, and snow falls but soon melts. Snow falls also on the highlands near the sources of the *Mapoota*. Cold winds from the N.E., in the country of the *Tammahas*, indicate a very high country in that direction.*

Numerous rivers flow rapidly towards the E. and N.E., through the country of the *Murútsi*, who are separated from the *Maquaina*, in the latter direction, by a great river called *Makatta*.† This is the river called *Mariqua* by the colonial traders, and which there is reason to suspect is identical with the *Man-*

* Burchell, ii. 299. Campbell, ii. 90. Thompson, i. 374.

† Burchell, ii. 532.

nees, or *King George's River* of *Delagoa Bay*. All the country beyond the *Murútsi* is said to be very populous, and full of rivers, which abound in crocodiles. These animals are called *Maquaina* (in the singular, *Quaina*), and probably furnish a vague designation of the people in whose country they are so numerous.* Beyond the *Maquaina* (between N. and E.) are the *Mootchoosely*, *Mahalasely*, and *Mattebeylai*: the last two near the great water, that is, the sea. The *Maklak*, also, or *Makillaka*, carry beads to the *Maquaina* from the coast.† In all the countries here enumerated, there are many great towns as large as *Kurrichane*.

The industrious tribes of the interior are not insensible to gain—the mercantile character is fully developed in them; they think of nothing, says Mr. Campbell, but beads and cattle.‡ Their country is sufficiently rich in natural productions to support, in the first instance, a considerable traffic; they have ivory in abundance, skins of all kinds, and probably some valuable sorts of wood. The wood of the *Murútsi*, called *mola*, is said by the *Batclapís* to be quite black and very beautiful.§ They have copper and iron of the best quality. If the commerce of these nations reaches to *Zumbo* on the *Zambese*, as the Portuguese say it does, the gold trade might be easily diverted into a southern channel. Indeed, there is some reason to maintain that gold is found

* Phillips, ii. 156. Campbell, i. 242.

† Campbell, 240, 307, 313. ‡ Campbell's First Journey, i. 243.

§ Ib. 290.

at no great distance from the *Mahalasely*.* When the Dutch, a century ago, had a factory at *Delagoa Bay*, they obtained gold from a country due N. from *English River*, apparently distant from it about 70 miles.†

During the time the *Leven* and *Barracouta* were at *Delagoa Bay*, in 1823, there arrived a caravan from the interior, consisting of 1,000 native traders, with from 300 to 400 elephants' tusks, and a great quantity of cattle. The natives of the coast, who, nevertheless, are inferior in every respect to those of the interior, are partial to the British, and have a strong predilection for fair commerce; they are quiet and decorous in their manner of dealing, and utter strangers to dishonesty; their prudence will not allow them to give their merchandise for the momentary gratifications of rum or tobacco; and for cloth they have the most inordinate desire. These details, to which many others might be added, demonstrate in a new point of view the commercial importance of our colony in South Africa.

* Barbosa (in Ramusio, i. 288) says, the gold was brought to *Sofála* from a country south of *Manica*, towards the Cape of Good Hope (*i. e.* from the south-west).

† The Dutch had, it is said, settlements for 300 leagues along the S.E. coast of Africa, and for 150 leagues along the straits of *Mozambique*.

CHAPTER V.

FORM OF GOVERNMENT—MILITARY DEFENCE—RELIGION—
MISSIONARY STATIONS—EDUCATION—THE PRESS—&c.
&c.

THE affairs of the colony are administered by a governor,* nominated by the Crown, aided by an executive council, composed of the commander of the forces, the chief justice, the auditor-general, treasurer, and accountant-general—the secretary to the government. There is a legislative council, appointed by the government in England, at the recommendation, of course, of the colonial government. The members of this council (of whom five are official), after two years' sitting, hold their seats for life:—their debates are carried on with open doors.

A large proportion of the colonists are strenuously in favour of an elective legislative assembly, such as exists in Canada. They ground their claims on the allegation that serious misgovernment has been continually exercised, under the rule of an individual governor, Dutch or English; they point to the amount of property held by the colonists; to the large amount of taxes (£130,808) annually levied on them without their consent, and appropriated

* Salary £6,000 per annum.

without their control. They instance the fact that the smallest slave islands in the West Indies have long enjoyed the benefit of legislative assemblies, and that now slavery no longer exists in South Africa; nor without reason do they allege the neglect of their affairs in England, where also, by reason of the abolition of the *nomination* boroughs, the indirect representation enjoyed by the colonists has been cut off: and, above all, they point to the irresistible fact, that a representative assembly, chosen by the property and intelligence of any community, is the best security for its liberties, and the surest promoter of its prosperity.

A constituency is already formed, consisting of those who are entitled to sit as jurors,* and the colony has long been divided into districts; there is, therefore, no practical obstacle in the way of granting, as a boon, that which it will be just and politic to concede as soon as a majority of the colonists are in favour of an elective legislative assembly.

The eastern province of the Cape of Good Hope is placed under the care of a lieutenant governor, and divided into four districts; namely, Uitenhage, Graaf-Reinet, Albany, and Somerset. The first contains 9,000 inhabitants, Graaf-Reinet 15,000, Albany 10,000, and Somerset 11,000—in all 45,000 souls.

The introduction of a representative assembly would, in a great degree, remove the evil which the

* Which depends on the amount of direct taxes paid by each colonist.

distant settlers now complain of; but a lieutenant-governor should certainly be appointed for the eastern districts and frontier; a code of municipal regulations be established, with a mayor and shrievalty, at Graham's Town; and a branch of the Land Transfer and Registry Office,* or other business requiring frequent reference to Cape Town, should be established at the capital of the eastern province.

At present, each district, or *drotsdy*, has a civil commissioner, who now, for economy's sake, acts also as a resident magistrate, aided by a relative number of unpaid justices of the peace: a district is divided into several smaller divisions, termed *veld cornetcies*, over which an officer with that title presides. The *veld cornet* is, in fact, a sort of petty magistrate, empowered to settle trifling disputes within a circuit of fifteen or twenty miles, according to the extent of his authority, to punish evil-doers, to call out the burghers (over whom he presides) in the public service, and act as their officer on *commandoes*,† to supply government with relays of horses or oxen, when wanted, &c. &c.: he receives no salary (except upon the Caffre frontier), but is exempt from all *direct* taxes.

The municipal body at Cape Town consisted of a

* See laws—landed tenures.

† This term denotes reprisals on the frontier tribes for incursions into our territory, which expensive, and too often cruel proceedings, would, as regards the Caffres, be effectually checked by our occupation of Port Natal. The *commando* tax is levied on the inhabitants generally.

burgher senate, under the form of a president, four members, secretary, and town treasurer; the president remaining in office two years, and receiving 3,500 rix-dollars per annum; he was succeeded by the senior member, and the election of a new member took place by the board (not by the inhabitants, or burghers, paying the taxes); three persons were returned by the majority of votes, and their names sent to the governor, who selected one out of the three.

This senate, if properly elected and managed, might have been productive of much good: it had the superintendence of the cleansing and lighting of the public streets, and of preventing encroachments on public lands; it regulated their sale, supervised weights and measures, and the reservoirs, water-pipes, and fire-engines; attended to the assize of bread, the slaughtering of healthy cattle by the butchers; levied and received the town taxes, and the commando tax, when that was necessary, and watched over the prices of various articles of prime necessity. Under proper regulation and management, such a body, duly elected, would have been of considerable assistance to a government, by relieving it of all minor details of management in the concerns of private life; it has recently, however, been dissolved, without any substitute being provided. Cape Town ought to have been made a corporate city, with a mayor and freely-elected court of aldermen, &c., for its management.

MILITARY DEFENCE.—The establishment of king's

troops in South Africa is three regiments of infantry—the head-quarters of two being at Cape Town and of the other at Graham's Town. There is a strong detachment of royal artillery, a party of the royal engineers, and an excellent regiment of mounted riflemen, termed the Cape cavalry, the privates and non-commissioned officers of which are principally Hottentots. A regiment of the queen's dragoon guards is now stationed at the Cape.

Our naval force is under the command of a Rear-Admiral, whose authority extends along the E. coast of Africa, and to Mauritius and St. Helena; it would be advisable, I think, to place our Australasian settlements under the same command, instead of having it under the Admiral at Trincomalee: the W. coast of Africa has been recently added to the Cape station.

LAWs.—When the Cape became a British colony, the Dutch criminal and civil laws were in operation;—these, particularly the latter, have undergone some modification—torture has been abolished; the penalty of death attaches on conviction of murder, rape, coining money, and high treason; transportation, for theft to a large amount, or crimes of a serious or violent nature, not liable by the Dutch law to death: for minor crimes, the punishment is banishment to Robben Island (at the entrance of Table Bay), with hard labour; imprisonment in the *Tronk* (prison), or flogging. Criminals are tried by a jury, of whom there must be at least seven members present, and when the offence is capital, a

majority must agree in the verdict, if seven only be present; if more than seven jurors attend, and opinions as to guilty or not guilty are equal, the prisoner is acquitted; by the new charter the English system has been brought into operation. By a humane and wise decree, a criminal is allowed, on his trial, to employ an advocate to examine and cross-examine witnesses, and to argue for him on all points of law in his defence.

The civil law is modified by that of the Dutch code—the 'Statutes of India,' collected by the Dutch towards the end of the seventeenth century, and declared to be applicable to the Cape by a Batavian proclamation, dated February, 1715—and by various colonial laws, or, where these are found deficient, by the *Corpus Juris Civilis*. The equal division of property on the demise of a parent, added to the absurd custom of measuring distances by a man's walk in an hour, or a horse's canter, render litigation frequent.

The laws are administered by a supreme court, presided over by a chief justice (salary £2,000), and two puisne judges (salary, each £1,200), who hold four terms in the year—February, June, August, and December. Circuit courts,* civil and criminal,

* The colonists complain of a great want of uniformity in the law proceedings of the circuit courts; two of the judges being English, act according to that system—whilst the third, being Scotch, follows his national customs; hence, different procedures prevail, to the no small annoyance of suitors: it is indeed to be hoped that some more suitable qualification were

are also held after the English form; for the better execution of the law, the office of high sheriff, with the appointment of deputy sheriffs for each district, was created in 1828. Small debts under £20 in the Cape district, or £10 in the country, are recoverable in the court of the resident magistrate, from whose judgment there is an appeal; in Cape Town, if the sum in dispute amount to or exceed £5, or in the country districts 40s., debts exceeding £20 sterling in the Cape district, and £10 in other parts of the colony,* are recoverable only in the supreme court, where, however, smaller sums may also be recovered: claims founded on a note, or bond already due, require no witnesses; book debts, and others, not founded on liquid† documents, require to be proved by witnesses; and a poor person, suing *in formâ pauperis*, is allowed an advocate by the court, to inquire into his case. The attorney-general (salary £1,200), *ratione officii*, is the public accuser and prosecutor, and all suits in the court of justice, on the part of government, are conducted by him.

A court of vice-admiralty sits for the trial of offences committed on the high seas, and for the adjudication of maritime disputes. The commissioners, appointed by letters-patent under the Great

requisite for our colonial judges than mere party influence, or aristocratic connections.

* Under the Charter of Justice of 2 William IV., the jurisdiction of the court extends to sums not exceeding in amount £40.

† *Liquid* signifies a note of hand or other acknowledgment.

Seal, dated 13th March, 1832, are the governor, or lieutenant-governor, members of council, the chief and puisne judges, the commander-in-chief, and flag-officers of ships of war, and also the captains and commanders of ships of war. Matrimonial courts, for the settlement of conjugal differences, and the granting of marriage licenses, are held by the commissioners, who are also resident magistrates, in their respective districts, aided by the local justices of the peace, and the veld cornet. The police of Cape Town is well managed, and the public prison clean and well arranged, the civil and criminal prisoners being kept perfectly distinct.

The tenures of land are various; the most ancient are those which are called '*loan farms*,' which were granted to the early settlers, at an annual rent of 24 rix dollars, the lease being perpetual so long as the rent be paid; three such farms are calculated to contain nine square miles, and there are about 2,000 in the colony. Gratuity lands are a customary copyhold, and pay about the same rent as '*loan farms*;' they were grants by favour, and are chiefly situate in the neighbourhood of the Cape district. Freehold estates are grants made to the first settlers, of about 120 acres each, and are also situate chiefly around the first location made at Table Bay; the greater part of these tenures are held on account of a sum of money being paid down at once, on the primary occupation of the settlers. Quit-rents were derived from the use of waste lands lying contiguous to an estate, the occupant of the latter consenting to pay

at the rate of 1s. an acre, under a lease granted for 15 years.

The last and most usual system in operation is perpetual quit-rents, the annual payment depending upon the quality and circumstances of the land; these estates vary upwards to 3,000 *morgen*, or 6,000 English acres. Transfers of land, or mortgages (except the bond called *Skygene*), are legal only when registered in the debt book, at the Colonial Office at Cape Town, where commissioners sit to superintend such matters: and no sale or transfer can be made till after a settlement of all bonds, either by the mortgager consenting to continue his loan on the securities of the new purchaser, or by repayment; a fresh transfer is then made, and the purchaser is placed in possession of a complete title, without the possibility of fraud, of claims withheld, or mortgages concealed, at an expense of a couple of sheets of paper, and a trifling payment—thus avoiding a ponderous mass of conveyance.

The 'Bar,' at the seat of government, is not numerous, but its members are distinguished by talent; and several of the Cape councillors, though born in Africa, and principally educated there, would do honour to Westminster Hall.* There are 12 barristers, (LL.D.'s), and 17 attorneys in Cape Town, and 5 in the country: many of the attorneys are notaries, and some of them practise as barristers.

* Messrs. Cloete and De Wet are profound lawyers and eloquent pleaders.

The Dutch language formerly used in the courts of law, is now superseded by the English.* Law is expensive on account of the numerous forms required by the Dutch courts, and heavy stamp-duty on legal proceedings. The Insolvent Act is in force at the Cape.

RELIGION.—There are a variety of creeds professed in South Africa:—The Dutch colonists are divided into Calvinists and Lutherans—the Calvinist or Reformed Communion corresponds almost entirely in doctrine and in discipline with the Church of Scotland, hence pastors now sent out (there is one for each district) are from the latter establishment. The Dutch Reformed Church, so called, is under the control of the General Church Assembly in the highest matters—its synod consists of two political commissioners, three moderators (including a president, secretary and actuary, and quæstor), and members composed of all the officiating clergymen, and delegated elders from the several churches in the colony. The synod is held every 5th year, in the month of November. The General Church Assembly is charged with the care of the general interests of the Calvinistic or Reformed Church in South Africa, and in regard to these particularly with the care of all that belongs to public worship

* As another illustration of the ignorance of the colonies prevailing in the highest quarters, it may be stated that a German speaking only *High Dutch* was sent out to the Cape, as interpreter to the Supreme Court, although the Afrianders speak the *Low Dutch* with a peculiar *patois*.

and the Church institutions ; it frames Church regulations and ordinances, and submits them to government for approval ;—it makes particular regulations respecting the examinations and the manner of admission of those intended for teachers, that it may be fully assured of their ability, orthodoxy, and fitness ; and it provides appropriate arrangement and makes regulations for the promotion and improvement of religious instruction in the colony. The principal minister at Cape Town has £400 a year, and two other ministers £300 each—and in each district with a Calvinistic congregation there is a minister with a salary of £200 a year.

The English or Episcopalian Church ranks next in point of numbers ; it is included in the diocese of Calcutta, with a resident senior chaplain, on a salary of £700 a year. When I was last at Cape Town, there was no church for the Episcopalians, and they were obliged to accept the loan of the Lutheran church in the intervals of the Dutch morning and afternoon service ; a handsome edifice called St. George's Church has been finished within the past year, with 1,000 sittings, 300 of which are set apart for the poor. A good church has also been recently built at Graham's Town for the British settlers, and provided with an English chaplain at a salary of £400 per annum. The Lutheran Church has a minister at Cape Town paid £150 per annum by his congregation. The Presbyterian or St. Andrew's Church has a minister at Cape Town with £200 a year from government, and a stipend from the community ; the Roman

Catholic chapel has a pastor with £200 a year from government, and an allowance from his community.

The Missionary Societies have long been nobly exerting themselves in South Africa for the promotion of religion, morality, and education. The *South African Missionary Society* was established in 1799; its Committee is composed of eight directors, two treasurers, and secretary; its station is confined to Cape Town.

The London Missionary Society (established in 1795) has stations at Cape Town, the Paarl, Tulbagh, Bosjesveld, Zuurbraak, Pacaltsdorp, Hankey, Uitenhage, Bethelsdorp, Port Elizabeth (Algoa Bay), Theopolis, Graham's Town, Graaf-Reinet, at the Kat River Settlement, Buffalo River, Cafferland, Phillipolis (so called after the worthy and indefatigable Dr. Philip, superintendent of the London Missionaries), Bushman Station on the Caledon River, Griqua Town north of the Gariiep, Campbell Town, a branch of the Griqua Station, Bechuana Mission, New Latakoo, Komaggas Namaqualand, and at Steinkoff.

These stations have 32 missionaries or pastors, with several schoolmasters and assistant teachers. Schools are established at each station, meeting in most places daily, and in all there are Sunday ones; infant schools have also been set on foot, and in some districts 100 children are at one school. At the Caledon Institution, Zuurbraak, for instance,

the school in 1834 contained 90 children, who are instructed in English and Dutch :—an infant school has been commenced containing 40 children, and a Temperance Society established. At Hankey, in 1834, there were 150 children in the day school, 150 adults in the Sunday school, 40 children in the infant school, and 190 members in the Temperance Society. At Bethelsdorp the day school contained 100 children—a Sunday school well attended—an infant school (80 children)—a school of industry and a Temperance Society.

At Theopolis there are four schools—a day, evening, Sunday, and infant school (the latter attended by 100 children), and a Temperance Society has been formed.

At Graham's Town the Sunday school contains 300 children—and the Temperance Society has done much good. At Phillipolis there are from 200 to 300 pupils in the school. It would be unnecessary to particularize further ; these statements shew the good done by those worthy men whose exertions are directed for the weal of the most helpless portion of our fellow-subjects in this vast empire.

The *Wesleyan Missionaries* are not behind their London brethren in pious efforts ; their stations are in the Cape and adjoining districts, namely, at Cape Town, Khamiesberg, and Great Namaqualand ;—in the Albany District, at Graham's Town, Salem, Bathurst, and Port Frances ;—in Cafferland, among the Amakosæ, Amatembu, and Amaponda tribes ;

and in the Bechuana country, at *Plaatberg Boots-knapp*: their missionaries are in number 16, with an establishment of teachers, &c.

The mission station on the *Chumie*, as described by the Rev. Stephen Kay, stands at the foot of a high mountain, whose sides are beautifully covered with trees and shrubs of various kinds, and whose deep chasms furnish a good supply of superior timber; the streamlets pouring in abundance from the cliffs and precipices in front of the mountain are let out by means of furrows and conduits, irrigating the country to a considerable extent. The surrounding country is fine and fertile, affording abundant pasturage for cattle, and possessing a soil that might be rendered exceedingly productive if properly cultivated.

The Moravians have also several excellent establishments, where they have wisely commenced teaching the people the wants and comforts of civilized life, and afterwards instruct them in the blessings of religion. The Moravian stations, in 1835, were at *Gnadenthal* (begun 1736), *Groenenkloof* (begun 1736), *Enon*, on the *Witte River*, and *Hemelarde* (begun 1818), *Elim* (begun 1823), and *Shiloh*, on the *Kipplaats River* (begun 1828); at which stations there are 39 missionaries. The extent of good which these excellent men effect is limited only by their means. One of the Moravian brethren thus describes the country where their mission is established:—

“ Though the heat is frequently great in August, night-frosts do not altogether cease before the month of November, and it occasionally happens that even in December, beans, tobacco, and other similar herbs, are affected by them. Towards the end of December, or, at the latest, in the beginning of January, the corn harvest commences; the land then cleared of wheat is immediately planted with maize. This crop, as well as that of the so-called Caffre corn, is harvested about the end of April, by which time the night-frosts begin to return. The winter, from the end of April to the beginning of September, cannot with propriety be here termed the rainy season; for although, during this interval, it sometimes rains, and even snows, the weather is for the most part dry. A more appropriate denomination for it would be the *windy season*, inasmuch as the south-east or north-west winds blow with little intermission, and at times rise to furious tempests. The latter is the warmer wind; the former, on the other hand, is piercingly cold. At night it freezes sufficiently to form a thin crust of ice upon the standing waters. As a proof of the occasional severity of the cold in this region, it may be mentioned, that in the month of August last, three persons were one night frozen to death on their way from the Kat River to this place. In the mountains the snow lies for a considerable time. The summer heat is ordinarily very great, but it is often accompanied by a cold breeze, which occasions catarrhal complaints of

various kinds ; to this cause may also be ascribed the prevalence of rheumatic ailments among the Tambookies.

In summer the sky remains cloudless often for weeks together, and all nature seems to languish for want of moisture. Suddenly, however, violent storms arise, and heavy rain cools the air and refreshes the thirsty soil. The thunder rolls with awful magnificence, and the rain, mingled with hail, falls in such torrents as to produce large cavities in the earth, so that in a few minutes the lower grounds resemble large pools of water. Similar thunder-storms not unfrequently occur in the winter season.

In the neighbourhood of Gnadenthal but little pasturage is to be met with, the uncultivated tracts of land being covered with innumerable kinds of heath and other plants of humble growth, and being consequently unfit for the rearing of cattle. About Shiloh the contrary is the case. For although in our neighbourhood there is abundance of what is called Karroo earth, and one might therefore expect to find a class of vegetable productions similar to those which adorn the Karroo (or wilderness), the whole district around us is very different in appearance from the Oberland, as the country about Cape Town is called. Here the ground is richly clothed with grass, neither a tree nor a shrub being seen upon the surface of our expanded vale : only on the ridges of the hills, or in the narrow glens, are these occasionally visible. In spring, the entire level, and some of the

lower hills which bound it, are arrayed in lively green; on the other heights there protrude from between patches of scanty herbage, rude masses of naked rock, which serve the wandering Bushman for a habitation. Scattered upon and between the rocks, are to be seen the aloe and the handsome Caffre-bread tree, which appear to thrive upon a very scanty soil, and to require but little moisture: hereby giving a picturesque aspect to the rugged blocks of stone. Other hills look like heaps of stones piled one upon the other. From these unsightly objects the eye turns with pleasure to the grassy carpet which stretches far and wide across the expanded plain. It must not, however, be supposed that this carpet bears any close resemblance to an European meadow. Many sorts of grass are indeed seen growing together, intermixed with but few of the beautiful flowers peculiar to South Africa. But the grass forms a number of isolated tufts, between which, in the higher grounds, the red, in the lower, the dark-coloured earth is discernible. Large herds of cattle are scattered over the surface, and it is pleasant to see the oxen and cows traversing the prairie in every direction at the approach of evening, and with merry gambols hastening to their night quarters. The verdure of this extended plain is not indeed of long continuance; the glowing heat of summer, and the frosts and cold winds of autumn and winter, give to it an arid and yellowish-grey appearance during the greater portion of the year. Yet the cattle remain healthy and fat up to the

coldest days of winter, when they become very lean. Epidemics among the horned cattle are seldom known, and the rearing of sheep seems to answer well. The African sheep have generally very fat tails, some of which have been known to weigh from twelve to fifteen pounds. The boors or settlers on the frontier are chiefly occupied in tending sheep. Corn is exchanged for money, for which again the needful clothing and other articles of consumption are obtained. Most of the farmers have little or no bread to eat throughout the year; it therefore frequently happens to a traveller, that he is treated with a morsel of mutton, so fat as to be scarcely eatable, in the place of the bread he asks for.

The soil in these parts consists principally of Karroo earth mixed with sand. Beneath this Karroo earth is found a kind of stiff loam, which is remarkably fertile if watered, but when parched is as hard as stone. If the ground is well manured—and there is no want of this article, owing to the great quantities of cattle kept—it is nearly in every instance very productive. Corn often yields ninety-fold, if it remain uninjured by the rust or the locusts. The seed is scattered sparingly, because many stalks rise from a single root. With few exceptions, the Tambookies are not easily induced to manure their land; but they permit the calves to wander about the gardens in every direction, a circumstance which causes many disputes among the settlers, owing to the trespasses mutually committed.

The greatest internal advantage connected with the station we occupy, and which causes the locality to be not a little envied by our neighbours, is the possession of a stream of water, which is constantly flowing at all seasons of the year. The name of Klipplaat is derived from the circumstance of its rocky bed, which confines it as it were within solid walls of stone. The water is clear and fresh, and remains always sweet, because it is never stagnant. It has its source in the Kat River mountains, flows nearly from south to north, and after receiving several other rivulets, empties itself into the Kei, and through that river into the Indian Ocean. It seems not a little surprising, that while other large streams, such as the Sunday's River, &c., are often completely dried up, the far less considerable Klipplaat pursues its course unaffected by the surrounding sterility."

No country offers a wider field for the useful and pious missionary than South Africa and its adjacent country, with myriads of people emerging from barbarism, and beginning to taste the fruits of knowledge and industry. I again most cordially recommend the Moravian and all the other Missionary Societies to the attention and cordial support of the Christian and philanthropist.

EDUCATION is making considerable progress—a schoolmaster of respectability has been sent by the home Government to every drotsdy (district) to teach the English language gratis to the inhabitants; several individuals further the progress of instruction

after the manner of Captain Stockenstroom* at Graaf-Reinet, who added to the salary of the teacher from his own pocket 600 rix-dollars for the purpose of opening a class for the classics at the teacher's leisure hours—and 400 rix-dollars to encourage a day-school for females, besides giving up an extensive private library for the use of the inhabitants.

A very excellent institution, termed the *South African College*, was founded at Cape Town, 1st October, 1829, whose affairs are under the superintendence of a Council and Senate; the tuition being conducted by Professors of Mathematics, Astronomy, Classical, English, Dutch, and French Literature, with Drawing-masters, &c. Another admirable institution, entitled the *South African Literary and Scientific Institution*, has the Governor for patron, aided by a President, Vice-Presidents, Council, &c.; a Museum is attached to the institution, filled with preserved and well-arranged specimens of animals and other objects of Natural History indigenous to South Africa, owing to the zeal of Dr. Smith.

The *South African Public Library*, conducted by a Committee of the principal gentlemen in the colony,

* This gentleman was born and educated at the Cape, and has long been admitted to be one of the most intelligent, enterprising, and public-spirited magistrates that the colony ever possessed; when visited by Mr. Thompson in 1823, he found Graaf-Reinet (although the largest and wildest district in South Africa) administered on a system at once mild and efficient, and Captain Stockenstroom's character everywhere respected and beloved.

is highly creditable to the literary taste and enterprise of the inhabitants, as it would stand a comparison with almost any library in England, the national ones excepted. This noble institution may be said to owe its origin to Mr. Dessin, a German, who emigrated to the Cape in the middle of the 18th century, acquired property, and gratified his taste by collecting books, which his situation as Secretary to the Orphan Chamber enabled him to do, at perhaps less expense than any other individual in the colony. At his death, Mr. Dessin manumitted his slaves, left his extensive library for the public use, under the management of the ministers of the Calvinistic Church, and bequeathed a sum of money in trust for its gradual increase and preservation; such was the origin of one of the finest libraries out of Europe.

The *South African Infant School* is also a beneficent establishment. There are many private schools in Cape Town and Albany, with well-educated masters: so that on the whole we may assume (though unfortunately there are no statistical returns) that the "schoolmaster is abroad" in South Africa.

A *Medical Society* meets once a month at Cape Town for the discussion of subjects connected with the healing art, and the most remarkable cases in medicine or surgery are published.

The *Cape Royal Observatory* for astronomical observation in the southern hemisphere, is under the control of the Lords Commissioners of the

Admiralty, who employ an astronomer and assistant for the purpose of making celestial observations. The *Cape Observatory* was recently honoured with the presence of Sir J. Herschell, who, in his zeal for science, proceeded thither to examine the beautiful constellations of the south—of which those who have only witnessed the starry hemisphere of the north can have but a faint conception. It is well worth taking a voyage to the Cape of Good Hope, if it were for no other purpose than to behold the splendid “*cross*.” Among the other societies are those for *Promoting Christian Knowledge*—a *Philanthropic Society*—a *Tract and Book Society*—a *Bible Union*—*Friendly Society*—*Widows’ Fund*, and an *Agricultural Society*, &c. There are also *Book Societies*, &c., in different districts.

The PRESS.—Among the other extraordinary features of the present age is the introduction and extension of a Free Press on the shores of Southern Africa—extending our language, laws, and literature, and erecting a monument for the British name less perishable than one of marble or brass.

Although the freedom of the Press was only established in the colony in April, 1829, yet there are now three political newspapers, two at Cape Town and one at Graham’s Town, for the Eastern District, a *Literary Gazette*, and an excellent *Directory*.—The Cape newspapers (excepting the *Graham’s Town Journal*, which is entirely in English) are printed in English and Dutch—the latter being a translation of the former. Messrs. Greig, Fairburn, and Prin-

gle deserve all the credit for the establishment of a Newspaper Press at the Cape of Good Hope; that its introduction may have had some disadvantages, as regards private individuals, is beyond a doubt—no good is unmixed with evil, but in this, as in many other instances, the latter is far, very far, outbalanced by the former. The first newspaper, "*The South African Commercial Advertiser*," was established by Mr. Greig, January 7th, 1824; it was, however, suppressed in the May following; recommenced in the August of the ensuing year; again summarily suppressed in March, 1827, and resumed in October, 1828, since which period it has continued and flourished.

The inhabitants do not yet support a daily paper, the Cape Town Journals are therefore published twice a week, and the Graham's Town weekly. All the newspapers are well supplied with advertisements. There is a penny stamp on the journals, and also a penny postage when transmitted inland, but no duty on advertisements. There is also a monthly *Cape Literary Gazette*, and from the taste now springing up, periodical literature will doubtless be soon more sought after by the Dutch community than has hitherto been the case; the English have set the example, and it is to be hoped not in vain. I cannot better conclude this chapter than by shewing the efforts of the Missionaries for the extension of knowledge, as detailed in the Graham's Town Journal.

The editor of the *Graham's Town Journal* says:—

“During the twelve years that the Wesleyan missionaries have resided in this country, a large amount of labour has been performed by them. The most formidable difficulties have been met and overcome, and it is not too much to say, that the Kafirs of Southern Africa must ever look up to them as the instrument, in the hands of God, of clearing away many of those obstructions which seemed to present an insuperable bar to future improvement. One of the greatest of these was, doubtless, that of having to address a people whose language had not been reduced to a written standard, of the peculiarities and analogies of which they were utterly ignorant, and which, therefore, it was necessary to discover, before they could rationally expect to make any deep and lasting impression upon the minds of the people amongst whom they were called to labour. In surmounting this difficulty the Wesleyan missionaries have been eminently successful. The intricacies of the language have been completely unravelled; and a grammar has been formed and published by Mr. Boyce, which will render the study of the language comparatively easy, whilst it will ever remain a monument of the industry and philological acumen of its author. From this gentleman we have obtained much information respecting the several dialects of Southern Africa, and which we shall insert in this place, as being perfectly relevant to the topic before our readers:—

“Our knowledge,” says his memorandum before

us, "of the languages of South Africa is very limited and imperfect, which is much to be regretted, as a comparison of the vocabularies and grammatical constructions of the various dialects would throw considerable light on the origin and migrations of the tribes by which they are spoken. An interesting field of inquiry invites the attention of philological students, especially missionaries, to whom such inquiries are of the utmost importance. We may hope in a few years to ascertain the analogies and dissimilarities of the principal languages spoken south of the line, including the Portuguese possessions in Congo, Loango, &c., on the west coast, and Sofala, the Rio Senna, &c., on the east coast. In the present state of our information, it appears probable that all the languages of South Africa may be classed under two general divisions or families.

The first and most ancient, which was probably that spoken by the very first inhabitants who found their way to this extremity of the globe, comprehends the dialects spoken by the Namacquas, Bushmen, Korannas, and Hottentots; these dialects—all of which, though differing from each other, are radically the same—were once spoken throughout all South Africa as far as the Kei River; but now, within the old colonial border, Dutch has almost entirely supplanted them; and beyond the old border to the Kei—the Kafirs having conquered that country from the Hottentot tribes—no trace of the Hottentot language remains, unless it be that the Kafirs have adopted the disagreeable clicks

from their Hottentot predecessors, along with various words now neutralized in the Kafir language. Along the northern frontier of the colony, the Namacqua, Koranna, and Bushmen dialects are yet spoken by a numerous yet scattered population. These dialects are entirely different in their grammatical construction from the Kafir language; they abound in those peculiar and unpronounceable sounds called *clicks*, and from their harshness, and the limited nature of their vocabularies, appear to be barriers in the way of religion and mental culture, and as such doomed to extinction by the gradual progress of Christianity and civilization. Into the Namacqua dialect the four gospels have been translated by the Rev. Mr. Schmelen, of the London Missionary Society, whose wife, a pious native, was of great assistance to him in his laborious undertaking; they have been printed by the Bible Society. Dr. Van der Kemp published at Bethelsdorp a part of a catechism in the Hottentot dialect. Mr. Boyce had the curiosity to compile a sketch of the grammatical peculiarities of the Hottentot language, as spoken by the Gonaqua Hottentots in Kafir land; but we trust that the prevalence of Dutch or English among the few tribes which yet speak these uncouth and unpronounceable dialects, will soon supersede the necessity of further literary labours, which in this language appear hitherto to have been more curious than useful.

The second division or family of the South African languages comprises the various dialects spoken by

the Kafir and Bechuana tribes to the east and north of the colony. These two languages resemble each other in grammatical construction, and a very great many words are common to both, as may be clearly seen by a comparison of the grammar of the Sichuana or Bechuana language by the Rev. J. Archbell, Wesleyan missionary, now printing, with Mr. Boyce's grammar of the Kafir language. The Bechuana language differs from the Kafir in this—it has no click, and the sound of the letter *r* is of frequent occurrence, whereas in Kafir one-third of the words have the clicks, and the sound of *r* is unknown; so that in foreign words the natives invariably pronounce *r* as *l*. The Bechuana has also a dual number which is unknown in Kafir. Languages resembling the Kafir and Bechuana in grammatical construction, and in their radical words, appear to be spoken throughout the whole extent of South Africa. In Congo, Angola, Loango, and among the Damaras, on the west coast, the dialects there spoken resemble the Kafir in their grammatical construction, and many of the words of the language spoken near Mombas on the east coast, are pure Kafir and Bechuana.

The Kafir language has many traces of its eastern origin in the frequent occurrence of words which are plainly of Hebrew or Arabic extraction; and in the use of what grammarians technically term *epenthetic* and *paragogic* letters or syllables. Barrow's theory of the Arabic origin of these tribes will account for this, and the alterations which the language has

undergone since the migration from Arabia, may be easily accounted for, from the influence of Negro dialects upon the original language, and other alterations, brought about by the revolutions of several thousand years. The most striking peculiarity of the Kafir is the euphonic concord; which immediately strikes a student, whose views of language have been formed upon the examples afforded by the inflected languages of ancient and modern Europe; with the exception of a change of termination in the ablative case of the noun, and five changes of which the verb is susceptible in its principal tenses, the whole business of declension, conjugation, &c., is carried on by prefixes, and by the changes which take place in the initial letters or syllables of words subject to grammatical government. As these changes, in addition to the precision they communicate to the language, promote its euphony, and cause the frequent repetition of the same letter, as initial to many words in a sentence, this peculiarity, upon which the whole grammar of the language depends, has been termed the *euphonic* or *alliteral concord*.*

* Vide Grammar of the Kafir Language, by W. B. Boyce, Wesleyan Missionary, page 3. As far as we have heard, the only European adult who has acquired the true pronunciation of the Kafir language is Mr. H. Dugmore, Wesleyan Missionary; and who in less than one year, by the assistance of a fine ear and retentive memory, succeeded in mastering its several difficulties. In studying the language he attributes his success to a rigid adherence to the principles laid down in Mr. Boyce's

These euphonic changes are governed by the nouns, of which there are 12 classes, (both numbers included,) each class of nouns in its plural, in its government of another noun in the genitive case, in its union with pronouns and adjectives, and in its government of the third person of the verb, differs from the other classes, using a separate letter or syllable; thus there are in Kafir 12 different ways of saying he, she, it, or they; and this peculiarity gives a remarkable degree of precision to the language."

But not only have the Wesleyan missionaries succeeded in unravelling the intricacies of this before unknown language, and in fixing a standard for future students, but they have also made the most praiseworthy and successful efforts in the work of translation; and the result is, that, up to the present day, there have been translated into the Kafir tongue, and printed at the Wesleyan Mission Press, at Graham's Town, the books of the prophet Joel and Isaiah, and the gospel by St. Luke; together with the first part of the Conference Catechism, the Liturgy of the Church of England, and a hymn-book: several elementary works and lessons have also been composed and printed for the use of the schools. The book of Psalms is in course of printing; all the books of the Old Testament, except the minor prophets, as well as those of the New Testament, have grammar, and which he has aptly enough termed *the mountain mover*.

been translated and are ready for the press; and a complete dictionary of the Kafir language is also preparing by Mr. Dugmore.*

With respect to any other advantages which the natives have derived from the labours of the Wesleyan missionaries, it will require no effort to shew that they have been many and important. It is not too much to say that their influence has been felt throughout the entire length and breadth of Kafirland; whilst the striking fact that every chief, with the exception of Hintza, with whom they had established missions continued, during the late disturbances, in amity with the colony, is sufficient of itself to stamp their labours with the decisive mark of public utility, and to entitle them to general approbation.

The following is the state of the several missions at the close of the year 1834:—

	Members.		Average Sabbath Con- gregations.	Average Week Day Congregations.	Day School.	Sunday School.
	Full.	On Trial.				
Wesleyville ...	70	5	400	100	50	180
Mount Coke...	7	3	150	40	30	50
Butterworth ...	28	13	550	100	80	100
Clarkebury ...	14	6	150	50	36	60
Morley	24	11	400	100	50	300
Buntingville ...	12	6	400	80	22	201
	155	44			268	900

* The British and Foreign Bible Society, with that noble liberality for which it is distinguished, has made the Wesleyan

I would here again press on the attention of the religious communities, the absolute *necessity* of giving every possible support to the several Missionary Societies in their truly Christian efforts to enlighten the heathens of distant lands. I firmly believe that England is mainly indebted for her present greatness to the noble use she has made of the gospel, in endeavouring to extend its blessings to other lands: a perseverance in this course can alone save our highly favoured country from the ruin that has befallen every heathen empire.

Society a grant of 500 reams of demy paper to aid them in the prosecution of their important work.

CHAPTER VI.

FINANCES, COMMERCE, AND MONETARY SYSTEM, &c.

FINANCES.—It is difficult to convey a clear idea of the mode of managing the finances of the colony, owing partly to the variety of items, which enter into the Treasurer-General's budget at the Cape; the best mode of explaining the receipts and disbursements will be to give the following account of the revenue and expenditure for the last year of which the accounts have been printed.*

Statement of the Revenue and Expenditure of the Colony of the Cape of Good Hope from the 1st Jan. to the 31st Dec. 1832.†

GROSS REVENUE. — Port dues, 1,269*l.*; Stamp dues,

* Fuller details on this and other subjects will be found in the large Edition.

† The following document obtained from the Marquess Wellesley shews the revenues of the Colony when we first obtained it.

Revenue of the Cape of Good Hope, since the conquest by the English.

From 1st of October, 1795, to 30th September, 1796, R.Ds. 111,264. *£*22,252.

From 1st of October, 1796, to 30th September, 1797, R.Ds. 201,893. *£*40,378.

Three months from 1st October, 1797, to 31st December, 1797, R.Ds. 90,549. *£*18,109.

16,837*l.*; Lombard Bank, interest, &c., 15,633*l.*; Discount Bank, discounts, 4,616*l.* *Customs*: Duties, 3 per cent. on English and 10 on foreign, 13,385*l.*; Store rent, 357*l.*; Wharfage, 1,482*l.* Total 15,225*l.* Postage, 3,877*l.*; Land rent, 7,310*l.*; Fines, 954*l.*; Advances recovered, 426*l.*; Sur-charges recovered, 100*l.* *Assessed Taxes*: Capitation tax, 4,912*l.*; Tax on servants, 177*l.*; Tax on horses, 1,362*l.*; Tax on carriages, 2,801*l.*; Tax on stock and produce, 3,162*l.*; Tax on income, 2 per cent. 2,564*l.*; Water tax, 1,107*l.*; House tax, 920*l.*; Tax for keeping in repair the Cradock Hill Road, 122*l.*; Arrear taxes, due prior to the 31st March, 1829, 413*l.* Total 17,544*l.* Market duties, 3,727*l.*; Auction duties, 12,508*l.*; Rent of butchers' shambles, 840*l.*; Rent of quarries, 26*l.*; Tithes on wine and brandy, 2,754*l.*; Tithes on grain, 1,619*l.* Total 4,374*l.* Transfer dues, 7,227*l.*; Tolls and ferries, 3,131*l.*; Fees of office, 6,345*l.*; Pound fees, 182*l.*; Somerset hospital, 535*l.*; Miscellaneous, 8,113*l.* Total Revenue, 130,808*l.* In 1842, 149,920*l.*

EXPENDITURE. — *Civil Government*: Salaries, 23,601*l.*; Contingencies, 4,216*l.* Total 27,818*l.* *Judicial Department*: Salaries, 30,736*l.*; Contingencies, 2,742*l.* Total 33,478*l.* *Revenue Departments*: Salaries, 15,497*l.*; Contingencies, 5,650*l.* Total 21,147*l.* *Ecclesiastical Establishment*: Salaries, 7,120*l.*; Contingencies, 457*l.* Total 7,578*l.* *Schools*: Salaries, 1,912*l.*; Contingencies, 463*l.* Total 2,376*l.* *Medical Department*: Salaries, 1,955*l.*; Contingencies, 2,777*l.* Total 4,732*l.* *Pensions*: Civil, 4,683*l.*; Military, 760*l.* Total 5,443*l.* Convicts and prisoners, 6,606*l.*; Jurors and witnesses, 2,138*l.*; Public roads, bridges, and ferries, 2,276*l.*; Public works and buildings, 8,654*l.*; Remittance to colonial agent in London, 3,755*l.*; Advances for the public service, 240*l.*; Miscellaneous, 640*l.* Total expenditure, 126,889*l.* In 1842, 142,229*l.*

A brief explanation of the foregoing will doubtless be acceptable, commencing with the items of *revenue*.

The port dues are derived from a tax of $4\frac{1}{2}d.$ per ton levied on all vessels entering Table or Simon's Bay (Algoa Bay is exempted), for the purposes of trade, and if for refreshments, or any purposes other than trade, $2\frac{1}{4}d.$ per ton: this is independent of wharfage dues, or permits, which are, however, light.

Stamp dues, with the exception of the Assessed Taxes, form the largest item in the budget; they are extremely numerous, but appear to be well graduated, and if not pressing on the lower classes of the community, they form an unexceptionable item of revenue. At the Cape, stamps are requisite on all transfers of property, on bills, or promissory notes, on bonds passed before notaries, on wills or codicils, on various law papers, and all deeds of contract, &c., on powers of attorney, civil or legal appointments or promotions, on licenses for the sale of wines, spirits, or beer, for keeping an inn or eating-house, and for exercising the following trades— auctioneers, bakers, retail shop-keepers, pedlars, and hawkers, game-killers, fire-wood carriers, brewers or distillers, for waggons and boats, clubs and societies, public billiard tables, marriage licenses, letters of burghership, adoptions, leave to go to the hot baths, and permission to quit the colony. The foregoing is a formidable list, and some petty items might well be excluded.

The customs are derived from a duty of 3 per cent. levied on all British and British colonial goods, and of 10 per cent. on all foreign goods, imported either in British bottoms, or in vessels of certain nations in

amity with Great Britain: 10 per cent. is also levied on all goods imported into the Cape from the East Indies. It has been proposed to increase the import duties, and thus augment the revenue, so as to admit the abolition of some of the vexatious items of taxation.

Postage is not very heavy, considering the slowness of communication throughout the colony;—from Cape Town to Simon's Town, a distance of 25 miles, it is 3*d.* for a single letter; and from Cape Town to Graaf-Reinet, 500 miles distant, it is 1*s.*; ship letters brought into the colony, single, 4*d.*; double, 8*d.*; one ounce 1*s.* Newspapers sent inland, or from the colony, 1*d.* each. The mails are conveyed throughout the colony by post-riders on horseback;—the riders are generally Hottentots, or slaves, in the service of the post-holders, who are boors, residing near the high roads; the post-holders receive an allowance, regulated by the number of hours' journey which they engage to carry the mails: the improvement of the roads in the colony, under the able superintendence of Major Mitchel, has tended much to facilitate the transfer of the mails, and with increased knowledge and intercourse, the post-office ought to be a source of revenue, which it can scarcely be considered at present.

The *Assessed Taxes* are payable under the provisions of Ordnance No. 57, passed March 5, 1829. The capitation tax is levied on every free male above 16, and on every free female, widow or unmarried, at the rate of 6*s.* yearly.

Exceptions. Free male servants taxed as servants at 10s. yearly. Officers in the King's service on full pay, or employed as military men in the colony, and their families. Field commandants, field cornets, and provisional ditto. All pensioners, not receiving more than 1s. a day, and having no other means of livelihood. All persons of the border tribes, for two years after their first entering the colony. And all apprentices under Ordinances 49 and 50.

On every free male servant, or slave above 16, employed as coachman or driver of a carriage, taxed at 4*l.* 10s., or 2*l.*; and every groom or stable servant, porter, footman, house-servant, or cook, 10s.

Exception. Military officers' servants.

Horses. On each riding or draught horse, used for pleasure carriages, 10s. On each saddle-horse, used in trade or agriculture, 1s.

Exception. Military men, according to the number allowed to their rank.

Carriages. On all sorts of vehicles, with four wheels, used or hired out for pleasure, 4*l.* On all ditto, with two wheels, 2*l.* On all four-wheeled vehicles used in trade or agriculture, 5s. On all two-wheeled ditto, 2s. 6*d.* Coachmakers, agents, &c., not liable for carriages not used or lent out.

Income Tax. Two pounds per cent. on all whose incomes exceed 30*l.* excepting from farming stock, chargeable with opgaaf.

Exceptions. Military officers, half-pay ditto, and

their wives and children receiving colonial half-pay, for the amount of such half-pay only.

N.B. These taxes were imposed in lieu of former ones, known as the Caffer Commando, taxes on cattle and grain, levied by the late Burgher Senate, and the extraordinary assessment on ordinary opgaaf, authorized by proclamation of 1st April, 1814, sec. 14. All these were of course abolished. *Direct Taxes*, Ordinance 57. Capitation, servants, &c. Do. 78. Houses and stores, and water rate.—*On Produce and Stock*. Each head of black cattle, three farthings; each breeding horse, three farthings, 25 sheep or goats, $2\frac{1}{4}d.$; each muid of wheat, barley, rye, and oats, three farthings; each leaguer of wine, $6d.$; ditto, brandy, $1s. 1\frac{1}{2}d.$

The other items explain themselves by their names—the auction duties are large—most sales taking places in that manner. The tithes on wine, and brandy, and grain are derived from duties levied on these articles as they enter Cape Town, which it is now proposed to abolish.

The expenditure requires no comment; it will, however, be perceived that the colony is quite independent of any aid from Great Britain; with a colonial legislation, the inhabitants would doubtlessly be able to apportion the receipts of the revenue in a more advantageous manner than now exists. The King's troops stationed in the colony, and the naval squadron at the Cape—the one for military protection, and the other for the sake of our maritime weal

—are the only expenses incurred by England; and their charges are partly applicable to the other stations in the southern hemisphere; while a statesman will not forget that a few regiments at the Cape are of great advantage, should we desire to augment our Indian army, or to land troops in South America or Egypt; the healthy station of the Cape renders it therefore a desirable *locale* for either troops or seamen, and the expenses should be borne by the mother-country.

THE MONETARY SYSTEM at the Cape is very imperfect, and its fluctuations have caused great distress to private individuals, and much ruin to merchants and others, whose active pursuits require a frequent conversion of capital; a brief account of the past will be, therefore, requisite, in order to form a correct idea of the present state of currency and banking transactions in the colony.

Holland, up to the period of 1780, had forwarded every sort of supply, with exact punctuality, to the Cape, but the war between England and America, and the part taken by the Dutch, left the colonists of the latter power in extreme distress. To provide for the exigencies of the occasion, Governor Van Plattenberg was compelled to create a paper currency, and from 1782 to 1784 (when he resigned the Cape government) 925,219 paper rix-dollars were thrown into circulation, on no other security than the good faith of the Dutch government, and a solemn promise of redemption when peace would permit the accustomed supplies to be sent from Hol-

land. This stipulation was fulfilled by the annihilation between 1787 and 1789 of rix-dollars 825,904, by paying that amount in specie and bills on Holland, leaving only 99,326 rix-dollars afloat and in circulation.

A precedent was thus set for the creation of paper rix-dollars on any emergency. In 1793, the colony laboured under a very pressing inconveniency from want of a sufficient circulating medium, the amount not then exceeding 200,000 rix-dollars ; with a view, therefore, to public relief, and for the purpose of checking those usurious transactions which naturally accompany a contracted currency, the Dutch commissaries-general (Nederberg and Trikennices) formed the institution of a Lombard or loan bank ; 1,000,000 rix-dollars were declared to be an adequate circulation for the colony, and 680,000 rix-dollars were advanced by various instalments to form the capital of the loan bank, under the direction of a president, two commissioners, a cashier, and book-keeper, all appointed by government. The commissioners were authorized to lend money at five per cent. on mortgage of houses and lands, gold, silver, jewels, and merchandises, or other articles that could "*lie still*" for 18 months, but not longer ; and on goods of a more perishable nature for a period not exceeding 9 months.

In 1795, the circulation of Cape rix-dollars (*exclusive* of the capital of the Lombard bank) had risen to 611,276, without resting on a shadow of real property, or even on a government engagement,

the rix-dollar being merely a counter, passing current in all the various purchases and sales within the colony. On the British conquest of the Cape, in 1795, Governor Slessens obtained from the humanity of General Craig a stipulation, that the government farms and public buildings should be a security to the holders of 611,276 rix-dollars, leaving the loan of the Lombard bank protected by its own mortgages. Thus our capture of the colony gave the paper money holders the first security they had, and on our evacuation, in 1803, this security was given over in an improved state to the Dutch government; even the additional sum of 300,000 rix-dollars, created by General Craig, in consequence of his inability to procure bills on England at par, was accounted for and honourably discharged by the British government, whose conduct formed a striking contrast to the Batavian government, which, in breach of its faith, received bills and specie for the 330,000 rix-dollars, but *without cancelling paper to a like amount of rix-dollars.*

On our evacuation of the colony, in 1803, the whole amount of paper in circulation was about 2,000,000 rix-dollars, nearly half of it bottomed on a nominal security, for the government lands and public buildings were by no means worth the sum they were pledged for; this security was, however, in a great measure, swept away by the Dutch government, in a proclamation of 1804, calling in the *whole* of the old paper money, and issuing a new set of paper dollars, without any reference to priority, thus

setting the question of a preference of security at rest, and gaining 32,000 rix-dollars by the non-appearance of old paper on the re-issue.

From this period to 1806 there was an additional coinage of 300,000 rix-dollars. The Batavian government, under French auspices, seems not to have been at all scrupulous as to the means by which money was to be acquired; a part of the government farms, which were pledged as a security for the paper rix-dollars, were sold for 80,000 rix-dollars, without the annihilation of the currency, for whose faith it was supposed to be a security; in fact, not a paper dollar was recalled or repaid by the Batavian government after 1789. In this sad state, as regards the credit of government, we again became masters of the Cape, when every mercantile transaction was lifeless, and the currency was withheld by the timorous in the apprehension of loss, and by the usurious in the hope and in the exaction of high interest. In order to relieve the public wants (says the *Civil Servant*, who wrote such an admirable account of the Cape, in 1823, and to whom I am indebted for many valuable suggestions and much information), "Lord Caledon, in that unceasing endeavour to benefit the colony which marked his lordship's conduct throughout his administration, established a bank of discount in 1808, and advanced as a capital, without interest, the sum of 100,000 rix-dollars from the treasury; six per cent. was the legal rate of interest at that time, but the bank was allowed to receive deposits, and to pay an interest of five per

cent. on all sums left there for a year, or more, and the public officers were instructed to carry their daily receipts to the bank, thus making a considerable addition to its floating balances." In June, 1810, Lord Caledon authorized the creation of 1,000,000 rix-dollars, half of which were to be appropriated to the use of the loan bank, and the remaining 500,000 for the purchase and repair of public buildings: this latter sum was not issued until 1814 by Lord Howden, and wholly expended before the close of his government.

Lord Charles Somerset, on his arrival in 1814, changed the wise system of deposits sanctioned by Lord Caledon; notice was given that no more would be received, and that those in hand would be discharged at the end of the year. The withdrawal of the interests on deposits inflicted a mischievous blow on the progressive prosperity of the colony; the measure was adopted on the plea that, on any serious alarm, the whole amount of deposits (about 1,000,000 rix-dollars) might be withdrawn with no other penalty than a forfeiture of the interest, and the capital of the bank being only 100,000 rix-dollars, its ruin would be certain; this was, however, a very problematical event, and to avoid a distant, remote, nay, almost impossible contingency, a certain and immediate evil, fraught with distress to the whole colony, was madly incurred; bank discounts were now procurable with great difficulty—mercantile speculation (the life and soul of a commercial people, like the English and Dutch) abated—a premium was held out to the renewal of usury, and an encourage-

ment to hoarding, two of the most serious disadvantages that can take place, among a small community. After enduring all the misfortunes which such an unstatesman-like step may be supposed to have created, for seven or eight years, the Cape government, desirous of remedying the distress which it had caused, notified in 1822 the issuing of 200,000 R. ds. in Government Debentures, bearing 4 per cent. interest; those who have the slightest knowledge of the bearing of financial measures on a mercantile community will admit that so partial a measure could not restore freedom of discount and a rapid interchange of the representative of property, whether it be paper or metallic money.

The progress of the paper circulating medium on these transactions was from 1802 to 1822 as follows:—

Year	R. ds.	Year	R. ds.	Year	R. ds.
1802,	1,200,000	—1806,	2,083,000	—1811,	2,580,000
1814,	3,100,000	—1822,	3,005,276		

The paper rix-dollars thus created were issued at the rate of 4s. sterling, and for a long period maintained this value, being nearly on a par with the Spanish dollar; but from various causes, a great depreciation took place in the value assigned to the rix-dollar: some ascribed this result to an over-issue beyond the wants of the colony—others to the circumstance of 500,000 being too suddenly thrown into circulation by Lord Howden, in addition to the 500,000 lent to the bank by Lord Caledon; several thought it was because the paper money had no real value, not being hypothecated on land or a portion of the revenue;

perhaps each and all of these causes contributed to lessen the value of the 4s. rix-dollar, but to these must also be added the return to cash payments in England in 1819, which of course affected the rates of exchange between the Cape and Great Britain. The depreciation was rapid, and its effect on the colony may be seen by the fact that 3,000,000 rix-dollars at 4s. yielding a nominal sterling of 600,000*l.* was reduced in a few years to 3,000,000 rix-dollars at 1s. 6*d.** yielding but a nominal sterling of 225,000*l.* The result of such a change to a small community may be imagined; many were ruined—the quiet transactions of commerce paralyzed, and the colony has never since recovered from the shock.

As an instance of the commercial prosperity of the Cape, it may be stated that the amount of bills discounted by the Government Bank, from the 1st of January, 1830, to the 31st, 1835, was £2,067,251; and the loss upon discounts during 20 years amounted to only £2,304 upon a sum discounted amounting to £6,000,000.

In South Africa there are three local banks, whose position may be seen by the following abstract from the official statement for 1841.

Name of Bank.	Paid-up Capital.	Reserved Fund.	Bank Issues.	Profit for 1841.	Rate of Dividend Per Cent.
Cape of Good Hope Bank } S. African Bank } Eastern Prov. } Banking Co. }	£60000 54000 26666	£10000 10000 3333	£9730 Not quoted. 18534	£8295 7095 3531	£12½ 10 6

The *Cape of Good Hope Bank*, according to the

* The rix-dollar is now *fixed* by Government at this rate.

statement of the Hon. J. B. Ebden, Chairman, on the 15th of January, 1842, shews "a return of about 70 per cent. on the capital paid up within a period of four years and a quarter—equal to a dividend of 20 per cent. per annum on the moneys invested." The floating deposits of the public in the *South African Bank* were, in 1840, £1,710,065, and in 1841, £1,735,495. There is no return at hand of the *Government Bank* at Cape Town.

The amount of paper currency and coin in circulation on the 1st of January, 1840, is as follows:—

AMOUNT OF PAPER CURRENCY IN CIRCULATION.

The official amount of paper currency in circulation is..... £202,698

And consist in

93 Notes of £100	£ 9,300	
708	50	35,400
2,916	20	58,320
4,304	10	43,040
8,959	5	44,795
11,843	1	11,843

Making in all as above.....£202,698

AMOUNT OF COIN IN CIRCULATION.

Amount of Specie imported by the Commissariat, between the years 1825 and 1838

£342,005

By the merchants and others, to the end of 1839 :—

In gold.....	£316,860
In silver	55,070
Foreign	600
	<hr/>
	372,530

Carried forward £714,535

Brought forward	£714,535	
In 1840 :—in gold	£ 3,220	
From Port Natal :—in gold.....	480	
" " in silver ...	220	
	-----	3,920
Total import of specie ...		£718,455
From this is to be deducted, occasional remittances made by the Commis- sariat to St. Helena, Ceylon, Van Diemen's Land, and elsewhere ...	£ 60,000	
By merchants and others	9,000	
	-----	69,000
Leaving a balance of ...		£649,455

But as this amount has been much diminished by various sums, principally in gold, taken from the colony by sea, more particularly by the emigrant farmers, and which is supposed to be very considerable, it is of course impossible to form any correct statement of the actual amount still in circulation, the foregoing being the only official data to guide us. However, from what has been gathered from private sources, we are led to believe that the amount now circulating cannot be estimated at less than £350,000.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—The weights made use of in this colony are derived from the standard pound of Amsterdam, and the pieces permitted to be assized are from 50 lbs. down to one *loot*, or the thirty-second part of a pound, which is regarded as unity $91\frac{8}{10}\%$ Dutch = 100 lbs. English avoirdupois. *Liquid measure*—16 flasks = 1 anker, 4 ankers = 1 aum, 4 aums = 1 leaguer. *Corn measure*—4 sche-

pels = 1 muid, 10 muids = 1 load. The muid of wheat weighs on an average about 180 lbs. Dutch, being somewhat over 196 lbs. English. *Cloth and long measures*—12 rhyland inches = 1 rhyland foot, 27 rhyland inches = 1 ell Dutch, $133\frac{51}{100}$ ells Dutch = 100 yards English. *Land measure*—144 rhyland inches = 1 square foot, 144 square feet = 1 rood, 630 roods = 1 morgen, $49\frac{77}{100}$ morgens = 100 acres English. *Wine or liquid measure**—1 flask = $\frac{1}{3}\frac{9}{2}$ old gallons, or 4,946 plus imperial, 1 anker = $9\frac{1}{2}$, or $7\frac{9}{10}$, 1 aum = 38, or $31\frac{2}{3}$, 1 leaguer = 152, or $126\frac{7}{11}$, 1 pipe = 110, or $91\frac{7}{11}$.

STAPLE PRODUCTS.—Corn, wine, wool, provisions, oil, aloes, and fruits are the staples of this fine colony, but many other articles are either produced in the country, or obtained from the neighbouring nations. The quantity of grain grown will be found for each district under the population section: it has been asserted that the colony does not grow sufficient grain for its own consumption;—no statement can be more untrue, for there is an annual exportation of corn, and it brings, as flour, a higher price at the Mauritius, and other markets, than the best American: as population and a knowledge of

* According to the Act of June, 1824, the distinction between the ale, wine, and corn gallon is abolished, and an imperial gallon established, which must contain precisely 10lbs. avoirdupois weight of distilled water weighed in air, at the temperature of 62 degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer, the barometer standing at 30 inches. By this Act the English pound troy contains 5,760 grains, the pound avoirdupois 7,000 grains, the imperial gallon 277,274 cubic inches, and the imperial corn bushel 2,218,192 inches.

the best means of irrigation extend, the Cape will become a large wheat exporter to England.

The new settlers in Albany suffered much at first from the "rust," but it has now almost disappeared, and the introduction from Bengal of a hardy flinty grain, termed "Patna wheat," has been productive of good. Barley, oats, and Indian corn thrive well; the latter is admirably adapted for fattening swine, the export of which, in the shape of hams, bacon, and salt pork, is yearly increasing. Two crops of potatoes are raised in a year, of a succulent and yet mealy quality; and the nutritive property of every article of provision is abundantly exemplified in the fat and healthy appearance of the people. Agriculture is as yet quite in its infancy at the Cape; the Dutch boors are so heedless of manure that they allow it to accumulate until it reaches a mountainous height, when they set fire to the mass as a means of getting rid of it; some of these masses (which would be so valuable in England) have been known to continue burning for seven years!

The following account of some of the produce of the colony has been prepared at the Colonial Office, Downing Street:—

Years.	Wheat	Barley.	Rye.	Oats.	Oat Hay	Maize and Millet.	Peas, Beans and Lentils.	Potatoes.
	bush.	bush.	bush.	bush.	bush.	bush.	bush.	bush.
1820	610674	275751	25224	239033	3974610			
1821	312821	222632	24344	223221	4123700			
1822	265523	265809	32637	257361	4455298			
1823	441746	417140	96670	309578	3808690	No returns.		
1824	514676	325931	47143	372275	4633712			
1828	522635	351188	63393	329923	4009700	480	155	3060
1829	520768	300625	51137	321570	3544833	5037	197	4500
1831	443693	271147	36403	292183	3925000	13840	9972	19950
1840								

Wine has long been a staple export of the Cape. The culture of the vine was introduced at first into the colony by the refugee Protestants, after the revocation of the edict of Nantes, but it received a considerable stimulus, when the dominion or influence of Napoleon extended over the greater part of the wine countries of Europe; the British government wisely considered it desirable to encourage the growth of the vine in our own colonies, beyond the power of foreign nations, and by a government proclamation of the 19th of December, 1811, the merchants and cultivators of the colony of the Cape of Good Hope had their attention directed to the wine trade as "a consideration above all others of the highest importance to its opulence and character;" this proclamation, after *authoritatively* demanding from the settlement a serious and lively attention to their interests, promised "*the most constant support and patronage on the part of government*, and that no means of assistance should be left unattempted to improve the cultivation, and every encouragement given to honest industry and adventure to establish the success of the Cape commerce in *this her great and native superiority*." This proclamation was followed by another offering *premiums* to those who planted *most largely*, and those who produced the best wines, by the promise that the old channels of this trade should be re-opened and new ones formed, and by a variety of regulations, all strongly evincing the lively interest which government felt in promoting the trade, and which was fully ratified and con-

firmed by the Act of July, 1813, admitting Cape wines to the British market at *one-third* of the duty then payable on Spanish and Portugal wines.* The consequence was a rapid and constant increase from the above period of the quantity of wine produced, so that in the space of 11 years, the annual produce (as appears from official returns) rose in the wine districts from 7,335 leaguers (117 gallons imperial) to 19,230 leaguers. From a most accurate calculation made at the same period (1824) it was found that the capital, employed by the cultivators and wine merchants in Cape Town, amounted to upwards of 1,500,000*l.* sterling, and the labour which it set in motion, and supported directly and indirectly, was one-third of the labour of the whole colony.

In this state the trade continued till 1825, when the duties on all wines underwent an alteration, and notwithstanding the urgent remonstrances of the merchants, and others interested in the trade of the colony, supported by the consistent patronage of EARL BATHURST, who was still the colonial secretary, the protection was suddenly reduced from 28*l.* to 11*l.* per pipe, with a further prospective reduction

* I give these statements to shew how little was thought by the home government of these solemn promises, when those who influenced the commercial policy of the administration wished to conciliate France, to oblige whom it was proposed to place AS HIGH a duty on the *cheap* wine, imported from *our own colony* at the Cape, as upon the *richest and dearest* wines derived from a *foreign* country, that refused any terms of reciprocity.

of about 2*l.* 15*s.* per pipe at the end of eight years. The effect of this reduced protection was the immediate ruin of some of those largely engaged in the trade, and the general depreciation, to a great extent, of the property of those who were embarked in it, and from which it was impossible for them to withdraw their capital.

It will scarcely be believed that under these circumstances it was proposed to raise the duty in England on colonial wines to 5*s.* 6*d.* per gallon, the same duty that was to be charged on foreign wines, and *that* too for the *avowed purpose* of driving from consumption in the home market the only wine produced in a British colony, the trade in which had been raised and continued, so as to render us independent of foreign nations, while the colony receives in *British manufactures* upwards of 300,000*l.* annually, besides employing in its export and import trade *British shipping* almost exclusively. But this *apparent* equalization of duties, unjust as under the circumstances it was felt to be, was in reality a much greater injustice than appears at first sight: Cape wine, at the average price of 12*l.* per pipe, was then paying a duty equal to 100 per cent. *ad valorem*, and by the proposed duty would pay upwards of 200 per cent.—while the duty on Spanish and Portugal wines was about 100 per cent., and by the new duty would be about 115 per cent., shewing a difference of nearly 100 per cent. IN FAVOUR OF THE FOREIGNER!

The property embarked in England, and in the

colony, was recently estimated as follows:—vineyard lands and growing vines, 1,200,000*l.*; buildings, stores, vats, &c., in the country, 60,000*l.*; buildings, vats, &c., in Cape Town, 300,000*l.*; brandy, casks, &c., 100,000*l.*; wine in Cape Town, 125,000*l.*; stock, in bond, in England, about 10,000 pipes, at 12*l.*, 120,000*l.*:—total, 1,905,000*l.* A very small portion of the immense capital thus employed can be withdrawn under any circumstances, even by its present possessors. In the gradual decay and ultimate ruin of the trade, it will perish and be utterly lost to the country.—Even the soil in which the vines are planted, is in general unfit for any other species of profitable culture. Wheat cannot be raised upon it, and what is now an extensive vineyard would be altogether contemptible as a grazing farm. The fustage, buildings, &c., might at once be committed to the flames. Cape wines have formerly had in general a peculiar *raciness* which much injured their sale in European markets; this was most probably owing to the avidity of the wine farmers, who attended more to *quantity* than *quality*; whenever the latter has been attended to, the wine produced at the Cape has been equal to that prepared in any part of the world: I have drunk in the colony Cape Madeira, equal in richness and mellowness to any grown on the famed island of that name; and the best Cape Pontac has a flavour equal to the very best Burgundy. A total reduction of the duty on importation into England would give a stimulus to

culture and manufacture, by allowing of more outlay in the colony.

It will be seen from the foregoing brief narrative of some of the leading facts as to the Cape of Good Hope wine trade, how little justice it has met with in England, and it may thence be inferred that the natural stimulus to improved and increased production, namely, *steadiness* of duties and regulations (which *next to no duties* and regulations is the most desirable) has been completely destroyed; the wonder is therefore that the trade has not been entirely subverted. Its progress will be found under the head of commerce, but it may be useful to state that with proper management, and a reduction of the duty in England to 6*d.* per gallon*—or, what would be better still, a removal of the entire duty—the Cape of Good Hope could furnish a large supply of excellent wine, suited in particular to the middle and lower classes, thus diminishing the consumption of ardent spirits, and affording a market for the productions of our operatives, whose cottons, woollens, and hardwares would be gladly taken in exchange by our fellow-citizens in South Africa. This measure would also give encouragement to attend to the quality of Cape brandy, the flavour of which has not yet received sufficient attention to make it suited to the English market.

* The Americans proposed by their projected new treaty with France to lay only 6 cents. (3*d.*) per gallon on French wines.

The number of leaguers (a leaguer being 152 gallons) of wine and brandy *brought into Cape Town*, per market book, is thus stated from 1804 to 1819 :—

Years.	Wine.	Brandy.	Years.	Wine.	Brandy.
1804	6016	511	1812	5363	439
1805	5000	602	1813	6073	315
1806	4732	448	1814	5655	301
1807	5265	337	1815	9951	560
1808	2982	316	1816	8757	702
1809	5003	298	1817	12379	506
1810	4897	373	1818	7701	385
1811	6947	309	1819	8888	448

The produce of the *whole colony* in wine and brandy from this period is thus given, with some years deficient, in a manuscript prepared at the Colonial Office, and not before printed. The quantity in leaguers as above.

Years.	Wine.	Brandy.	Years.	Wine.	Brandy.
1820	15210	1152	1828	20405	1413
1821	16254	1205	1829	15539	1063
1822	15348	1169	1830	—	—
1823	21147	1656	1831	18467	1382
1824	16183	1326	1832	16973	1394½
1825	—	—	1833	—	—
1826	—	—	1834	—	—
1827	—	—	—	—	—

The produce of wine and brandy in 1821 and subsequent years is thus given in a manuscript prepared at the Colonial Office, and not before

printed.* The quantity in leaguers (a leaguer being 152 gallons). 1821, 16,254 of wine, 1,205 of brandy; 1824, 16,183, 1,326; 1828, 20,405, 1,413; 1831, 18,467, 1,382; 1832, 16,973, 1,394½.

Of 6,207,770 gallons of wine entered for home consumption in the United Kingdom in the year ending January, 1834, there was, of Cape wine, 544,191 glls., being upwards of double the amount of French, which was 232,550 do.; of Portugal, 2,596,530 do.; Madeira, 161,042 do.; Spanish, 2,246,085 do.; Canary, 68,882 do.; Rhenish, 43,758 do.; Sicilian, 313,732 do.; total gallons, 6,207,770.

Wool will, in time, be one of the greatest and most profitable staples of the Cape; by an unaccountable want of foresight it has long been neglected; but, stimulated by the example of New South Wales, the colonists are now actively engaged in endeavouring to replace the coarse-woolled, or rather hairy sheep (of which they possess 3,000,000) for the fine and pure blood breed of that animal, whose numbers at the Cape now amount to upwards of 50,000—the wool from which has brought 2s. 6d. per lb. in the London market. The British settlers in Albany have taken the lead, and are at present importing Saxon and Merino rams from England and New South Wales, the former bringing 15*l.* per head, and the latter 30*l.* per head. Algoa Bay, or Port Elizabeth, as it is now called, has thus increased its exportation of fine wool; 1830, 4,500 lbs., value, 222*l.* 1831,

* Ample details on this and other subjects will be found in the large edition of my work.

10,600 lbs., value, 551*l.* 1832, 19,700 lbs., value, 935*l.* 1833, 44,896 lbs., value, 2,649*l.* 1834, 59,206 lbs., value, 3,279*l.* The total quantity of wool exported in 1839 from the colony was 6,789 lbs., value, 3,356*l.* In 1838 it was 490,754 lbs., value, 26,627*l.* In 1841, the export of wool was 1,079,910 lbs.

A writer in the local journals thus adverts to the value of sheep farming at the Cape:—"The astonishing rapidity with which this species of stock has increased within a few years, the unlimited demand for its produce, and the comparative ease and certainty that attend the operations requisite for bringing that produce to market, seem to point it out, significantly, to the intelligent and industrious classes, as by far the most safe and eligible mode in which labour and capital can now be employed in this colony.

A letter, with a sight of which we have been favoured, from a successful breeder in the Swellendam district, speaks in terms of great satisfaction of the encouraging prices (2*s.* 2*d.* and 2*s.* 3*d.*) given in London for last year's prize wools; and the writer declares his conviction that by paying the attention he has given to the purity of blood, we may rear as fine stock in this country as in any part of the world. He adds:

"I have some fine Saxon rams, the choice of Mr. Breda's and Mr. Dickson's flocks, three and four years old; the wool is of the first quality, but neither in its length nor in the size of the sheep do

they equal their own progeny—the result of proper feeding and keeping off that scourge of the country, Brandzikte. My lambs, this year, are also a great deal larger than they were last year—a point which ought not to be disregarded. With good stock, personal superintendence, and, what I consider important, the advantage of skilful and intelligent European labour, any thing may be done in this fine farming country. To my excellent Scotch shepherd I give all the credit for the condition of my flocks; though he says he ‘could never have got on had not the master been with him.’”

The same gentleman, in another letter before us, addressed to the “Father of Sheep Husbandry,” the Hon. Mr. Breda, throws out the following suggestions for the benefit of the Swellendam sheep farmers generally, which we take the freedom of laying before them, as highly worthy of their attention.

“The Agricultural Society, which has recently been formed, has met with so great support that the committee have had the satisfaction of offering premiums far exceeding what was first expected, for the encouragement of every description of agricultural produce, and many are now looking forward to the meeting with a degree of interest which has seldom been witnessed in this country of apathy and indifference.

To unite a market for live stock with this agricultural show, where the farmer can annually bring his horses, his cattle, and his sheep; where intending

purchasers can be sure of obtaining stock to suit their several wants; and where the wool-grower, the horse-breeder, &c., can have an opportunity of getting new rams, stallions, or bulls, for the introduction of fresh blood to his stock, is the object in view. These markets or fairs have been attended with extraordinary success in the mother-country, and have been the source of increasing prosperity to towns, villages, and districts, which, before their introduction, were unknown or unthought of. It would, therefore, be wrong in us, where exertion is so much required, to neglect an example which has been accompanied by such favourable results.

In connection with some others who intend doing the same, I propose to offer a few of my young rams for sale, which I am sure will not be excelled in this part of the colony; and, as you have generally some ewes to dispose of, I submit that it would be for the welfare of the district to bring them to the village, so that we may have a gathering from all quarters, and thus insure more competition and business."

It is a singular circumstance that some of the original Merino stock of New South Wales were rejected at the Cape, and then carried on to Sydney, where they were purchased by Mr. M'Arthur: had the Africans received the proffered boon, they would probably now be exporting a quantity greater than that of their brother colonists.—(See New South Wales.)

The fineness of the climate requiring no winter provender, and the great extent of upland soil, and

park-like downs, with the numerous salsola and saline plants, so admirably adapted to prevent the fluke or rot, shew the adaptation of the colony for a vast sheep fold, capable of supplying an almost indefinite quantity of the finest wool; and, together with New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land, rendering England not only totally independent of supplies from Germany and Spain, but really furnishing a much finer and more durable and elastic wool, which will enable us to maintain our superiority in woollens against foreign competition: this is a view of the subject which it behoves a statesman to attend to.

Provisions, particularly salt beef, ought to be a larger staple than it is; but I trust it will augment in quantity as it certainly has improved in quality. I can bear testimony to the excellence of the Cape salt provisions; among other instances I may mention one, namely, that when in H.M.S. *Leven*, in 1823, I, as caterer of our mess, laid in six months' salt provisions at Algoa Bay, the price paid for the beef being, as well as I remember, $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ per lb.; we were cruising for the next six months in the tropics, but the last cask of beef was as fresh and as juicy as the first, while the contrast between the Cape and our ration provision from Cork was very great, the advantage being decidedly in favour of the former. At present, cured meat is pretty largely exported to the Mauritius, and other places, but it should be used for victualling our navy at the Cape, India, and West Africa stations, the contractors being placed

under the same supervision as at home, every cask being examined and branded before shipment, and a heavy penalty attending any default. Its importation should be permitted into England at a gradually decreasing rate of duty, until it was perfectly free.

Oil.—The fisheries of the Cape have not yet been sufficiently attended to: during the calving season, whales come into every bay on the coast, to bring forth their young, and thus, in some seasons, a good number of these immense creatures are taken; but there have been no vessels fitted out for whaling along the coast, or among the islands to the northward of Madagascar, where the sperm whale abounds, and where, under a genial clime, and an atmosphere never troubled with tempests,* the American whalers fill up in a few weeks. Even in Delagoa Bay, almost a part of the colony, I have seen 20 whale ships, English and American,† but not one from the contiguous settlers at the Cape. A good banking system would afford a stimulus to such profitable undertakings, and the Africanders in this instance, as well as in that of wool, would do well to profit by the example set them by their more enterprising neighbours at New South Wales. Oil from vege-

* The oldest inhabitants of the Seychelles islands have never felt a tempest visit their peaceful shores.

† So regardless are the Americans of any thing like national rights, where their own are not concerned, that it has been necessary for the government at the Cape to issue a recent proclamation, warning the Americans not to persevere in their fisheries on our very coasts.

tables might also be extensively collected; the olive thrives luxuriantly where planted, and a rich and peculiar oil, collected by expression from the *sesamum* plant, may be obtained in large quantities from the native tribes to the eastward and northward.

The *Aloe* plant grows indigenously in most parts of the colony, and a considerable quantity of the inspissated juice has been exported for some years, a large portion being probably used as a substitute for taxed hops in England.

Fruits of a dried nature, including apples, apricots, peaches, pears, &c., have been long in great demand; the Cape sun acts on these fruits, when peeled, so as to prevent the exudation of their juices, and I can speak from experience as to their gratefulness in pies and tarts, after one has been some time at sea on a salt junk diet. Raisins are largely exported to New South Wales, Mauritius, and to England, and with attention ought to rival the best Muscadel; the recent reduction of the duty in England, will, I hope, be productive of some good effect, but its final abrogation would be more useful, and would redound to the character of a financier.*

Hides and *horns* are rapidly increasing as a staple, and the quantity of ivory, ostrich feathers, gums, &c., obtained from the native tribes, has proved a valuable branch of commerce.

Horses for India, live stock for the Mauritius, St. Helena, &c., are also staple exports, and I doubt not,

* The duty has been reduced from 10s. to 7s. 6d. per cwt.

that with increased population, and the encouragement of free banking, aided by a free press, the staples of this valuable colony will go on increasing in quantity and quality.

STATEMENT of the quantity and value of the Produce of the Western and Eastern Provinces of the Cape of Good Hope, respectively—exported in the year ending the 5th Jan. 1843.

ARTICLES.	Produce of the Western Province From Table Bay.		Produce of the Eastern Province From Algoa Bay.		Excess Western Province.	Excess Eastern Province.
	Quan.	Value.	Quan.	Value.		
		£		£	£	£
Aloes, lbs.	379315	6874	283305	5003	1871	
Argol, lbs.	88366	1453			1453	
Salted provisions, casks	619	2369	868	2420		51
Butter, lbs.	15345	858	158682	7522		6664
Grain, muids	8077	4426	190	279	4147	
Bran, lbs.	348884	1191			1191	
Flour, lbs.	784950	9848			9848	
Ostrich feathers, lbs.	816	3893	158	756	3137	
Fish, cured, lbs. ...	1615691	7088	80373	336	6752	
Fruits, dried, lbs. ...	172735	2173			2173	
Hides, pieces	7619	5911	29242	19313		13402
Horns, pieces	22242	874	71045	1191		317
Horses and Mules, pieces	515	14129	21	751	13378	
Ivory, lbs.	3146	611	8603	1686		1075
Oil, Whale, gallons	9004	1245	383	240	1005	
Whalebone, lbs. ...	8280	400	1267	65	335	
Skins, pieces	210134	14836	157491	14828	8	
Tallow, lbs.	51289	954	283344	4953		3999
Tallow candles, lbs.	26921	800	15640	487	313	
Wool, lbs.	523057	30726	905736	46453		15727
Leather, ½ hides ...			2825	2834		2834
Wine, gallons	521396	38608			38608	
Sundry articles, col.		7173		3754	3419	
Total colonial produce exported ... }		156449		112871	87638	44069

*Comparative View of the Value of Colonial Produce, exported from Table Bay and Algoa Bay:—*In the year 1821, from Table Bay, £130,578, and from Algoa Bay, £1,500. In 1842, from Table Bay, £167,134, and from Algoa Bay, £112,871.

AVERAGE PRICE OF VARIOUS PRODUCE, MERCHANDISE, &c. 1839.

	Cape Town.	Cape District.	Stellenbosch.	Worcester.	Cian William.	Swellendam.	George.	Baunfort.	Uitenhage.	Albany.	Somerset.	Craddock.	Gratt-Reinet.	Colenberg.	Cape Town, Oct. 1840.
Horned Cattle, per head	127	6	100	0	67	0	90	0	67	6	150	0	150	0	75
Horses	500	0	300	0	150	0	215	0	150	0	200	0	150	0	200
Sheep	14	6	10	0	9	0	10	0	7	6	6	6	6	6	7
Goats	18	7	9	0	6	6	9	0	5	8	6	6	9	6	8
Swine	39	4	15	0	15	0	60	0	25	0	30	0	12	0	30
Milk, per quart	0	3	0	3	0	4	0	2	0	4	0	4	0	2	0
Butter, fresh, per lb.	2	0	2	0	1	0	0	7	1	1	0	3	0	1	0
do.	1	3	1	0	9	0	10	0	1	0	0	4	0	1	0
Cheese	1	3	1	0	9	0	10	0	1	0	0	4	0	1	0
do.	1	3	1	0	9	0	10	0	1	0	0	4	0	1	0
Wheaten Bread, do.	0	6	0	3	0	3	0	3	0	3	0	3	0	3	0
Bacon	0	6	0	4	0	3	0	3	0	3	0	3	0	3	0
Mutton	0	6	0	4	0	3	0	3	0	3	0	3	0	3	0
Pork	0	6	0	4	0	3	0	3	0	3	0	3	0	3	0
Rice	0	2	0	2	0	4	0	2	0	4	0	2	0	4	0
Coffee	0	2	0	2	0	4	0	2	0	4	0	2	0	4	0
Tea	0	2	0	2	0	4	0	2	0	4	0	2	0	4	0
do.	0	2	0	2	0	4	0	2	0	4	0	2	0	4	0
Sugar	3	1	3	0	6	0	3	0	6	0	3	0	6	0	3
do.	0	4	0	3	0	6	0	3	0	6	0	3	0	6	0
Salt, per muid of 200lbs.	6	1	25	0	9	0	16	0	9	0	16	0	9	0	16
Wine, per gallon	0	6	0	10	0	7	0	6	0	10	0	7	0	6	0
Brandy	1	9	3	0	2	3	2	1	0	4	0	2	0	3	0
do.	2	0	1	11	2	2	4	2	0	6	0	2	0	3	0
Beer	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Tobacco, per lb.	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
do.	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Raisins	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
do.	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Wages for Labour.	60	0	30	0	22	6	30	0	22	6	30	0	22	6	30
Domestic, per month	60	0	30	0	22	6	30	0	22	6	30	0	22	6	30
Predial	5	0	3	9	4	6	3	0	4	6	3	0	4	6	3
Trades, per diem	5	0	3	9	4	6	3	0	4	6	3	0	4	6	3

The low rate of wages in most Districts for domestic and predial Servants, arises from such Servants being engaged by the year, and are provided with clothing, food, &c. in addition to their wages.

COMMERCE.—The foregoing section will convey to the reader an idea of the Cape commerce. I begin with shewing the quantity of shipping engaged in the trade of the colony.

SHIPS INWARDS.

Years.	From Great Britain.		From British Colonies.		From Foreign States.		Total Inwards.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1824	29	8313	24	5460	13	7052	66	20825
1828	66	23595	80	25920	41	14281	187	63706
1832	87	26841	98	34654	38	12373	223	73868
1840							523	168409

SHIPS OUTWARDS.

Years.	To Great Britain.		To British Colonies.		To Foreign States.		Total Outwards.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1824	24	7918	18	3319	6	1395	48	12633
1828	89	32282	70	21385	28	8015	187	61682
1832	95	37237	92	27953	26	7369	213	72559
1840								

The foregoing is independent of numerous vessels of divers nations, touching at Table and Simon's Bays for refreshments. The colonists have, as yet, very little shipping of their own, and it is employed principally in the coasting trade.

A steam vessel has been introduced into the colony, and the adaptation of such, for keeping up the intercourse between Cape Town and Algoa Bay, is indisputable; a diligent search should be made for good coals, for if these were discovered, a steam inter-

course with India and Australasia, *vid* the Cape of Good Hope,* would speedily follow.

The annual commerce of the colony may be estimated at upwards of a million sterling.

The largest portion of the trade of the colony is carried on at Table Bay: for instance, in 1832, of 258,456*l.* imports, 236,456*l.* were into Table Bay, and of 256,808*l.* exports, 194,332*l.* were from Table Bay. In 1840 the imports were 1,496,419*l.* and the exports 1,106,962*l.* The principal trade is with Great Britain.

In 1827 Algoa Bay was made a port of entry, and its trade thus rose:—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	
1828	£55201	£41290	The exports from Algoa Bay, or Port Elizabeth, to Table Bay, are included in the foregoing, and form part of the general exports of the colony.
1829	63491	59300	
1830	99742	60828	
1831	65518	65351	
1832	112845	86931	
1833	213309	213309	
1834	236563	236563	
1842	160588	121547	

The progress of the colony between 1798 and 1841 is thus shewn:—

	1798.	1841.
Population	61,497	220,000
Sheep—coarse wool.	1,453,536	(fine) 3,823,371
Wool exported.	500 lbs.	911,118
Produce exported.	£15,000	239,086
Public revenue.	£64,502	171,605
Post Office revenue.	£ 187	6,643

* The volume treating of India contains the project of such a plan, with the disbursements and receipts thereof.

This comparatively large extent of commerce has arisen from the industry of the British settlers, and the intercourse which they have opened with the Caffres, and other native tribes: the Caffre trade in the first 18 months after its opening, poured native produce into Graham's Town (chiefly ivory), to the amount of 32,000*l*.

The shipping and trade of the colony in 1840 are thus shewn:—

ACCOUNT of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels entered inwards in the Year ended 5th January, 1840, with the Number of Men employed in navigating the same,—distinguishing British from Foreign Ships.

	PORT OF CAPE TOWN.					
	BRITISH.			FOREIGN.		
	No.	Tons.	Men.	No.	Tons.	Men.
Coastwise	365	123855	7583	79	22940	1521
	76	8274	894
Total	441	132129	8477	79	22940	1521

	SIMON'S TOWN.						PORT ELIZABETH.					
	BRITISH.			FOREIGN.			BRITISH.			FOREIGN.		
	No.	Tons.	Men.	No.	Tons.	Men.	No.	Tons.	Men.	No.	Tons.	Men.
Coastwise	27	11625	717	14	3742	288	35	5652	348	3	595	60
	11	1537	206	47	6830	730
Total	38	13162	923	14	3742	288	82	12482	1078	3	595	60

In 1821 the ships inwards to Port Elizabeth were 6,—tons, 1,000; in 1841, 83,—tons, 11,975, exclusive of nine steamers and ships of war. The exports were the first year 1,500*l*.; in 1841, 94,377*l*.

AN ACCOUNT of the declared Value of all Goods imported in British Ships, in the Year ended 5th January, 1840, shewing the Countries from which they were imported, and the amount of Custom Duties collected thereon.

Countries from which imported.	PORT OF CAPE TOWN.		PORT OF SIMON'S TOWN.		PORT OF PORT ELIZABETH.	
	Value in sterl. money.	Duty collected.	Value in sterl. money.	Duty collected.	Value in sterl. money.	Duty collected.
EUROPE.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Great Britain—						
British Goods ...	473823	13778	—	—	—	—
British Plantation	364	10	9	—	—	—
Foreign Goods ...	147635	6655	—	—	—	—
Total imports from						
Great Britain £	621824	20444	5867	26	131439	4600
France	—	—	655	65	—	—
Hamburgh	25863	1411	—	—	—	—
Gottenburgh	3566	356	—	—	—	—
Holland	98965	70	8172	1	—	—
ASIA.						
Madras	39887	3872	552	46	2938	293
Ceylon	1249	35	22	2	—	—
Bombay	1351	88	45	4	—	—
China	31073	2325	—	—	—	—
Manilla	1373	105	—	—	—	—
Java	36784	639	10715	1	—	—
New South Wales	418	16	—	—	—	—
AFRICA.						
St. Helena	1551	64	—	—	—	—
Mauritius	25155	1034	1	—	9252	478
Madeira	72	7	—	—	—	—
Port Natal	4420	34	—	—	378	37
Grozetts	2374	14	—	—	—	—
AMERICA.						
St. Domingo	28380	1	—	—	—	—
La Guayra	22142 *	—	—	—	—	—
St. Jago	20000 *	—	—	—	—	—
Rio de Janeiro.....	174867	2223	—	—	—	—
Total	1141320	32745	26032	147	144007	5410

* Warehoused.

ACCOUNT of the declared Value of all Goods imported in Foreign Ships, in the Year ended 5th January, 1840, shewing the countries from which imported, and the Amount of Custom Duties collected thereon.

Countries from which imported.	PORT OF CAPE TOWN.		PORT OF SIMON'S TOWN.		PORT OF PORT ELIZABETH.	
	Value in sterl. money.	Duty collected.	Value in sterl. money.	Duty collected.	Value in sterl. money.	Duty collected.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
EUROPE.						
France	25282	925	28	2	—	—
Holland	27313	682	14	1	—	—
Hamburgh	1106	74	—	—	—	—
Gottenburg	2085	208	—	—	—	—
Spain	37	3	—	—	—	—
ASIA.						
Batavia	2340	234	1746	174	—	—
AFRICA.						
Bourbon	4371	352	—	—	—	—
AMERICA.						
United States	27504	1448	109	10	8	16
Total	90042	3930	1899	189	8	16

ACCOUNT of the declared Value of all Goods exported in British Ships in the Year ended 5th January, 1840, shewing the Countries to which exported, and distinguishing Colonial Produce and Manufacture from those which are not Colonial.

Countries to which exported.	PORT OF CAPE TOWN.		
	Colonial.	Not Colonial.	Total Value.
	£.	£.	£.
EUROPE.			
Great Britain	1 4707	420110	53417
Ireland	5552	24521	30073
ASIA.			
Madras and Calcutta	7872	1360	9232
Bombay	557	309	866
Ceylon.....	530	4217	4748
New South Wales	10748	3735	14533
Van Diemen's Land	45	—	45
Java.....	147	774	921
South Australia	712	465	1177
AFRICA.			
Mauritius	19051	28491	47542
St. Helena	12784	5191	17975
Port Natal	2719	8637	11356
AMERICA.			
Rio de Janeiro	10244	4024	14269
Total ...	185672	501887	687559
	PORT OF SIMON'S TOWN.		
Great Britain	227	24160	24387
Madras and Calcutta.....	23	40	63
Bombay	547	138	685
South Australia	937	103	1040
Mauritius	30	—	30
Total ... £	1765	24442	26207
	PORT OF PORT ELIZABETH.		
Great Britain	31165	671	31836
South Australia	69	—	69
Mauritius	5209	1018	6227
St. Helena	1056	—	1056
Port Natal	666	2641	3307
Total ... £	38165	4330	42495

ACCOUNT of the declared Value of all Goods exported in Foreign Ships in the Year ended 5th January, 1840, shewing the Countries to which exported, and distinguishing Colonial Produce and Manufacture from those which are not Colonial.

Countries to which exported.	PORT OF CAPE TOWN.		
	Colonial.	Not Colonial.	Total Value.
EUROPE.			
Göttenburg.....	£. 80	—	£. 80
ASIA.			
Java	1682	237	1919
Bombay	557	—	557
AFRICA.			
Bourbon	113	—	113
AMERICA.			
Boston	12543	2231	14774
Rio de Janeiro	145	1622	1767
Total ... £	15120	4090	19210
PORT OF SIMON'S TOWN.			
France.....	484	—	484
Holland	52	—	52
Bourbon	50	—	50
Total ... £	586	—	586

Account of the staple articles, the produce of the colony of the Cape of Good Hope, exported in the Year ended 5th January, 1840 :—

From the Port of Cape Town.—105,777 lbs. aloes, 1,306*l.* ; 15,538 do. argol, 257*l.* ; 765 casks of beef and pork, 2,710*l.* ; 4,830 lbs. whalebone, 240*l.* ; 53,315 do. butter, 2,425*l.* 10*s.* ; 14,844 do. candles, 525*l.* Corn, grain, and meal, *viz.*—

1,171 muids of barley, 874*l.* 5*s.*; 564 do. beans and peas, 835*l.* 15*s.*; 126,295 lbs. bran, 656*l.*; 530,660 do. flour, 9,670*l.* 10*s.*; 656 muids of oats, 462*l.* 12*s.*; 2,096 do. wheat, 4,743*l.* 10*s.*; 1,636 lbs. ostrich feathers, 1,365*l.*; 359,488 do. dried fish, 2,413*l.* 10*s.*; 334,449 do. dried fruits, 4,274*l.* 15*s.*; green ditto, 15*l.* 10*s.*; 12,798 horse and ox hides, 8,794*l.* 6*s.*; 98,644 horns, 2,673*l.* 19*s.* 6*d.*; 163 horses, 7,600*l.* 10*s.*; 1,352 lbs. ivory, 239*l.*; 16,114 gals. whale oil, 1,201*l.*; 48 Bazil skins, 5*l.* 10*s.*; 324 calf do., 59*l.*; 110,682 goat do., 8,072*l.*; 3,176 seal do., 1,937*l.*; 163,400 sheep do., 8,095*l.*; 290 gals. brandy, 25*l.*; 600 lbs. tallow, 15*l.*; 2,421 gals. Constantia wine, 1,872*l.* 5*s.*; 1,110,664 do. ordinary ditto, 94,181*l.* 4*s.*; 377,639 lbs. wool, 19,257*l.*; other articles, 13,989*l.* 17*s.*
Total, 200,792*l.* 8*s.* 6*d.*

From the Port of Simon's Town.—52 casks of beef and pork, 177*l.* 5*s.*; 126 lbs. candles, 13*l.*; flour, 692*l.*; 4 lbs. ostrich feathers, 25*l.*; 5,660 do. dried fish, 31*l.*; 1,017 do. dried fruits, 29*l.* 10*s.*; 1,900 horns, 30*l.*; 8 horses, 500*l.*; 671 gals. Constantia wine, 602*l.* 15*s.*; 908 do. ordinary ditto, 107*l.* 6*s.*; other articles, 144*l.* Total, 2,351*l.* 16*s.*

From the Port of Port Elizabeth.—75,500 lbs. aloes, 918*l.*; 169 casks of beef and pork, 625*l.*; 647 lbs. whalebone, 32*l.*; 82,420 do. butter, 4,091*l.* 10*s.*; 6,042 do. candles, 208*l.* 10*s.*; 3 muids of barley, 3*l.*; 56 do. beans and peas, 82*l.*; 5,760 lbs. flour, 67*l.*; 7 muids of oats, 3*l.*; 33 do. wheat, 63*l.*; 75 lbs. ostrich feathers, 259*l.*; 5,650 do. dried fruits, 81*l.*; 16,536 horse and ox hides, 8,578*l.* 10*s.*; 42,226 horns, 674*l.*; 10 horses, 149*l.*; 977 lbs. ivory, 122*l.* 18*s.*; 2 mules, 20*l.*; 3,332 gals. whale oil, 275*l.*; 190 Bazil skins, 45*l.*; 108 calf ditto, 20*l.*; 64,965 goat ditto, 6,167*l.*; 325 kip ditto, 150*l.*; 1,078 sheep ditto, 344*l.*; 1,108 lbs. tallow, 18*l.*; 286 do. wax, 17*l.*; 2,221 gals. ordinary wine, 207*l.*; 208,338 lbs. wool, 10,933*l.* 3*s.*; other articles, 4,012*l.*
Total, 38,165*l.* 11*s.*

A SUMMARY VIEW OF THE TRADE AND NAVIGATION IN THE YEAR ENDED 5TH JAN. 1840.

PORT.	Vessels Inwards.		Vessels Outwards.		Total Customs Duties alone.	Total Revenue, includ. Fees Wharfrage, &c.	Total Value of Imports.	Total Value of Exports.
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.				
Cape Town	444	146795	432	144415	£. 36676	£. 43436	£. 1231362	£. 706769
Coastwise	76	8274	80	9427
Simon's Town	42	15687	42	15623	335	553	27917	26793
Coastwise	11	1537	12	1776
Port Elizabeth	38	6247	36	5983	5411	5599	144015	42495
Coastwise	47	6830	48	7157
Total Colony	524	168729	510	166021	42432	49589	1403295	776059
Coastwise	134	16641	140	18360
Grand Total	658	185370	650	184381	42432	49589	1403295	776059

NOTE.—In the above Value of Exports are not included articles shipped as stores to merchant-vessels, or supplies to her Majesty's Navy; the latter amounting, in the year 1839, to £4,220 15s.

A STATEMENT OF THE AMOUNT OF DUTIES, FEES, STORE RENT, AND WHARFAGE DUES COLLECTED BY THE CUSTOMS DEPARTMENT AT THE SEVERAL PORTS IN THIS COLONY, IN THE YEAR ENDED 5TH JAN. 1840.

Ports.	Custom Duties.		Fees.		Wharfrage.		Total.
	£	s	£	s	£	s	
Cape Town	336676		2965		5724		43436
Simon's Town	335		43		117		553
Port Elizabeth	5411		184		0		5599
Total ..	£424223		1192		5842		49589

The value of the trade of the colony for several years is as follows,* in sterling money:—

Years.	IMPORTS.				EXPORTS.			
	From Great Britain.	From British Colonies.	From Foreign States.	Total value of Imports.	To Great Britain.	To British Colonies.	To Foreign States.	Total value of Exports.
1820	174820	106940	16992	298752	103103	75763	6123	184939
1821	283825	112771	8958	405554	113623	58953	4967	117543
1822	209744	102743	33499	345986	139296	78102	16748	234146
1823	207484	82908	14891	305283	169523	41972	2457	213052
1824	32'814	103497	11634	439927	207622	67382	308	275312
1825	214392	55666	25998	296056	173300	71940	6132	251372
1827	214456	45823	28263	288542	147652	54198	16953	218803
1828	203038	41290	20179	264497	135205	94012	30189	259406
1829	291234	43258	30429	364921	198772	87446	10072	297190
1831	281445	37751	25855	345051	127468	70957	14700	213125
1832	273449	45679	12877	332006	165531	77812	7536	250879
1837				1093430				367782
1840				1496419				1106962

The annual commerce of the colony may be estimated at upwards of a million sterling.

Wool, one of the great staples of the colony, is chiefly the product of the last 12 years, and yet the export is now upwards of 1,300,000 lbs., valued at 47,000*l.* per annum. In 1831 the import of Cape wool into England was 47,868 lbs.; in 1841, 1,079,910 lbs.—an increase of 23 fold in ten years. In 1842 the import was 1,382,665 lbs.; in June, 1842, the *superior* Cape wools sold in the London market

* This return is from the Colonial Office; it is somewhat at variance with the following derived from the Colonial Almanac, for 1834.

VALUE OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

	1824.	1825.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.
Imports	£ 346615	£ 295792	£ 269424	£ 286052	£ 260962	£ 356523	£ 402319	£ 345051	£ 296321
Exports	218587	240035	173023	211499	253203	260375	191821	189569	172456
Not Colonial						18624	18943	29036	20070
Excess of Imports } Imports }	128028	55757	96401	74553	7059	77524	191555	126446	193526

at 1s. 8½*d.* to 1s. 11½*d.*; *good*, 1s. 3*d.* to 1s. 7½*d.*; inferior, 11*d.* to 1s. 2½*d.* Those prices are equal to the Australian wools. The Eastern Province is making rapid strides in the production of fine wool. In 1830 the export from this district of the colony was 4,500 lbs.,—value 222*l.* In 1841 the export had increased to 659,634 lbs., valued at 27,848*l.* sterling! In the present year the clip of the Eastern Province *alone* is estimated at more than 1,000,000 lbs. In ten years the Cape of Good Hope will be one of the largest and most lucrative wool districts in the world.

In order to shew the increase and decrease of some of the articles exported, I give the following:—

Years.	Aloes.	Ivory.	Whale Oil.	Wine.	Hides and Skins.	Tallow.	Wool.
	lbs.	lbs.	gallons.	gallons.	pieces.	lbs.	lbs.
1820	348000	9510					13869
1821	355800	4538					12153
1822	344861	24420		1172733			49028
1823	370126	19655					23631
1824	355241	20661	24539	1219551	63644	2800	25199
1825	529037	106778	41301	21724	142417		27619
1826	189560	48258			162132		24192
1827	139589		21693	1431301	168851	37200	44141
1828	436138	21413	39843	1451417	169268	1025	39320
1829	375736	25497	22249	1548085	264105	13333	37619
1830							33407
1831	52743	6639	58139	676711	193451	373385	47968
1832	127937	26714	118934	777376	233866	662630	83257
1840							911118
1841	485574	12359	11974	781600	338145	424433	1016807

The imports at the Cape consist of every variety of articles of British manufacture,* and the extent to which our trade can be carried it is difficult to state, for an outlet has now been opened for calicoes, kerseys, ironmongery, gunpowder, &c., in exchange for ivory, hides, gums, horns, &c.

* The duty on importation of British merchandize in British ships is only 5 per cent.; why should the mother-country lay a heavier duty on the produce of the colony when imported into England?

The progress of civilization may, to some extent, be judged of from the following return of the Banks, &c.:

BANKS, JOINT STOCK COMPANIES, &c.

Established at the Cape of Hope, since the Erection of the Commercial Exchange, in 1819.

	Estab-lished.	No. of Shares.	Nominal Value.	Amount paid up.	Present Price.	Annual Dividend.
Exchange Buildings	1819	159	£ 37 10	£ 37 10	21 <i>l.</i>	—
South African Fire and Life Assurance Comp.	1831	200	100 0	10 0	127 <i>l.</i> 10 <i>s.</i>	8 <i>l.</i> June 1.
S. A. Assoc. for Adm. and Settlemt. of Estates ..	1834	24	375 0	375 0	437½ ex. d.	61 <i>l.</i> 3 <i>s.</i> Apr. 30.
Cape of Good Hope Trust and Assur. Comp.	1835	850	25 0	19 0	30 <i>l.</i>	17. 10 <i>s.</i> Mar. 1.
Cape of Good Hope Joint Stock Company ..	1835	50	—	15 10	33 <i>l.</i>	—
Cape of Good Hope Steam Navigation Comp.	1836	2000	10 0	10 0	4 <i>l.</i> 2 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i>	—
Cape of Good Hope Bank	1837	1500	50 0	40 0	70 <i>l.</i>	5 <i>l.</i> Feb. 1.
Port Elizabeth Jetty Company	1837	600	10 0	2 0	3 <i>l.</i> 10 <i>s.</i>	—
South African Bank	1838	2000	50 0	30 0	38 <i>l.</i> 10 <i>s.</i>	—
Cape of Good Hope Marine Assurance Comp.	1838	1500	50 0	10 0	13 <i>l.</i>	17. 8 <i>s.</i> Feb. 11.
Board of Executors	1838	50	200 0	200 0	500 <i>l.</i>	07. 19 <i>s.</i> Feb. 5.
Commercial Wharf Company	1838	2000	10 0	4 0	2 <i>l.</i> 19 <i>s.</i> to 3 <i>l.</i>	—
Le Protecteur Fire and Life Assurance Comp.	1838	2000	20 0	5 0	£7¼ to £7½	—
Eastern Province Bank	1838	1600	25 0	16 13½	21 <i>l.</i> 13 <i>s.</i> 4 <i>d.</i>	17. Feb. 1.
Eastern Province Fire and Life Assur. Comp.	1839	400	50 0	5 0	—	—

The value of property has thus been estimated:—

Property annually created, and consumed or converted into Moveable or Immoveable Property.—Animal food for 150,000 mouths, at 200 lbs. each per annum, 30,000,000 lbs. at $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ per lb. 187,500*l.*; fish for 150,000 mouths, at 25 lbs. each per annum, 3,750,000 lbs. at $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ per lb. 7,800*l.*; vegetables and fruit for 150,000 mouths at $1d.$ per day, for 365 days, 228,125*l.*; butter, eggs, milk, and cheese for 150,000 mouths, at $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ per day, for 365 days, 114,062*l.*; grain raised of all sorts, 600,000 bushels, at 3*s.* 6*d.* per bushel, 105,000*l.*; wine—1,700 leaguers, at 60*s.* per leaguer, 51,000*l.*; brandy—1,285 leaguers, at 180*s.* per leaguer, 11,565*l.*; luxuries—such as tea, sugar, coffee, &c. for 150,000 mouths, at $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ per day, for 365 days, 114,062*l.*; wearing apparel, 5*l.* each, 750,000*l.*; household furniture, at 10*l.* per house, 100,000*l.*; increase of agricultural stock, *viz.* horses, sheep, &c., 600,000*l.*; net income from commerce, trades, and professions, 550,000*l.*; value of exports not included in the foregoing, 100,000*l.*; total annually created, 2,929,114*l.*

Moveable Property: horses, 100,000, at 10*l.* each, 1,000,000*l.*; horned cattle, 500,000, at 2*l.* each, 1,000,000*l.*; sheep, 3,000,000, at 3*s.* each, 450,000*l.*; goats, 600,000, at 2*s.* each, 60,000*l.*; swine, 160,000, at 1*l.* each, 160,000*l.*; poultry, value 100,000*l.*; furniture for 10,000 houses,* at 50*l.* each, 500,000*l.*; clothing for 150,000 persons, at 10*l.* each, 1,500,000*l.*; machinery, farming implements, &c., 800,000*l.*; bullion, including coin, 150,000*l.*; ships, boats, &c., 150,000*l.*; merchandize of all kinds, 500,000*l.*; total moveable property, 6,910,000*l.*

Immoveable Property: houses, 10,000, at 100*l.* each, 1,000,000*l.*; land cultivated, 300,000 acres, at 25*l.* per acre, 7,500,000*l.*; land uncultivated, but valuable, 10,000,000 acres, at 5*s.* per acre, 2,500,000*l.*; private stores, buildings, &c., 300,000*l.*; roads, bridges, and wharfs, 500,000*l.*; forts, gaols, hospitals, and other public buildings, 1,000,000*l.*;

* I estimate a house for each fifteen mouths.—R. M. M.

vines, plantations, &c., 800,000*l.*; total immoveable property, 13,600,000*l.*; property annually created, 2,929,114*l.*; ditto moveable in the colony, 6,910,000*l.*; ditto immoveable in ditto, 13,600,000*l.*; total, 23,439,114*l.*

The estimates of the value of property given in the large edition can of course be considered only as an approximation to correctness.

CHAPTER VII.

POLITICAL, COMMERCIAL, AND MILITARY IMPORTANCE OF
THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

THE foregoing details will explain better than pages of description the importance of the Cape of Good Hope, and demonstrate that it is not, as has been erroneously represented, a mere sand-bank, suited but for the refreshment of a few India ships. In a political view, the colony is deserving of the highest consideration; it is the key to the Eastern hemisphere, and to a maritime power like England, a jewel beyond price; by its central position it is admirably adapted as a depôt for troops, as well as for a naval station during war, and for watching the motions of an enemy in Asia, Africa, and America; while its healthy climate and abundant and cheap provisions secure to our mariners on long voyages a friendly port where it is most needed, in doubling the 'Cape of Storms.'

Since the large edition of this work was printed, I am happy to find that one of the most distinguished statesmen of this, or indeed of any country, has expressed similar opinions with regard to the political importance of this colony to England. I

allude to the Marquess Wellesley, who visited the Cape in 1798, on his passage to India, and as Earl of Mornington thus convincingly establishes the value of the possession.*

“Before my arrival here,” says his lordship, “I had formed very high ideas of the intrinsic value of the Cape as a colony, but I had not estimated so highly its value with reference to the defence of our trade to the East, and of our territories in India.

You will have received from Lord Macartney such ample details with respect to the real value of this colony in point of revenue, and of every species of resource, that I shall say no more than that I am convinced it would require a long tract of time to render the Cape an object of any consideration in this view. You must consider it as a possession which cannot furnish the means of maintaining its own expense, and you must look for its value in the positive advantages it would afford to the enemy as a military and naval station for offensive purposes against you, and in the relative advantages which can be imagined to a power compelled to maintain a large European force in India. The climate is remarkably healthy, so much so that the appearance both of the officers and soldiers stationed here bears striking testimony to the fact; you will hardly see regiments in England of so healthy an appearance

* His lordship's sentiments were expressed in a letter to Mr. Dundas from the Cape of Good Hope, dated 28th of February, 1798. See vol. i. of the Despatches and Correspondence of the Noble Marquess, edited by R. M. Martin.

as those which have been here for any time. The heat is, however, frequently very severe, so that a soldier who has been here for a year or two is well accustomed to be exposed to a very ardent sun, and receives a sort of preparation for the climate of India. The advantage of this circumstance has lately been proved in India, where the regiments which had passed through the seasoning of this climate have arrived and continued in much better health than those which proceeded thither directly from Europe, or which remained here but for a very short period of time. As a depôt, therefore, for the maintenance of a military force in India, the Cape is invaluable; and to the enemy, in this view, it would furnish easy means of pouring in troops either upon the coast of Coromandel or of Malabar, in such a state of health as to be able to encounter at once all the inconveniences of an Indian climate. With this opinion, you may judge with what serious apprehension I should see this place in the hands of the enemy, to whose political consideration in India such a possession would always be a powerful accession, but at no time so formidable as in the present disturbed state of the native powers.

As a naval station, I look upon the Cape to be still more important. Many ships in the Indian and China trade make the land upon the outward, and all upon the homeward-bound, passage. The course of those even which keep farthest to the southward never is more distant from the Cape than two or three degrees of latitude. An enemy's squadron,

stationed at the Cape, could not fail to intercept the greater part of our trade to and from the East, without being under the necessity of making any very distant cruizes. We should find it impossible to check the operations of such a squadron, unless we could continue to send out with every trading fleet from Europe a convoy of such considerable force as must compel us greatly to increase our present naval establishments. The expense of fitting out such large fleets of ships of war, victualled and stored for the whole voyage to India or China, would be enormous; and here, in my opinion, is the point of the question upon which the whole argument must turn—which would be the heavier expense? to retain the Cape, keeping up a large naval and military establishment here, and using it as an outpost to your Indian empire, or to leave the Cape in the hands of the enemy, and by so doing incur the necessity of increasing to a vast amount the protecting naval force requisite for the defence of your Indian and China trade? The expense of the Cape in our hands, however large, must not be estimated as so much positive loss. There are two points of view in which that loss may be considered to be compensated by a proportional diminution of expense in other establishments. The army stationed at the Cape might always be looked upon as a part of the Indian force, and a corresponding saving ought to be made in the expense of your European army in India. Your Indian and China ships might, under proper regulations, be victualled at the Cape at a much cheaper

rate than in Europe; consequently their valuable cargoes both outward and homeward might be increased in proportion to the smaller quantity of tonnage occupied by their provisions. Instead of taking six months' provisions from Asia or Europe, they need not take more than three, and the vacant tonnage might serve for an augmentation of their cargoes of merchandize. In this view, a great advantage would result to the East-India Company from the possession of the Cape. The whole of this comparative statement might be reduced to calculation, and it would not be difficult for you at once to estimate the several articles of expense which must be incurred by the public in either event, of retaining the Cape or of abandoning it to France.

But I doubt whether, with the Cape in the hands of the enemy, it would be possible for you to maintain your Indian trade or empire, unless you could acquire some other settlement on the southern continent of Africa. This I know to be Lord Macartney's opinion; and if this opinion be just, the question of the expense of maintaining the Cape will be materially varied.

To bring back this discussion to the point from which it proceeded, I trust you will bear in mind the state of the native powers in India at this moment; and recollecting that the greatest advantage which we now possess in the present deranged condition of those interests, which have been so wisely and judiciously balanced by the treaty of Seringapatam, is the utter exclusion of any preponderant European

power from the scale of Indian politics, you will contend strenuously against any concession in the peace with France which may place the security of our Eastern trade and empire at her mercy.

P. S. I wish to point out to your attention that passage of the governor-general's minute relating to Zemaun Shah, which describes the several powers in his neighbourhood likely to become a check upon his motions ; and I recommend it to you to consider whether something ought not to be done in Europe, to leave Persia in such a state as that it might be a restraint hereafter upon the ambition of Zemaun Shah.

On reading over my letter, I find that I have omitted to state one consideration relating to the value of the Cape as a military station. I believe the necessity of retaining Ceylon is now admitted universally. With the Cape in the hands of an enemy, would it be possible to retain Ceylon for any long period of time ?”*

The good soil of the colony is in considerable quantity, and vast tracts now waste may be rendered profitable when irrigation comes into general use ; —the vine, the olive, the aloe, the mulberry, &c., all

* One of the peculiar features of Lord Wellesley's mind was the foresight with which his lordship perceived a leading political advantage : the ministry of the day neglected his advice ; at the peace of Amiens the Cape was restored nominally to the Dutch, but really to the French ; the prophetic views of Lord Wellesley were realized, and its re-capture became a matter of absolute necessity.

thrive; tobacco and hemp may be raised to any extent; hides, ivory, horns, oil, gums, &c. are procurable in great abundance; the shores abound in every variety of fish, and the country at large in vast flocks of cattle, sheep, &c.; in fine wool we may now consider the colony as becoming the rival of New South Wales; so that in a few years we shall be totally independent of Spain or Germany for the raw material of one of our staple manufactures; while a profitable region is opening for emigrants of every description within six weeks' sail of their parent land.

The possessor of small capital will here find a profitable field for its increase; the enterprising merchant may extend his intercourse with the industrious native tribes, either inland, along the coast, or throughout the numerous islands of the eastern seas; and the half-pay officer and small annuitant may still enjoy the pleasures of excellent society, with a salubrious clime and the conveniences and luxuries of life as cheap as in any other part of the world. I am indebted to Mr. Philipps, an intelligent and patriotic magistrate in Albany, for the following observations, pointing out the advantages of the Cape colony for emigrants.

“To those who are desirous of removing themselves and families from the depressing anxieties of unprosperous circumstances, and who are able to carry out with them funds sufficient to purchase and stock a sheep farm for the growth of superior wool for exportation to England, Albany can be

conscientiously recommended, as a country where rustic competence may be securely attained, without any severe exertion for the present, or harassing anxiety for the future; where they will enjoy a mild and most salubrious climate, with perfect security of health, life, and property; and where they may comfortably establish themselves, by means of a capital more moderate, as has been well ascertained, than would suffice for the same purpose in any other British colony. To persons thus predisposed and circumstanced, the following hints are offered.

In the preparations for leaving England, the intended sheep farmer must primarily have in view the procuring of the most improved breed of sheep; and as the Saxony wool is now in the highest estimation, rams, and the few ewes wanted, should be imported from that country: which object can be attained with the greatest ease and safety, through the medium of merchants engaged in trade to that part of the continent. It would only be advisable to purchase a small number of ewes, in order to keep up the pure breed, and avoid the necessity of annual purchases of rams. Moreover, it has been proved that the climate and pasture of South Africa so highly agree with the animal, that the progeny reared in the colony have produced finer wool than the sheep imported. The number to be purchased must depend on the capital to be employed. At the same time any number beyond what would be wanted on the farm could be disposed of in the colony to

advantage. The following estimate has been made out at the request of a gentleman who is on the point of emigrating. It may serve as a guide to those who may have more or less capital to lay out. The prices quoted are at the *highest* present rate. Both farms and stock can no doubt be purchased cheaper.

A farm of 6,000 acres, payable in three instalments, *viz.* the first on the completion of the transfer, the second at the end of the first year, and the third at the end of the second year, at 1s. 6d. per acre, 450*l.*; government transfer duty, four per cent., 18*l.*; buildings, or repairs of those on the farm, 200*l.*; furniture, 100*l.*; 3,000 native ewes, at 2s., 300*l.*; 40 Saxon rams, at 12*l.*, 480*l.*; 10 do. ewes, at 5*l.*, 50*l.*; a waggon, 45*l.*; 20 cows, at 20s., 20*l.*; 12 draught oxen, at 30s., 18*l.*; four horses and four mares, averaging 6*l.*, 48*l.*: total, 1,729*l.*

To this estimate may be added the annual quit-rent, from 3*l.* to 4*l.*, and the annual taxes, to about the same amount. The capital about to be employed is stated to be 2,700*l.*, which would be ample, after paying passage money for the family, for the Saxon sheep, and for two head shepherds; and would suffice until returns could be had from the increase of flocks, &c."

The adaptation of the Cape for such emigration is admirable, by reason of the fineness of the climate, the fertility of the soil, and the great freedom of the inhabitants generally from crime, which is rapidly decreasing. In the year 1830 there were in the Cape District 65 indictments; in 1831, 51; in 1832,

35; in 1833, 46; and in 1834, 42: and this among a population of 30,000 individuals and the capital of the colony, where, as in London, the worst characters resort. In the George District, with a population of 9,000, there was not even *one* criminal case in the session of 1834—and at the Kat River settlement, with a population of 4,000 (nearly all Hottentots), there was not a conviction for crime before the Circuit Court for six years!

Finally, the colony is no drain on the mother-country; it pays all its civil, and part of its military expenses; and, under a free constitution, a sound banking system, and with a continuance of its present progressive prosperity, the Cape may well be deemed one of the most important sections of the empire. It is true the inhabitants may not yet be unanimous in their wish for the adoption of a legislative assembly; but, I trust, no real friend of the colony will sow seeds of strife, with a view to retard so desirable a consummation. The Africans have already suffered severely from a system of public peculation and private disputes among the authorities; they should be anxious to prevent the possibility of the recurrence of the former, and to dry up the sources of the latter. With a free press and religious education, I trust to see the foundation laid at the Cape of Good Hope of a great and powerful community, whose ancestors will have had the honour of converting an apparently sandy and inhospitable peninsula into a fertile and beautiful territory, from whence they will have the glory of

extending among the native tribes of South Africa the comforts of civilization, the delights of freedom and literature, and the unspeakable blessings of Christianity.

BOOK II.

MAURITIUS, OR ISLE OF FRANCE.

CHAPTER I.

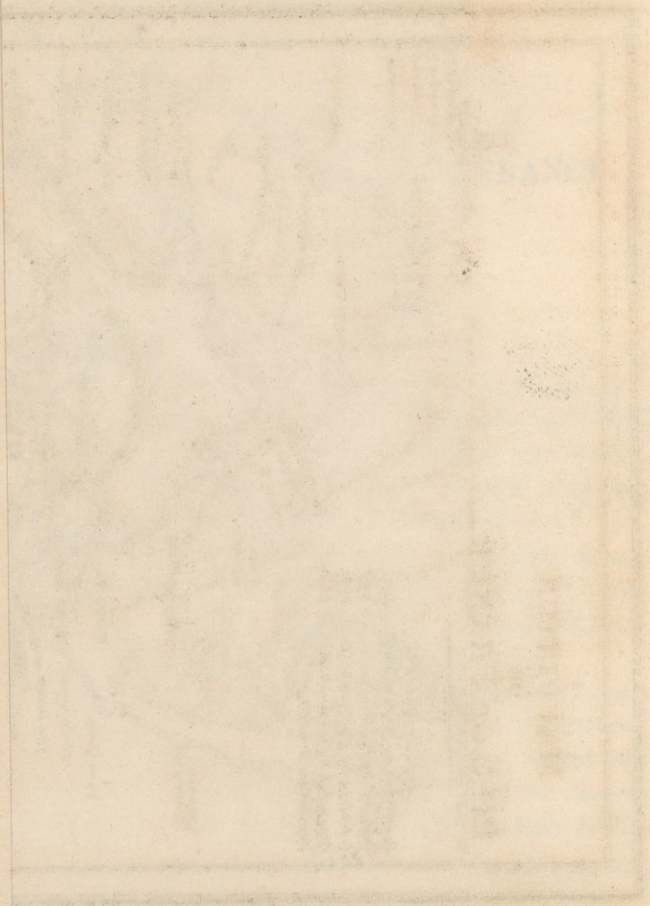
LOCALITY—HISTORY, &c.

THE far-famed Mauritius, or Isle of France, is situated in the Indian Ocean, 40 leagues to the N.E. of the Isle of Bourbon, and 160 from the great island of Madagascar, between the parallels of 19.58 and 20.32 S. Lat. and the meridians of 57.17 and 57.46 E. Long. It is nearly elliptical in form, measuring in length, about 40 miles * from N. to S., and 32 from E. to W., and comprises an area of 432,680 superficial English acres, or 676 square miles.

The island was discovered in the year 1507, by Don Pedro Mascarenhas, a navigator of the Portuguese government in India, under the orders of Governor Almeida. Mascarenhas named the island *Cerné*.† The Portuguese do not seem to have made

* The greatest diameter of the oval is 63,780 yards, and its breadth 44,248 yards. Some estimate the length at 35 and the breadth at 20 miles.

† The appellation of *Cerné* was said to have been given by



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any settlements there during the period they were masters of it, which comprehended almost the whole of the sixteenth century ; they appear merely to have placed some hogs, goats, and monkeys on *Cerné* and Bourbon, in the event of any of their vessels being thereon wrecked.

In 1580, Philip II. of Spain having become possessed of the government of Portugal, acquired the nominal sovereignty of *Cerné*, but totally disregarded it during the period of his sway, *viz.* for eighteen years. The Spaniards were unable to maintain the possessions in South America, and the West Indies, originally belonging to Portugal : while the successful Belgic or rather Dutch insurgents of the Castilian monarchy appeared in India, to dispute with the successors of Vasco de Gama the sovereignty and commerce of the rich territories of the oriental world ; and in 1598, the Dutch admiral, Van Nerk, at the head of a large squadron, landed on the uninhabited Isle of *Cerné*, took possession of it, and named the place *Mauritius*, in honour of the Prince of Orange.

The Dutch do not appear to have, at this time, settled permanently on Mauritius ; they, however, occasionally touched at the island to water. In 1613, an Englishman, Captain Castleton, commanding an English ship, visited Mauritius, and found it still uninhabited ; in which state it continued until

Pliny to Madagascar, but it does not seem probable that the Roman historian was acquainted with that island or Mauritius.

some pirates in the Indian seas settled on its shores ; but at what precise period it is impossible to say. The Dutch had, undoubtedly, regular governors appointed to the island, who resided at Grand Port, from 1644* to 1712, when Mauritius was finally abandoned by the Hollanders, and subsequently colonized by the French, with a few settlers from the contiguous island of Bourbon ; its formal occupation not taking place until 1721, when the name was changed from *Mauritius* † to ISLE DE FRANCE, and the territory given by the King to the French East-India Company, under whose sway it remained from 1722 to 1767. The inhabitants, however, for a long time were chiefly composed of adventurers, refugees, or pirates, from all nations, and it was not until 1730, that the home government and the French East-India Company began to pay attention to the island, by sending engineers and other persons to form a regular establishment ; the real founder of the colony, however, was M. de la Bourdonnais, who was sent out as Governor-General of the Isle of France, Bourbon, &c., in 1734.

* In 1648, Vander Mester was the Dutch Governor of Mauritius, and is mentioned by the Abbé Rochon as purchasing from Bromis (who had been sent by the King of France to take possession of the vast island of Madagascar), the unfortunate Malagashes who were in the service of the French settlement.

† M. Du Fresne, a captain in the royal navy of France, visited the island in 1715, and gave it the title of *Isle of France*.

Up to the arrival of M. de la Bourdonnais at Mauritius in 1735, the French East-India Company had been at considerable expense in maintaining the island, which was considered to be solely fit for a refreshing station for their ships, while Bourbon was made a great coffee plantation. Bourdonnais, in order to save the Company's finances, introduced the culture of the sugar-cane into Mauritius, established manufactures of cotton and indigo, attended to agriculture and commerce, destroyed the Maroon negroes, founded a Court of Justice, made roads, fortified the coast, formed aqueducts, arsenals, batteries, fortifications, barracks, wharfs, &c., and, in the eleven years during which his government lasted, changed the whole face of the country, laying the foundations of prosperity, which subsequent disasters, however, almost entirely destroyed.

The French nation had their attention more strongly directed to Mauritius, when they witnessed its great utility in providing succours, &c., for Admiral Suffrein, who was thus enabled to injure so materially the commerce of England in the East. The renewal of the charter, or rather reformation of the French East-India Company, in 1784, was carried with the proviso that all the merchants' ships from France should be permitted to proceed thus far towards India, and that the islanders might carry on a trade with all the possessions of the French East-India Company (excluding them, however, from China). The Company were also bound to transmit annually ample supplies of European merchandize

to the island, which now became an entrepôt for oriental commerce, and led to the formation of several mercantile factories.

It may be readily supposed that this measure was a great stimulus to Mauritius, which soon became a commercial depôt, rather than, as before, an agricultural colony; the population, therefore, rapidly augmented, and a factitious prosperity was given to the island, which, however valuable for the time, could not be supposed permanent, when the measures which caused it would naturally, in the course of events, be abrogated. The supreme control was intrusted to a Governor and Intendant, who acted in a most arbitrary manner, and the breaking out of the revolution in the mother-country, in 1789, was the signal for the restless and enterprising spirits of Mauritius to declare for a National Assembly, and to endeavour to shake off dependence on France.

As the events of the French revolution had an important effect on the colonies, a brief narration of the results in this settlement will be desirable, in order to shew the disadvantages resulting from anarchy in the mother-country.

Up to the arrival of a vessel from Bourdeaux in January, 1789, the Isle of France had been despotically governed; this vessel brought the exciting news of the great power usurped to itself by the National Assembly at Paris, and as the captain, officers, and crew wore the tri-coloured cockade, a similar emblem was soon generally adopted by the

colonists, and advertisements posted in the streets, inviting all the *citizens* to form themselves into primary assemblies (after the example of those which had taken place in all the *communes* of France), in order to draw up memorials of complaints and demands.

General Conway, the governor, sent some soldiers to arrest the young men who had caused the advertisements to be posted up, but the people collected in the square of Port Louis, liberated the prisoners on their road to the gaol, compelled M. Conway to wear the national cockade, and on the following day united themselves into a primary assembly, and established the different constituted authorities, to whom they confided the interior government of the colony.

At this crisis M. de Macnamara, commander of the French marine in the Indian seas, arrived at the Isle of France, and did not conceal his aversion to these revolutionary proceedings. The soldiers of the 107th and 108th regiments, who formed the garrison of the island, following the example of the army in France, adopted the cause of the revolutionists. M. de Macnamara thought it his duty to give an account of the proceedings to the Minister of Marine, but he was betrayed, a copy of his letter sent to the barracks, and the soldiers threatened him with vengeance, to execute which the grenadiers seized upon the boats and canoes, and proceeded to the flag-ship to seize the person of the admiral. M. de M. ordered the cannon to be loaded and pointed,

but the moment the grenadiers approached and hailed the seamen in the republican style, the latter refused to defend their commander, and he was conducted by the grenadiers as a prisoner to the newly constituted authority or assembly, then sitting in the church, who, with the desire of saving this brave man from the fury of the soldiery, after a few formal interrogatories, ordered him to be conveyed to prison, leaving him, however, unfortunately, to be conducted thither by the soldiery. The admiral, on his way to confinement, passing the door of a watchmaker of his acquaintance, rushed in at the door, and endeavoured to save himself with his pistols, but the soldiers threw themselves on him, and almost instantly massacred him. The colonists now formed their Colonial Assembly, consisting of 51 members. M. de Conway proceeded to France, and, in 1792, M. de Malartic, named by the king as governor-general, arrived in the colony and gave the sanction of the state to the laws of the Assembly. The affairs of the island might have now gone on quietly, but that the news of the power of the Jacobin clubs in France gave a stimulus to the discontented, and a Jacobin club, called the *Chau-mière*, was established, and soon rivalled the constituted authorities.

Such was the power of this club, that it forced M. Malartic to grant them a vessel to carry 100 men to the contiguous Isle of Bourbon, for the arrest of the governor, civil commissary, and commandant of the marine of that island, who were thus conveyed

as prisoners to the Isle of France, on the charge of having corresponded with the English. These high functionaries were landed at Port Louis, conveyed under an escort of Clubbists to the *Chaumière*, then sitting, and the president (formerly a police officer) gravely said to them, "*The people accuse you, and the people will judge you!*"—they were then fettered and conducted to a dungeon, where they remained six months.

A guillotine was established by order of the *Chaumière*, and but for the prudence of the Colonial Assembly in ordering that the prisoners of the Jacobins should be judged only by a court-martial, named by all the citizens of the colony, united in primary assemblies, each in his own district, much blood would, undoubtedly, have been shed by these unthinking and infuriated men: the delay, however, gave the Assembly time to concert together, in order to contrive that the choice of members of the commission should fall upon upright persons. In spite of these precautions, the proceedings of such a club would have rendered the guillotine more than an object of terror, but at this moment an account arrived of the French republic abolishing slavery in all its colonies and settlements.

In a community of 70,000 persons, where upwards of 55,000 were slaves, such a summary decree, without a word about pecuniary compensation, may well be supposed to have created alarm; the Jacobin Club was annihilated, the guillotine removed from the public square, the prisoners set at liberty

without a trial, and the principal Jacobins, to the number of 30, arrested, and instantly sent on board a ship bound for France. The planters, with the news of what was occurring at St. Domingo continually arriving, knew not what steps to take; some proposed declaring the colony independent of the French republic, and others sought to temporize, and to stay the promulgation of the decree.

While deliberating (18th July, 1796), a squadron of four frigates, under Vice-Admiral Serecy, with two agents from the French Directory (named Baco and Burnel), arrived at Port Louis; the colonists protested in vain against the debarkation of these agents, who, however, dressed in the directorial costume, landed in state, and proceeded to the Colonial Assembly, to take on themselves the government of the colony, in which they were to be aided by 800 men of the revolutionary army, and two troops of artillery, all brought from France. Before three days had elapsed, the menacing tone of the agents was such as to alarm the whole colony; they threatened to hang the governor, and proceeded to other severe measures without promulgating their intentions respecting the slaves. "Twenty young creoles," says Baron Grant, in his interesting account of this colony, "devoted themselves to the welfare of the colony, and vowed the death of those instruments of republican despotism;" and, in fact, the agents owed their lives to the governor and Assembly, who caused them to be conveyed on board a ship (*le Moineau*) which was ordered to convey them to

the Philippine Islands, as the place most distant from France.

As an instance of the moral power that the agents of the French revolution had over the people, it may be stated that, on the day after the *Moineau* sailed on her route towards the Philippines, the agents dressed themselves in their directorial costumes, harangued the ship's company, induced them to mutiny against the orders of the captain, and return to France.

The colonists now gave themselves up to rejoicing for the dangers they had escaped, and the soldiers who had stood by the Assembly were honoured and caressed in every place, while money and largesses were liberally bestowed on them; but the troops of the agents were soon found dangerous, as they resolved on freeing the negro women who lived with them. Governor Malartic contrived, however, to ship them off for Batavia, under pretence of assisting the Dutch against the common enemy, the English. There now only remained in the island the skeletons of the two old regiments before mentioned, and the colony remained tranquil until May, 1798, when these troops also formed a plan of proclaiming liberty to the slaves, in order to frustrate which, the Colonial Assembly obtained an order from General Malartic for the two grenadier companies* to embark on board the frigate *la Seine*,

* The grenadier companies may be said to be the life and soul of a French regiment; among the English troops the light company is generally the *élite* of the regiment.

then ready to sail on a cruise. Those who desired to stir up insurrection in the colony represented to the troops that this order for embarkation was either to place them in the power of Tippoo Suldaun, with whose cruelty they were well acquainted, or to expose them to the destructive climate of Batavia. The grenadiers, influenced by these suggestions, refused to obey the orders for embarkation, and induced the other companies to mutiny, to take arms, and seize the field-pieces which were in their quarters, as also to break open the doors of the armory where the cartouches and cartridges were kept. Fortunately, the officers of the regiment were men of the old regime, who restrained the fury of the men, and kept them from coming out of their quarters in arms. In this crisis, the Colonial Assembly were not idle, they summoned every freeman capable of bearing arms, from all parts of the island, and at daybreak, on the 25th of April, every man at beat of drum was at the post assigned him; a battery planted upon a hill commanded the court where the soldiers had been under arms the whole night, and twelve field-pieces, supported by the young national guard of the colony, advanced in four columns to attack the troops in their quarters. General Malartic then advanced at the head of the national guard, and again commanded the grenadiers to embark, which, however, they refused to do; the matches were lighted, and a bloody contest was on the eve of commencing, when the Committee of Public Safety of the Colonial Assembly suggested that the two regiments should

embark for *France* in the *Seine* frigate and a merchantman, granting them until noon to make up their linen and knapsacks and depart; after some hesitation, the soldiers consented, and the same day, at noon, the Mauritius was freed from 800 armed stipendiaries of the French Republic. The colonists now sought for and expected peace; they had freed themselves from the agents and troops of the French Directory, and the Assembly, renewed every year, by the nomination of the citizens of the colony, was linked, as it was thought, with the happiness and prosperity of the colony. But disputes now arose respecting the laws about to be established for the repayment of debts contracted in paper currency, the depreciation of which (as issued by the administrators of the French Republic) was so great as to be but a *thousandth* part of the sum it nominally represented.

As soon as intelligence reached Mauritius respecting the laws which the two governing councils of France had decreed, relative to the payment of the debts contracted in the paper currency, the creditors, who were greatly favoured by these laws, demanded the execution of them: the debtors, on the other hand, represented with great force and truth, that the circumstances in general under which the different contracts had been made in the colony, being different from those which had taken place in France, it would evidently be unjust to apply the same laws when there was an apparent difference both in the manner, situation, and con-

tracts of the colony. The Colonial Assembly, acting on the principles of justice, was on the point of arranging these differences, when the creditors, in order to frustrate the aims of the Assembly, raised a conspiracy on the 4th November, 1799, seized on the guns, and loudly demanded of General Malartic to dissolve the Colonial Assembly. This demand General M. was obliged to comply with, in order to save the most distinguished members of the Assembly from being murdered, several of the conspirators having rushed forwards, and obliged them to escape at the back doors: but, dissolving the Assembly did not satisfy the malcontents, they compelled the general to sign an order for the imprisonment of twelve different members of the Assembly, with a view of preventing, by any possibility, the passing of a law, the purport of which was the reimbursement of the debts contracted during the course of a depreciated paper currency. The "*Sans-Culottes*" now formed themselves into armed associations, and the creditors, who had aided in dissolving the Colonial Assembly, became in turn frightened, when they perceived the march of the country people on Port Louis (the capital), to rescue it from the dominion of the *Sans-Culottes*; the latter, finding themselves abandoned by the creditors, and like bad men in a bad cause, weakened by internal dissensions, made no further resistance to the entry of the country national guard into the town: the disturbance was concluded by shipping off the principal criminals for France. The Colonial Assembly having been dis-

solved, the Governor-General Malartic, aided by the primary assemblies of the colony, formed another legislative assembly (21 members), less numerous than the former (51 members), whose numbers were found a source of much inquietude: the members were in the proportion of 14 for the country, and seven for the town,* who were nominated by the primary assemblies of each canton in the island.

From this period the colonists enjoyed tranquillity, and the cultivation of the island rapidly extended. Buonaparte saw at a glance its important position for the annoyance of British commerce, and under the government of General Decaen, with the aid of a strong naval squadron, commanded by Admiral Linois, Mauritius assumed a leading part in the Eastern hemisphere, to the great injury of our trade. To put a stop to these proceedings,† a strong arma-

* The population of Port Louis was then estimated at three-fifths of that of the whole island, which contained, of slaves, 48,000, whites and mulattoes, 8,000.

† The Marquess Wellesley, when Governor-General of India in 1800, projected and fitted out an expedition destined for the conquest of Mauritius and Bourbon, the command of which was given to his brother Arthur, then Lieut.-Colonel Wellesley, who was to have assumed the governorship on their conquest. The subsequent expedition of the Indian army to Egypt frustrated that against the Mauritius, but it was urgently pressed on the home government by the noble marquess that no time should be lost in destroying the nest of French pirates which these islands harboured. In all their enterprises against British commerce, the French were materially assisted by a set of desperate American speculators, who infested the whole of our possessions in the East; they brought fast-sailing ships to the

ment of 12,000 troops, with 20 ships of war, was therefore despatched from India, and from the Cape of Good Hope, for the conquest of Mauritius, in 1810;—a landing was effected some distance from Port Louis, and after the French troops and national guard had suffered several repulses, a capitulation was entered into, and the Mauritius became subject to the crown of Great Britain. At the peace of 1814, the acquisition was ratified, and the island has ever since remained a colony of the empire.*

The following is a list of the governors of the island, French and English, since its colonization:—*For the French East-India Company*—M. de Myon, 1722; M. Dumas, 1726; M. de Maupin, 1728; M. Mahé de la Bourdonnais, 1735; M. David, 1746; M. de Lozie Bouvêt, 1750; M. Magon, 1755; M. Boucher Desforges, 1759. *For the King*—M. Dumas, 1767; M. de Steinaûter, 1768; M. le Chevalier Desroches, 1769; M. le Chevalier de Jernay, Mauritius, fitted them out, met them at fixed stations, gave intelligence of the sailing of all our trade; bought, not only the cargoes of the prizes for the American markets, but the hulls of the ships to carry back to our own settlements; and there are strong reasons to believe collusive bargains were entered into in anticipation of the captures made in consequence of such intelligence; in short, this island was made a rendezvous for all the freebooters of every nation to fit out privateers and commit depredations on English property.

* I regret that the contiguous island of Bourbon, which had also been captured by our troops during the war, was restored to the French government at the peace of 1814: an account of it will be found in my work on the colonies of France, Spain, Holland, Portugal, &c.

1772; M. le Chevalier Guirand de la Brillanne, 1776; M. le Vicomte de Souillac, 1779; M. le Chevalier Brunni d'Entrecasteaux, 1787; M. le Comte de Conway, 1789; M. Charpentier de Cossigny, 1790; M. le Comte de Malartic, 1792; M. de Magallon de la Molière, 1800; M. Decaen, Captain-General, 1803. *For his Britannic Majesty*—M. R. J. Farquhar, 1810; Major-General H. Warde, 1811; M. R. J. Farquhar, 1811; Major-General G. J. Hall, 1817; Colonel J. Dalrymple, 1818; Major-General R. Darling, 1819 and 1823; Sir R. J. Farquhar, Bart., 1820; Lieut.-General the Hon. Sir Galbraith Lowry Cole, 1823; Major-General Colville, 1827; Major-General Nicolay, 1833.

CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL ASPECT—MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, &c.—GEOLOGY
AND SOIL—CLIMATE—LUNAR INFLUENCE.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—From whatever quarter Mauritius be approached, the aspect is exceedingly romantic and picturesque;* the land rises from the coast to the middle of the island, and chains of mountains intersect it in various radii, from the centre to the shore; there are, however, three principal ranges, in height from 1,800 to 2,800 feet above the sea, mostly covered with timber, and few presenting, except at their very summits, bare rock.

The following are the names and heights, in *yards*, of the principal mountains:—Long Mountain, flag-staff, 178; Port Louis, ditto, 332; the Pouce, 832; Pieterbooth, 840; Corps de Garde, 738; Rampart, 792; Trois Mammelles, 684; Bamboo, 644; Little Black River, 848; Post Mountain, 618; Morne Brabant, 566; Mountain of Savanne, 710.

In the centre of the island there are plains of

* The Mauritius scenery depicted by Bernardin De St. Pierre, in his *fable* of Paul and Virginie, is strictly correct, which is more than can be said for the narrative he has so delightfully woven. I visited the tombs (as is pretended) of the faithful lovers, and paid tribute to the genius of St. Pierre.

table land several leagues in circumference, and of different elevations, forming the several parts of the districts of Moka and Plaines Wilhems. From among the ranges of mountains several streams take their source, running generally through deep ravines, pervious, however, to the breeze and sun's rays.

The principal rivers are named the *Port Louis*, *Latanier*, *Plaines Wilhems*, *Moka*, *Rampart*, *Great and Little Black Rivers*, *Post*, *Creole*, *Chaude*, *Savanne*, *Tombeau*, and about twenty others of lesser note.

Grand River, rising in the interior of the island, takes its course through the hollow of a deep ravine, receiving many streams in its progress, and dividing the district of Moka from that of Plaines Wilhems, falls into the sea, on the W. side of the bay. In this course there are several considerable cascades, which, added to the great perpendicular height of its banks, and varied with the richest foliage and abrupt masses of rock, present to the eye many picturesque and beautiful views. The stream itself is shallow, but navigable for boats for a few hundred yards before its entrance into the bay. The water is excellent, and conveyed to Port Louis by an aqueduct three miles in length. A pretty village, interspersed with many country seats, is built on both sides of the river, which is crossed by a bridge with five arches, that has been several times swept away by the rapidity of the mountain torrent. The beauty of the scene is enhanced by a chain of mountains, from two to four miles to the S.E. of which the mountain *De Decouvert* forms one termination, the

Pouce, nearly the centre, and the mountain *Au Riz*, the other termination, the whole forming nearly a semicircle.

Black River, situate on the W. or leeward side of the island, and distant from Port Louis about 19 miles, takes its rise from behind a chain of southerly mountains, passing through a deep ravine at the foot of the Peton, and between them and the mountain called Black River, it passes over a pebbly bed with a gentle current, except in the wet season, and is barred at its entrance into the bay by a bank of sand and coral.

The two principal ports are that of *Port Louis*, to the N.W. or leeward, and the capital of the island, and the other that of *Mahebourg*, or Grand Port, on the S.E. or windward shore.

Port Louis (the seat of government), with a population of 30,000, of whom 3,000 are whites, is a very neat town, well laid out, and now that stone is being substituted for wooden buildings, presents a handsome appearance. The shops are more numerous, better laid out, and have a greater Europeanness (if I may coin the term) than I have seen in any colony. The markets are admirably supplied, and the water is of crystalline purity. As the ships come close to the busy town, it adds to the picturesqueness of the scene. Behind Port Louis, a beautiful plain, termed the *Champ de Mars* (a favourite dwelling place), extends in a gradual slope to the mountains; around the plain or park are neat villas, shaded by groves of various hues. The buildings

erected by the French are an honour to their taste and munificence; I allude more particularly to the cathedral, theatre, &c. The Government House is a large misshapen building, but commodious within. The town and its environs are situate in a plain, encompassed by a chain of lofty mountains, except on the N.W. side, which is bounded by the sea. This plain is about 3,700 yards in length, and 3,200 in breadth, divided, however, about its centre by the immense ridge called the Small Mountain, that runs up and joins at right angles the great chain of the *Pouce* (so called from its resemblance to a thumb on a human hand), which is 2,496 feet above the sea. Further eastward on the same chain is the *Pieterbooth* mountain, 2,500 feet high, terminated by an obelisk of naked rock, and surrounded by a cubical rock larger than the point of the pyramidal one on which it is balanced. This extraordinary-looking mountain, which seems like a pyramid with an inverted cone on its summit, was ascended with the greatest danger by a party of four British officers on the 7th September, 1832, and old England's ensign floated freely over the dizzy pinnacle where never before flag waved or human footstep trod. A very interesting account of the ascent, written by Lieut. Taylor, of the royal engineers, has been published in the valuable Transactions of the Royal Geographical Society; and it further demonstrates, if such were needed, what Britons are capable not only of attempting, but performing. The contiguous lofty mountain, or twin brother of *Pieterbooth*, named

the *Pouce* (within 87 yards of the elevation of the latter), was ascended by Lieuts. Fetherston, Clark, and myself in 1825, and such was the fearful sublimity of the view, that had it not been for the care of my brother officers, I should have dashed myself from the narrow summit on which we stood, while gazing with unspeakable rapture on the vast and varied scene 2,500 feet beneath. Some streams take their rise in these mountains, and flow through the town to the sea, where the tide does not rise higher than two or three feet.

Tonnelliers forms the N.E. point of the entrance into the harbour of Port Louis, which runs S.E. of it; it is to the N.W. of the town, and consequently to leeward. It was formerly insulated, but, previous to the British capture, joined by a causeway to Port Louis, termed *Chaussée Tromelin*. The river *Latanier* here enters the harbour in many streamlets.

Fort Blanc is at the opposite side of the harbour to *Fort Tonnelliers*; and the batteries on both sides command the entrance into the port. During the war, four of our frigates attempted to enter Port Louis to cut out some Indiamen captured by the French vessels; they ran aground and were most dreadfully peppered from the cross fire of the batteries; one of their commanders (Captain Willoughby) would not allow his colours to be hauled down, and when his crew were all *hors de combat*, the British vessel was boarded by the French, and Willoughby was found sitting on the capstan, his arm dangling in its socket, his eye hanging on his cheek, while

the heroic sailor was singing "*Rule Britannia!*" Even thus situated, Willoughby fought until the French overpowered him. Flacq (a military post) is situate on the N.E. coast, in an open, well-cultivated plain, the country rising gradually towards the interior, bounded by a chain of mountains, from six to eight miles distant, and watered by *la Poste* river.

Port South-East has two entrances, but on account of the difficulty of getting out of the harbour, it is not so practicable a haven as Port Louis; it is principally used by the coasting vessels. About five miles to the northward of Grand Port is situated the lofty mountain called *le Lion Couché*. The *Bamboo* mountain, which is the principal height around the port, is 966 yards above the sea.

There are several lakes in the Mauritius: the principal lake is that called the *Great Basin*, situated on the most elevated plain in the island, and surrounded by woody mountains, which attract the clouds and feed the streams running from it; it is of considerable depth, some say unfathomable.

The caverns in Mauritius are extremely curious, and appear like vast quarries of stone, originally resting upon earth, which has now abandoned them, having the semblance of vaults formed by human labour, and all situated on gentle declivities. I entered one on the *Plaines Wilhems*, accompanied by guides with torches; but after traversing a considerable distance, the latter refused to accompany me further, alleging that it communicated beneath the

ocean with the island of Bourbon ; although several miles distant from the sea, the roar of the ocean was as distinct as if the waves rolled over our heads.

GEOLGY.—The appearance of the island and the nature of its material would indicate it to be of volcanic origin. The rocks are disposed in strata, which, rising from the sea-shore, form in the centre of the island an elevated plain, upon whose declivity are several rocky mountains. These may be regarded as the remains of an immense volcano, which having exhausted itself, fell in, either by the effect of a violent eruption or by an earthquake, leaving its firmly-supported sides standing. These mountains are composed of iron-stone and a species of lava of a grey colour, the soil produced from the decomposition thereof forming an earthy substance consisting chiefly of argyl and an oxyde of iron.

The tops of the mountains are in general indented with points like the comb of a cock ; the few which have flat summits present the appearance of a pavement, no signs of a funnel being seen in any part.

A bank of coral surrounds the island for the distance of a quarter of a league from the shore, and the several islets that appear on the coast have all a coral formation at the base. Where the shore is steep, rocks prevail, as at the Quoin de Mer, &c. Wells have been sunk 40 to 50 feet near Port Louis, where nothing but a bed of flints was found, and a kind of clay, which contained talc and lenticular stones ; although excavated to the level of the sea, no coral was arrived at, nor any coral or shells dis-

covered in the elevated parts of the island, though so plentiful on the sea-shore, a proof that the ocean has not covered the land, or, in other words, that it is not of diluvian origin: no trace of a volcanic crater, however, exists.* A mineral spring near Port Louis is much resorted to by invalids.

The soil of Mauritius is in many parts exceedingly rich; in some places it is a black vegetable mould, in others a bed of solid clay or quaking earth, into which a stake of 10 feet in length may be thrust without meeting any resistance.

The surface of the plain at Fort Louis is of coralline or calcareous rock, with a slight covering of vegetable soil; at St. Denis the soil is reddish, and lightly spread over a stratum of stone; at the Field of Mars it is a bed of rich clay, mixed with flints; but most generally the earth is of a reddish colour, mixed with ferruginous matter,† which often appears on the surface in small orbicular masses; in the dry seasons it becomes extremely solid, and resembles potters' earth from its hardness; after rain it becomes viscid and tenacious, yet it requires no great labour in cultivation. Many of the plains and valleys are strewn with huge blocks of stone, but there is no real sand in the island.

THE CLIMATE is on the whole very salubrious; ‡

* There is one at Bourbon which not unfrequently sends forth flames.

† It is this sort of soil which is found so well adapted for the growth of the sugar-cane in the West India Islands.—See Jamaica, Montserrat, St. Kitt's, &c.

‡ There are no marshes or swamps on the island; at Port

there are four seasons at Mauritius ; the first begins in May, accompanied by S.E. winds, when squalls and rains occur ; the second, with September or October, when the S.E. changes to the N.W. ; the sun now approaches the zenith, warms the atmosphere, causing the rains and winds which begin in December, when the third season commences ; this is terminated in March, when the fourth or dry season begins, lasting only about eight weeks. These are the seasons as regard the cultivator, but they may be generally divided into two, when the winds blow from the S.E. to S., and from the N.E. to N., forming a kind of monsoon. The S. E. winds, although they never exceed a certain degree of force, are always more or less strong and violent ; and though they give a certain freshness to the air, yet, while they blow, every thing ceases to vegetate. The winds from the S. prevail in winter, and are cold ; E. winds are unfrequent, and generally accompanied by abundant rain. The N.W. and W. winds are hot, often weak, interrupted by calms, violent storms, and great rains. " Violent commotions in the atmosphere " (says Dr. Burke, the late Inspector of Hospitals, to whose able report to the Army Medical Department, as urbanely shewn me by Sir

Louis, and some of the other parts of the coast, there are marshy flats occasionally overflowed by the tide : it may have been from these, aided by the peculiar state of the atmosphere, that the epidemic cholera raged in 1819 ; the supposition of its being introduced by a ship from India is quite untenable when tested by argument.

J. M'Grigor, I am indebted for many observations) "have from long experience been generally observed *synchronous* with the *changes of the moon.*"

The following meteorological table will shew the state of the climate at Port Louis, probably the hottest part of the island.

MAURITIUS, PORT LOUIS, 1831.

	Ther.		Bar.	Prevailing Winds.	WEATHER.		
	Maximum.	Minimum.			Days of Rain.	Rain:	
						Inch.	Dec.
January....	87	77	30 29	S.E. & N.W.	7, 10, 11, 17, 18.	8 47	1
February....	87	79	30 29	..	7, 9, 12, 13, 15, 16.	10 19	..
March.....	85	78	30 29	N.W. & S.E.	Ditto.	10 4	3
April.....	85	76	29 29	S.E. & N.W.	Rain and tempests.	4 91	6
May.....	79	71	30 29	S.E. & N.W.	Ditto and cloudy.	.. 85	..
June.....	79	73	30 30	S.E.	Cloudy.	.. 57	..
July.....	75	71	30 30	..	Do. 18, 19, thunder.	.. 56	..
August.....	77	72	30 29	..	1, 2, 5, 6, 15, rain.	1 59	..
September..	79	70	30 29	S.E. & N.W.	2, 3, 6, 9, 20.	.. 86	..
October....	93	73	30 29	S.E. brisk.	None.	.. 86	..
November..	84	72	30 29	..	8, 9, 11, 22, 23, rain.	.. 40	..
December..	96	77	30 29	E. & S.E.	Showery.	1

At Black River Post the climate is in general warm and dry, as the rains do not often reach the shore, for the lofty mountains in the neighbourhood arrest and attract the clouds and rain. The months of September, October, and November are dry and moderately warm; the mean of the thermometer 79, and the prevailing winds S.E., N.N.E., and N.W. In December, January, February, and March (which form the wet season), the heat is greatest; mean, 86; winds, N.N.W., W., and S.W. April, May, June, and July, cool and refreshing; mean, 70; winds,

S. and S.E., in strong breezes. At the *Powder Mills* the mean heat throughout the year is at sunrise 70, afternoon 86, and sunset 72.

The mountains and eminences make up for the difference of latitude; and although within the tropics, the climate is that of a temperate region.

The S.E. winds prevail for nine or ten months of the year.

The range of weather round the coast is thus shewn; the average being deduced from the different military stations.

AVERAGE RANGE OF WEATHER ROUND THE
COAST—MAURITIUS.

MONTHS.	Thermom.		WEATHER.
	Highest.	Lowest.	
January . . .	86	74	Warm and rainy, storms, sometimes thunder.
February . .	86	74	Violent gales, occasional hurricanes and thunder.
March	85	74	W.S.E., rain less frequent, heat moderate.
April	88	73	Fine season, delicious temperature.
May	82	70	Winds westerly, dry, and air agreeably fresh.
June	80	70	S.E., constant, rain in drops.
July	79	64	Ditto strong breezes by day, calm by night.
August	80	71	Rain more or less daily, mountains cloud-capped.
September .	79	68	Ditto, ditto, principally harvest weather.
October . . .	80	65	Temperate, sometimes warm.
November .	83	71	Winds variable, heat increasing, storms.
December . .	86	73	Ditto, ditto, sun vertical, heat moderated by clouds and rain.

Many of the East-India Company's civil and military officers seek and find health at Mauritius; and I have myself invariably found the air, especially at Moka, exceedingly elastic, and giving a pleasing flow of spirits to the mind.

The hurricane months are January, February, and

March, but these tempests do not occur every year; their return is uncertain, and I do not think that of late years they have been so numerous or so severe as they were wont to be. At Tonnelliers battery a large 24-pounder was shewn me, which in a *coup de vent* was blown from the rampart, whirled about in the air like a feather, and then dropped several hundred feet from its original position. The inhabitants travelling on the roads cannot stand when the hurricane is blowing in its strength.

Owing to the purity of the atmosphere, the sky at Mauritius is of an intense blue; the mountains, instead of resting upon it, as they seem to do in Europe, stand out from it in bold relief, the eye looking beyond their irregular outline into unfathomable space. Connected, I suppose, with the atmospheric rarity, is the singular fact of an old man (I think M. Fillifay is his name) discerning ships at sea 300 or 400 miles distant. The time for observation is at morning dawn, when the observer proceeds to a gentle eminence, and looks in the sky (not on the horizon), where he beholds (*with the naked eye*), inverted, the object within his peculiar vision, which is of course extended or contracted according to the rarity of the atmosphere. The truth of M. Fillifay's far-seeing has been verified by several striking instances of correctness, *viz.* when the British squadron was assembling at Rodrigue (300 miles to the eastward of Mauritius) in 1810 to attack the island; M. Fillifay stated so to the French governor, and was, it is said, imprisoned

for raising false alarms; at another time he discerned what he said were *two vessels* joined together, or if there were such a thing, a *four-masted ship*; in a few days an American *four-masted schooner* came into Port Louis: he saw an Indiaman dismasted when nearly 400 miles from the island, and afterwards announced her to be erecting jury-masts and steering for the island, which proved to be the case. Numerous similar instances might be related of this unaccountable circumstance, which the old man says he can teach, and which, when I was last at the island, a *lady* was said to be learning. He proceeded to Bourbon, and I think to Europe, but in neither was able to exercise his faculty. I went on shore frequently with my brother officers at noon, when M. Fillifay, in his ancient dress (somewhat like our Greenwich pensioners), rode on his stout mule down to the wharf to inform the port officer what vessels were in (*his*) sight. When asked, his answer would probably be, "a ship N.E. 200 miles—nearly becalmed—a schooner W. will make the land to-morrow—two brigs standing to the southward, &c., &c.;" his "report," which was invariably accurate, was written down at the captain of the port's office, M. Fillifay being a *pensionnaire* on the Treasury.

CHAPTER III.

POPULATION—TERRITORIAL DIVISION—STOCK AND
PRODUCE, &c.

THE first settlers at Mauritius and Bourbon were European pirates, who obtained wives from Madagascar. Their strength in 1657, in the Eastern seas, may be estimated from the following occurrence, which took place at Bourbon, on which isle the French East-India Company had also an establishment. The Portuguese Viceroy of Goa came one day to anchor in the roads of St. Denis, and proceeded on shore to dine with the governor; he had scarcely landed before a pirate ship of 50 guns came into the roads and captured his vessel; the pirate commander then went on shore, demanded to dine with the governor and viceroy, and seated himself at table between these gentlemen, declaring the latter to be his prisoner. Wine and rich cheer put the seaman in good humour; M. Desforges, the governor, asked the pirate what he rated the viceroy's ransom at? "A thousand piastres" was the reply. "That," said M. Desforges, "is too little for a brave fellow like you to receive from a great lord—ask enough, or ask nothing." "Well, well, I ask nothing," said the Corsair, "let him, as your guest, go free;"

which the viceroy instantly did, and the Court of Portugal recompensed the French governor.

After the colonization of Mauritius by the French, a great number of adventurers flocked to the island from Europe and other places, and slaves were introduced from Madagascar and Mozambique, but at what precise period we have no records. It would seem that the island was more populous during the period prior to the French revolution than subsequent to that event, as it is on record that, in 1792, 20,000 persons perished of small-pox in the Mauritius. In 1799 the population was stated, by Baron Grant, at—slaves, 55,000; whites and mulattoes, 10,000—total, 65,000; and the armed force, national guard, blacks and mulattoes, 2,000; blacks and mulattoes to serve as chasseurs, and the artillery, 3,000—total, 5,000.

The comparative increase of the three classes of inhabitants from 1767 to 1832 is thus shewn :

Years.	Whites.	Coloured.		Total.
		Free.	Slaves.	
1767	3163	587	15027	18777
1777	3434	1173	25154	29761
1787	4372	2235	33832	40439
1797	6237	3703	49080	59020
1807	6489	5919	65367	77768
1817	7375	10979	79493	97847
1827	8111	15444	69076*	92631
1832	..	26560 †	63056	89616

* The number of slaves in the island, in 1830, was stated by the returns to Parliament, to be—males, 41,454; females, 26,293—total, 67,743. In 1836 the *apprentice* population was—males, 33,189; females, 20,602—total, 53,791.

† No distinction of colour.

A complete census of the whole island, distinguishing the inhabitants according to the *quartiers*, or cantons, for 1827 and 1832, is as follows:—

POPULATION FOR 1827 AND 1832, OF MAURITIUS.

	White.		Free.		Slaves.		Total.	
	Men and Boys.	Women and Girls.	Men and Boys.	Women and Girls.	Men and Boys.	Women and Girls.	Men and Boys.	Women and Girls.
Port Louis	1929	1458	3347	4164	9421	6296	14697	11918
Pamplemousses.....	509	500	598	715	6348	3746	7455	4961
Rivière du Rempart	304	245	705	752	5121	3035	6130	4032
Flacq	534	487	717	759	5868	3529	7119	4775
Grand Port	476	392	674	716	4237	2536	5387	3644
Savanne	123	92	209	207	2361	1660	2693	1959
Rivière Noire	174	150	272	293	3395	2002	3841	2445
Plaines Wilhems	228	185	367	474	4083	2594	4678	3253
Moka	171	154	216	259	1787	1057	2174	1470
Total.....	4448	3663	7105	8339	42621	26455	54174	38457
For 1832....	12489	males.	14071	females.	38124	24932	50513	39003

This statement does not comprise troops, convicts, nor apprentices; the latter, to the amount of 1,486 men and boys, and 539 women and girls.

Classification of inhabitants in Port Louis:—Agents, 10; architects, 3; armourers, 3; surveyors, 5; actors and actresses, 30; inn-keepers and confectioners, 7; advocates, 8; proctors, 12; *batelage*, 2; butchers, 4; bakers, 10; saddler, 1; embroiderers, 2; caulkers, 2; wood-sellers, 8; hatters, 3; sausage-makers, 3; carpenters, 10; wheelwrights, 5; brazier, 1; coachmakers, 2; barbers, 3.

In 1836 the population of the island was—males, 49,115; females 35,085; aliens and resident strangers, 5,007—total, 89,207. The population is now about 100,000.

It will be seen from the foregoing what a large portion of the inhabitants of the island are concentrated at Port Louis. A considerable immigration of a class of Hindoos, termed "Hill Coolies," has recently taken place from India. The quantity of live stock, the extent of cultivation, and the division of sugar culture, in the different quarters, will be seen from the following returns, which I regret not having for a later year than 1827, since which the culture of sugar has been so materially extended.

LIVE STOCK OF THE MAURITIUS, 1827 AND 1832.

	Horses and Mares.	Mules	Asses.	Bulls and Cows.	Goats and Sheep.	Pigs.
Port Louis	322	27	86	1311	129	1679
Pamplemouses	70	247	225	3759	236	1761
Rivière du Rempart..	53	435	143	2227	232	1508
Flacq	62	66	241	3514	237	1765
Grand Port	87	130	187	2324	225	1540
Savanne	38	44	65	1001	96	776
Rivière Noire	37	7	129	4036	308	1393
Plaines Wilhems	44	88	107	2013	167	1083
Moka	50	11	58	1728	167	411
Total	763	1055	1285	21913	1797	11916
Do. for 1832 ..	748	2615		21309	1938	—

The returns here given demonstrate that the Mauritius has made but little progress during the present century: rational political freedom is, in fact, essentially necessary to the progress of civilization: the emancipation from slavery, the introduction of steam-engines, freedom of the press, and a representative assembly (if conceded) will do much for the Mauritius.

STATE OF CULTURE, 1817 AND 1831.

	Acres of Wood.	Acres of Grazing Land.	Acres of Grain.	Acres of Manioc.	Acres of Sugar Cane.	Acres of Cotton.	Acres of Indigo.	Acres of Cloves.	Acres of Coffee.	Varieties.	TOTAL.
Port Louis	50	3500	—	—	—	—	—	287½	—	30	3580
Pamplemousses.....	10950½	18247½	2314½	4194½	4586	—	—	—	26	2385½	42941½
Rivière du Rempert	6554½	5084½	1832½	3333	7054	25	—	85	7½	1785½	25761½
Flacq	14730	16333½	2140	3228½	6894½	—	—	341	105	1280½	45052½
Grand Port	20656½	13379½	3712	1754	2883	5	82	83	299	2008½	44856½
Savanne	20408	8837½	1620	1228	3156	—	—	335	479	1903	37966½
Rivière Noire	12692½	22262	1563½	1631½	870	736	—	67	52	874	40748½
Plaines Wilhems ...	15424	7649	1179	1127	4420	—	—	110	187	2759½	34855½
Moka	19687	10128	518½	180½	398	—	—	—	3	1031½	31946½
Total	121148½	107421	14879½	16676½	30261½	766	82	1258½	1158½	14057½	307709½
Do. for 1831	103246	89780	6191	10917	52253	mil.	mil.	519	477	477	75727
Do. for 1836	—	75026	—	5153	58283	—	—	—	434	—	—

The progressive increase of cultivation and stock in the colony is thus shewn :—

Years.	Acres of Wood.	Acres of Grazing Land.	Acres of Grain.	Acres of Manioc.	Acres of Cane.	Acres of Cotton.	Acres of Indigo.	Acres of Cloves.	Acres of Coffee.	Decrease Culture.	TOTAL.
1806	108418	45617	20564	—	10221	9185	2474	744	2161	25444	224828
1808	125041	55715	26451	—	10908	7298	1656	272	2188	31044	260573
1810	120805	56141	24233	—	9116	6037	2024	204	2673	29961	251202
1814	125543	67917	24229	—	9850	5577	388	588	2448	33879	270419
1817	125520 $\frac{1}{2}$	68209	24318 $\frac{3}{4}$	—	11688	5631	388	1194 $\frac{1}{2}$	2449	33397 $\frac{1}{2}$	272804 $\frac{1}{2}$
1825	108236 $\frac{3}{4}$	93220 $\frac{1}{2}$	13773 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	27639	1061	255	1507	1239 $\frac{3}{4}$	31078 $\frac{1}{2}$	278010 $\frac{3}{4}$
1827	121148 $\frac{1}{2}$	107421	14879 $\frac{1}{2}$	16676 $\frac{3}{4}$	30261 $\frac{1}{2}$	766	82	1258 $\frac{1}{2}$	1158 $\frac{1}{2}$	14057 $\frac{3}{4}$	307709 $\frac{1}{2}$
1831	103246	89780	6191	10917	52253	—	—	519	477	—	75727
1836	—	37544	1807	—	58283	—	—	—	434	—	—

Years.	Horses.	Mules and Asses.	Bulls and Cows.	Goats and Sheep.	Pigs.
1788 ...	182	730	9671	2910	11166
1806 ...	388	8692	6828	4153	—
1810 ...	445	1667	11167	3958	—
1814 ...	531	1228	14189	4506	—
1817 ...	803	2692	18974	13025	43548
1827 ...	763	2290	21913	1797	11916
1832 ...	748	2615	24309	1938	—
1836 ...	710	—	—	—	—

STATE OF SUGAR MANUFACTORIES FOR 1832.

	Sugaries by Water.	Sugaries by Horses.	Sugaries by Steam.	TOTAL.	Distilleries.	Alembicks employed.
Pamplemoues ...	12	5	14	31	2	18
Rivière du Rempart	9	3	23	35	12	13
Flacq	20	1	17	38	—	27
Grand Port	8	—	5	13	2	10
Savanne	15	—	1	16	2	17
Rivière Noire	6	—	1	7	1	5
Plaines Wilhems...	14	2	8	24	—	19
Moka	3	—	—	3	3	3
Total	87	11	69	167	22	112
Do. for 1836	64	10	112	168	69	—

Since these returns were made, every available spot in the island is employed for the growth of the sugar, and nearly all the food required is imported from other places.

ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—Neither of these departments requires detail in the present work; as regards the former, the first settlers found scarcely

any quadruped but rats, who eat the Dutch "out of house and home;" and as regards the latter, it may be sufficient to state that, under the French and English governments, the richest and rarest plants of the East have been naturalized in the island, whither also most of the plants, trees, and vegetables of Europe have been conveyed; the Botanical Garden at Pamplermouses is as remarkable for its varied productions as its great beauty. Throughout the island there are many gardens of extent, and furnished with every thing that can conduce to utility and ornament; those belonging to the governor's country-house, at Redit, and to the late talented and hospitable Mr. Telfair, near Moka, may be cited as instances of great taste and skill.

The majority of the white and a large proportion of the free coloured inhabitants of Mauritius are French, or of French descent, and distinguished for a high spirit, no ordinary talent, and much energy and industry in commercial and agricultural pursuits. The ladies, before attaining a middle age, are in general possessed of considerable beauty, their hair of a silky black, and their figures slight, but well proportioned; in manners evincing great amenity, and, where education has not been neglected, a keen and polished wit, combined with a good judgment and excellent musical taste.* The creoles are an active, honest, and lively race, and, as in all our

* Music is much cultivated at Mauritius by both sexes: a stranger, on entering the orchestra of the theatre when filled by amateurs, might fancy himself in Paris.

colonies, fond of dress, which passion does not, however, make them indolent; on the contrary, it is a stimulus to industry, in order that they may gratify their favourite propensity, and few who have it in their power thus to indulge will be found committing crime, or acting dishonestly, as self-respect is not unfrequently the parent of a desire for personal adornment. There are a variety of Eastern nations in the colony, viz. Chinese, Arabs, Cingalese,* Hindoos, &c. The English are few in number, and principally merchants or government employés.

The slaves are of two races; the one from Mozambique and the E. coast of Africa, and the other from Madagascar, where the Lowlanders of the W. coast were wont to be sold into bondage: in personal appearance they are both of great strength, frequently of a bold, sometimes ferocious, and often vindictive appearance; but when well treated they are faithful and industrious. They are passionately attached to their native land, to regain which they will brave the greatest dangers, and court even death itself—in the hope that when life is departed the spirit returns to its natal shore.

Many instances have occurred of the slaves in Mauritius seizing on a canoe or boat at night-time, and with a calabash of water and a few manioc, or cassada roots, pushing out to sea and endeavouring

* The Kandyan chiefs, who were supposed dangerous to the tranquillity of the island, were sent to Mauritius, and Hindoo convicts are transported thither for life, and worked as felons on the roads of the colony.

to reach across to Madagascar or Africa, through the pathless and stormy ocean; of course they generally perish, but some succeed. We picked up a frail canoe, made out of a single tree, in H. M. S. *Barracouta*, near the equator, and within about 100 miles of the coast of Africa; it contained five runaway slaves, one dying in the bottom of the canoe, and the other four nearly exhausted. They had fled from a harsh French master at the Seychelles, committed themselves to the deep without compass or guide, with a small quantity of water and rice, and trusting to their fishing lines for support. Steering by the stars, they had nearly reached the coast from which they had been kidnapped, when nature sank exhausted, and we were just in time to save four of their lives: so long as the wanderers in search of home were able to do so, the days were numbered by notches on the side of the canoe, and 21 were thus marked when met with by our vessel.

The *sang-froid* with which the slave meets death, when inspired with the hope of returning to his country, is illustrated by an instance which occurred when I was last at Mauritius. In the hope of being executed,* a Malagash slave committed arson, and

* This may appear singular, but a curious illustration took place with a friend at Mauritius, one of whose slaves was afflicted with Nostalgia, and broke the mirrors and destroyed the furniture, in the hope that his master, on returning home, would run him through with his sword. Our soldiers and sailors, on foreign service, are subject to Nostalgia; I have known them to mutilate themselves and seriously endanger their lives with

was sentenced to be beheaded. I went with my brother-officers to visit him in prison; we found him exulting in the near approach of the termination of his earthly career. He walked after his coffin a mile, to the place of punishment; there a platform was erected with a slope to ascend—upon the platform was placed a broad plank on an inclined plane, about the length of the intended sufferer;—and on either side stood an executioner in a mask, dressed in blood-red clothing, with a huge axe in his hand. The Malagash stood on the verdant earth, cast his eyes around, nodded joyfully to his comrades among the assembled multitude, pointed to that part of the heavens where his country was situate, then, with an enthusiastic expression, knelt for a moment on the grassy sod, stretched out his hands in mental prayer to the bright noonday sun, hastily arose, ran with alacrity up the platform, and stretched his body on the inclined plank: one of the executioners quickly buckled two broad straps over the prostrate being,

a view to get invalided, particularly Irishmen and Highlanders; indeed I have heard many Irish soldiers declare, they cared not if they were to be hung the moment they put foot on Erin's green isle, so that their bones were laid in their own country. This feeling is so strong in Madagascar that, when King Radama marched an army of 50,000 men into the Lowlands, every five soldiers bound themselves by a vow that the survivors should carry back the bones of those who died or were slain in battle. Radama's army perished mostly of sickness, in the swampy plains, and 10,000 wearied, discomfited, but faithful soldiers, returned to their disconsolate homes laden with the fleshless bones of their comrades!

the other raised his arm, and within less than *a quarter of a minute* from the time that this brave man knelt on the beautiful earth in prayer to the glorious symbol of the Almighty, his bleeding and still animate head rolled from the scaffold, and his free spirit ascended where slavery has no control over our race. Who that possesses a Christian soul but must rejoice that a system productive of such results has ceased for ever in the British empire ?

CHAPTER IV.

GOVERNMENT.—LAWS.—COURTS.—MILITARY DEFENCE.—
REVENUE AND EXPENSE.—MONETARY SYSTEM, &c.

SINCE the British acquisition of Mauritius there has been no Colonial Assembly in the island; this the majority of the colonists strongly complain of; for they contend it was stipulated by the capitulation that the inhabitants were to preserve their laws and institutions. The affairs of the island are now managed by a Governor, as in the Cape of Good Hope, aided by a Legislative Council. I trust the day is not far distant when a Colonial Assembly, chosen by the property and intelligence of the inhabitants, will give a renewed and permanent stimulus to the prosperity of the settlement.

LAWS AND COURTS.—Before it was occupied by Great Britain, Mauritius was governed by four out of the five codes of law which had been promulgated by Napoleon; these were administered by courts established in the island before the time of the French Republic. The formation of the several courts and their powers have been modified from time to time by the authority of the Governor, and finally settled by the Mauritius Charter of Justice,

dated St. James's, 13th April, 1831, which establishes a Supreme Court of Civil and Criminal Justice, presided over by three Judges. There is also a petit court for the adjudication of civil causes of small amount, and for the trial of petty offences:—from this court there is no appeal. The Governor has authority to establish minor courts in any of the dependencies of Mauritius, and to extend or limit their powers.

The French law of divorce has been adopted in Mauritius;* mortgages are required to be registered every ten years by article 2,145 of the Code Napoleon.

A *Council of the Commune* was established by Governor Farquhar, in 1817, composed of fifteen notable inhabitants of Port Louis, and three proprietary inhabitants from each quarter of the island; the qualifications were—30 years of age unless born in the colony (if so, over 27)—to have resided ten years in the colony;—an annual income of 3,000 piasters in Port Louis, or 5,000 in the country; to be nominated by the Governor from lists containing three times the number of persons so to be nominated, and to continue in office five years. The Council to elect a president, vice, and secretary, to discuss, with the aid of six other members, questions

* Divorces are frequent, although the marriage rites are performed with great ceremony, during which, bets are often made as to how long the nuptial tie will remain unbroken. I was at one table in the island where two divorced wives were guests of the third consort of their former spouse, and there was much harmony and glee at the entertainment.

of commerce, roads, education, and internal affairs, as transmitted by the Governor. This Council was suppressed by order of Lord Bathurst, in January, 1821, and there is not now, I believe, any municipal body to regulate the affairs of the active and wealthy inhabitants of Port Louis.

MILITARY DEFENCE.—Port Louis is well defended on the sea side by the batteries on Tonneliers Island and on Fort Blanc, but it is accessible on the land side, and was found to be indefensible when our troops approached it in 1810. There are several strong posts throughout the island, garrisoned by detachments from two regiments of infantry, and a strong section of artillery and engineers. There has been no national guard in the island since our occupation of it, but on the occasion of the procedures respecting Mr. Jeremie, it was found that most of the respectable inhabitants were armed. At present there exist feelings of mutual distrust betwixt the British and French. I wish that measures were adopted on either part to remove the sense of injustice, and to allay fears which are the sure result of oppression.

FINANCES.—A large sum has been raised in this colony as revenue since our occupation, and a still larger sum expended; the revenue for fourteen years being £2,165,474, and the expenditure £3,191,680. In 1836, the gross revenue was £237,719.

A systematic economy is now in progress, and, aided by the large revenue of the colony, the island is totally independent of any parliamentary aid from

Great Britain, the pay of the troops being the only item furnished by the mother-country ; even this the colonists have offered to diminish, if allowed a legislative assembly. M. D'Epinay, one of the most talented of the Mauritians, informed me that he was instructed by his brother colonists (whose deputed agent he was to England) to offer to Lord Goderich to furnish yearly supplies, and pay for one regiment of infantry and one ship of war, if a legislative assembly were granted to the island. The colony already incurs a charge for garrisons and military allowances of about £23,000 annually. Of the revenue, which in the gross receipts averages £132,000 per annum, a large sum is raised from custom duties at Port Louis, as thus shewn for the three years under mentioned :—

Duties received at Port Louis.

	1832.	1833.	1834.
Duties . . .	£84,085	62,754	53,228
Salaries . . .	5,472	5,292	3,924
Incidents . .	19,890*	466	559

The importation taxes are, 6 per cent. on the estimated value of the goods in English ships ; on foreign vessels, 15 to 30 per cent. ; 40 per cent. on tobacco, and 2s. per gallon on spirits. Wheat, rice, cattle, and bullion are free on English ships. The exportation taxes are, on English ships—sugar, 1s. 2½*d.* per 100 lbs., on a foreign do., 2s. 2*d.* per do. ; cotton,

* Purchase of Custom-house ground and building, 18,039*l.*, and alterations and repairs, 977*l.* ; thus accounting for the large sum in 1832.

7s. on former, 7s. 10d. on latter, per do.; coffee 4s., and 6s. 5d. do. do.: other articles in proportion. Entrepôt taxes, 1 per cent. English, 1½ per cent. on foreign.

Direct Taxes.—Upon all goods (*les immeubles*) in Port Louis there is an annual tax of 1s. 3d. per cent. on the estimated value. Every thing sold in the bazaar, whether it be fish, flesh, fowl, vegetables, or hucksteries, is taxed, as are also the shopkeepers who sell them, according to the stall.

Indirect.—Two per cent. registering acts of sale; one do. for transcribing do., and proportional taxes on every business act. Stamped paper, from 3d. to 2s. 8d. and upwards. Licenses, for instance, on an inn and coffee-house in Port Louis, 10l. per month, and in the country, 7l. do. On a pedlar, 1l. per do. On carriages, gigs, and carts, from 1l. 12s. to 2l. per annum. Boats, canteens, distilleries, printing-offices, are farmed out by auction. On grants of land, 1l. to 6l., in proportion. The right to fish in the sea with a *seine* is 1l. a year, and with a line, 12s.; nay, even according to the size of the seine the tax is raised.

The police taxes are numerous and heavy; for instance, a *certificate of life* costs 4s., and of *enregistrement*, 12s., and for every hundred words of the certificate above the first, 1s. 7d. A visit on board an English ship, 6s., a foreign, 12s. The police of Mauritius would rival in espionage the most favourite corps of Fouché; they are everywhere, know every thing, and charge for all they do.

The anchorage and pilotage dues are heavy, and also the cost of boats for loading or discharging ships, which *must be employed*.* There are also numerous taxes on landing every article of merchandise or private property, which, though trifling individually, are vexatious and oppressive in the aggregate.

MONETARY SYSTEM.—The former terms of piastres, cents, &c., are now being converted into English money; various coins are current, and often abundant in the island; their value in September, 1834, was as follows:—

MONEY TARIFF.	Pr.	Cts.	Dec.	£.	s.	d.
Rupee Sicca		52	1		2	1
Rupee, Madras or Bombay		47	11		1	11
Half-crown		62	6		2	6
Spanish or American Dollar	1	8	4		4	4
Ditto Sicily	1	2	1		4	1
1 Franc piece		20	10			10
2 Francs ditto		41	8		1	8
Shilling		25			1	
Sovereign	5	33	4	1	13	4
Gold mohur of Bengal . .	8	18	9	1	8	9
Gold mohur of Bombay . .	7			1		

I cannot ascertain the amount of circulating medium in the colony, nor the proportion of paper money in use.

A chartered bank was established at Port Louis in June, 1831, with a capital of 500,000 piastres, in

* A merchant vessel is not allowed to use her own boats to load or unload cargo, or even to water, at Mauritius!

1,000 shares of 500 each. Another bank has since been established.*

RELIGION, EDUCATION, AND THE PRESS.—Under these heads I have no statistical details to offer; under some despotic governments, much attention is paid to statistics, but in colonies where an absolute government prevails, nothing of the kind has heretofore been considered desirable; let me hope that, at no distant day, the deficiency will cease to exist. Of the French inhabitants, the majority are of the Romish faith, and scrupulously observant of the rites enjoined by their religion, which, as its forms are more imposing than the Lutheran, or Established Church, has had the effect of causing many slaves, or freemen who had once been such, to follow it. I witnessed at Port Louis the celebrated *Fête de Dieu*, in the course of which the most beautiful young girls in the island, clad in white robes, walked bare-headed in procession, strewing flowers before the "Host." The streets and cathedral were lined by soldiers, and the batteries fired salutes. I think it would be proper to issue a general order forbidding, in future, the martial array of British soldiers at any religious celebration, no matter what creed or communion it might be in honour of. There is a Roman Catholic prelate, styled Bishop of Ruspa, and a considerable number of priests, appointed by, I believe, the Pope. The congregation of the English church is small, and the Scotch have a place of worship, as have also some missionaries.

* For state of the bank in detail, see large edition.

Education is general among the white and free coloured population. There are several good private academies in the colony, but parents prefer sending their children, of both sexes, to be educated in Europe. The College Royal, at Port Louis, is an excellent establishment, well provided with professors, &c.

The Press, under an absolute government, can present few details of interest. The first newspaper was established in the colony in 1773; it has still, I believe, but one newspaper, and its appearance is as if a printing press were the introduction of yesterday.

CHAPTER V.

RODRIGUE, SEYCHELLES, &c.

THE island of *Rodrigue*, the *Seychelles Islands*, *Diego Garcia*, &c., belong to Mauritius, and an agent from the colony is placed on the vast and important island of Madagascar. Rodrigue is situate about 300 miles to the eastward of Mauritius, in 19. 13. S. lat., about 26 miles long by 12 broad. I passed close to it in 1823, but did not land on account of the heavy surf which breaks along the shore. It is mountainous, or, more properly speaking, a succession of hills, clothed with verdure; the valleys are full of rocks and stones, which cover the surface to a great extent, leaving, however, a large portion of fertile soil, which is cultivated by a few French colonists from Mauritius, with which a constant intercourse is kept up in transporting turtle from the former to the latter. There is abundance of fish around Rodrigue, but it is singular that those caught outside the reefs in deep water are poisonous, and several sailors have died from eating of them. One sort caught near the island resembles a whiting, and from its destructive qualities is named by the French, *mort au chien*. The existence of poisonous

fish has never been properly accounted for: we know of no birds or animals that are poisonous; even the most venomous snake, when decapitated, is good eating. Some think that the fact is owing to copper banks on which the fish feed; but it is remarkable that those caught on the same bank are at one time poisonous and at another edible. Some sorts are, however, poisonous at all times, and I have seen a dog die in a few minutes after eating one. Mariners ought to reject fish without scales, unless they know them to be good, and a silver spoon, if boiled with the fish, will turn black should it be noxious. The early French settlers narrate that they found eels of an exquisite flavour on the island, so large that *one* of them was a load for *two men* to carry. On the N. side of the island there is a bay affording excellent anchorage, a secure shelter for ships of all dimensions,* and abundance of wood and water. The air is delightful, the water clear, the vegetation luxuriant. In time of peace it is useful as a haven for shipwrecked mariners,† and in a period of war as a cruising station.

THE SEYCHELLES OR MAHE ISLANDS, situate to the northward of Madagascar, between the parallels of 4. and 5. S. lat., were partially explored by M.

* The squadron which was collected from India and the Cape, for the conquest of Mauritius, in 1810, rendezvoused here.

† A vessel from Bombay (the *Eldon*), laden with cotton, took fire at sea in October, 1834, and the crew, after being many days in an open boat, reaching Rodrigue when almost perishing, and from thence the Mauritius.

Lazarus Picault, in 1743, by order of Mahé de la Bourdonnais, the Governor of the Isle of France; but in all probability they were previously known to the Portuguese, as were the Amirantes, a low and comparatively insignificant group, 80 miles distant; if, however, the Portuguese saw them, it seems strange that they were not explored, as we should then have had an earlier account of the *coco de mer* peculiar to those islands.

The Seychelles capitulated to the English in 1794, after which their flag was considered neutral by the English and French, when belligerents: on the capture of Mauritius the islands were taken possession of as a dependency of that colony, and have since continued under the superintendence of an agent deputed from Mauritius, who is aided by 25 soldiers from one of the regiments in garrison at the latter place.

The following are the names of the principal islands, with the number of acres contained in each:—

Names.	Acres.	Names.	Acres.	Names.	Acres.
Mahé	30000	St. Anne	500	Felicity	800
Praslin	8000	Cerf	400	North Island	500
Silhouette	5700	Frigate	300	Denis	200
La Digue	2000	Mariane	250	Vache	200
Curieuse	1000	Conception	120	Aride	150
Total acres ..			50,120.		

There are upwards of 15 other islands of a smaller size, all resting on an extensive bank of sand and coral, which also surrounds them to a great extent.

Mahé, the seat of government at the Seychelles, and principal island in the group, is 16 miles long, and from three to five broad, with a very steep and rugged granite mountain running through the centre. The town of *Mahé* is situate on the north side, in a small glen, irregularly built, and containing some good houses; the principal persons being, however, in the environs. It is of course more densely peopled than the others; the total population, when I visited the group in 1825, was, whites, 582—free coloured, 323—and slaves, 6,058: total, 6,963. There is, however, a scattered population on many of the flat islands spread about those tranquil seas; sometimes on approaching one of these low verdant isles, the recent creation of the coral insect, we have been surprised by a boat pushing off from the shore, and a dark-coloured Frenchman, or Portuguese, coming on board the frigate and presenting us with eggs, milk, and fowls, at the same time informing us that the island we saw was his, and that his family would receive us hospitably if we would land. On several of the Seychelles and Amirante group we found no human inhabitants, but abundance of hogs and goats, as also papaws, cocoa-nuts, and other edible fruit; indeed, cruising about this beautiful archipelago is more like romance than reality; while the Italian beauty of the skies, the serenity of the atmosphere, and the purity of the breeze add a peculiar charm to the soft scenery around. The oldest resident at the Seychelles never witnessed there a gale of wind; but the sea-breeze

is constant, and tempers the heat so as to divest a nearly vertical sun of the ill effects of its fervid rays. I have spent whole days wandering from island to island among the Seychelles group, and revelling in their romantic scenery, with no other protection from a tropical sun than a broad-brimmed straw hat, yet without feeling the slightest bad effect, and with but little fatigue. The thermometer varies from 84. to 64., its mean being 70. to 72.; the healthiness of the station is indicated by the great age and large families of the inhabitants; indeed it is no uncommon sight to see *four generations* sitting down at the same table, and forming a numerous party.

Although the bank on which this archipelago is situate is of coral formation, yet all the Seychelles Islands, except two, are of granite, huge blocks of which, generally piled up as it were in a confused mass, form their peaks, which are covered with verdure. Lieutenant (now Captain) R. Owen, R.N., and myself, with a party of seamen, ascended North or Fearn Island after two hours and a half difficult climbing. Towards the summit, for many feet, there was nothing but huge blocks of granite, piled on each other, as a number of paving stones would be on an Irish *cearn*: several of these rocks were of the magnitude of a small-sized house, and so nicely poised, that one might be moved with the little finger.

The Seychelles possess many excellent harbours, and being never visited by tornadoes, the neighbour-

hood is frequented by whalers, who fill up their vessels rapidly with sperm oil. The inhabitants cultivate cotton of a superior quality, spices, coffee, tobacco, rice, maize, cocoa-nuts, &c., and carry on a lucrative trade, in the numerous small vessels which they possess, in articles suited to the Indian, Mauritius, and Bourbon markets.*

The vegetation around is extremely luxuriant; the most remarkable specimen is the *coco de mer*, so called because the nuts were found on the shores of Malabar, and on the coasts of the Maldivé Islands, many years before the place of their growth was ascertained, when each nut sold for 300*l.* or 400*l.*, from its supposed medicinal quality. The nut is confined in its growth to the Seychelles, and even there, to two islands—*Praslin* and *Curieuse*. It springs from a species of palm, 60 to 80 feet high, with full leaves; at their junction hangs the nut, one foot long, eight inches thick, with a light-coloured, tasteless jelly in each of the compartments; the seed-vessel is about two feet long and three inches diameter, studded with small yellow flowers, issuing from a regular projection, which resemble those of the pine-apple. The smell arising from the flower is by most Europeans considered intolerable, its offensiveness increasing the longer the flower is kept.

Various spices grow on Mahé, &c.; such as the cinnamon plant, cloves, nutmeg, and pepper, which were introduced by orders of *M. De Poivre*, the in-

* Some ships are afraid to fish on this bank, the whale being so violent when wounded.

telligent Governor of Mauritius, with a view to rival the Dutch in the Moluccas: the cultivation, if persevered in, would probably have rendered the Seychelles, at the present day, as valuable as the far-famed Spice Islands, but for a singular circumstance. The plantation at the Seychelles was tended with great care, as a national undertaking; but as the French were apprehensive that the islands might be attacked by a British squadron, orders were given by the Governor of Mauritius to surround the spice-garden with bundles of dried faggots and other combustible matter, and the moment a British vessel of war hove in sight, to set fire to the whole. A large vessel shortly after appeared off the island with English colours, the spice-trees were immediately burnt, and the ship of war came into Mahé harbour, with the *tricolour* flag, it being a French man-of-war that had used a *ruse*, to try whether the islands had a British force on them. The feelings of the French, when the valuable plantations were being consumed, may be readily imagined.

Mahé has a British resident from the Mauritius, with some subordinate officers, and there is a petty civil and criminal court, held for the trial of causes and offences: every thing, however, is after the French style, even the *gens d'armes* seem as if newly imported from Paris. A ludicrous circumstance occurred when I was at Mahé. The sailors of our squadron were allowed a day's revelry on shore, and, of course, some of them got drunk, and were lodged by the *gens d'armes* in a small wooden watchhouse,

situate on a slope. The jacks took a curious mode of liberating their comrades; they got a strong hawser, belayed it round the walls of the watchhouse, and nearly 200 hands heaved on the hawser, until they hove down the watchhouse and nearly killed their drunken comrades, who had, by this time, made a hole in the "deck" (roof), and got aloft, while the *gens d'armes* fled for their lives. The inhabitants are extremely hospitable; and I would strongly recommend our whalers visiting the Seychelles, instead of leaving the fishing to the Americans and French. The central position of the Seychelles for trade with the Eastern hemisphere is thus shewn:—*Mahé* to Madagascar, 576 miles; Comoros, 828; Mauritius, 928; Mombas, 930; Delagoa Bay, 1,800; Bombay, 1,680; Arabia, 1,230; Cape of Good Hope, 2,640. Had the settlement which Captain W. F. W. Owen so wisely formed at Mombas, on the E. coast of Africa, not have been given up (the Americans are now establishing themselves on this coast), we should have had a perfect chain of posts, if I may so term it, for the extension and protection of our commerce.

Diego Garcia is situate farther E., about 4° from the equator, and is one of those numerous coral islands with which these seas abound.* It contains

* The Coco Islands, in lat. 12.06. S., long. 97.04. E., are a circular chain of islands and keys lined by a coral reef, with a sounding from 12 to 20 fathoms, where a ship may anchor; there is an extensive harbour on the N. extremity, with but one entrance, three miles wide: straggling rocks and

plenty of turtle, and has a few residents from the Mauritius.

Before leaving this subject it may be well to advert to Madagascar, where the French have in vain sought to obtain a footing for the last 200 years, but have been repulsed with determined bravery by the Malagashes, whose frequent exclamation is, "*Trade with us mutually, on advantageous terms, and you are welcome to our shores, and shall enjoy our hospitality and our friendship; but claim an inch of our ground as lords of the soil, or a particle of authority over ourselves or our rights, and we will perish to a man, before we succumb!*"

The island of Madagascar extends between the parallels of 12.2. and 25.40. S. lat. (*i. e.* upwards of 800 miles in length) and the meridians of 43.41. and 50.30. E. long., separated from the eastern coast of Africa by the Mozambique channel, which is nearly 300 miles broad. Ptolemy was, probably, acquainted with the island. Marco Polo in the 13th century describes it by its present name, having received his knowledge from the Arabs; the Portuguese, who discovered it in 1506, gave it the name of St. Lawrence, and the French, in the reign of Henry IV., called it Isle Dauphin. The vastness of Madagascar may be judged of from its length: it has been estimated to contain *one hundred and fifty million* acres of land. I have visited many parts of the island, particularly the greater part of the S. and a reef project one mile and a half from W. side of entrance. The islands are now settled on by Capt. Ross, an American.

W. coasts, and found it generally beautiful, clothed with timber, and verdant with rich pastures. Along the E. coast a margin of low land extends from 10 to 30 miles from the shore, and along the W. coast from 50 to 100; the land then rises, forming extensive steppes or tables, running N. and S., diversified with hills of greater or less elevation (the highest about 6,000 feet above the sea), luxuriant valleys, passes, and ravines, craters of extinct volcanoes, immense forests, savannas, rivers and lakes; the latter affording some of the finest scenery in the island, while almost every part of the coast, especially the western shore, is indented with spacious harbours and bays, some of them 50 miles deep, with soundings in every part, and sheltered from all winds. I examined several craters on the W. coast, and they appeared to have been a long time in their present position; in shape that of an inverted cone, the sides coated with a thick crusting of sulphureous matter. The natives in the neighbourhood assured me that there were some "burning mountains inland."

The population is considered in number to be about five millions, and appear to be two distinct races; those on the sea-shore being of a dark colour, with bushy black hair, Herculean figures, noses rather flat, and the cranium partaking slightly of the negro formation. The inhabitants of the table land in the interior are of a copper or light colour, hair long and silky, and the head and face of a Roman cast. To this latter race belonged Radama, the late

intelligent king of the greater part of the island, and whose efforts for the suppression of the slave trade, and the introduction into Madagascar of the civilizing arts, earned for him the praise of every good man. The superiority of the light over the dark coloured Malagashes was strikingly evinced, when a certain number of youths, of both colours, were placed on board the British vessels of war on the Cape station, in order to form a set of seamen for Radama, as we had already aided him, through the instrumentality of Mr. Hastie, in forming a powerful army. Six light and six dark coloured youths were shipped on board the *Ariadne*; one of each colour was placed under the care of the carpenter, another pair under the armourer, and a third under the sail maker; the *light-coloured* race learned their respective trades as aptly, if not more so, than English youths would have done; the *dark-coloured* were slow but persevering, and, as sailors, never exhibited that activity aloft which their fairer countrymen did; though the latter were an inland people, and the former belonging to the sea-shore. The superiority of the Caucasian or Arab* race, now

* The Arabs have from time immemorial traded with Madagascar, and as the Malagashes have many customs appertaining to the faith of Islamism (although it is not a little singular that they also perform several Jewish rites), it might be inferred that the light-coloured race were descendants from the Arabs; but if such were the case, they would form the sea-coast tribes, not, as at present, an inland and mountainous people.

described, will account for the fact that Radama had nearly subdued, before his death, the numerous petty sovereignties into which the island is divided, and although his death has, for the present, checked this procedure, there can be little doubt that at no distant day the whole of Madagascar will form a consolidated and powerful empire; the establishment of which will be aided by the striking circumstance that the language is radically the same throughout the island, peculiarly soft, flexible, and copious, and with few varieties of dialect. It is more nasal on the coast than the interior, and appears to have more affinity with the Malay than with that of any other oriental nation. Oratory is much cultivated, and in their *kabars* or public assemblies, the speeches sometimes exhibit an impressive and impassioned eloquence.

The Malagash are clothed,—the men in flowing robes of cotton cloth, principally of native manufacture, frequently of plaid pattern, and worn like the Roman toga; the women wear a short jacket, with long sleeves, and folding robes round the waist and limbs. They possess abundance of cattle (I have seen herds of several thousands together and perfectly wild), and almost every variety of timber; they work iron, tin, copper, gold, and silver (of the two latter they make chains of great length, and of neat, often elegant workmanship), and they manufacture to a considerable extent silk, cotton, and hemp, some of their cloths being dyed with hues of the brightest colours. The coin in general circulation

is the Spanish dollar, cut into pieces; the Horas, or olive-coloured people, divide the dollar into 760 parts. When I was at Bembatok Bay, there were several large American ships there, purchasing bullocks at a dollar each, or for musketry, gunpowder, &c. The bullocks were killed on the shore, the fat melted and casked, the hides salted, and the flesh cut into large stripes, dried in the sun, and packed in bulk for conveyance to the Havannah. The Americans begged us not to tell any of their countrymen that we saw them thus engaged; they acknowledged that they had carried on this profitable trade from Salem for several years, and no person but their owners knew its source. They also obtained tortoiseshell, sandal wood, &c. Provisions are extremely abundant at St. Augustine's Bay; our squadron laid in a large stock of sheep, fowls (the capons are as large as an English turkey), eggs, yams, sweet potatoes, pumpkins, oranges, honey, &c. &c. at a trifling expense; half a dozen sheep being given for the brass rim of an old cabin lamp; and other articles in proportion. The mariner should not, however, trust himself here too much on shore; I went inland to one of the villages with a brother-officer, and the Malagash would have massacred us for the sake of our pistols and dirks, but that the women, perceiving their intention, formed themselves in a circle round us, and in this manner, singing their national songs, danced us down to the boats, in which they embarked, and only left us when we were

safe on board. A fine field of commerce is opening on the island for British enterprise, if conducted with honesty and good faith. The Malagash have, in general, a great aversion to the French, who have several times attempted by force or fraud to form settlements on their island, and have often enticed the Malagash on board to trade (they being very fond of commerce), set their canoes adrift, and then carried their victims into slavery. An instance of this kind occurred in 1825: a French vessel hovered off the coast, seized on the fishermen and others, and set sail for Bourbon; the Malagash, a few days after, saw His Majesty's vessels *Barracouta* and *Albatros* anchor off the shore, and commence sending their boats in different directions (we were surveying the coast); they supposed us to be French, and resolved on vengeance. Two officers with a cutter's crew were sent to a neighbouring bank, or rather a small island, to fix their observations, and while the seamen were walking round the island, a few Malagash rushed from behind some bushes and killed, with their spears, the two officers, Messrs. Bowey and Parsons; they then went in search of the seamen, but the latter fortunately got off, and returned on board the *Barracouta* with the dead bodies. I may here mention that among many other escapes which I have had, this was one; I had got into the cutter in the morning and was pushing off with my brother-officers (whose mangled remains I assisted to inter before sunset), when my presence was required on

board, to examine the body of a seaman who had just died of a liver complaint, by which means my life was providentially saved.

This domestic but high-spirited people admitted British missionaries among them, who established schools and a college at the capital of the island, (Tannarivo), set up a printing press, and introduced several English artizans, such as carpenters, joiners, builders, blacksmiths, weavers, dyers, tanners, shoemakers, &c. I trust, therefore, that public attention will be directed to this splendid island, not only for the sake of our own commerce, but also for the promoting the civilization of its numerous, industrious, and interesting people.

The eastern coast of Africa, with which Mauritius is so favourably situate for carrying on an extensive commerce, is almost unknown to Europeans, although the Portuguese have settled on its shores for nearly 300 years. I visited the whole coast from Delagoa Bay to beyond the Equator, and am convinced a lucrative trade might be conducted with safety and advantage. At the Portuguese settlements of Mozambique, Sofala, Inhamban, Quilimane, Oibo, &c., little can be accomplished until slavery be totally abolished; but at the Arab towns and forts at Zanzibar, Pemba, Mombas, Lamoo, Patta, Brava, Mukadeesha, &c., there are active mercantile communities of Moors and Arabs, who are anxiously desirous of British intercourse. Oil, cotton, ivory, skins, horns, gold-dust, ambergris, pearls, gums, tobacco, camels, coffee, &c., may be readily procured

in exchange for blue and white calicoes, beads, knives, axes, muskets, gunpowder, delf, looking-glasses, broad cloth, Birmingham ware, &c., all of which the Arabs, Moors, and natives are solicitous of obtaining. And here let me add, I would earnestly urge the formation of a colony at Port Natal and to the eastward, if not by Government, at least by means of a Joint Stock Company, such as the South Australian Association. The proximity of Natal to the great routes of Asia, its short distance from England, the salubrity of its climate, the richness of the soil, &c., all point it out as an eligible station for a colony of enterprising Englishmen.

CHAPTER VI.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—VALUE OF PROPERTY, AND GENERAL VIEW OF THE COLONY AS REGARDS ITS IMPORTANCE TO THE MOTHER-COUNTRY.

COMMERCE.—The trade of the island of Mauritius is extensive, and carried on with different nations.

Vessels entered Inwards, and cleared Outwards, at Port Louis, in 1832, as compared with 1833 and 1834.

	Year ending 5th Jan. 1832.		Year ending 5th Jan. 1833.	
	Inwards.	Outwards.	Inwards.	Outwards.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Total	69640	78255	67434	67288
Year ending 5th Jan. 1834	76154	68420		
" " 1836	86605	82050		

The value of the trade is given thus, and I regret that the imperfect returns at the Custom House do not enable me to present consecutive years in the order which I have done in the preceding volumes; in fact, the reader can have no idea of the difficulties I have encountered in collecting the statistics that

are in the History of the Colonies, even with every disposition on the part of official authorities to aid me with those in the Government Departments.

*Imports in value at the Mauritius during the years 1828,
1829, and 1830.*

United Kingdom, 741,612*l.*; France, 271,872*l.*; Netherlands, 11,241*l.*; British North America, 8,252*l.*; South America, 5,380*l.*; Gibraltar, 4,620*l.*; Cape of Good Hope, 172,546*l.* New Holland, 30,407*l.*; Van Diemen's Land, 14,603*l.*; Ceylon, 15,429*l.*; Coromandel Coast, 154,845*l.*; Java, 18,171*l.*; Madagascar, 228,667*l.*; Bourbon, 129,702*l.*; Calcutta, 506,032*l.*; Madras, 12,679*l.*; Bombay, 71,095*l.*; Malabar Coast, 1,296*l.*; Arabia, 7,614*l.*; Canton, 28,046*l.*; Sumatra, 511*l.*; Singapore, 14,637*l.*; Corynga, 189*l.*; Manilla, 3,584*l.*; Rangoon, 5,236*l.*; Sumbawa, 3,601*l.*; Coepang, 576*l.*; Madura, 3,776*l.*; Aracan, 2,327*l.*—Total, 2,468,558*l.*

The principal produce of the island is sugar. In 1824 the quantity of sugar exported was but 247,498 cwt.; the duty was then reduced on its importation into England, and the exportation yearly augmented until in 1830 it rose to 610,725 cwts. or 67,608,071 lbs.; in 1831 to 70,258,819 lbs.; in 1832 it was 55,269,990 lbs.; in 1833, 67,000,000 lbs.; in 1834 about 71,000,000 lbs.; in 1835, 34,000,000 lbs. in 1836, 63,000,000 lbs. Great Britain receives the larger part of the produce, *viz.* about 50,000,000 lbs.; the remainder is distributed among the other countries with which it has been shewn the island carries on a trade; France receives about half a million lbs.; and New South Wales, British India, and British America, each an equal quantity; the Cape of Good Hope consumes a quarter of a million.

Nature and Value of Property annually created, moveable and immoveable, in Mauritius and its Dependencies.

Animal food for 100,000 mouths, at 100 lbs. a year each, 10,000,000 lbs. at 3*d.* per lb., 125,000*l.*; fish for 100,000 mouths, at 100 lbs. a year each, 10,000,000 lbs. at 1*d.* per lb., 41,666*l.*; eggs, poultry, milk, butter, and cheese for 100,000 mouths, at 1*d.* per day, 152,083*l.*; bread—*viz.* flour, manioc, potatoes, yams, &c. for 100,000 mouths, at 2*d.* per day, 304,186*l.*; condiments—*viz.* salt, pepper, spices, &c. for 100,000 mouths, 5,000*l.*; tea, coffee, spirits, wine, &c. for 100,000 mouths, at $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* per day, 76,041*l.*; personal clothing renewed for 100,000 persons, at 2*l.* per annum, 200,000*l.*; furniture for 10,000 houses, at 5*l.* each per annum, 50,000*l.*; food for horses, cattle, and live stock, 50,000 head, at 1*l.* a year each, 50,000*l.*; sugar annually produced, 70,000,000 lbs., at 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* per lb. 437,500*l.*; rum, molasses, and other articles, 65,000*l.*; luxuries consumed by the rich, 50,000*l.*; surplus incomes derived from trades, professions, &c. 10,000 persons, at 50*l.* each, 500,000*l.*; losses by fire, storm, accident, &c., 10,000*l.*; total annually created, 2,066,476*l.*

Property, moveable and immoveable, in Mauritius and its Dependencies.

Moveable property.—Horses, 800, at 20*l.* each, 16,000*l.*; mules and asses, 2,500, at 10*l.* each, 25,000*l.*; horned cattle, 25,000, at 5*l.* each, 125,000*l.*; sheep and goats, 10,000, at 2*l.* each, 20,000*l.*; swine, 20,000, at 1*l.* 10*s.* each, 30,000*l.*; poultry, value, 10,000*l.*; house furniture in 10,000 houses, at 25*l.* a house, 250,000*l.*; personal clothing of 100,000, at 5*l.* each, 500,000*l.*; stock of merchandize, value, 600,000*l.*; ships and boats, value, 200,000*l.*; machinery and agricultural implements, value, 500,000*l.*; bullion, 35,000*l.*; total moveable property, 2,311,000*l.*

Immoveable property.—Ten thousand houses, at 50*l.* each, 500,000*l.*; cultivated land, 100,000 acres, at 20*l.* per acre, 2,000,000*l.*; meadow and wood land, 200,000 acres, at 3*l.* per acre, 600,000*l.*; manufactures of sugar, &c., 200, at 500*l.* each, 100,000*l.*; public buildings, forts, churches, &c., 1,000,000*l.*; roads, bridges, aqueducts, wharfs, &c., 800,000*l.*; total immoveable property, 5,000,000*l.* Property annually created, 2,066,476*l.*; moveable and immoveable, 7,311,000*l.*

The importance of Mauritius as a portion of the British empire is, in a commercial point of view, considerable, it being favourably situate for carrying on an extensive trade with Madagascar and Eastern Africa, which will doubtless be cultivated when we cease our pernicious system of laying heavy taxes on the produce imported from Asia, with the idea of keeping up the West Indies; let every part of the empire be placed upon an equal footing, just causes of dissatisfaction removed, and the prosperity of the whole promoted. In a maritime aspect, Mauritius well deserves attention, for it is situate on the high road to British India, and while in the hands of our enemies during the last war, the quantity of property lost was very great. Mauritius, like other colonies, may be considered one of the outposts which, if surrendered, would leave the citadel an easy prey to the invader, whether Gaul or Muscovite.

Were there no higher considerations, it is our direct advantage to conciliate the descendants of the French population; to remember, that when the island was incorporated with the British empire, it

possessed its local legislature, of which we have deprived it, while from a population of 10,000 whites and about 90,000 free coloured people, an annual revenue of 230,000*l.* sterling is raised without their consent, and appropriated without their control. I will not, however, here dwell on the subject, as the general view of our colonial policy will be found in a separate volume, but I ask for the Mauritians that a measure of justice be granted to them, so as to attach them to the parent state.

APPENDIX.

RETURN OF THE EXTENT, POPULATION, AND STOCK OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, FOR 1841.

Counties of the Colony, and Dates of their Establishment.	Extent in Square Miles.	POPULATION.*							STOCK.					
		Whites.	Coloured.	Total.	Per Square Mile.	Marrriages.	Births.	Deaths.	Employed in Manu- factures.	Employed in Com- merce.	Horses.	Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.
Western Province.														
1. Cape Town	9	5288	7473	18720	2080	295	600	319	} 1550	2400	5365	14819	26349	10415
2. Stellenbosch	3584	6387	8036	12761	3 4-7	97	301	189		40	5069	18056	23298	12465
3. Worcester, late Tul- bagh	2280			14423	6½	142	605	254	300					
4. Clanwilliam	20000	4044	4801	8845	1-5	90	275	162	25	12	5005	18000	161803	35000
5. Swellendam	22111	2786	7900	10686	22-100	38	313	135	11	10	7487	20150	253011	97484
6. George	7616	9442	9244	18686	24	126	610	254	200	80	11711	51368	223090	88153
7. Beaufort	4032	5642	5640	11282	2½	42	204	11	900	250	5504	26190	30400	38230
	13050	2670	2569	5239	1-5	40	127	68	6	22	1150	11907	309327	52052
Total Western Province	72682	36259	45663	100642	18	870	3125	1392			41382	170390	1027878	333799
Eastern Province.														
1. Uitenhay	8960	4628	6301	11019	1 2-0	105	460	280	150	250	2300	10500	146000	20000
2. Albany	1792	7710	12067	19777	1 1½	163	1213	356	2400	2299	3340	42510	255400	45350
3. Somerset	4000	3098	3341	6439	† 3-5	38	228	48	150	150	2520	25379	305000	70000
4. Cradock	3168	2985	3304	6289	2	67	790	197	20	30	5420	39500	305000	66400
5. Graaf-Reinet	8000	3363	4929	8292	1 1-40	44	275	178	150	105	4690	28500	855400	49000
6. Colesberg	11654	4248	4778	9026	4-5	100	253	113	24	80	9341	69341	883693	64068
Total Eastern Province	37574	26032	34810	60842	1 2-3	607	3219	1172			27611	217730	2795493	294818
Total of the Colony . .	110256	62291	80473	161484	1 51-110	1477	6344	2564			68993	368120	3823371	628617

* The greater portion are employed in agriculture.

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