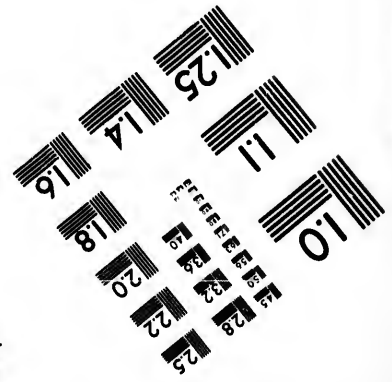
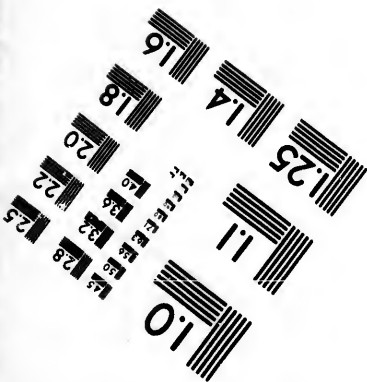
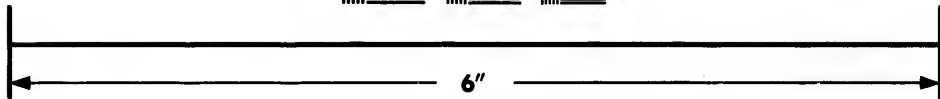
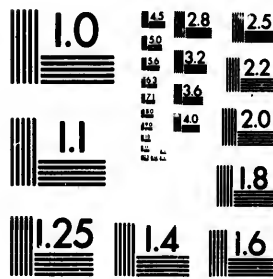


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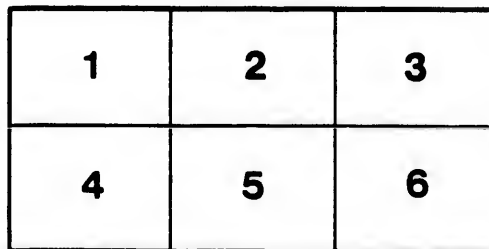
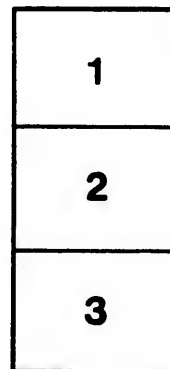
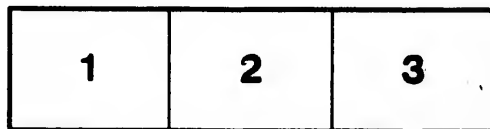
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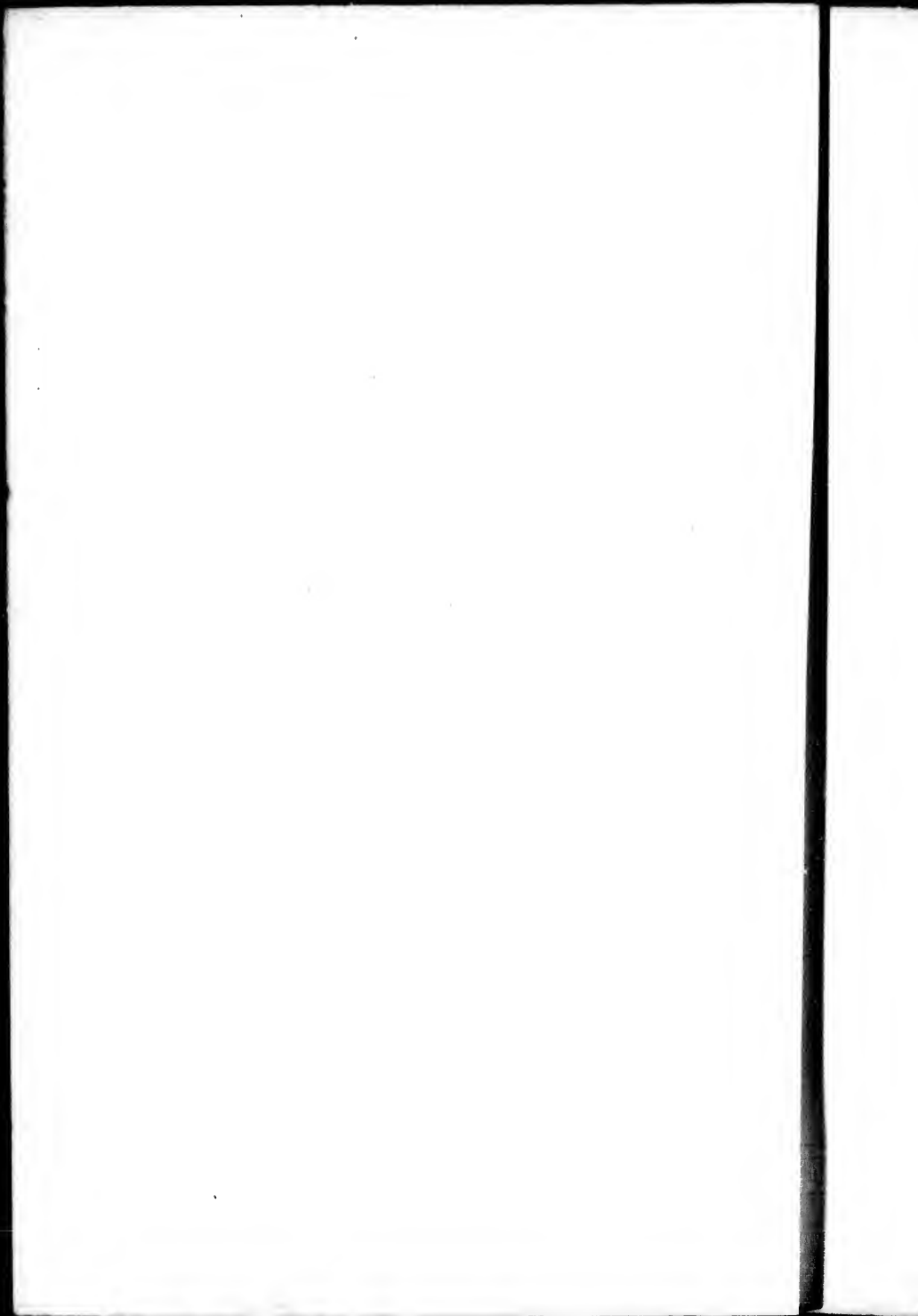
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# HISTORY OF SOUTH AFRICA

UNDER THE ADMINISTRATION

OF

THE DUTCH EAST INDIA COMPANY

[1652 TO 1795]

BY

GEORGE M'CALL THEAL, LL.D.

OF THE QUEEN'S UNIVERSITY, KINGSTON, CANADA

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FORMERLY KEEPER OF THE ARCHIVES OF THE CAPE COLONY, AND AT PRESENT

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# HISTORY OF SOUTH AFRICA.

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PIETER GYSBERT NOODT, GOVERNOR, INSTALLED 25TH FEB-  
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ADRIAAN VAN KERVEL, GOVERNOR, INSTALLED 31ST AUGUST  
1737, DIED 19TH SEPTEMBER 1737.

DANIEL VAN DEN HENGHEL, FISCAL, ACTING GOVERNOR, 20TH  
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In consequence of foreign ships being prevented from ob-  
taining supplies at the Cape during the period of scarcity,  
very few vessels not under the Dutch flag now put into  
Table Bay. The burghers felt the loss severely, for  
foreigners had brought ready money into the country; but  
it was hoped that with better times they would return  
again. This hope was not, however, realised. The plague  
among the cattle after a few years decreased in virulence,  
and beef and mutton were obtainable at a penny half-  
penny to two pence a pound; but the Cape had lost its  
reputation of affording cheap supplies of fresh provisions,  
and it was a long time in regaining it.

The isthmus connecting the Cape peninsula with the  
continent was at this time a barren waste of sand. With  
difficulty laden waggons traversed it, for there was no  
road, and nothing but a line of poles indicated the best  
course across. From reports of skippers, the directors  
were led to believe that Table Bay would at no very  
distant date be filled with the sand which violent south-  
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east gales swept into it during the summer months. To prevent this, they issued instructions that attempts should be made to fix the sand by planting it with grass and trees, and in the winter of 1724 the work was commenced. Seventy slaves and a gang of convicts were employed in planting knot-grass and seeds of the wild olive, and, when these failed, in ensuing rainy seasons the experiment was repeated with belts of sods.

The valuable properties of the mesembryanthemum for binding surface sand were then unknown. For eleven years, with one short interval, the effort to plant the flats was continued, every winter much labour being expended upon it; but in 1735 it was abandoned in despair. The directors, however, were by this time satisfied that Table Bay was in no danger of silting up. A commission of nautical men that was appointed to examine it carefully sent in a report that within the preceding half century, so far from its filling up with sand, the water had become deeper.

To superintend the experiments in silk culture, which the directors resolved should be made, the services of a competent man, named François Guillaumet, were secured. In October 1726 he and his family arrived at the Cape. Attempts had previously been made to bring silkworm eggs from India, but in no instance had they been successful. Some had been received in good condition from Europe, however, and the worms when hatched had been carefully attended to in the houses of Messrs. Jan de la Fontaine and Nicolaas Heyning. They were now handed over to Guillaumet. There were plenty of healthy mulberry trees, and the superintendent was furnished with whatever slave labour he asked for. Everything was thus in favour of the experiment.

In the first year eight pounds weight of good silk was obtained, which was sent to the Netherlands, and was an object of considerable interest at Amsterdam and Middelburg. Anticipations arose of another manufacturing indus-

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try in the mother country, with an article produced in a Dutch colony. The members of the council of policy at the Cape were equally enthusiastic. A large building was immediately erected near the Company's garden, and was placed at Guillaumet's disposal for keeping the worms in. The children in the slave lodge close by were all to be employed out of school hours in winding silk. Some thousands of young mulberry trees were planted in selected places. Any burghers who had a fancy to join in the industry, which was now believed to have passed the experimental stage, were supplied with a few eggs and the necessary instructions.

Yet in no subsequent year did the production of silk exceed ten pounds in weight. The great majority of the worms always died before making cocoons, and in one particular season they would have become extinct altogether if it had not been that a few were preserved by some burghers. It was soon ascertained that the returns were so trifling as to forbid the industry being attractive to people who could make a living in any other way. For eight years, however, the experiment was continued by the government. In 1735 every one admitted that it could not be made to succeed, and by order of the directors it was then given up.

Another industry which the Company at this time attempted to establish in South Africa was the production of kirman hair. Shawls made of this hair were then considered second only in value to those of Cashmere. The goat which produces it is reared in Persia, and in that country twenty-four young animals were obtained, which were sent to Ceylon to be forwarded to the Cape. In February 1725 eight of these reached South Africa, the others having died on the way. Of the eight, only one was a she-goat, and that died shortly after being landed. From ordinary she-goats cross-breeds were obtained, and from these and the pure animals, now reduced by death to two, goats with tolerably long and fine hair

were bred. Some burghers were then induced to make experiments with the animals. After a few years' trial they informed the council that unless the Company would pay forty pence a pound for the hair, it would not be worth their while to keep separate flocks. That price could not be given even for a superior article. But instead of improving the quality, the owners of the goats allowed the hair to deteriorate by mixture with native animals until a quantity sent to Europe in 1735 was quite unsaleable. The experiment was then abandoned.

In November 1726 a corporal and six men were sent over the Hottentots-Holland mountains to form an outpost at a place called the Ziekenhuis, on the river Zonderend. The few Hottentots left in that part of the country had complained to the government that they were not able to hold their own against the Bushmen, and that they were also exposed to depredations from vagrant Europeans, who professed to visit them for purposes of trade, but in reality robbed them of cattle. Owing to these complaints the outpost was formed, in order that acts of violence might be prevented. The directors were so dissatisfied that the Europeans of Van der Heiden's party, of whom the Drakenstein consistory had complained, could not be brought to justice for their conduct towards the Hottentots, that they issued instructions to prohibit all dealing by private persons with natives under heavier penalties than before. In consequence, on the 9th of April 1727 a very strict placaat to that effect was issued.

The officer whom the assembly of seventeen selected as governor was the director of fortifications, Pieter Gysbert Noodt, who seven years earlier had inspected the shore of Table Bay and prepared plans of defensive works. Intelligence of his appointment reached South Africa in January 1726, and on the 6th of December of that year he left Batavia as admiral of a homeward bound fleet of nine ships. On the 13th of February 1727 he reached

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the Cape, and on the 25th of the same month was formally installed as governor. His family was small, consisting only of his wife—Johanna Drabbe by name—and two sons.

Mr. Noodt was a coarse, harsh, ill-tempered man, full of pride and self-conceit, and therefore generally disliked. He took special pleasure in irritating the *secunde Jan de la Fontaine*, and attempted even to injure that officer's good name. In consequence, *De la Fontaine* tendered his resignation; but the directors, instead of accepting it, increased his salary from 6*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* to 10*l.* a month.

In 1727 a party of five English divers under a foreman named John Lethbridge, who had been engaged in Europe and sent out by the directors, endeavoured to recover the treasure buried in wrecks in Table Bay. The apparatus which they brought with them is not described, but whatever it was, it enabled them to remain a considerable time under water. They recovered some coin and a quantity of goods, but found that most of the wreckage was deeply covered with sand.

During the summer the forests along the river Zonderend were examined by the governor in person, with a view of ascertaining whether they could not be made of greater use to the Company. But the mountain range separating them from the Cape was found to be too formidable a barrier to allow the transport of timber with profit.

Mr. Noodt was at the head of this colony for a period of two years and two months. He was generally disliked, but as he did not interfere with the burghers, they did not complain of him as they had of the younger Van der Stel. He died suddenly when sitting in the pleasure house in the Company's garden between three and four o'clock in the afternoon of the 23rd of April 1729. A few hours before, when apparently in perfect health, he had signed documents which are still in existence. On the last day of the month his body was buried with state

under the pavement of the church, but in the records there is no trace of regret shown by any one for his death. With the first homeward bound fleet of the following year his family returned to Europe.

The character of this governor is usually pictured in the blackest colours. It was so drawn in an account of the Cape written by a German tutor who lived in the colony for several years after 1732, and whose narrative of the trial of some soldiers for conspiring to desert and of their execution on the day of Mr. Noodt's death has not only been copied in many modern books, but was the foundation of a drama which was popular some years ago. Yet that account is almost entirely ideal, being nothing more than a tale by a man who had no other means of obtaining information than gossip upon a past event.

In the records of the high court of justice, which are in perfect preservation, the circumstance is thus related. Fourteen soldiers planned to desert from the garrison and march overland to the Portuguese possessions beyond Delagoa Bay, where they supposed they would find means to get to Europe. In the night of the 2nd of April 1729 two of them were on guard. These deserted with their arms and assisted some of the others to rob the guardhouse of nine muskets with ammunition. One was unable to get away, the remaining thirteen marched towards Stellenbosch. During the next day they visited the farms of Andries Schutte and Izaak Nel, where they obtained food, and then continued on their journey.

The governor, meantime, instructed Pieter Lourens, landdrost of Stellenbosch, to call out a party of burghers and arrest the fugitives. Early in the morning of the 4th they were overtaken at the Hottentots-Holland mountains, but only two gave themselves up when the landdrost summoned them to surrender. The others maintained a running fight for three hours, when their leader was shot and eight were captured. Another was

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made prisoner a few days later, and the remaining three returned of their own accord to the castle and surrendered.

They were brought to trial, and on the 21st of April sentence was passed. Four were condemned to be hanged, and their bodies afterwards to be exposed to perish by the air and the birds. Five were to be flogged, branded, and made to labour fifteen years in chains. Three were to be flogged and made to labour ten years. And the last was to be flogged and made to labour three years. At the foot of this sentence the original signatures may still be seen of the members of the high court of justice: Pieter Gysbert Noodt, Jan de la Fontaine, Johannes Theophilus Rhenius, Nicolaas Heyning, Hendrik Swellengrebel, Christoffel Brand, J. P. van Coller, and Ryk Tulbagh.

The sentence was carried into effect on the morning of the 23rd, and the only interference of the governor that is recorded is that he used his power of mitigation to permit the burial of the four who were hanged, instead of allowing them to be exposed. The punishment was in accordance with the spirit of those times, and was not more severe than was inflicted for similar offences in other countries.

At eight in the morning after Mr. Noodt's death the council of policy met, and decided that the secunde Jan de la Fontaine should again act as head of the government until the pleasure of the supreme authorities could be known. With the next homeward bound fleet they sent a request to the directors that he should be permanently appointed governor, and on the 20th of February 1730 despatches were received to the effect that their request had been complied with. The fiscal independent, Adriaan van Kervel, was appointed to succeed him as secunde, and Daniel van den Henghel, who was then in service at Colombo, was appointed fiscal. On the 8th of March 1730 Mr. De la Fontaine took the oath of office and was formally installed as governor. On the 21st of



March 1732 he was further promoted to the rank of councillor extraordinary of Netherlands India.

The East India Company, upon whose fortunes this colony greatly depended, had now passed the zenith of its prosperity. Its dividends, which for the ten years ending 31st December 1722 had been at the rate of thirty-seven per cent per annum upon the paid up capital, averaged only twenty-one per cent for the ten years 1723-1732, and never afterwards rose higher than twenty-five per cent. Many of its trading establishments were not returning the expense of maintenance. The commerce of the English and French in the East was making enormous strides, and some branches were completely lost to the Dutch. The coasting trade of Southern Asia, which had once been almost exclusively in possession of the Company, had fallen into other hands.

In Holland matters were quite as bad. The directorate was secured by members of powerful families, who were content to draw a revenue without troubling themselves to correct abuses. Their influence was sufficient to prevent the states-general from exercising the right of inspection into the Company's affairs, and of seeing that its transactions were conducted in such a manner as not to be prejudicial to the interests of the republic. In India even their positive instructions were sometimes disregarded, on the plea that it was impossible for a body of gentlemen who had never been out of the Netherlands to make regulations for a country of whose circumstances they could know very little. Thus in 1706 Mr. Abraham van Riebeeck, when filling the office of director-general, could say to a clergyman who was remonstrating against being transferred to an undesirable post from one to which the assembly of seventeen had appointed him, 'The gentlemen in the fatherland regulate matters as they find good there, but we act here according to our knowledge as we judge best.'

Under these circumstances the corruption, which for a

long time had been prevalent in the public service, extended more deeply than before. The appointment of independent fiscals had done nothing to check it. In the Asiatic dependencies, where there were no intelligent freemen to resist oppression,—which indeed at its worst did not equal that of the native princes,—wealth was accumulated by the Company's servants in shameless ways. The ancient simplicity of manners had disappeared. The officers of government lived in a style of ostentation resembling that of Asiatic rulers, and bribery and fraud were commonly practised.

At the Cape there was less opportunity for such misconduct, as the colonists were not the people to submit tamely to wrong of any kind. Further, it may have been accidental, or it may have been owing to their living in a healthier moral atmosphere, but the chief officials in South Africa for many years after the death of Governor Noodt were men held in general esteem, whose probity was never questioned.

The early disasters at Delagoa Bay had not discouraged the Company, and for a long time hopes were entertained of a profitable trade being carried on there. In 1725 a little ambergris, some aloes, three hundred pounds weight of copper, more than two tons of ivory, thirty-four slaves, and a few ounces of gold dust were received from that station. It was impossible to obtain any reliable information concerning the interior of the country from the natives at the bay; but it was observed on one occasion that two of the chief Maphumbo's men went inland and returned with some gold dust within fourteen days. This raised a hope that the gold fields might be easily reached, and on the 27th of June 1725 an expedition left Fort Lagoa in search of them. It consisted of thirty-one men under Sergeant Jan Mona, with a clerk named Frans de Kuyper as journalist. After a toilsome march of twenty days, a party of hostile blacks was encountered, who opposed farther advance. In a

skirmish several of the natives were shot, but as the pack oxen were killed by the enemy and all the baggage and goods were seized, the expedition was obliged to return.

An attempt to search for the copper mines, made by a party under the mineralogist Jan Hendrik Hoorn, was also a failure.

The directors now issued instructions that attempts to reach the gold fields and the empire of Monomotapa, which was still believed to be a reality, should be made by means of boats pushing their way up the rivers. An old skipper, named Jan de Koning, was appointed commander, and the garrison was strengthened with a hundred soldiers and sailors.

At the end of May 1726 Commander De Koning arrived at Fort Lagoa. He found the secunde, Jan de la Capelle, who had been acting head of the station, engaged in making experiments in the cultivation of sugar cane and indigo. There were constant feuds between the various clans around the bay, but the Europeans were on good terms with all. In order to obtain a legal claim against any other white people, Commander De Koning resolved to purchase the ground along the river banks from the native chiefs, and they, when spoken to on the subject, asserted their willingness to comply with his wishes. Accordingly formal documents were drawn up, in which the chiefs Maphumbo, Matomana *alias* Tembe,<sup>1</sup> Matole,<sup>1</sup> Machaja *alias* Bombo,<sup>1</sup> and Manisa<sup>1</sup> ceded to the honourable East India Company extensive tracts of land along the different rivers flowing into the bay, in exchange for merchandise of different kinds. The deeds of sale are dated respectively 23rd of July, 2nd, 14th and 24th of August, and 22nd of October 1726. The total value of the articles paid to the chiefs for these cessions

<sup>1</sup> These are titles rather than proper names, and were assumed by the chiefs upon their accession. They have been used by Europeans as geographical terms, and placed on maps as Tembe river, Matole district, Lebombo mountains, and Manisa river.

was in round numbers sixty-two pounds of English money.

The natives were credited with a belief that the Europeans purchased slaves to fatten and eat them, and it was supposed that this belief was the cause of their bringing so few for sale. To counteract it, Commander De Koning sent three men of rank with their attendants on a visit to the Cape, that they might see for what purpose slaves were needed. One of those who visited the Cape was a nephew of Maphumbo. He had been to England, and had there received in baptism the name of John; but had been sent back to Delagoa Bay in 1723.<sup>1</sup> He spoke English fluently. The visitors professed to be pleased with the manner in which they saw the slaves were treated; but the traffic did not increase after their return.

As Fort Lagoa was too small for the accommodation of the garrison now stationed there, a larger area was enclosed with earthen walls, to which the name Lydzaamheid was given. The rivers were ascended as far as they were navigable with boats; but very little information was obtained concerning the country. The Dutch officers were never able to ascertain the exact position and distance of either the copper mines or the gold fields. It was supposed that the natives were purposely concealing information which they were regarded as undoubtedly pos-

<sup>1</sup> He went to England in a trading vessel, and resided in that country several years, where he was treated as a person of great consequence. At his baptism a duke stood as his godfather. He returned to Delagoa Bay in a vessel named the *Northampton*, and brought back an outfit that astonished the officers at the Dutch factory. The captain of the *Northampton* seems to have anticipated that through the young chief's influence he would be able to carry on a large and profitable business with the natives, but he was woefully disappointed. Prince John, as the young man was called in England, discarded his fine clothing and his Christianity, and shortly after his return was not to be distinguished in appearance or mode of living from other Bantu. The *Northampton* was the only vessel under any other flag than Dutch that put into Delagoa Bay between March 1721 and December 1730.

sessing, for how was it possible, wrote Mr. De la Capelle, that they could know of Manika, Sena, and Sofala, and be able to state with certainty that at these places there were Portuguese traders, while at the same time they professed that they had never heard of the great empire of Monomotapa? One man asserted indeed, when first questioned, that he had visited a mighty state of that name, but when eagerly asked for details, his journey was found to have been to some insignificant locality which he called Blosje. A little gold dust was occasionally brought by natives for sale, but wherever they came from they always declared that they obtained it from people farther inland. It was so mixed with other substances as to cause the assayers in Batavia to assert that every stiver's worth cost the Company a florin.

In December 1726 fever attacked the garrison, as it had done every previous summer, and in a few months thirty-eight men died, among them being Commander De Koning. The secunde Jan de la Capelle then became acting head of the station again. Reinforcements were sent from the Cape, and attempts to explore the interior were renewed, but with no greater success than before.

During the night of the 28th of November 1727 a party of sixteen soldiers deserted and made their way overland to Inhambane, where they found a Portuguese trading vessel, the captain of which furnished them with provisions, some calico and beads to trade with, and a pass, in order to rid himself of their presence. They pursued their journey towards Sofala, and the last that was heard of them was that three had died shortly after leaving Inhambane.

The misery of life at the lonely and unhealthy station was so great that in the following year a large number of men conspired to seize the Company's magazine in order to provide themselves with goods, to put to death all who should resist them, and then to march overland to the Portuguese factories in the north. The plot was

to have been carried out in the night of the 19th of August 1728, but during the preceding day a sailor boy made the acting commander acquainted with it. The necessary steps were at once taken to secure the conspirators, and in the course of a few hours sixty-two men were arrested and placed in close confinement. The garrison was then one hundred and eighty-six strong. The circumstances were such that the prisoners could not be sent to Capetown for trial, so a special court was formed, and Ensign Mona was appointed acting fiscal. More than half of the accused were sentenced to death, but some were allowed to draw lots for their lives with a long term of hard labour in chains. Twenty-two were executed, some of them being bound on crosses and having their bones broken with iron bars before their heads were cut off, some being half suffocated and then beheaded, and the others being hanged. Thirty-seven suffered various punishments less severe, and death in prison before their sentences could be carried into effect relieved the remaining three.

Another disaster speedily followed. The chiefs Machaja, Mambe, Matole, and Mateke united their forces and attacked Maphumbo, who was obliged to abandon his kraals and flee to his ally Tembe for protection. The combined force advanced next against the chief Kwambe, close to whose kraal was a station guarded by six soldiers, where some cattle belonging to the Company were kept. Mr. De la Capelle thereupon—30th of April 1729—sent Ensign Mona with twenty-nine European soldiers, an interpreter, and five slaves to protect the outpost. On the way this party came in sight of the army of the combined chiefs, when Sergeant Jan Mulder very imprudently ordered his men to fire, instead of first ascertaining the intentions of the blacks. This brought on an action, in which the European force was utterly destroyed, only one wounded slave escaping to tell the tale.

The allied chiefs afterwards protested that they had

no desire to quarrel with the Europeans, and had only acted in self defence. That this statement was correct was proved by the fact that they did not disturb the cattle post and by their restoring to the commander some of the firearms belonging to the men who had fallen.

The directors now resolved to leave the abandonment or retention of Fort Lydzaamheid to the discretion of the council of policy at the Cape. The council thereupon resolved, 11th of June 1730, that the sooner it could be abandoned the better, and on the 12th of August the little vessels *Snuffelaar*, *Zeepest*, and *Feyenoord*, which were employed as packets at the Cape, left to bring away the garrison and effects. Upon their arrival in the bay with instructions to this purpose the walls of the fort were levelled with the ground, and the woodwork of the buildings was destroyed. Everything of value was transferred to the holds of the vessels. When this was completed, on the 27th of December 1730 the acting commander and one hundred and thirty-three other Europeans—officers, soldiers, mechanics, boatmen, and convicts—with twenty-five slaves, embarked, and they arrived in Capetown in the middle of January 1731.

Delagoa Bay was abandoned, but the Company had still a strong desire to establish a station somewhere on the south-eastern coast of Africa, and in September 1731 the *Snuffelaar* and *Zeepest* were sent to examine the seaboard carefully as far north as Inhambane. Jan de la Capelle accompanied the expedition as journalist. Soon after leaving Table Bay the *Zeepest* sprang a leak, which obliged her to put into Delagoa Bay and remain there while her consort proceeded northward. The *Snuffelaar* arrived at Inhambane on the 11th of October, and found there a small Portuguese fort and factory under charge of Captain Joam da Fonseca Moniz. A little vessel from Mozambique was lying at anchor in the river. The Portuguese permitted the Dutch crew to obtain water, fuel, and refreshments, but would not allow them to

carry on trade with the natives. After a stay of ten days at Inhambane, the *Snuffelaar* dropped down with the current to Delagoa Bay, and rejoined the *Zeepost*. There three months were passed in trading, during which time three-fifths of a ton of ivory, twenty-two slaves, and two hundred and thirteen pounds of some metal called tin in De la Capelle's narrative, were obtained in barter. On the 30th of January 1732 the two vessels sailed to examine the coast to the southward, but off St. Lucia Bay fever broke out, several men died and many more were laid up, and they were consequently obliged to return to the Cape. They reported that no suitable place for a station could be found.

In September 1732 the *Zeepost* and *Feyenoord* were sent to make another search. They encountered almost constant rough weather, and were obliged to put into Delagoa Bay to repair damages. No other port was visited, and after an absence of four months the expedition arrived again in Table Bay with an account of failure.

Previous to 1732 ground was held by individuals in the colony either under freehold title or annual leases. On the 18th of February of this year, by order of the directors, another system of land tenure was introduced. It was enacted that garden ground in the Cape peninsula and small plots of land adapted for agriculture and bordering on freehold farms could be leased for periods of fifteen years, during which they were to be irreclaimable; and if at the expiration of any term of fifteen years the Company should resume possession, the tenant was to be compensated for all buildings at a fair valuation. The rent first named was eight shillings and four pence a morgen yearly, but a few months later it was permanently fixed at two shillings and a penny a morgen. At the same time the rent of the large farms or cattle runs held under annual leases was raised from 2*l.* 10*s.* to 5*l.*

As far back as 1719 the burgher councillors, acting on behalf of several colonists who were acquainted with the



east coast and the islands of Madagascar and the Mascarenhas group, had requested liberty to trade with those countries upon payment of reasonable import and export duties. They proposed to purchase manufactured goods from the Company, and to exchange these goods and Cape produce for slaves, ivory, gold dust, and anything else of commercial value that should be obtainable. The directors had at first hesitated, but they were now disposed to take the request into favourable consideration, if the colonists would submit their plans in detail. In 1732 a committee of officers of the Cape government, consisting of Messrs. Adriaan van Kervel, Nicolaas Heyning, and Ryk Tulbagh, was appointed to meet the acting and retired burgher councillors, and after discussing the question with them, to draw up a report for transmission to the Netherlands. The conference took place; but the burgher councillors stated that circumstances had changed since 1719, those who were then prepared to embark in the trade having died or engaged in other pursuits, and they thought no advantage could now be derived from the project.

In June 1734 a homeward bound Indiaman, named the *Huis te Marquette*, put into Mossel Bay in distress, which led to the governor visiting that port. On the 7th of July he left the Cape, attended by the secretary, Ryk Tulbagh, the master of the naval department, Jacobus Möller, Ensign Rudolph Sigfried Alleman, and the burghers Jan Kruywagen, Jan Hop, Jan Christoffel Beck, Jacobus Botha, and Andries Grové, whose farms were in the neighbourhood of Mossel Bay and who offered the use of their waggons and cattle. The distressed ship was relieved, and the bay was examined; but the governor left with a very poor opinion of its capabilities as a harbour. The party proceeded eastward to the forests in the district once occupied by the Outeniqua tribe, which the governor wished to explore. Heavy rains, however, set in, which necessitated a return before the rivers should become

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flooded. The party was absent not quite two months. At Mossel Bay the governor caused a stone beacon, with the arms of the republic engraved on one side and the monogram of the East India Company on the other, to be erected as a mark of possession.

A few weeks later, a small military outpost, similar to those at Waveren and the river Zonderend, was established at Rietvlei, on the Buffeljags river, between the present villages of Swellendam and Heidelberg. The objects were to prevent illicit cattle dealing with the natives, and to provide protection to the farmers and the Hottentots from the Bushmen. In the same year a corporal and six men were sent to form a temporary outpost at St. Helena Bay, where it was feared that the French had an intention of establishing a refreshment station. After an occupation of a few months, upon receipt of intelligence from Europe, this outpost was broken up.

During the period comprised in this chapter the Company suffered very heavy losses from shipwrecks in Table Bay, and the number of men that perished was large.

On Saturday the 3rd of July 1728 there were six ships at anchor in the bay, when a gale set in from the north-north-west. At one o'clock in the afternoon the *Stabroek* parted her cables and was driven ashore between the castle and the mouth of Salt River. She was followed two hours later by the *Haarlem*, which grounded nearer the castle. Neither of these vessels was broken, and only two men of each were drowned in endeavouring to get to land. A little after three o'clock the *Middenrak* went ashore just beyond the mouth of Salt River. There were seventy-five men on board, and the ship was in a raging surf, so that it was not possible to render any assistance. Night set in, and the hull of the *Middenrak* still held together. But when morning dawned on Sunday the 4th, all that remained of the ship was strewed along the beach, and not one of the seventy-five was

saved to tell when she had gone to pieces. The other three vessels rode out the gale.

The *Haarlem* was got afloat again, and was sent to Saldanha Bay to be repaired. This was effected, and she returned to Table Bay on the 4th of December. At that season of the year danger was not anticipated, though the day was rainy and the wind was variable from north-west to south-west. At ten o'clock that night the *Haarlem* parted her cables and went ashore close to the mouth of Salt River, where she broke up at once. Of one hundred and seven men on board, only sixteen got to land on pieces of the wreck.

On the morning of the 9th of January 1729 the provision ship *Saxenburg*, bound from Batavia to the Cape with rice and other Indian produce, went down in a gale off Cape Agulhas. Of eighty-eight souls on board, all perished but seven, who were picked up on pieces of the wreck by other vessels a few hours later.

In consequence of the numerous disasters that had occurred in Table Bay in the winter season, the directors issued instructions that the several harbours in the neighbourhood of the Cape should be carefully examined, and a report be submitted to them. To perform this, a commission was appointed, consisting of two old skippers, one named Jacobus Möller, who was then acting as master of the naval establishment, the other named Jan de Heere, who had been for some time living in the colony as a burgher. They sounded Table Bay, and made a chart of it, after which they sent in a report that it was not filling up, that it could be made a perfectly safe harbour by means of a mole, but that the mole would cost a great deal of money. Saldanha Bay they described as secure, but as wanting in everything else that could make a refreshment station valuable. Simon's Bay they thought more highly of, as it would give shelter to eight or ten ships in all weathers, and there was plenty of fresh water to be had. Its drawbacks they reported to be the want

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of ground in its neighbourhood fit for gardens and difficulty of access by land. No immediate action was taken upon this report, but shortly after it was sent in the attention of the directors was again drawn to the subject by a disaster approaching in magnitude the one caused by the great gale of June 1722. Then arrangements, which will be related in the next chapter, were made to provide as far as possible for the safety of the fleets.

During the night between the 1st and 2nd of July 1736 the brigantine *Feyenoord* was driven ashore in a gale near Salt River mouth, and became a wreck. Only one life was lost.

On the 21st of May 1737 nine ships, mostly of the third class, were lying at anchor in Table Bay ready to sail for the fatherland. During the preceding night a heavy gale had set in from the north-west, and as day broke the wind veered a little more to the westward, increasing the swell of the sea. Huge waves were rolling in between Robben Island and Green Point, and the bay was like a sheet of foam. As the gale increased, the ships' cables began to part, and between ten and eleven o'clock in the morning minute guns were heard.

In a short time the *Ypenroode* was seen to be drifting. She struck close to the mouth of Salt River, and with the shock her masts fell and she broke into fragments in the surf. Some of her crew managed to get to land. The *Goudriaan* parted next. She struck broadside on, with her stern in the mouth of Salt River, and went to pieces at once. The larger number of those on board perished. At noon the *Flora* struck at the same place as the *Goudriaan*. She, too, went to pieces immediately, and of her crew only six men got to land. The *Paddenburg* followed, but her crew were more fortunate. She was carried in on the crest of a mountain wave, and passed directly over the other wrecks, striking high up on the beach. She went to pieces with the shock, but most of those on board escaped with their lives. At half past two

in the afternoon the *Westerwyk* was driven ashore at the same place. She ran high on the beach without breaking up, and only a few of her men were lost. At four o'clock the *Buys* struck close to the *Westerwyk*, but she went to pieces at once, and only five of her crew were saved. Early in the evening the *Duynbeek* was driven ashore beyond Salt River mouth, and broke up immediately, very few of her men being saved. Later on, the *Roodenrys* struck at the same place, but she held together until all of her crew but six got to land by means of a rope attached to a yard which was washed up. At the same time the brigantine *Victoria*, one of the Cape packets, was carried by a great wave high on the beach, where she lay dry when the gale was spent. Nearly all of her crew were saved.

There were now left in the bay only the *Papenburg*, homeward bound Indiaman, and the *Goede Hoop*, a small vessel built at the Cape in 1733 and used as a packet. These managed to ride out the gale.

In all two hundred and eight men were lost out of seven hundred and thirty-nine that formed the crews of the wrecked Indiamen. The purchase price of the cargo with which the beach was strewn was 160,128*l*.

While the ships were drifting ashore a placat was issued threatening summary execution of any one found pilfering the wrecked cargo. A military guard was stationed on the beach, and four men who were caught stealing were actually hanged on a gallows erected near the water's edge, where their bodies were left exposed as a warning to others. These executions took place on the same principle as that which permitted the shooting of Bushman cattle-lifters, the principle that it is justifiable to put to death a thief caught redhanded.

The staff of clergy in the colony had by this time undergone a complete change. When last referred to, the reverend Messrs. D'Ailly and Slicher were clergymen at the Cape, Mr. Bek was at Stellenbosch, and Mr. Van

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Aken was at Drakenstein. In December 1724 Mr. Van Aken died. For some months the pulpit was vacant, but at length, as the high school was now broken up, the council of policy resolved to send Mr. Slicher to Drakenstein, and leave the Cape to the care of Mr. D'Ailly alone until another clergyman should be provided by the directors. Mr. Slicher accordingly took over the duty on the 15th of July 1725. Early in the following year Mr. D'Ailly was taken seriously ill, and he died in June, when Mr. Bek was removed to the Cape, Mr. Slicher being directed to hold services occasionally at Stellenbosch. So matters remained for more than three years.

The directors sent out as second clergyman at the Cape the reverend François le Sueur, who conducted service here for the first time on the 16th of October 1729. In June 1730 Mr. Slicher died, when the council instructed Mr. Le Sueur to act provisionally at Drakenstein and Stellenbosch. He returned to the Cape in April 1731, upon the arrival from Europe of the reverend Johan Wilhelm Hartzogenrath, who had been appointed by the directors clergyman of Drakenstein. At the same time the council resolved that Mr. Hartzogenrath should act as consulent of Stellenbosch, and permitted Mr. Bek, who was advanced in years and very feeble, to retire with a pension.

In April 1732 the reverend Hendrik Kock arrived from Europe, having been appointed second clergyman of the Cape, and he was followed in November of the same year by the reverend Salomon van Echten, who was sent out as clergyman of Stellenbosch. Thus the whole of the churches were again supplied with ministers, after a series of vacancies during eight years. In June 1736 Mr. Hartzogenrath died, when Mr. Van Echten was removed to Drakenstein, with instructions to act as consulent for Stellenbosch.

The country at this time must have been explored far inland, for parties of elephant hunters were sometimes

absent from the settlement eight or nine months together before returning with their waggons laden with ivory. But these people were very reticent upon the subject of routes and hunting grounds, and information obtained from them was known to be so unreliable that the government did not take the trouble to place it on record.

There was, however, one notable exception.

In May 1736 a party of elephant hunters, headed by a man named Hermanus Hubner, left the settlement, and travelled eastward to Kaffirland. There were eleven white men in the party, with thirteen waggons and a strong band of Hottentots. Passing through the district occupied by the Gonaquas, at whose head was a man whom they called Captain Babbelaan, they came to the kraal of a petty Xosa chief, and then to the residence of Palo, paramount ruler of the Xosa tribe. Proceeding still farther, they reached the country of the Tembus, where they found four colonists, with six waggons, hunting elephants and trading with the natives for ivory.

The two parties here united, and went on to a district which they believed to be part of Natal, where they found a tribe whom they termed Nomotis. There can hardly be a doubt that the Pondos are the people referred to. Here they met three Englishmen, named Thomas Willer, Henry Clerk, and William Bilyert, who had been shipwrecked many years before, and were living in all respects like the natives, having numerous wives and children. From these Englishmen they purchased on credit about five tons of ivory, for which they undertook to deliver at a future date a certain quantity of iron, copper, and beads. They had now sufficient ivory to load ten waggons, each with eighteen or nineteen hundred pounds weight. They therefore commenced the return journey, intending to hunt by the way, the three Englishmen proposing to accompany them as far as Palo's kraal. From the country of the Nomotis, they passed through that of the Tembus,

and kept on until they reached the kraal of Palo, where it was their purpose to remain for a week or two to let their cattle rest. So far they had been treated in a friendly manner by the natives with whom they had come in contact, and they had no cause to suspect different conduct at Palo's kraal.

After resting a while, nine of them, with seven waggons, went on ahead, and after a day's journey came to a river which was so swollen that they were obliged to encamp on its bank and wait its fall. The name of this river is not given. The three Englishmen were with this party, but did not intend to proceed farther. The river was falling, though slowly, and on the eighth day after leaving Palo's kraal they were still waiting on its bank, when two of the Hottentots whom they had left with their companions appeared and informed them that all the others had been massacred.

The Hottentots stated that Hermanus Hubner was sitting in front of the tent, in which the other Europeans were lying down, when one of the servants reported that he had observed indications of a hostile design on the part of Palo's people. Hubner took no notice of the warning, replying that the people were friendly and there was no cause whatever for alarm. Shortly afterwards some Xosas drove up eight oxen, and on behalf of the chief presented them to Hubner. While they were talking, one of them suddenly stabbed Hubner with an asagai. He drew the weapon from his body, and tried to reach his gun, but before he could do so was killed by another stab in the back. The Xosas then rushed upon the tent from all sides, and murdered Frederik Hubner, Andries Esterhuis, and Gerrit van Vuuren before they could take any step to protect themselves. Philip Constant and Anthonie Pottier managed to get out of the tent, but were killed close by. The bodies were afterwards mutilated.

The murderers then unloaded the twelve waggons and



burnt them, probably to get the iron. Among the stores were three kegs of gunpowder, each containing fifty pounds. The Xosas broke these open, and threw the powder in a heap, when suddenly there was a tremendous explosion and a great number of those who were close by were killed and wounded.

Upon learning the fate of their comrades, eight of the Europeans at the river hastened across with the waggons. The three Englishmen, who had no fear of the Kaffirs, remained behind, and one of the hunters, by name Louis Cloete, thought it advisable to place himself under their protection. Soon after crossing the river, the party was overtaken by a great horde of Kaffirs, among whom they recognised some half-breeds. They fired upon the pursuers, and struck down eight or ten; but as they had very little powder left, they took the first opportunity of abandoning the waggons and continuing their flight on foot. For three days and two nights the Kaffirs followed, until they came to the Gonaqua country, where Captain Babbelaan gave them an escort as far as the Fish river. One of their number, by name Christoffel Hoogreefde, became faint on the way, and they left him under care of the Gonaquas.

The seven who had escaped continued their journey on foot to the Sunday river, where they met another party of elephant hunters, under Gerrit Oosthuizen and Jacob van Deventer, travelling eastward. Four of them—Daniel de Vries, Jan de Bruin, Jan van Vuuren, and Coenraad Scheffer—joined this party. The other three—Hendrik de Vries, Hendrik Scheffer, and Jan de Vries—came on to the Cape, where on the 10th of July 1737 the two first-named gave an account of their journey in the form of an attestation.

No other particulars concerning the three Englishmen than those here given are to be found in the colonial records. But it is almost certain that they, with three very young English girls, several Indians, and possibly

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others, escaped from a vessel wrecked near the mouth of the Lwambasu river sometime between the years 1720 and 1730. The name of the ship, where she was from, and all else concerning her must remain among the many mysteries with which the Kaffir coast in olden times was associated. The people who landed from her, however, intermarried with Bantu, and their descendants are numerous at the present day.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Traditions can never be depended upon as accurate in detail, and though in this instance there is other testimony, it is not possible to trace with absolute certainty the early history of these people. In 1790 an expedition that was sent to look for survivors from the wrecked ship *Grosvenor* met three very old white women at a kraal of mixed breeds on the bank of the Umgazi river in Pondoland; but unfortunately learned nothing of their career. They could speak no other language than Kaffir. Thirty-eight years later traditional stories concerning them first began to be collected. Several individuals of half European blood were still alive, and the persons who questioned them were men of intelligence and education. Some were found who remembered having seen the remains of a hut built of ship's timber by the wrecked people on the shore near the mouth of the Lwambasu. Yet no two of the narratives collected agreed in detail, even in such a simple matter as the number of persons saved. Thus a half-breed woman informed Major Dundas that eleven men and two girls beside her mother got safe to land. Another half-breed informed the reverend William Shaw that the men saved were two in number. The reverend Stephen Kay was told that six persons in all came out of the sea: two white men, one black man, and three white girls. In 1823 the people of mixed breed were living on the bank of the Umtata river, near the sea. Among them were some showing traces of Indian descent. A little later, owing to wars in the country, the party broke into two. One section, under a captain named Nogaya, who was a great-grandson of one of the white men, joined the Bomvana chief Gambushe, and moved westward. Their descendants are known as the Abelungu, and now live in the district of Elliotdale, a little beyond the mouth of the Bashee. The descendants of the other section are now called the Amatshomane, and are under the captain Dalasile, in the Mqanduli district, west of the Umtata. They derive their title from Tshomane, son of Matayi, a petty Pondo captain. This Tshomane took to wife one of the girls saved from the wreck, and had many children by her. Her Kaffir name was Gquma—roaring of the sea,—and she was one of the old women met by the expedition in 1790. With this section are the descendants of the Indians who escaped from the wreck.

Governor De la Fontaine was now advancing in years, and infirmities were creeping upon him. He was a widower, his wife having died in June 1730. He had children for whom he desired the advantages of a residence in Europe, and from whom he did not wish to be separated. During the twenty-eight years that he had served the Company he had amassed considerable wealth, and it had become a longing with him to spend the evening of his life in repose in the fatherland. In 1736 he applied to the directors for permission to retire. They heard of his resolution with regret, for he had performed his duties to their satisfaction; but his request was so reasonable that it could not be refused. They therefore appointed the secunde Adriaan van Kervel as his successor, and promoted Mr. Hendrik Swellengrebel to be secunde. The retiring governor was permitted to hand over the administration whenever it should please him to do so, and to return to Europe with his rank and salary. On the 17th of June 1737 despatches to this effect were received at the Cape, and on the 31st of August Mr. De la Fontaine transferred the duties to Mr. Van Kervel. He remained in the colony until the month of March following, when he sailed for Europe as admiral of a fleet of five ships.

Governor Van Kervel had passed a great portion of his life in South Africa. From 1719 to 1725 he had been secretary to the council of policy. Then he became fiscal, and afterwards secunde, so that his experience was varied and extensive. He held the highest office in the land less than three weeks, and only presided in the council on one occasion. After a short illness, he died on the 19th of September 1737. As he had expressed a desire to his daughter that his funeral should be conducted without the usual state, the council respected his dying wish, and his remains were buried in the church between seven and eight o'clock in the evening of the 24th, the officers of government and principal burghers attending without the

parade of draped banners, muffled drums, and minute guns. His widow, Aletta Corsenaar, was a confirmed invalid, suffering under mental aberration. He left three children: a daughter and two sons, the eldest of whom was a clerk in the Company's service, and the youngest was at school in the Hague.

On the morning after the governor's death the council met for the purpose of electing an acting head. There were six members present, and of these, two put forward claims to the vacant place. The *secunde*, Mr. Hendrik Swellengrebel, was one. He based his pretensions on precedents, the custom having invariably been that upon the death of a governor the second in command had acted until the pleasure of the supreme authorities could be known. It was true he had only been *secunde* nineteen days, but that did not affect his position, for, as he had been a member of the council of policy for thirteen years, he had ample experience.

The independent fiscal, Mr. Daniel van den Henghel, claimed the appointment, on the ground that he had been a senior merchant longer than Mr. Swellengrebel. He had been in the colony since March 1731.

The question was put to the vote, when Messrs. Nicolaas Heyning and Christoffel Brand were found to favour the fiscal's claim, while Captain Jan Tobias Rhenius and the secretary Ryk Tulbagh supported the *secunde*.

Hereupon the fiscal objected to Mr. Tulbagh having a voice in the matter, because he was married to Mr. Swellengrebel's sister, and must therefore be prejudiced in his favour.

The secretary replied that the right to vote had never before been disputed on such grounds. He had been a member of the council of policy for nine years. During that time he had always voted according to his conscience, and he would continue to do so.

The others maintained Mr. Tulbagh's right, upon which the master of the warehouses, Mr. Brand, pro-

posed that as the members were equally divided and no decision could be arrived at, the lot should be cast. This was agreed to, when, the result being in favour of the fiscal, he took the vacant chair.

During the nineteen months that Mr. Van den Henghel acted as governor only one event occurred that is worthy of notice. That was a petty insurrection which took place early in 1739.

A party of ten Europeans, living north of Piketberg, setting the law against dealing with Hottentots at defiance, proceeded to a kraal of the Great Namaquas on the southern bank of the Orange river, and bartered a large number of cattle. They remained at the kraal a full month, and were on the most friendly terms with its occupants. But after they left to return home, their coloured servants went back stealthily, fell upon the Namaquas, killed several, and robbed the kraal of all its cattle.

Two of the plundered people then proceeded to Cape-town, and complained to the government of the treatment they had received. Thereupon the Europeans were summoned to appear before the landdrost's court at Stellenbosch, and the whole of their stock, including the recently bartered cattle, was summarily impounded to prevent concealment. Some individuals who had not been with the traders, but who were suspected of being in league with them, were similarly dealt with.

This proceeding created a good deal of excitement among the people of Drakenstein as well as of the country farther north. The acting governor was regarded as a harsh unsympathetic man, who was inclined to rule in a highhanded manner, and there was a general feeling that the law which debarred the colonists from trading with the Hottentots was oppressive and could be evaded without moral wrong. The persons summoned declined to appear before the court, and raised an outcry that the landdrost's messenger had acted in excess of the law in

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seizing their cattle before it was proved that they had been engaged in the forbidden traffic. The matter was referred by the landdrost to the fiscal, who investigated it, and found that the Hottentots had ample cause for complaint. As many of their cattle as could be recovered, including those obtained in barter by the traders, were therefore restored to them, and they were taken under the Company's protection. At the same time the landdrost's messenger, who was found to have acted with unnecessary harshness, was replaced by a more prudent officer.

A summons was then issued for the Europeans to appear before the high court of justice and answer for their conduct in ignoring the constituted authority. But, as on the former occasion, they did not comply. A turbulent individual named Estienne Barbier, by birth a Frenchman, who had been in the Company's military service and had risen to the rank of sergeant, but had deserted from the castle during the night of the 24th of March 1738, and had since been living on the farm of the widow Cellier at Drakenstein, represented to these persons that he possessed great influence in Europe, and induced them to place themselves under his leadership. His object was to attain such a position that he could make terms with the government.

On Sunday the 1st of March 1739 Barbier, accompanied by eight others—Hendrik Kruger, Lodewyk Putter, Frans Kampher, Arnoldus Basson, Hendrik Ras, Jan Olivier, and Sybrand van Dyk, all mounted and armed, and Hans Ras, unarmed and on foot—appeared before the door of the church at the Paarl as the congregation was leaving after service, when Sybrand van Dyk requested the people to listen to the reading of a placaat. This document was the joint production of Barbier and another of the disaffected party named Pletsholt, and was written in very corrupt Dutch. In it Mr. Van den Henghel and the landdrost Pieter Lourens were accused of tyranny,

corruption, favouring Chinese and Hottentots above Europeans, and other misconduct, and the farmers were advised not to pay any more taxes. After Barbier had read the document, Van Dyk, with the assistance of some women among the listeners, pasted it on the wall of the church. There was such a strong feeling of sympathy with its contents that no one remonstrated, and the party rode from farm to farm that afternoon unmolested.

The document was blown from the wall of the church that evening, and was secured by the landdrost's messenger, who forwarded it to the fiscal in Capetown. It is still to be seen in the records of the court of justice. Some other seditious papers were written and circulated by Barbier, and so confident were the disaffected persons in their power to maintain their independence that one of them, Jan Ras, delivered at the castle gate a circular disowning the authority of the acting governor and the landdrost, though two of the cattle barterers, Matthys Willems and Pieter de Bruyn, who appeared openly in Capetown, had been arrested, and were then in prison.

Barbier was now proclaimed an outlaw, and instructions were given to the landdrost to have him seized and brought before the high court of justice, or, if resistance was made, to shoot him.

Just at this time a horde of Bushmen made a raid upon the scattered farmers of Piketberg and the Bokkeveld, murdered two Europeans and several slaves, set fire to some houses, and swept off large herds of cattle. There had not been many complaints of these wild people of late years, the only instances being in 1728, 1731, and 1738. On the first of these occasions, December 1728, a party of Bushmen drove off the cattle from the farm of Jan Valk near Piketberg. Valk's neighbours assembled and pursued the robbers, who offered resistance when they were overtaken. Two Europeans were wounded, but a volley of slugs put to flight all the Bushmen who were not struck. The cattle were recovered, except two oxen.

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The government approved of the action of the colonists in following the robbers and firing upon them, but directed the landdrost to be careful that no provocation was given to Bushmen who did not first offend. In March 1731 some of those people drove off a herd of cattle from the farm of Hans Potgieter, but were pursued by twelve of Potgieter's neighbours, who hastily assembled and formed a commando. The robbers were overtaken, when some of them were shot, and the cattle were recovered. In 1738 other Bushmen drove off the stock of August Lourens, but were followed up, and the cattle were retaken without any bloodshed. By direction of the council of policy, the landdrost and board of militia of Stellenbosch then sent a discreet farmer to endeavour to enter into a friendly agreement with the Bushmen, and presents were made in hope of inducing them to abstain from robbery.

The farmers of the frontier had no confidence in the success of such treatment, and when the raid took place early in 1739 they were seized with a general panic, fearing that the government would again try to conciliate rather than punish. Most of them in consequence abandoned their farms and fell back towards the Cape.

The government, however, acted in a different manner. The old burgher councillor Jan Kruywagen was instructed to raise a commando and follow up the marauders, and all who had joined Barbier were offered pardon if they would take part in the expedition. Fifteen of them accepted the offer at once, and the remainder shortly afterwards. Barbier managed to keep in concealment for a few months, but was eventually apprehended. On the 12th of November he was tried and condemned to death, and two days afterwards was executed. After the barbarous manner of that time in Europe as well as in South Africa, his right hand was first cut off and then his head, and after death his body was divided into portions, which were affixed to posts in different parts of the country.



This attempt at insurrection, petty as it was, was long afterwards used as an argument by a strong party in Holland, as well as by many officials of the East India Company, against an enlargement of the colony by sending out emigrants from Europe. A strong colony, in their opinion, would certainly in a short time throw off the control of the mother country and declare itself independent.

When intelligence of the arrangements made at the Cape for carrying on the government reached the Netherlands, the directors expressed their disapproval, because they considered the secunde the proper person to assume the chief authority upon the death of a governor. They therefore sent out instructions that Mr. Van den Henghel should return to his office of independent fiscal, that Mr. Swellengrebel should take the place of governor, and Mr. Ryk Tulbagh that of secunde. These changes took effect on the 14th of April 1739.

Mr. Van den Henghel remained in the colony as fiscal until the 18th of September 1741, when he was relieved by Mr. Pieter van Reede van Oudtshoorn, who was sent out by the supreme authorities. A few months later he returned to Europe as commodore of a squadron of four vessels.

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## CHAPTER XV.

HENDRIK SWELLENGREBEL, GOVERNOR, INSTALLED 14TH  
APRIL 1739, RETIRED 27TH FEBRUARY 1751.

MR. HENDRIK SWELLENGREBEL, who now became governor, was by birth a South African colonist. His father, Jan Swellengrebel, was a Russian, born at Moscow, who entered the service of the Dutch East India Company, and appears first in the Cape records as a clerk at the castle in 1694. His mother was born in South Africa. She was a daughter of the explorer Hieronymus Cruse, who rose from the ranks to the position of a military captain in the early days of the settlement. The governor was the first-born child of Jan Swellengrebel and Johanna Cruse. He had two sisters, the eldest, Elizabeth, married to Mr. Ryk Tulbagh, and the youngest, Johanna Catharina, married to the reverend François le Sueur. He had a younger brother also, Jan Balthazar by name, but of him little or nothing can be learned in the Cape records.

At an early age Hendrik Swellengrebel entered the Company's service in South Africa, and rose gradually from one position to another, though he was not possessed of any extraordinary ability. He was honest and industrious, however. In 1727 he married Helena Wilhelmina ten Damme, by whom he had a family of eight children.

When he took over the administration an armed burgher force was being raised to punish Bushman marauders. But some of the farmers who were called out by the old councillor Kruiwagen refused to act under him, and his commando was too weak to accomplish the purpose for which it was raised. In attempting to expel

the Bushmen from a mountain, a number of men, including the commandant, were wounded, and one was killed. A stronger force was then raised, and took the field in two divisions, some soldiers having previously been sent to occupy temporary stations in the disturbed districts, where the families of the men on commando could be protected. In August one of the marauding bands was defeated and some cattle were recovered, only one burgher being killed. Reinforcements were then sent to the front, and in October more than sixty Bushmen were killed and upwards of thirty others were wounded. A party of Europeans, who were searching along the coast for a ship that was supposed to have been wrecked, shot from thirty to forty more. The Bushmen then agreed to terms of peace. On the European side during the latest operations three farmers were wounded in action, and two—Jan Engelbrecht and Philip Meyer—were surprised and murdered.

In September 1740 the leaders of these Bushmen, to whom the Dutch had given the names Waterboer, Anthonie, Dragonder, and Klein Jantje, with a small following visited the castle, where they were well treated, and acceptable presents were made to them when they left.

From time to time regulations were issued for the preservation of harmless wild animals, and for the destruction of beasts of prey. In November 1739 the reward for killing a lion was reduced from 3*l.* 9*s.* 5*d.* to 2*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.*, for a leopard from 2*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.* to 1*l.* 5*s.* 0*d.*, and for a hyena from 12*s.* 6*d.* to 8*s.* 4*d.* Half of these premiums were paid by the Company, the other half by the burgher councillors if the animal was destroyed in the Cape district, and by the court of landdrost and heemraden if it was destroyed in the district of Stellenbosch and Drakenstein. In 1745 a regulation was made that in order to obtain the premium the dead animal must be exhibited at the castle or at the office of the landdrost. Previous to that date it had been paid on exhibition of

the skin, but at this time it was suspected that some unprincipled persons were bartering furs from the Hottentots of the interior.

The elephant had nearly disappeared from the settled districts, owing to the demand that existed for ivory. In July 1737 elephant hunting beyond the eastern border was prohibited, owing to the massacre of Hubner's party. The love of gain was, however, so strong that in the following October the prohibition was cancelled, and the only restriction placed upon elephant shooting was that each hunter should pay two shillings and a penny for a license. In the license it was forbidden to molest natives or to trade with them.

In 1742 an order was issued prohibiting the destruction of zebras under a penalty of 10*l.* for each offence. The remarks of the members of the council of policy with regard to the extirpation of this animal show that they could look at the question in a broader light than that of mere profit. Its presence on the hillsides, according to them, was an attractive feature. They thought also that it could be tamed, and with a view of making an experiment, they offered a premium of 20*l.* each for three young ones to be delivered at the castle.

Hippopotami, rhinoceroses, elands, ruffaloes, and antelopes of all kinds were being killed in great numbers for the sake of their flesh and their hides, and were already becoming scarce in the settled parts of the country. General orders were often issued before 1753 regarding their preservation, and in that year a regulation was made that no large animal, except of a carnivorous species, should be shot by any unlicensed person; but such orders and regulations had little or no effect, for they could not be enforced far from a seat of magistracy.

On the 25th of January 1742 Mr. Adriaan Valckenier, who had resigned the office of governor-general of Netherlands India on the 6th of November 1741, arrived in Capetown as admiral of a homeward bound fleet. He was

in ill health, and had to be carried on shore. There were grave charges against him, in connection with disturbances at Batavia in October 1740 in which several thousand Chinese lost their lives, and in connection with the arbitrary arrest and deportation to Europe of three councillors of India, Messrs. Van Imhoff, De Haze, and Van Schinne. The directors were therefore anxious that he should not get beyond their jurisdiction, and sent out an order to arrest him if he should make his appearance in South Africa. This order arrived during the night of the 10th of February in the English vessel *Swift*, and in the following morning it was carried into effect by Captain Alleman. Mr. Valckenier was detained in Capetown until the 12th of August, when he was placed on board the outward bound ship *Sara Jacoba* to be taken back to Batavia. In the castle of that city, where he had once held supreme power, he remained a prisoner nearly nine years, while the charges against him were being investigated, and he died in confinement on the 20th of June 1751, before his trial was concluded.

The baron Gustaf Willem van Imhoff, who was among the councillors named above, was appointed governor-general by the directors, and subsequently proved himself one of the ablest and best men who ever filled that office. On his way to Batavia in January 1743 he called at the Cape, and was installed here with much ceremony. He made a short tour of inspection in the country, and instituted an inquiry into the condition of the farmers, the result of which was very unsatisfactory.

The only churches in the colony were at the Cape, Stellenbosch, and the Paarl. These were at the time all provided with clergymen, the reverend Willem van Gendt having been sent out by the directors and stationed at Stellenbosch in December 1738. At each of these places there were schools, but everywhere else the education of children was greatly neglected, being in most instances entrusted to no more competent a teacher than a soldier

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engaged for a short term. There were over four hundred leasehold farms or cattle runs, some of which were three or four days' journey from the nearest church, so that the attendance on public worship was frequently neglected for long periods. The governor-general consulted the clergymen François le Sueur and Willem van Gendt, who recommended the establishment of more churches and schools. At this date the European population of South Africa consisted of about four thousand colonists and fifteen hundred servants of the Company with their families.

The governor-general called the members of the council of policy together, and issued certain instructions. Two new churches were to be erected in the outlying districts with as little delay as possible, and at each were to be stationed a clergyman and a comforter of the sick, the latter of whom should also act as schoolmaster. The clergymen were to be detained from the first Indiamen calling at the Cape with chaplains on board.

A comforter of the sick was also to be sent without delay to labour among the scattered inhabitants beyond the Breede river. There was no one in the colony to whom it was considered proper to offer this post, but on the 9th of May 1744 the ship *Ouwerkerk* arrived in Table Bay from Middelburg with a very competent sick-comforter, by name Abraham Schietekat, on board, and he was transferred to Grootvadersbosch to open a school and conduct religious services. His wife, Isabella Breyart, and his two children were in Middelburg, but were sent out by the Company with the earliest opportunity.

The places selected for the new churches were the sites of the present villages of Tulbagh and Malmesbury.

The first was the most convenient place of meeting for the farmers occupying the country on that side of Riebeeck's Kasteel, the land of Waveren or present Tulbagh Basin, the Warm Bokkeveld, and the valleys of the upper Breede and Hex rivers. It was beyond the first

range of mountains, but was accessible by a road over the Rodezand pass, not far from the ravine through which the Little Berg river flows, and where the railway now enters the Tulbagh basin. The course of the old road can still be clearly traced, and a formidable rock that nearly blocked up the passage is yet an object of interest to the inhabitants of the neighbourhood. The landdrost and heemraden of Stellenbosch used frequently to spend an hour or two trying to devise some means of getting rid of this rock, but they never succeeded in their object. Some few years after this date the Rodezand pass was abandoned, and a rough waggon road was made through the ravine which is the gateway of the valley at the present day.

A site was selected along a gentle slope, where water could easily be led on, and here the foundations of a church and parsonage were laid without delay. The original buildings are standing yet, the parsonage, which is partly constructed of materials imported from Holland, still serving the purpose for which it was designed. A few weeks after the governor-general's instructions were given, a ship put into Table Bay, having on board as chaplain the reverend Arnoldus Maurits Meyring, who was detained for duty here. He preached at the Cape for the first time on the 31st of March 1743. The reverend Hendrik Kock had returned to Europe in February 1742, and Mr. Meyring was therefore kept at the Cape as assistant clergyman until the parsonage at Waveren was fit for occupation. He held the first service there in September 1743, but the regular duty was not begun until some months later. On the 8th of October 1743 a consistory was established, when Jacobus Theron and Pieter Theron were approved by the council of policy as elders, and Jacobus du Pré and Gerrit van der Merwe were selected as deacons from a double nomination. Before 1795 the place had no other permanent inhabitants than the clergyman, the sick-comforter, and the sexton. In

that year a number of building sites were sold along the present Church street, and a small village then gradually arose. The locality was known simply as Roodezand's Kerk until 1804, when it received the name Tulbagh.

There was a little difficulty in selecting a site for the second church. It was recognised that the situation in which it would be of greatest service was in the centre of the district known as the Zwartland, then as now the best wheat-producing tract of country in South Africa. But upon inspection it was found that there was no suitable place which was not already occupied as a farm. At length the widow of Pieter van der Westhuizen made an offer, which the council of policy accepted on the 16th of June 1744. She received in exchange for her farm another which she had previously selected, and the congregation paid her a sum of money equal to one hundred and seventy-four pounds sterling for the buildings. A sick-comforter, Wietse Botes by name, who was serving on board a ship in the bay, was thereupon transferred to the church place, and opened a school at once. On the 9th of May 1745 an agreement was made with the reverend Rutger Andries Weerman, chaplain of a passing ship, and he became the first pastor of the congregation. A consistory was formed on the 8th of July, when Pieter Venter and Gerrit Olivier were chosen as elders, and Jan Loubser and Floris Smit were appointed deacons. The church place was known as Zwartland's Kerk until 1829, when it received the name of Malmesbury.

Close by is a hot mineral spring, like those which are found in many other parts of South Africa, and which are used by persons troubled with rheumatism and some other diseases. But even with the advantages of a central situation, a church, and a mineral bath, besides having no mountain barrier between it and the Cape, the site was not an attractive one. The ground is very uneven, and the colonists of those days were partial to tolerably level surfaces for building upon. There is no



permanent stream of water which can be led out for household purposes and to irrigate gardens, the supply in summer being obtained from wells. Further, the belief was general that the brackish soil, though capable of producing the finest wheat in the world, was unfit for the growth of trees, a matter always of primary importance in a Dutch village. This belief had some slight foundation, but of late years it has been put to the test, and the trees now flourishing in the streets of Malmesbury and on many farms in the district prove that with industry and care the defects of the soil can be overcome.

At the request of the consistories the council of policy gave them permission to hold a combined meeting for the purpose of proposing boundaries between the five parishes. On the 30th of August 1745 there assembled for that purpose four clergymen, the two elders of the Cape congregation and one from each of the other churches, the four deacons of the Cape and one from Stellenbosch. Mr. Ryk Tulbagh presided in the capacity of political commissioner. The assembly settled parochial boundaries, subject to approval by the council of policy, and resolved to meet thereafter on the third Monday of every January to arrange matters of common interest.

Both in the Netherlands and in South Africa this proceeding met with opposition from many persons, who thought that such meetings might tend to too much independence, or that they might lead to the introduction of error. The assembly was so indiscreet as to style itself a classis, a term synonymous with presbytery, though it was evident that as the clergymen were merely chaplains of the East India Company, the authority attached to a presbytery could not be exercised. The classis of Amsterdam, in calling its attention to this fact, suggested that it should adopt the title of combined church meeting, and after 1748 it was known by that name.

In its yearly sessions the matters discussed were trivial,

because it was powerless to deal with anything of importance. Its opponents, too, were continually watching to entrap it, and at length found the opportunities they were seeking. The reverend Mr. Cloppenburg, who was sent out in 1746, was leading a notoriously evil life, and the combined church meeting proceeded to deal with him, not as if it had the power of a classis, but as if it had power to investigate such matters and send its recommendations to the government. This was regarded in Holland as usurping authority to which it was not entitled. A few years later it forwarded a copy of its proceedings to the synod of South Holland, without having received permission to do so, which seemed to the directors to indicate an insubordinate spirit, the custom sanctioned by them having been to send a duplicate of the records to the synod of North Holland only.

Instructions were hereupon given to the Cape government to prevent such irregularities, and on the 13th of March 1759 the council of policy issued orders that put an end to the sessions. The reasons assigned, apart from the charge of insubordination, were that the meetings were serving no useful purpose, and that the travelling expenses of the clergymen and elders were burdens too heavy to be borne by the congregations.

Thereafter each consistory dealt with matters affecting itself only, the government had control in all matters not relating to doctrine, and the classis of Amsterdam examined the qualifications of clergymen before they were sent out by the directors, gave advice in questions of discipline and procedure, and acted as a court of appeal in questions affecting adherence to the rules of the church.

The changes in the staff of clergymen doing duty in the colony were frequent. Mr. Le Sueur, having purchased a farm at Rondebosch in the estate of his wife's father, Jan Swellengrebel, was obliged to resign his position in the Company's service, and in August 1746 was

succeeded by the reverend Ruwardus Cloppenburg, who was sent out by the directors. Three weeks later the reverend Petrus van der Spuy arrived from Holland to fill the post of second clergyman at the Cape, which had long been vacant. Mr. Cloppenburg's domestic life was such that in January 1748 he was suspended by advice of the consistory, and in March of the same year was dismissed by the council and sent back to Europe without rank or salary. Mr. Van der Spuy then remained for some time sole clergyman of the Cape congregation, but was greatly assisted by Mr. Le Suenr, who was very highly esteemed, though in accordance with the law he could not draw a salary from the Company while he was owner of more than two morgen of land.

In October 1744 Mr. Van Gendt died, from which date the church at Stellenbosch was without a resident clergyman until September 1747, when the post was filled by the reverend Edward Arendsen, who was sent out by the directors. Mr. Arendsen died in July 1749. Mr. Van Echten, of Drakenstein, was then required to act as consultant of Stellenbosch until the directors could make another appointment.

In December 1748 Mr. Weerman, of Zwartland's kerk, at his own desire was transferred to Batavia. The congregation remained without a clergyman until August 1750, when the reverend Christiaan Benjamin Voltelen arrived from the Netherlands, and took over the duty.

Dissenters were still prohibited from holding public services. There were many Lutherans at the Cape, and they were anxious to have a resident clergyman, but could not obtain permission from the government. In 1742 a strong petition of theirs was refused. No objection was raised to Lutheran chaplains of Danish ships holding service in a private house, but this was the utmost liberty that was granted.

Another instance of the same kind of treatment occurred in connection with a Moravian missionary who

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*Hendrik Swellengrebel.*

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came from Germany to this country to attempt to convert the Hottentots to Christianity, and who established himself for that purpose at Bavians' Kloof, now Genadendal, in the district of Stellenbosch. The first mention of this missionary is found in a letter from the directors of the chamber of Middelburg, dated 3rd of December 1736, in which the council of policy was informed that in accordance with a recent resolution of the assembly of seventeen a free passage to the Cape was granted to him, and as he might be blessed as an instrument for the conversion of ignorant and barbarous heathen, or at least for bringing them to a more moral and better mode of living, the directors required the council to afford him such assistance as he might need. The next reference to him is found in the proceedings of the council of policy of the 11th of July 1737, in which it is stated that 'a certain person named George Schmit had come here in the ship *Huis te Rensburg*, with the object of converting the Hottentots to Christianity, if that should be possible; that it was to be hoped such a desirable result would be attained by the blessing of the Lord upon the means to be employed, so that those people might be brought to the true knowledge of God; and therefore all possible assistance was to be given to the said person in the prosecution of that meritorious work.'

It was contemplated that if any Hottentots should be converted to the Christian faith the missionary would present them to the clergyman of the parish for baptism, and that he would not attempt to form a separate congregation with rules differing from those of the Dutch reformed church. He collected a party of Hottentots, with whom he laboured for five years, doing his utmost to teach them the doctrines of Christianity and the advantages of a settled industrious life. All this time he met with nothing but kindness from the government, but when in 1742 he baptized five of his converts he was immediately called to account.

On the 4th of September of that year the matter was discussed by the council of policy. Schmit's authority to administer the sacraments was examined and found to be a document signed by the head of a foreign society, which the council ruled could not be held to have any force in South Africa. The missionary was therefore forbidden to baptize any more, but he was advised to continue instructing the Hottentots, in which work his great zeal was admitted. The clergymen of the Cape, Stellenbosch, and Drakenstein were requested by the council to draw up a report of the circumstance and submit it to the classis of Amsterdam for instructions.

The report of Messrs. Le Sueur, Van Gendt, and Van Echten, dated 26th of September 1742, is still preserved in the records of the classis.<sup>1</sup> In it they not only related the circumstances, but expressed their own views very fully. The Hottentots, they stated, were neither sufficiently instructed in Christian principles nor far enough advanced in orderly living to be fit for baptism. Schmit, being an unordained man, baptism by him, they contended, was invalid, and if he took upon himself to administer one sacrament he might do the same with regard to the other. His conduct in this respect was contrary to the law, which did not permit of public services except those of the established church. They were desirous of the extension of Christianity, however, and therefore requested the classis to recommend the directors to send out a sick-comforter of the Dutch reformed communion to perform the work of an evangelist among the Hottentots.

<sup>1</sup> The archives of the classis are kept in an apartment off the assembly chamber of the consistory in the Nieuwe Kerk on the Dam at Amsterdam. The chamber, which contains appliances for writing, is hung with portraits of the leading reformers. Through the kindness of the reverend Dr. G. J. Vos, in whose charge the archives are, I had an opportunity of examining them. Those referring to South Africa are well arranged, and the papers are in an excellent state of preservation, but the series is far from complete. It commences with a report from the sick-comforter Pieter van der Stael, who arrived at the Cape on the 5th of March 1656, and closes with the overthrow of the Dutch administration in the colony.

The tenor of the clergymen's report was made public in South Africa as soon as it was drawn up, and in course of time it became known that the classis of Amsterdam agreed with the views expressed in it, though the evangelist asked for was not sent out.

This decision seemed to the missionary to make his position, if not quite untenable, at least very unpleasant. In his account he says that he thought it very absurd that he should teach the Hottentots and send them for baptism to ministers who made no efforts for their conversion. But now he had to contend against popular prejudice, for his conduct caused many of the colonists to regard him as a heretic, and it came to be generally believed that the Moravians were fanatics who held wild views of Christianity. The people whom he had collected together left him, probably out of love of change, though he believed it to be owing to representations by neighbouring farmers that the religion he was teaching was not that of the bible. He complained of this to the council, and instructions were sent to the sergeant in command of the military post close by to inquire carefully into the matter, in order that any one hindering him in his good work might be brought to account; but the people who had dispersed could not be collected together again.

Under these circumstances Schmit found himself incapable of effecting any good, and he therefore requested permission from his Society to return to Europe. He hoped that upon his representations the Moravian body would be able to obtain from the directors a reversal of the order concerning baptism, and that he might return to South Africa with assistants to carry on the work. The Society acceded to his request, and on the 28th of January 1744 he appeared before the council of policy and asked for a free passage in one of the Company's ships to Holland. This was granted, and he returned to Europe. But the directors refused to permit any other

church than the Dutch reformed to be established in the colony, and therefore the Moravians were compelled to abandon their benevolent enterprise.

To prevent the recurrence of such heavy losses as the Company had sustained by shipwrecks in Table Bay, in 1741 the directors resolved that their fleets should thereafter refresh at Simon's Bay from the 15th of May to the 15th of August, the season when gales from the north-west were common. The time of sailing from the Netherlands and the Indies was so arranged that under ordinary circumstances there would not be many ships in our seas during that period, but storms and unavoidable detentions had to be taken into account. Simon's Bay offered secure shelter during the winter season, but there was a drawback to its use in difficulty of access by land, which made the supplying a ship with fresh provisions very expensive. In 1742 it was first used as a port of call, when it was found that in fine weather boats could ply from the head of Kalk Bay, thus shortening the land carriage considerably.

In February 1743 a site for a station was selected by the governor-general Van Imhoff on the southern shore of the bay, and in the following month a commencement was made with the erection of a building to serve as a magazine, a hospital, and quarters for the party in charge. A few soldiers were stationed there under command of Sergeant Justinus Blas, who had the title of postholder. In course of time a small village was built, which was occupied by fishermen and people who depended for a living upon the shipping. It took its name from the bay, being called Simonstown.

The establishment was at first conducted in the least expensive manner possible, for the directors had resolved to make an experiment with the construction of a mole or breakwater in Table Bay, and should this succeed, the other port would not be needed. The mole was commenced on the 4th of February 1743. As it was con-

sidered a work of importance to the colony as well as to the Company, a special tax was levied upon all the Europeans in South Africa, Company's servants and burghers. Those in the Cape district were assessed at the labour of one hundred and fifty-three stout slaves for two months in the year, and those in the country at 29*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* in money or provisions. All the Company's slaves and all the waggons and cattle that could be spared from other work were employed upon the mole. A strong gang of convicts was sent from Batavia to assist in its construction.

The general direction of the undertaking was entrusted to Messrs. Johannes Carolus de Wet and Jacobus Möller, the first a retired burgher councillor and the other the head of the Company's naval establishment at the Cape. They gave the mole a base of one hundred feet in breadth, sloping upwards to twenty-four feet at the top. By the close of 1746 it was three hundred and fifty-one feet in length from the shore; but the work was then suspended, owing to the destruction of vegetation by a plague of locusts. In the mean time the convicts sent from Java had nearly all died from change of climate and excessive fatigue, and the burghers declared that they could not pay their quota any longer. The expense was found to be beyond the means of the Company, and the completion of the mole was abandoned. As far as could be judged, it promised, if carried out to a sufficient length, to protect the bay without causing it to silt up. The water remained at its original depth on the inner side, while on the outside a bank of sand had formed, which strengthened the work.

The abandoned mole, after being beaten down by storms and waves, and serving as a quarry for buildings in its neighbourhood, is still to be seen like a reef running out from under the present lighthouse, its site having ever since been called on that account Mouille Point.

For a long time past the winefarmers had been



making complaints of there being no sale for the produce of their vineyards, then from two to four thousand leggers a year; and to relieve them the directors had resolved, if no other remedy could be devised, to substitute wine for spirits to a large extent in their ships and Indian establishments, provided a moderately good article could be obtained. The burgher councillors, on behalf of the farmers, addressed the governor-general Van Imhoff on this question. The governor-general offered them free trade in India, upon payment of 16s. 8d. freight and 2l. 10s. 0d. duty a legger. The burghers replied that such a privilege would be of no use to them. The governor-general then proposed that the tax on wine should be increased from 4s. 2d. to 12s. 6d. a legger; that upon payment of this, a fee of 4s. 2d. to the fiscal, and a fee of 1l. 0s. 10d. to the licensed dealer, the burghers should be at liberty to sell without let or hindrance to all visitors, Dutch or foreign, at the best price they could obtain; and that the Company should purchase at 5l. 5s. 10d. a legger sufficient for its own needs, which would be on an average about four leggers for each ship leaving the port, in addition to a quantity to be sent to the Netherlands and to Batavia for ships coming to the Cape and for the use of the workpeople in India. With this proposal the burgher councillors on behalf of the farmers expressed themselves satisfied.

The question of a market for other produce than corn and wine then came on for discussion. The governor-general proposed to reduce the price of peas to 1l. and of beans to 16s. a muid, and offered on behalf of the Company to take as much as they chose to grow at those prices. Whatever was not needed for the use of the ships could be sent to Batavia. To this arrangement also the burgher councillors agreed.

Since 1722 the officers of government at the Cape had been permitted to have gardens for their own use, not exceeding two morgen in extent; but they were pro-

hibited from selling anything out of them or of traffick-  
ing in any manner whatever with farm produce. Their  
salaries were insufficient for their decent maintenance, but  
they had been allowed to trade in various kinds of foreign  
wares on their own account. The governor-general pro-  
hibited further trading, and as compensation allowed the  
officials certain fixed sums on different transactions. Thus,  
for every legger of wine purchased by the Company from  
the farmers, a sum of 2*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.* was to be divided be-  
tween the governor and the secunde in the proportion of  
two-thirds to the former and one-third to the latter. In  
practice it came to this, that a farmer who delivered a  
legger of wine for exportation or for the use of the Com-  
pany's ships signed a receipt for 8*l.*, but actually received  
only 5*l.* 5*s.* 10*d.*, 12*s.* 6*d.* being deducted for the Com-  
pany, 1*l.* 7*s.* 9*d.* for the governor, and 13*s.* 11*d.* for  
the secunde. The fiscal had corresponding privileges in  
issuing licenses to trade, and trifling perquisites were  
also allowed to some of the junior officers, who were  
really in a pitiable condition as far as their purses were  
concerned.

No official document could be drawn up for a burgher  
without a heavy fee being paid. This was an ever in-  
creasing evil, for the fees were constantly being aug-  
mented. Thus, a few years later, a certificate of release  
from the service of the Company had to be written on a  
stamp of 12*s.* 6*d.*, and the secretary of the council of  
policy received 2*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.* for drawing it out and signing  
it.

The practice of using different money from that of the  
Netherlands opened a door to what would now be termed  
fraud, but what was in those days regarded as a legiti-  
mate perquisite of the officers of government. In the  
accounts, which after 1738 were kept in rixdollars and  
stivers, two and a half Dutch gulden of twenty stivers  
each were equal to one rixdollar. But at the Cape and  
throughout India a fictitious gulden, of which there was

no metallic representation, was in use. In receiving money for taxes or goods, three of these were counted as one rixdollar. But in paying out money—for instance to a Cape farmer for grain—the fictitious gulden was reckoned at sixteen stivers, thus giving to the officer in charge of the granaries a perquisite of four per cent upon the value of the transaction. In converting the money of the old records into British coinage, the fictitious gulden must therefore sometimes be taken at one value, sometimes at the other. Before 1770 there was no attempt to rectify this evil. Another perquisite—considered legitimate—was receiving grain at a heavier weight the muid than it was debited to the Company. The last or load, in which the accounts were kept, at this time consisted of seventeen muids, a few years later of eighteen muids and a half. The muid, as charged to the Company, weighed one hundred and seventy-five Amsterdam pounds, as delivered by the farmer, weighed from one hundred and eighty to one hundred and ninety pounds.

The colonists were constantly taking possession of new tracts of country and laying them out in cattle runs never less than five or six thousand acres in extent, for each of which they paid to the Company a yearly rent of 2*l.* 10*s.* before 1732, and 5*l.* after that date. Upon the slightest fault being discovered in a cattle run, the occupier did not hesitate to abandon it and move to another farther in the interior. A vast region, almost untenanted since its desolation by small pox in 1713, lay open before the colonists.

The governor-general Van Imhoff regarded this condition of things as boding no good to the future of the European race in South Africa. In his opinion it would tend to unsettle the colonists and turn them into a body of half barbarous nomads. To attempt to fix the people to the soil, he issued instructions that any one who so desired could convert sixty morgen of ground about his homestead into freehold property, upon application to

the council of policy and payment of from 10*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.* to 41*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* according to the value of the land. The remainder of the farm was to be held as before; its use, as long as it was not required by the Company, being allowed upon payment of a yearly rent of 5*l.* This measure, though well intended, had not much effect, as very few farmers availed themselves of it.

The governor-general regarded the introduction of negroes into the colony as a very serious evil, but he could devise no means of rectifying the condition of things which their presence caused. In a memorandum which he drew up on the 25th of February 1743 or the use of the directors, he regretted that Europeans in large numbers were not sent out in the early days of the settlement, as in that case some of them would have been obliged to labour with their hands, and things would then be very much better. The introduction of slaves had caused every white man, no matter how humble his birth, to regard himself as a master, and unless paid at an extravagant rate he expected to be served instead of serving others. Masons and carpenters often demanded four shillings and even four shillings and six pence a day, with their food, and withal would only do half as much work as in Europe. Farm labourers were not to be had at any wages. Most of the holders of land were not farmers at all in the sense in which that word was used in the Netherlands, but masters of plantations, and would consider it a disgrace to toil. There was no help for it, however, as negroes had been imported, and the system could not then be changed.

Before 1743 there was outside of Capetown but one seat of magistracy in South Africa. Over all the wanderers who were pushing their way inland the landdrost and heemraden of Stellenbosch legally held jurisdiction, but practically many of them were beyond the reach of law. On the 12th of November of this year four heemraden were appointed to form a court of justice

for the residents beyond the lower Breede river. Their names were Cornelis van Rooyen, Jan Loots, Andries Holtshausen, and Jacobus Botha. They were selected out of a double number nominated by the board of landdrost and heemraden of Stellenbosch and Drakenstein, as it was at first intended that for general purposes they should sit in that court.

In January 1744 Mr. Johannes Theophilus Rhenius, previously a bookkeeper in the Company's service, was appointed assistant landdrost and secretary in subordination to the landdrost of Stellenbosch. Almost immediately a dispute arose concerning the rank of the officials. The heemraden maintained that Mr. Rhenius, being their secretary, was beneath them in dignity, while he on his part contended that as assistant landdrost he was their superior officer.

The question was referred for settlement to Governor Swellengrebel and the council of policy. They decided that when the court sat to hear judicial cases Mr. Rhenius was to preside, but when it sat to arrange district affairs the oldest heemraad present was to occupy the chair. This arrangement did not answer at all. But on the 31st of August 1745 the dispute was brought to an end by the formation of a new magisterial district, and the elevation of Mr. Rhenius to the full rank of landdrost. The number of heemraden was increased to six, owing to the great size of the new district, the eastern and northern boundaries of which were not otherwise defined than 'where the power of the honourable Company ends.' Half of the heemraden retired every year, after sending a list of six names to the council of policy, from which list their successors were chosen by that body.

There was as yet no place selected for the seat of the new magistracy, and for a time the court met at the residence of one of the heemraden. The government wisely left this to be arranged by the court itself. Some excellent sites were already occupied as farms, but it was

not deemed advisable to eject government tenants. The board of landdrost and heemraden prudently took time, and only after much inspection and discussion was a site agreed upon. Application was then made to the governor and council, by whom on the 25th of October 1746 permission was given to use the ground selected and to put up such buildings as might be needed.

Mr. Rhenius and the district councillors chose a charming locality. From the Langebergen issue at various places little streams of clear fresh water, feeders of a river which drains a valley stretching from the Warm Bokkeveld to the sea. One of these streams which, for want of a more original name, was called the Corulands river, winds through a dell some miles in length before it unites its waters with those of the Breede. Here, with the mountains close in front and rich soil capable of being irrigated around, a drostdy and other necessary buildings speedily arose. At the present day the village, with its scattered houses and gardens on each side of a single winding street, extends quite three miles along the vale, but in the middle of last century few people could maintain themselves except by farming, and hence many years elapsed before it could fairly be called more than a hamlet. It received a name in 1747, as on the 26th of October of that year the council of policy decided that the district should be called Swellendam, in honour of the governor and his lady, and in conformity with the usage of the time the seat of magistracy took the same name. Building sites for the use of persons not in the government service were first surveyed in 1750.

On the 31st of August 1745, when the district of Swellendam was formed, the dividing line between it and the district of Stellenbosch was laid down by the council of policy from Zoetendal's Vlei on the seacoast to Tigerhoek in the range of mountains along the southern base of which the river Zonderend flows, thence to the junction of the Breede and Hex rivers, and thence the Hex

river to its source. The dividing line between the districts of the Cape and Stellenbosch was made the Keyser's river as far up as the farm of Jacob Diederichs, instead of the Kuils river as previously. Farther north the dividing line was not named in any other way than that certain localities were mentioned as being under the jurisdiction of the landdrost and heemraden of Stellenbosch. But that definition was sufficiently clear. According to it, to the Cape district was assigned the territory south of the Berg river and enclosed between the sea and a line running along the western base of Riebeeck's Kasteel to the Keyser's river. The northern boundary of the colony was left undefined.

On the 15th of October 1743 the Indian authorities issued instructions to reduce the price of wheat delivered at the Company's magazines at the Cape to 9s. 4d. the muid. Thereupon some of the most substantial farmers in the country assembled at Stellenbosch to confer with the burgher councillors and heemraden, and endeavour through their solicitation to obtain a higher price.

They represented that the ordinary work of the agriculturist was performed by his slaves, but at harvest time he required more labourers. These he obtained by hiring slaves from the townspeople at the rate of from 1s. 8d. to 2s. a day. If he needed the services of a European mason or carpenter, he had to pay from 2s. 6d. to 4s. a day, in addition to food, though occasionally an inferior workman could be hired at 2l. a month. After paying wages at this rate, and deducting the Company's dues, he could not sell wheat at 9s. 4d., as even in the most favourable seasons the actual cost of production in labour, cattle, and implements was 8s. 2d. a muid. The burgher councillors and heemraden were of the same opinion, and they petitioned the Indian authorities to raise the price again to 10s. 8d. In June 1745 the governor-general and council of India agreed to what was asked of them.

The farmers were now in this position. The Company

purchased from them as much ordinary wine as it needed at 5*l.* 5*s.* 10*d.* a legger clear, and as much wheat as it needed at 10*s.* 8*d.* a muid, from which was deducted the tithe, calculated upon the last census returns made. They could sell surplus produce to any one who chose to buy, upon paying first the tithe dues upon grain and 12*s.* 6*d.* upon every legger of wine, secondly 1*l.* 0*s.* 10*d.* a legger to the licensed dealers in wine if this article was sold to the master or purser of a ship, and thirdly a fee to the fiscal when ships' people were purchasers of produce.

Complaints of the quality of the wine were frequently made by the Indian authorities. The directors sent out skilled persons from Europe to instruct the farmers in its proper manufacture, and the authorities at the Cape tested every legger that was purchased, but the complaints continued as before.

In 1744 M. La Bourdonnais, governor of the French island of Mauritius, proposed to the council of policy at the Cape a free exchange of the productions of the two countries, and stated that fifty or sixty leggers of wine would be needed yearly by the colony under his rule, exclusive of the shipping. The council replied that they could not establish a regular trade, nor receive the produce of Mauritius in barter; but that Frenchmen could purchase at the Cape as much wine as they chose, upon paying cash for it, and could then remove it at their pleasure.

The farmers were generally in such a condition that the accumulation of wealth was impossible. In 1750 the directors mooted the subject of increasing the number of colonists, and the council of policy called for reports. The reply of the board of heemraden of Stellenbosch and Drakenstein is dated 11th of January 1751. In it the heemraden expressed their opinion that there were too many European families then in the country to get a good living, and that people were anxious about the future



for their children's sake. The burgher councillors went to the very root of the matter. In their reply they stated that they knew of no means by which a greater number of people could obtain a living, unless free exportation of produce to all countries was permitted.

In their report the heemraden incidentally referred to the change then rapidly taking place in the old settled districts, in the disappearance of grass and the springing up of small bushy plants in its stead.

The village of Stellenbosch was by this time quite embowered among its oaks. It had been quickly rebuilt after the fire of 1710, and all travellers who now visited it described its beauty in glowing terms. The board of landdrost and heemraden acted as a court of justice, and performed also the duties which are now undertaken by municipal and divisional councils. A few of its enactments will illustrate its powers and the way in which it used them.

A contract was made with a farmer to place a pontoon upon the Berg river and to keep in repair the road over the Roodezand pass, for which he was to receive yearly from every family residing beyond the Berg river either a muid of wheat or eleven shillings in money.

In December 1742 permission was given to the burgher Pieter Wium to open a butcher's shop in the village, on the following conditions. Every Wednesday and Saturday he was to offer for sale good wholesome fresh mutton at the rate of two pence for a single pound, or six pence for four pounds, and to refuse no one at that price. Four times a year he was to offer beef for sale at the same rates. Failing these conditions he was to pay a fine of 5*l.* to the deacons for the benefit of the poor.

Some of the burghers were in the habit of grinding their corn with hand mills or little water mills of their own construction. From this custom the board anticipated a serious decrease in the price paid for the leases of the public mills at Stellenbosch and Drakenstein,

which carried with them the exclusive privilege of grinding all the corn consumed within fixed limits at certain stated charges. The district was then receiving 126*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* a year for the lease of each of these mills. Yet the members of the board were very willing to assist their fellow burghers, if it could be done without affecting the revenue, and generally an arrangement was made that the owner of the hand mill should satisfy the lessee, and be allowed to grind his own corn. As an instance, it is recorded that the burgher Michiel Otto, of Hottentots-Holland, petitioned to be allowed to grind sufficient corn for the use of his household with a small water mill which he had erected on his farm. His request was acceded to, upon condition that he should pay to the miller of Stellenbosch the same fees as if he had his corn ground at the district mill, and that this permission should not form a precedent.

The convulsions in Europe which followed the death of the emperor Charles VI (20th of October 1740), and which began by the king of Prussia invading Silesia, largely affected the Dutch East India Company. In September 1744 despatches were received here announcing that France and England were at war, and that there was a likelihood of the Netherlands being involved at no distant date. The council was informed that the Company had resolved to construct a line of fortifications along the shore of Table Bay, and to strengthen the garrison of the Cape.

The fortifications then existing consisted of the castle and a battery on the shore where the breakwater now runs into the bay. The latter was commenced in February 1715 and completed in April 1726. It was at first termed Mauritius, but afterwards came to be popularly called the Chavonnes battery, a name which was officially conferred upon it in November 1744. On the opposite side of the castle a fort was being built, the foundation stone of which was laid on the 24th of October 1743. It was

completed in October 1744, and received the name Fort Knokke, which it still bears.

A line of batteries was now thrown up along the shore, only one of which—the Imhoff—still remains. This was intended to cover the face of the castle, and rose from the margin of the sea, where the waves in winter storms dashed against its walls. Its foundation stone was laid on the 23rd of November 1744, and the cannon were mounted on it in July of the following year. The others were less solidly built. There were four between the castle and the mouth of Salt River, named Swellengrebel, Elizabeth, Helena, and Tulbagh. Between the castle and the Chavonnes battery there was one, called Heeren Hendriks Kinderen, on which ten guns were mounted.

During the time that it was feared the colony might be attacked by an enemy, the burghers of the country districts were required to furnish a contingent of fifty mounted men to assist in keeping guard at the Cape. Every month they were relieved by fifty others, so as to make the task less heavy for individuals. It was felt as a great relief by the burghers, however, when on the 26th of September 1748 the British man-of-war *Tartar* brought intelligence that a truce had been arranged between the belligerents, and a little later the conclusion of peace at Aix-la-Chapelle permitted them to be relieved of military duty. A temporary outpost at St. Helena Bay, which had been established to give notice of any ships that might touch there, was broken up at the same time. The Waveren outpost, which had been maintained since 1700, was withdrawn in October 1743, when the building with sixty morgen of ground about it was sold by auction to Pieter de Vos for 266*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* The other military outposts—Saldanha Bay, Klapmuts, Groenekloof, Ziekenhuis, and Rietvlei—remained as before.

In November 1740 a good deal of excitement was created at the Cape by a report from a man named Frans Diederik Muller, who professed to be an exper:

enced mineralogist, that he had discovered a rich silver mine at Groot Drakenstein, close to Simonsberg. The governor immediately left to inspect the locality, and was persuaded by Muller that ore was to be had in enormous quantities, only requiring capital to extract it. As the Cape government could not incur the estimated expense without authority from the directors, an association was formed by some burghers to work the mine. This met with the approval of the assembly of seventeen, and early in 1743 a charter was granted to Mr. Olof de Wet, for himself and his associates, in which they were granted the exclusive right of searching for and extracting metals within the area bounded by the Paarl, French Hoek, and Hottentots-Holland mountains, upon condition of paying to the Company fifteen per cent of everything valuable obtained and delivering the surplus at prices which were specified for almost all known metals.

Mr. De Wet, who was the chief director of the mining association, then engaged a large number of men to whom the government had granted passes for the purpose, and the work of prospecting in the mountains and excavating at the so-called silver mine was commenced. Muller was engaged as master miner. For more than five years the clever rogue managed to keep up the hopes of his employers without producing anything valuable. The ore which was found he first pronounced to be silver, then he termed it copper, and finally he asserted it to be gold. At this stage some of it was sent to Holland to be tested by competent persons, when it was found to contain only 'a very inexpensive metal which was mixed in small quantities with other materials in casting bells to improve their sound.' The work then ceased. Muller was brought before the council, who declared him an impostor, confiscated his property, and banished him to Batavia. The pits and underground passages, which had cost the association a great deal of money, are still objects of curiosity to strangers.

During the period from the 1st of January 1725 to the 31st of December 1750 one thousand eight hundred and eighty-three ships, exclusive of the little vessels employed by the Cape government, put into Table Bay, either outward or homeward bound. Of these, one thousand five hundred and eight belonged to the Dutch East India Company, two hundred and eighty-four were English, forty-seven were Danish, forty-two were French, one was Portuguese, and one was Flemish. Simon's Bay began to be used in 1742, and before the close of 1750 seventy-seven ships, all belonging to the Company, put into that harbour. The average number touching at South African ports was thus seventy-five yearly.

Among the English ships that called was the *Centurion*, Commodore George Anson, bound homeward after her famous cruise in the Pacific. She was here in March and April 1744. Admiral Boscawen also, in April 1748, put into Table Bay with twenty-six men-of-war and transports, when on his way to India with a force intended to restore English power after the capture of Madras by the French. Great Britain and the Netherlands were then in alliance, and all possible assistance was therefore given to the English fleet. The troops were landed, and formed a camp just above the Company's garden, where they were drilled for some weeks, as many of them were recruits.

In the following year some ships of this fleet put into Table Bay when returning home. A large number of Englishmen being on shore, the commodore requested one Sunday that his chaplain might be permitted to preach in the church. Leave was granted without demur, and on the 20th of April 1749 divine service according to the rites of the church of England was held in the Dutch church in Table Valley.

On the 9th of February 1751 another English service was held in the same building. Mr. William Wake, recently governor of Bombay, died here while on his

passage home, when his widow and the captain of the ship in which he was returning requested the government that his body might be buried in the church with the state due to his rank. The request was complied with. The Dutch officers took part in the funeral procession, the flag on the castle was lowered, the bell was tolled, and minute guns were fired from the batteries. The surgeon of the *Boscawen* read the English burial service, and the body was deposited in a vault below the floor of the church. There was another instance of the kind on the 5th of February 1752, when an English officer of rank—Commander Lisle—was buried under the pavement of the church, the surgeon of the *Vigilant* reading the funeral service. Still another instance occurred on the 7th of September 1773, when Captain Ferguson, who was killed in a quarrel with another English officer when ashore in Capetown, at the request of his brother was buried in state within the same building, the service being read by the purser of the *Vansittart*.

Several wrecks took place on the South African coast during the period that Mr. Swellengrebel was governor.

In the night between the 5th and 6th of May 1740 the Company's outward bound ship *Visch*, when attempting to come to anchor in Table Bay in a stiff gale, ran ashore above the castle, and became a complete wreck. Her sick men, who were between decks, were drowned; the others, with one exception, reached the shore safely by means of a hawsers.

On the 25th of October 1747 the Company's outward bound ship *Reygersdal* ran ashore on the coast between Dassen and Robben Islands, and went to pieces at once, only twenty men getting to land. She was four months and a half from Holland, and had lost one hundred and twenty-five men from scurvy. Eighty-three of the remaining crew were too ill with the same disease to keep their feet, and the few who were able to work could not

manage the ship. They were trying to get into Saldanha Bay when the final disaster took place.

At dawn of the 19th of January 1750 the French ship *Gentoux*, homeward bound from Mauritius, ran ashore near Cape Agulhas in perfectly fine weather. Her crew of three hundred souls and about one hundred passengers, including nine ladies and several children, got safely to land; but suffered great hardships before they reached the Cape, though as soon as intelligence of the disaster was received, waggons and provisions were sent to meet them.

On the 8th of August 1750 a Danish ship named the *Elephant*, homeward bound from Tranquebar, was purposely run ashore close to the mouth of the Gourits river, where some days later she went to pieces. She had made a long and disastrous passage, during which her provisions ran short, and when land was seen there was not a drop of fresh water on board. The crew therefore ran her ashore as the only means of saving their lives. They, to the number of sixty-five men, got safely to land, and after a time reached the Cape.

The rainfall in the corn-growing districts during the second quarter of the eighteenth century fluctuated greatly, and consequently the harvests varied, as did also the exportation of wheat. The directors, having gained experience of the uncertainty of the seasons in South Africa, issued instructions that a year's supply of wheat should always be put by as a reserve before any was sent to India. In 1726 none could be spared, owing to drought. In 1727 there was not sufficient for home consumption, owing to rust, which had attacked rye before, but not wheat. From 1728 to 1737 there was a constant export, sometimes of as much as seven thousand muids, though the crops were not uniformly good.

The year 1738 was one of drought, and consequently the harvest was so poor that in 1739 only three hundred and forty muids of wheat and eighty-five muids of rye could be sent abroad. The next crops were almost de-

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stroyed by rust, so that in 1740 not only could no grain be exported, but famine at home was feared. The government was obliged to regulate the issue of bread very carefully. As those who had a supply of grain in store naturally demanded a high price for it, a placaat was issued declaring such demands extortionate, and prohibiting the sale of wheat at a higher rate than 11s. 1d. a muid. Following the famine, the wheat crop of 1740 was the best ever known in the country, and after the magazines had been filled, seventeen thousand muids were exported, a larger quantity than in any previous year.

In 1746 abundance of rain fell, and the wheat crop harvested was an exceedingly good one, but before the beans and peas were off the ground enormous swarms of locusts made their appearance, a plague from which the colony had been free since 1695. On the 28th of December they found their way in such vast numbers into Table Valley that the air seemed filled with them, and in a few days there was nothing edible left, not even leaves on the trees. The council appointed the 22nd of February 1747 to be observed as a day of fasting and prayer that God would be pleased to remove the plague. In the country districts the gardens were completely destroyed, and as there was nothing left for the cattle to eat, so many oxen and sheep died that meat, which, owing to there having been no disease among cattle for many years, had been previously sold at less than  $\frac{3}{4}$ d. a pound, at once doubled in price. By the end of April 1747, however, the locusts had almost disappeared.

The remaining years were free from excessive drought and insect plagues. The average exports to India during the period were seven thousand five hundred and thirty-nine muids of wheat, one hundred and fifteen muids of rye, two hundred and eighty-nine muids of peas, and two hundred and seventy-one muids of beans. Of ordinary wine, every year on an average three hundred and eighty-four coppers were sent to Batavia, exclusive of that sup-



plied to the ships. All the Constantia wine that could be obtained was exported, and ten times the quantity would have found a ready sale. Ivory, skins of wild animals, ostrich plumes, and dried fruit were also among the exports of the colony.

The Europeans and the Hottentots were living together on friendly terms, but occasionally the peace was disturbed by Bushman marauders. In 1747, and again in 1750, rumours reached the Cape that certain farmers on the distant border of Swellendam had not scrupled to shoot down women and children as well as men, when they were endeavouring to recover cattle and punish the murderers of their servants. The government caused strict inquiry to be made, with the object of bringing the offenders to justice; but it was impossible to obtain evidence sufficient to secure conviction.

The country along the coast was now occupied by Europeans a few miles farther eastward than Mossel Bay. Some graziers had taken possession of land on the banks of the Gamtoos, but in January 1745 the landdrost of Stellenbosch, acting under orders from the governor, required them to return to the westward of the Great Brak river. The circumstances under which the graziers lived were, however, so favourable to expansion of the colony, that they could not long be kept within the assigned limits.

That the Cape is subject to occasional shocks of earthquake was experienced in the early morning of the 5th of September 1739, and again at daybreak on the 27th of August 1749. In the first instance there was a single shock, in the second there were two in quick succession. On both occasions there was a rolling noise, as of passing thunder. Beyond causing alarm, no damage was done.

The East India Company had recently undergone a change in its constitution. During the late war the office of stadtholder had been again created in the Netherlands,

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after his abrogation for a number of years; and Willem Carel Hendrik Friso, prince of Orange, had been raised to the dignity, which was declared to be hereditary, with the additional title of captain and admiral-general of the republic. On the 25th of March 1749 he was created chief director and governor-general of the East India Company, and thenceforth all appointments to office were made by him upon recommendations from the assembly of seventeen.

At the Cape the officers of government were enthusiastic partisans of the Orange, as against the pure republican faction, and intelligence of the resumption of the stadtholderate was received with great rejoicing. The 29th of November 1747 was kept on this account as a public holiday. There were processions through the streets, ringing of bells, and firing of salutes, every person being decorated with orange cockades, while above the towers of the church and the castle orange banners were streaming. In the evening the houses were illuminated. For two nights in succession there were balls at the governor's residence; but in those days guests retired before midnight.

Governor Swellengrebel gave contentment to the colonists by his administration, though his talents were not of a brilliant order. The directors were also satisfied with him, and, as a mark of their approbation, in March 1744 he received the rank and title of councillor extraordinary of Netherlands India. After holding the office of governor ten years, and having been in continuous service since 1713, in April 1749 he wrote to the directors for permission to retire. He assigned as his reason that he wished to spend the remainder of his life in the Netherlands. This was then the prevailing custom with most of the Company's servants who attained high rank and who had accumulated wealth, and with him such a desire could only be compliance with fashion. Except two of his sons who were studying at Utrecht, all

his near relatives were living at the Cape. He was a widower, his wife having died in December 1746, and as an old man he was going to a country which was not his fatherland, and in which he would be a stranger.

The same despatch that announced Governor Swellengrebel's wish to retire contained a request from the remaining members of the council that if the directors consented to relieve him, the secunde Ryk Tulbagh might be appointed in his stead. The directors and the stadtholder consented to what was asked, and on the 1st of April 1750 a despatch was received announcing the appointment of Mr. Tulbagh as governor and of Mr. Sergius Swellengrebel, a cousin of the retiring official, as secunde. The applicant was permitted to transfer the administration whenever he chose, and to proceed to Europe as admiral of a homeward bound fleet. It was nearly a year before the final arrangements were made, for it was only on the 27th of February 1751 that the administration was handed over to Mr. Tulbagh. On the following day the late governor embarked, and on the 2nd of March he sailed for Europe with a fleet of five ships. He took up his residence at Utrecht, to be near his sons, and died in that city in 1763.

During the second quarter of the eighteenth century the following persons, whose descendants are still in South Africa, settled in the colony :

Nicolaas Frans Alberts, before 1745,	Michiel Cornelis Berning, before 1755,
Rudolph Sigfried Alleman, before 1730,	Jan Lourens Bestbier, before 1737,
Hendrik van Aswegen, before 1736,	Christoffel Beukman, 1740, Nicolaas van Blerk, 1735,
Diederik Aucamp, before 1727, Jeremias Auret, before 1748,	Hendrik Lodewyk Bletterman, 1741,
Jan Andries Bam, 1725, Jan Christiaan Hendrik Banermeester, 1749,	Philip Boomgaard, before 1750, Willem Boonzaaier, 1743, Willem Hendrik Boshof, 1741,
Johan Diederik Frederik Beneke, before 1743,	Wietse Botes, 1744, Jacob Breed, 1745,

- Johan Jacob Breitenbach, 1738,  
 Andries Brink, before 1738,  
 Roelof van den Burg, before 1732,  
 Matthys Calitz, before 1742,  
 Reynier Carelse, before 1744,  
 Jan Cats, 1734,  
 Jan Martin Coertze, before 1736,  
 Adolf Johan Hendrik van Coller,  
 before 1750,  
 Dirk Willem Crafford, before  
 1730,  
 Johan Jacob Crause, 1733,  
 Pieter Daniel Dantu, before 1743,  
 Johan Christiaan Davel, before  
 1748,  
 Adriaan Denys, 1741,  
 Jacob Diederiks, before 1741,  
 Johan Marthinus Dippenaar, be-  
 fore 1748,  
 Jan Augustus Dreyer, before 1729,  
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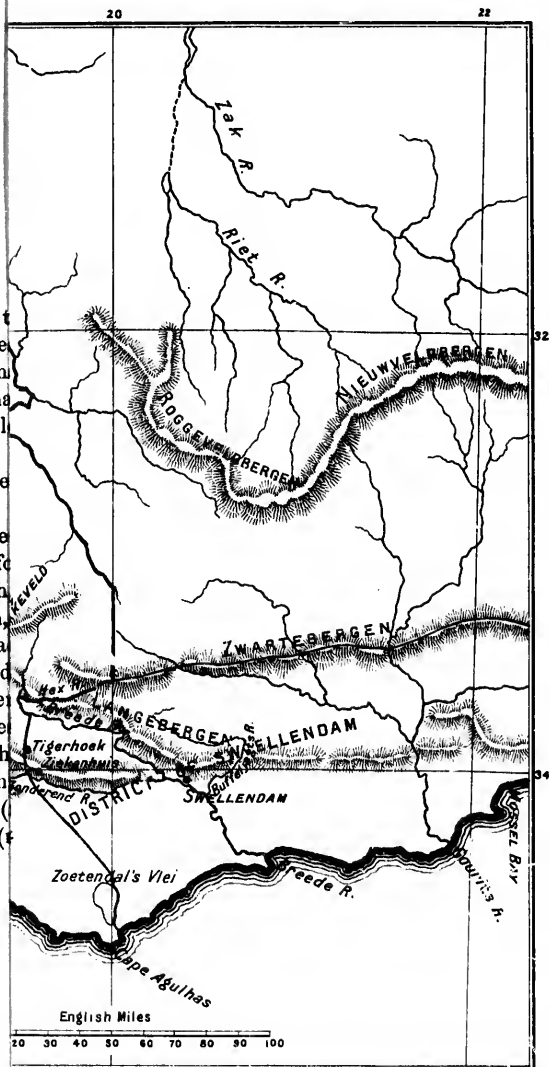
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This map shows the  
 The northern and eastern  
 along the coast farms  
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 Brak river, a few miles  
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The places where  
 Capetown, for  
 Stellenbosch  
 Swellendam  
 heemraadsdappert  
 founded

The churches were  
 Capetown, for  
 Stellenbosch  
 Drakenstein  
 Roodzand (the  
 Zwartland (the



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MAP IV.

This map shows the extent of the settlement in the year 1750. The northern and eastern boundaries were not yet defined, but along the coast farms were occupied in one direction as far as the mouth of the Elephant river and in the other as far as the Little Brak river, a few miles beyond Mossel Bay. East of the Hex river, colonists sometimes sought pasture for their cattle between the Langebergen and the Zwartebergen, but were not yet in permanent possession.

The places where there were courts of law were :—

Capetown, founded in April 1652,

Stellenbosch, founded in December 1679,

Swellendam, district formed and court of landdrost and heemraden established in August 1745, village founded in October 1746.

The churches were at :—

Capetown, established in August 1665,

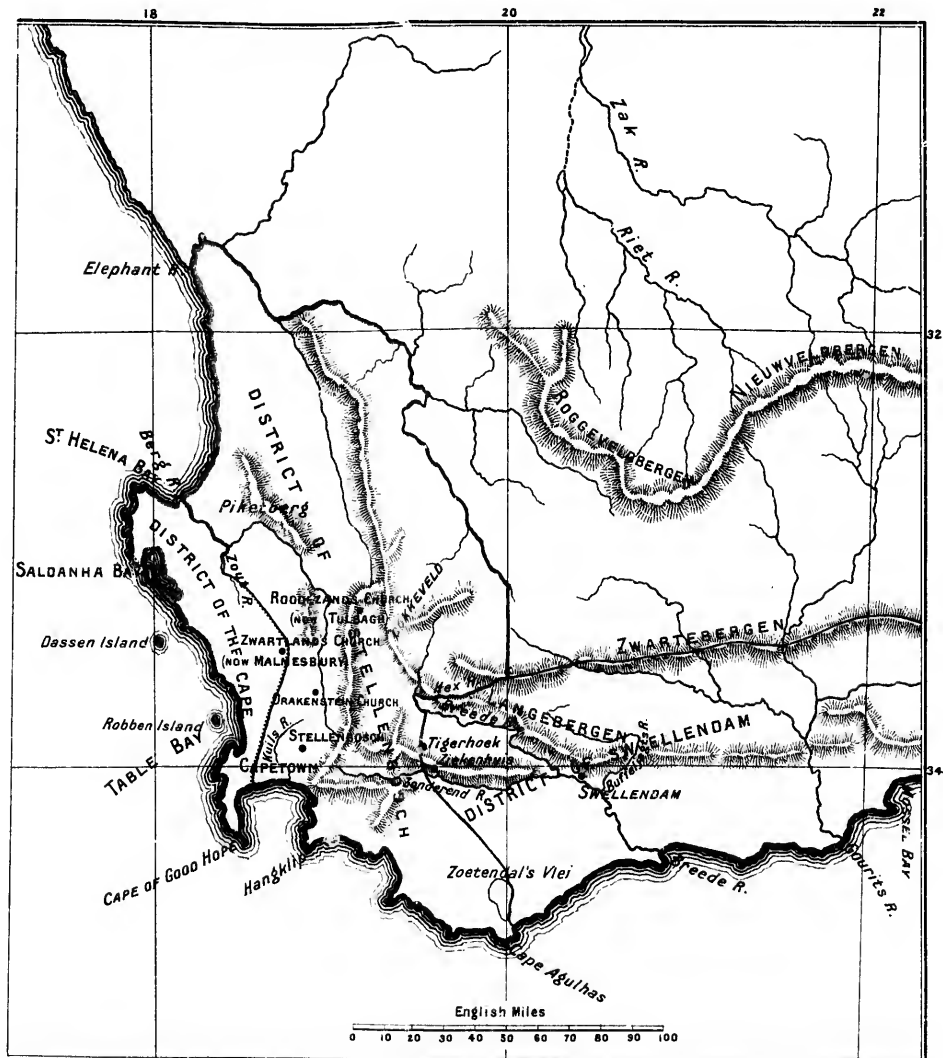
Stellenbosch, established in January 1687,

Drakenstein, established in December 1691,

Roodezand (now Tulbagh), established in October 1743,

Zwartland (now Malmesbury), established in July 1745.





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## CHAPTER XVI.

RYK TULBAGH, GOVERNOR, ASSUMED OFFICE 27<sup>TH</sup> FEBRUARY  
1751, DIED 11<sup>TH</sup> AUGUST 1771.

THE memory of Governor Ryk Tulbagh is still preserved by tradition in South Africa as that of a wise, just, and benevolent ruler. The eldest son of Dirk Tulbagh and Catharina Cattepoel, he was born in the city of Utrecht on the 21st of May 1699. He was of a plain, but honest and respectable family, many of the members of which had done good service for their country in time of war. Several of his near relatives, and among them in later years his father, laid down their lives on the battle field, fighting in the cause of the Netherlands. His parents removed from Utrecht to Bergen-op-Zoom while he was still an infant, and at this place his early life was spent. Here he remained at school until he was sixteen years of age, when his friends considered him sufficiently well educated to make his way in the world. Other capital than his own good qualities and the knowledge gained at school he had none.

In those days, although its purest period was past, the East India Company's service offered special inducements to lads like young Tulbagh. Whatever were the faults in colonising and ruling immense territories by means of such an association, there were merits also which ordinary governments do not possess. One of these merits was that the Company regarded ability in its officers as so much capital to be turned to account. Its agents abroad were far more competent, taken man for man, than the civil servants of the mother country.

Men of genius and intellect, of energy and industry, were sure of rapid promotion, while the dullard and the idler were equally certain of remaining in the lowest ranks.

Tulbagh entered the Company's service under an agreement for five years to act in whatever capacity he should be found most competent. The chamber of Rotterdam resolved to send him to South Africa, and in the year 1716 he bade his friends at Bergen-op-Zoom farewell and embarked in the ship *Terhorst*. He was not quite seventeen years of age when he landed in this country.

The lad had not been long here when he attracted the attention of his superiors by his excellent conduct. There was an earnestness in his demeanour that recommended him, and it was observed that whatever was given him to do, no matter how trivial it might be, was thoroughly well done. His obliging disposition, his utter forgetfulness of self when he could serve others, made him a general favourite.

Colonel De Chavonnes, who was then governor, observed that young Tulbagh spent his leisure hours principally in reading useful books. He found, on inquiry, that the youth was a fair accountant, and that his style of composition was much better than that of many old clerks. The neatness of his papers and the clearness of his handwriting pointed in the same direction. The governor, therefore, in 1718, placed him as an assistant clerk in the office of the secretary of the council of policy.

This appointment gave him a slight increase of pay, which he much needed,—for the junior officials had a difficulty in merely existing,—and it afforded him greater opportunities for study. His memory to the day of his death was exceedingly retentive, and it was at this period of his life that he laid by much of that great store of knowledge which those who came in contact with him half a century later considered marvellous in one whose schooldays had been so short. In his new employment

his first care was to make himself master of his work, and thereafter to do it in a masterly manner.

It was a peculiarity in the religious teaching of those days, and especially in pulpit utterances, that models for imitation were almost invariably selected from the old testament, not from the new. Of the numerous sermons and texts of sermons that have been handed down to us, nearly all are taken from that source. The power and majesty and wrath of God are continually dwelt upon, and the terrible judgments that overtake the wicked may almost be termed a favourite theme. Under this tuition men grew up to fear God, as undoubtedly they ought to do, but generosity and sympathy with distress were in most instances undeveloped.

With Ryk Tulbagh this was not the case. In all his dealings with others he did as he would have wished to be done by. His word was ever known to be strictly the truth. He often left himself without comforts, such as most men in his position would have regarded as necessaries of life, and no one would know the reason why until some poor widow or orphan or other distressed person would give the explanation. The Company's books in our archives show that a large proportion of his salary was transmitted every year to his widowed mother, Catharina Cattepoel,<sup>1</sup> until her death in 1757. He disliked to have his charity spoken of, and it was remarked of him that his judgment was never at fault except in the estimation of his own good deeds. Of these he was sure to make light.

Tulbagh remained as junior until 1722, when he was raised to the post of chief clerk to the secretary of the council of policy. In the following year, upon the promotion of Mr. Hendrik Swellengrebel to be master of the

<sup>1</sup> For English readers it may be necessary to observe that neither Dutch nor French women in those days exchanged their fathers' for their husbands' names on marriage. The English custom in this respect has only recently become common in South Africa.

warehouses, Tulbagh was chosen to succeed him as clerk in that department. In 1725 the secretary, Adriaan van Kervel, became fiscal, when Tulbagh was appointed to the vacant office. He remained in it without a vote until the 16th of September 1728, when he became a member of the council of policy, and at the same time had a seat given to him in the high court of justice. In 1726 he had been named by the local authorities a junior merchant on approbation, and this dignity was now confirmed by the directors. In 1732 he was further elevated in rank by having the title of merchant conferred upon him.

Thus gradually he was making his way upward in society, in every post giving entire satisfaction, and always esteemed and beloved by his colleagues. He had taken to wife a young lady who was by birth a colonist. Several of her relatives were then in the service of the East India Company, and among them her brother, Mr. Hendrik Swellengrebel, who was on several occasions Tulbagh's immediate superior in office.

He remained secretary of the council of policy until the 14th of April 1739, when by order of the assembly of seventeen he became secunde. At the same time he was raised to the dignity of senior merchant. He had long been a member of the high court of justice, and now he became its president, an office at this period always held by the secunde.

He was not quite fifty-two years of age when, on the 27th of February 1751, he became governor of the colony. The ceremony of public presentation to the burghers and of receiving a promise of fidelity from the various official boards did not take place until the 15th of April.

As governor, the high qualities which he possessed were prominently shown. He was accessible without the least difficulty to all who wished to see him. The humblest individual could pour his grievances, if he had any, into the ears of the father of the country, and be sure of

a patient hearing. If his complaints were well grounded, he obtained speedy redress, and in any case he was sure of good counsel. It was this quality that more than any other endeared him to the people. They knew that he studied their interests, that although he was their governor he was still their adviser and friend. No man, however good and wise he might be, could ever gain the affections of a people like the South African colonists if he held himself aloof from them.

His probity was beyond suspicion, and that in an age when probity was hardly looked for in men holding positions such as his. The salaries of officers in the Company's service were small, and it was taken almost as a matter of course that all who could do so would supplement their incomes in any way not punishable by law. Some of the practices resorted to were perhaps harmless, but others had a tendency to lead on to real pilfering. They had further the effect of causing men to look upon commercial immorality as after all not a very serious crime. He who became wealthy through dishonest, even fraudulent, transactions was too often admired as a sharp, clever, business man, and not regarded as a swindler should be. Governor Tulbagh set his face firmly against everything of this nature. He neither traded on his own account, nor would he allow any other officer of the government to do so. The fees which they were permitted to receive in certain transactions were fixed, and they were restricted from taking more. As for himself, he regulated his expenses so that he lived well within his income and allowances, and used what he had to spare in relieving the wants of others.

Under his administration every man was certain of getting his dues. The petty, shameless, pilfering system, often previously in vogue, under which farmers were compelled to bribe the Company's officers before they would receive produce, and then bribe them again before proper accounts could be had, was not tolerated. The governor

took care that no man was put to unnecessary delay, and that no bribes were received or false accounts rendered, so that the farmers were not exposed to injustice or vexatious treatment.

During the war in Europe which was brought to a close by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, the United Netherlands had been put to enormous expense. The public finances were in such a condition that it became necessary to resort to special taxation for the purpose of raising a large sum of money. On the 29th of December 1750 the states-general imposed a tax called the fiftieth penny upon the inhabitants of the United Provinces, that is, every one was obliged to pay a rate nearly equal to five pence in the pound upon the value of his property. The governor-general, Jacob Mossel, and the council of India, on the 20th of December 1751 decreed that the tax should be paid by all Europeans in the Company's possessions.

The first names upon the list of those who paid in South Africa are those of Ryk Tulbagh and his wife Elizabeth Swellengrebel. Then come those of the members of the council of policy as follows: the independent fiscal Pieter van Reede van Oudtshoorn, his wife Sophia Boesses, and eight children; Lieutenant-Colonel Izaak Meinertzhagen; Captain Rudolph Sigfried Allemann, his wife Alberta Meyboom, and eight children; the issuer of stores Nicolaas Heyning, his wife Gertruyd Vermeij, and six children; the master of the warehouses Christoffel Brand, and his wife Sarah van Brakel, also for the children of Burgert Brand and his wife Anna van der Byl; the chief salesman Cornelis Elders, his wife Johanna Catharina van der Poel, and three children; the secretary Joseph de Grandpreez, and his wife Adriana Slotsboo.

On the 19th of April 1751 the abbé Nicolas Louis de la Caille, member of the royal academy of sciences at Paris, arrived in South Africa. He had already attained celebrity in France by his astronomical researches and his

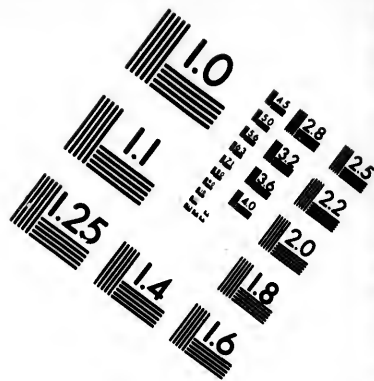
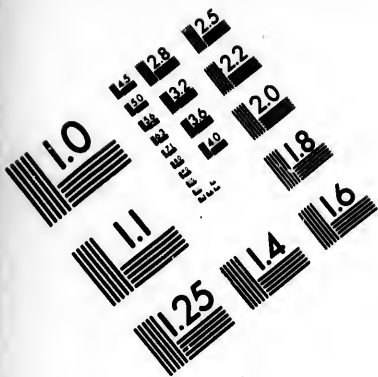
writings, when he resolved to visit the Cape of Good Hope with the object of making a sidereal chart of the southern skies and of measuring an arc of the meridian. He brought a letter of recommendation from the prince of Orange to the authorities at the Cape. From Governor Tulbagh, who took a warm interest in his work, he received all the assistance that was possible to give. He remained in the colony until the 8th of March 1753. During his stay he performed an incredible amount of astronomical work, and all that he did was surprisingly well done. When measuring his meridian line on a plain east of Saldanha Bay he had the aid of an engineer officer named Muller, belonging to the Cape garrison, but for the remainder of his work in the field his only assistants were untrained and uneducated men. The arc which he measured by triangulation extended from a point within a few yards of the corner of Strand and Adderley streets in Capetown to Klipfontein in Piketberg,  $1^{\circ} 13' 17.5''$  according to his computation. He found the degree of latitude to be three hundred and sixty-four thousand seven hundred and twenty-eight and four-tenths English feet.

Sir Thomas Maclear, astronomer royal at the Cape of Good Hope, was employed from 1840 to 1848, with an able staff of assistants, in verifying and extending De la Caille's arc of the meridian. With the greatly improved instruments of his time, he ascertained that the French astronomer's latitude of his observatory was incorrect by only  $2.01''$ , and that the true length of a degree of latitude northward from it is three hundred and sixty-four thousand four hundred and thirty-nine English feet. Though De la Caille's small error gives an idea that the globe is not depressed at the poles, as it is now known to be, the difference between the two calculations amounts to less than twenty miles for the whole circumference of the earth. The position of the stars in De la Caille's chart was found to be equally accurate.

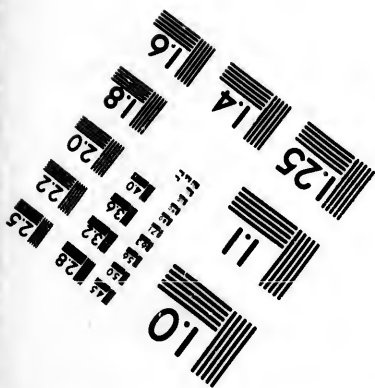
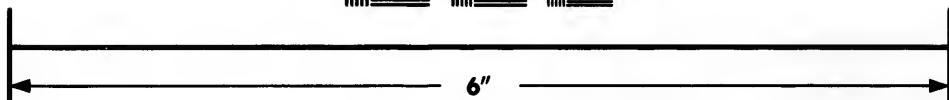
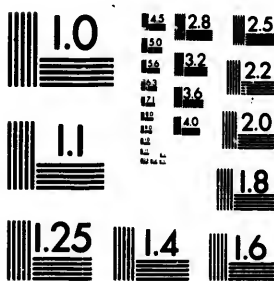
Saturday the 8th of April 1752 was observed by the







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Europeans in South Africa as a day of thanksgiving to Almighty God for the undisturbed possession of the colony by the Company for a hundred years. Special services were held in the churches at Capetown, Stellenbosch, Drakenstein, Rodezand, and Zwartland.

The laws of the colony at this time were much harsher than they are in our days. They were, however, seldom enforced in all their severity, the object of legislation being to lay down the heaviest punishment which could be inflicted for offences, rather than the ordinary penalties. Far greater power was thus placed in the hands of administrators and judges than is the case at present.

It was held to be one of the duties of government to regulate many matters which are now left to settle themselves under the action of demand upon supply. Thus in 1744 a proclamation of Governor Swellengrebel and the council was issued, in which the price to be charged by waggonmakers and blacksmiths for every part of their work was minutely fixed.

In 1753 a regulation was made concerning the sale of ivory. It fixed the price of prime tusks at one shilling and four pence per pound, and of inferior tusks in proportion. Any one detected disposing of ivory, except to the Company, was made liable to a heavy fine and to be banished from South Africa. The purchaser was to be punished in the same manner. Any petty officer or soldier of the patrol who should through want of proper diligence allow a tusk to pass the barrier by day or by night, except to the Company's stores, was made liable to be severely flogged, to be branded, and to serve ten years in chains.

In the slave code the wide difference between the spirit of those times and these in which we live is very observable. There were then more slaves than Europeans in South Africa, notwithstanding the manumission of such as were considered deserving of freedom and of those who

could lay claim to it under the law. Some were sent here from Batavia, sentenced to periods of servitude varying in length. Officers of ships and private individuals regarded them as the most profitable article in which they could carry on a small trade, and brought so many from India that the government became apprehensive of the too great preponderance of this class of the population, for when excited they were prone to commit appalling crimes. The council of India was therefore earnestly requested to prohibit the exportation of Asiatic slaves to this colony, but they continued to arrive in considerable numbers until 1767, when the request of the Cape government was complied with, and further importations ceased. A few were brought from the east coast of Africa. With Madagascar there was a regular trade in slaves, small vessels being sent frequently from the Cape to procure them. They cost there less than three pounds sterling each, though the rivalry of the English, French, and Portuguese was complained of as increasing the price and making it difficult to obtain cargoes.

It was nothing unusual when one fourth to one third of the number taken on board died during the passage. And frequently from one third to half of those landed died within three months, from despondency and change of climate and food. After the arrival of a slave-ship, it is not uncommon to find in the journal whole pages of names of those who died during the preceding month, with an occasional comment as to the loss to the Company, but never a word of compassion for the wretched negroes. And this during the government of such a thoroughly good man, according to the views of his time, as Ryk Tulbagh. More pity would be expressed to-day for a shipment of horses.

Occasionally captives on board ship made attempts to regain their liberty, but in general such precautions were taken that they were utterly helpless.

There is in the Cape archives of the early years of

the eighteenth century a statement that exhibits in a very clear light the views of those times regarding negro slaves. It was made by the master of an English slave-ship bound to the West Indies, who put into Table Bay for provisions, and who asked to be treated with exceptional favour, on the ground of his voyage having been disastrous. On the passage from Madagascar he had observed symptoms of discontent among the negroes, he said, and to prevent them from rising and murdering his crew, he had considered it necessary to throw the sturdiest of them overboard. The event is recorded with no more feeling for the blacks than if they had been bales of calico.

Somewhat more justifiable was the conduct of the crew of the English ship *Elizabeth*, which put into Table Bay on the 3rd of June 1719 on her passage from Madagascar to Barbados and Jamaica, with six hundred slaves on board. After the ship came to anchor one of her boats was sent to the shore, when the negroes, probably apprehending some dreadful fate, rose in revolt, and killed the boatswain and several sailors. The crew, who mustered only ninety-five men all told, in suppressing the insurrection shot a number of them and threw some others overboard.

In 1765 the Cape packet *Meermin* was sent to Madagascar to procure slaves for the Company. Her supercargo called at several ports in the island, and succeeded in purchasing one hundred and forty of both sexes. On the passage back, the skipper—Gerrit Mulder—caused the irons to be taken off the slaves, and a few days afterwards—18th of February 1766—the supercargo very imprudently gave some of them a number of assagais to polish. They seized the opportunity, rose suddenly, and killed the supercargo and the whole of the watch on deck, twenty-four men all told. There were twenty-nine men below. None of these were allowed to come on deck for the next forty-eight hours, but at the end of that time, through

the medium of a woman, an agreement was made that no harm should be done to the white men, they on their part promising to convey the negroes back to Madagascar.

The way the crew of the *Meermin* kept their promise was by steering for Cape Agulhas. After four days' sail, land was seen, and the negroes were assured that it was their own country. At a distance of some miles from the coast they required the sailors to drop the anchor and get out the longboat and pinnace, in which over fifty of them, male and female, went ashore, after promising to make signal fires if all was right, and send the boats back for their companions as soon as they could. Near the place where they landed was a farm belonging to Matthys Rostock. Upon seeing the house, the negroes first became aware that they had been deceived. Intelligence of their landing soon spread, and the neighbouring farmers assembled. As the blacks would not surrender they were attacked, when fourteen were shot and the others were taken prisoners.

The negroes on board the *Meermin* became very impatient when the boats did not return for them. There was a current setting towards the land, so the crew wrote an account of their condition, and put the papers in bottles which they dropped overboard. They begged that three fires might be kindled on the shore. Two of the bottles were picked up, and the fires were kindled, as requested. The negroes then cut the cable, and when the *Meermin* drifted close in, a canoe was lowered and six of them landed. They had hardly touched the beach when they were surrounded. One was shot, the other five were made prisoners. Those still on board, on seeing this, attacked the crew; but the sailors were able to defend themselves until the vessel ran ashore, when the blacks surrendered. One hundred and twelve of the slaves finally reached the Cape. The *Meermin* could not be got off again, and went to pieces where she struck.

The nature of the industries carried on in the colony

prevented slavery from becoming here what it was on an American cotton or sugar plantation, and few instances of extreme cruelty are on record; but under the law bondsmen were in a very abject position.

In the preamble of a slave code drawn up by Governor Tulbagh and the council it is stated that notwithstanding the stringent proclamations that had from time to time been issued, the misconduct of the slaves was such that for the preservation of peace and good order it was necessary to collect all the laws into one ordinance, and to amplify them to meet existing circumstances. After mature deliberation, the code was drawn up in the castle of Good Hope on the 3rd of September 1754, and two days later was published by being affixed to the notice board, with the great seal of the Company attached to it.

The second paragraph condemns to death without mercy any male or female slave who shall raise his or her hand, though without weapons, against master or mistress. The twenty-third condemns every slave found loitering about the entrance of a church, when the congregation was leaving, to be severely flogged by the ministers of justice. The twenty-fourth subjects to the same punishment any slave, adult or child, found within a churchyard at the time of a funeral.<sup>1</sup> The twenty-eighth prohibits more than twenty slaves from following the corpse of a companion to its burial. The number was to be regulated according to the rank of the owner of the deceased, by whom a fine of 5*l.* was to be paid if the rule was transgressed.

<sup>1</sup> Perhaps this clause will not seem unduly harsh to any one who has seen the thoughtless manner in which the descendants of these slaves often conduct themselves on such occasions, creating a din by their noisy remarks, pressing upon the mourners, and in other ways disturbing the solemnity of the graveside. Funerals in olden times were usually conducted with a great deal of display, and such an enactment was needed to prevent disorder.



For many offences slaves could be flogged at once by the officers of justice, without any trial. When convicted of ordinary crimes, they were punished much more severely than freemen. Some of the death sentences recorded against them horrify the reader by their barbarity. It is sufficient to say that impalement, breaking the limbs on a wheel, and slow strangulation were among the methods of execution.

The Company's slave lodge in Capetown was a sink of vice, although stringent efforts were made to preserve order in it. Children born there were baptized, the overseer, or in his absence the sick-comforter, standing sponsor for them according to a regulation of the year 1721, and they were sent to school and church, but they grew up with very little regard for virtue. The burghers, observing that the Company's slaves were the most depraved in the settlement, in general neglected to have theirs baptized, and gave them no instruction from books. The old ideas on this subject had completely passed away, for in practice it was seen that the negroes in the service of the farmers were much more useful members of the community than those who lived in the town, though this was really due to their being kept in better discipline and exposed to fewer temptations, not to the children acquiring habits of idleness by being sent to school.

In the Indies there had been of late years a growing tendency with Europeans towards luxurious habits, and the authorities feared that the descendants of the sturdy pioneers would sink into effeminacy. It was observed that the children or grandchildren of men who had toiled with their hands to earn their food were not content unless they could ride in carriages and be waited upon by menials. The directors did not reflect that this was inevitable in countries where there were inferior races and where the road to wealth was open to colonists; they regarded it simply as an evil that would lead to ruin, unless checked in time. They attempted, therefore, to

prevent it by issuing stringent sumptuary laws, by which all undue display was prohibited. These laws failed in their object, but while they were still on trial the council of India sent a copy of them to the Cape with orders to enforce them here also.

There was no dependency of the Company in which such regulations could have less effect than in this colony, because there was very little accumulated wealth here except in the form of farming stock. The people generally were above fear of want, but there were few who could pretend to live in luxury. Yet Governor Tulbagh favoured the sumptuary laws, not only because he was instructed to put them in force, but because he believed them to be well adapted to form a simple, honest, manly race of colonists, to preserve the hardy virtues which had made the people of the Netherlands a powerful nation.

On the 25th of March 1755 the sumptuary laws of India were referred to a committee to make such alterations as were necessary to adapt them to the condition of this country, and they were thereafter promulgated. They comprised such regulations as the following: no one except the governor may use a gilded coach or one with a coat of arms emblazoned on it; no one except a member of the council of policy may dress his coachman in livery; no one may use large sunshades except senior merchants and ladies whose husbands or fathers have seats at any of the public boards.

There were other regulations hardly less in accordance with modern ideas.

Every foreign vessel that put into Table Bay was required to fire a salute of nine guns, upon which the castle replied with seven. A French ship came to anchor in March 1754, and her captain declined to salute unless the fortress would return an equal number of shots. The governor was at his country seat at Newlands, but the secunde Swellengrebel informed the French captain, who had come on shore, that no provisions would be supplied

until he conformed to the usual custom. He could get water and firewood, but nothing more. The Frenchman returned to his vessel, but disdained to fire a shot. Early in April another French ship came in, and met with the same reception. Governor Tulbagh would not allow even a boat to go off to either of them. At length one of the French captains offered to fire the required number of guns for both vessels. The governor replied that each must fire. They held out a little longer, but at length submitted, fired their guns, and were afterwards treated in the most friendly manner and supplied with whatever provisions they needed.

In the same year there was a widow living in the town who refused to allow her two children to attend school. The elders of the church reminded her of her duty, and the clergyman reprimanded her, but to no purpose. The consistory next reported the circumstance to the council of policy, and by that body she was admonished not to bring up her children as heathens. Still she remained obdurate, maintaining her right to have the children educated or not, as she pleased. The matter came again before the council, but now the governor settled it. The widow was ordered at once to consign her children to the church authorities that they might be instructed in the duties of Christians. If she did not comply, it was added, she should be flogged. Upon this she wisely submitted.

In 1754 the council of India, in order to derive greater benefit than previously from this colony, proposed to reduce by one-third the prices paid by the Company for produce, to charge a duty of a penny a pound upon meat, two shillings and eight pence a muid upon meal, and thirty-two shillings a legger upon wine supplied to foreign ships, also to permit the importation of clothing materials in foreign ships upon payment of a duty of twenty per cent of the value. The council of policy, guided by Governor Tulbagh, objected to these proposals, for the

following reasons. The prices of colonial produce were already so low that a reduction of one-third would ruin the farmers. A duty of a penny a pound upon meat supplied to foreign ships would not benefit the Company in the least. Already foreigners were complaining because they had to pay twice as much as the inhabitants for meat, and it was this privilege of charging double prices to them which enabled the contractors to supply the Company at very cheap rates. The proposed duties on meat, meal, and wine would drive foreigners from the port, and from them the burghers made their largest profits. As for the importation of clothing materials in foreign bottoms, it would hardly be worth while to make one class of merchandise an exception to the general rules. The question was submitted to the directors, by whom these views were endorsed, and matters were left as they always had been, except that wine was made subject to an export duty of 1*l.* a legger.

Instructions were at this time given by the directors to renew experiments in the cultivation of indigo, and also to try if cotton could not be successfully grown in South Africa. These orders were carried out in the Company's gardens at the Cape, Rondebosch, and Newlands, with the result of showing that neither indigo nor cotton could be produced with profit.

For forty-two years the colony had been free of small pox when in 1755 that scourge made its appearance again. It was introduced at the beginning of winter by a homeward bound fleet from Ceylon. At first the disease was supposed to be a kind of fever, but after a few days there were cases that admitted of no doubt. It assumed, however, various forms, and among some of the distant Hottentot tribes differed in appearance so much from what was held to be true small pox that the Europeans termed it gall sickness.

In Table Valley it was of such a malignant type that hardly a single adult who was attacked recovered. In

July the weather was colder than usual, and during that month four hundred and eighty-nine Europeans, thirty-three free blacks, and five hundred and eighty slaves perished. If that death rate had continued, before the close of the year there would have been no one remaining, but as soon as the warm weather set in the virulence of the disease abated. Two great hospitals were established: one for poor Europeans, supported by the board of deacons, the other for blacks. To the latter all slaves who were attacked were sent, the expense being borne by their owners, who were required to pay one shilling and four pence a day for each. Those who recovered were employed as nurses. In Table Valley from the 1st of May to the 31st of October nine hundred and sixty-three Europeans and eleven hundred and nine blacks died.

The value of property was so depreciated that there was a difficulty in disposing of houses, and articles of luxury, such as plate and jewellery, were quite unsaleable. The orphan chamber at length resolved not even to offer things of this kind at public auctions, but to preserve them until more favourable times, as otherwise their value would be lost to heirs.

By the great number of deaths in Capetown the burial ground about the church was becoming so rapidly filled that it was considered necessary to open another. On the 21st of June the council of policy granted to the consistory a piece of land for the purpose, four hundred and twenty-nine square roods and one hundred and forty square feet in extent, adjoining the military burial ground between the Lion's rump and the shore of the bay. Interments of members of particular families, however, were permitted in the old ground, which was not entirely closed until 1770. The same fees for graves were made payable to the consistory in the new cemetery as in the old, but during the time of great mortality such charges were in most cases lost sight of.

In the country the European inhabitants did not suffer

very severely, as they remained so secluded on their farms that for several months hardly a waggon load of produce was taken to the Cape for sale. The dead were not removed from the farms for burial. The government excused the muster of the militia for drill, and even the services in the churches were not attended by people from a distance.

In the census returns of 1754 the number of colonists of both sexes and all ages is given as five thousand five hundred and ten, and the number of slaves owned by them as six thousand two hundred and seventy-nine; in those of 1756 the number of colonists is given as five thousand one hundred and twenty-three, and of their slaves as five thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven. In ordinary years the number of deaths was in proportion to the number of baptisms as one hundred to two hundred and sixty-one,<sup>1</sup> and there was a constant accession to the colonial population by servants of the Company taking their discharge, so that these figures, though they cannot be depended upon as absolutely accurate, give an idea of the heavy loss of life by the small pox.

With the Hottentots also it created great havoc, for it spread farther inland than in 1713. It is not possible to say exactly how far it extended, but its ravages were felt in Great Namaqualand at least to the twenty-sixth parallel of latitude, and in the east to the Bashee river.

Before midsummer it entirely died out.

The coloured races of South Africa, though singularly free of disease, were subject to one of the most dreadful maladies with which mankind is afflicted. There are no means of ascertaining the ravages made by leprosy among the Hottentots, but it is tolerably certain that though

<sup>1</sup>A mean of the entries for eight years of deaths and baptisms, excluding deaths of seamen in the hospital and of the troops. The returns of deaths in the country districts are, however, not to be too firmly relied on, and these figures can therefore only be regarded as approximately correct.

they were acquainted with the disease, the number of individuals affected was very small. It is not once named in the early records, and it is only from tradition that it is known to have existed among these people before their intercourse with strangers. Whether the Bushmen were liable to be attacked by it is uncertain. Among the Bantu tribes it was by no means rare, and the slaves of all nationalities who were brought into the colony were subject to it. It was now proved that Europeans also were liable to its attacks. Some cases having been suspected, in May 1756 a commission of medical men was appointed, who examined the sufferers, and reported that one man, who had been eighteen years ill, was afflicted with leprosy, that his eldest daughter was showing symptoms, and that another man, who had been nine years ill, was suffering from the same disease. The government recommended isolation of the sufferers, but did nothing more.

The quality of the wine sent to India was frequently complained of, but no improvement was made in it. The master of the Company's wine stores at the Cape professed that the greatest care was taken to reject the worst that was brought for sale, and that he could not obtain any better than was forwarded. The result was that the council of India declined to take as large a quantity as previously, and the exportation to Batavia, which for the five years 1751-5 had averaged five hundred and fifty-eight leggers, fell off to two hundred and sixty-two leggers on an average during the next ten years. There was some correspondence with the directors concerning the conversion of the wine into brandy, and it was ascertained that if more stills were introduced there would be no difficulty in procuring annually four hundred leggers at a price not exceeding 14*l.* 11*s.* 8*d.* a legger. But the quality of the brandy sent as samples was so objectionable that the project fell through.

It was just at this time—1756—that the directors im-

posed a duty of 1*l.* sterling a legger upon all wine and brandy sold to strangers in bulk, as has already been related. They could devise no other method of increasing their revenue, which, including the profits on goods sold here, amounted to no more than between 11,000*l.* and 12,000*l.* a year, while the sum paid out of their treasury at the Cape was in round numbers 20,000*l.* more, taking one year with another. The duty was farmed out by auction, and in the first year was sold for no more than 33*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* Four years later it rose to 400*l.*

In 1756 and 1757 only twelve foreign ships called, and though three of these were sent from Mauritius to procure provisions for the French troops there, the supply of wine far exceeded the demand. Insolvencies of wine-farmers became alarmingly frequent. The governor-general Van Imhoff in 1743 had allowed the fiscal a fee of four shillings and two pence upon every legger of wine sold to a foreigner. Governor Tulbagh, as the only measure of relief which he could think of, arranged with the independent fiscal Van Oudtshoorn that he should abandon his claim to this fee, and in its stead receive one shilling and four pence on every hundred pounds of grain or meal sold to a foreigner.

Matters were at their worst when in December 1758 and January 1759 a fleet of seventeen French men-of-war and transports with troops arrived from Mauritius. They were sent here purposely to refresh and lay in a supply of provisions. At once the price of farm produce doubled or trebled, all the surplus stock was disposed of, and everything was paid for in money.

From this date until the termination of the war in India between the English and the French, the farmers were in a prosperous condition. French men-of-war until 1761, and after that date ships of both nations, came here to refresh and take in supplies. The officers of French packets from Mauritius and of English packets from St. Helena bid against each other for cattle and meal and



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wine. On more than one occasion the government was unable to procure as much provision as was needed for the Company's ships, as the burghers were desirous of selling at high prices to strangers. There was a remedy for this, however. In August 1762 a placaat was issued prohibiting the sale of wine to foreigners under penalty of confiscation of all that was offered and a fine of 6*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* This had the desired effect, the Company obtained as much as was needed, and four weeks from the date of its issue the placaat was withdrawn. In January 1763 it was necessary to resort to the same means to procure a supply of butter.

The government, as well as individuals, profited by the strangers. The revenue was increased, a quantity of surplus wheat in the magazines was disposed of, and some shipments of Bourbon coffee were purchased at the low price of twenty-five shillings per hundred pounds for transmission to Europe. This season of prosperity lasted until March 1763, when intelligence was received of the conclusion of peace between France and England.

On the 8th of December 1760 the secunde Sergius Swellengrebel died. He was married to an English lady, Miss Anna Fothergill, but was childless. On the 12th the council of policy decided that the independent fiscal Pieter van Reede van Oudtshoorn should fill the vacant office until the pleasure of the supreme authorities could be known. Mr. Van Oudtshoorn was confirmed in the appointment by the directors, and Mr. Jan Willem Clopenburg was sent out as fiscal. This officer arrived in September 1762.

On the 18th of September 1761 there died in Capetown a gentleman named Joachim Nicolaas van Dessin, a native of Rostock in Germany, who arrived here in 1727 as a soldier in the service of the East India Company, in 1729 became clerk to the secretary of the high court of justice, and from 1737 to 1757 held the situation of secretary of the orphan chamber. His wife—Christina Ehlers

—and only child died before him, so that he was without natural heirs. In his will he bequeathed to the colony three thousand eight hundred printed books and many manuscripts, to become the foundation of a public library for the benefit of the community. Some mathematical and astronomical instruments and several oil paintings were also included in the gift. He appointed the consistory of the Cape guardians of this bequest, and directed his executors to pay to that board one thousand rix-dollars—then equal to 208*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*—to form a capital fund, the interest of which was to be applied in perpetuity to the preservation and enlargement of the library. To several of his friends and dependents bequests were made in his will, and the residue of his property—which amounted to 5,041*l.* 16*s.* 5*d.*—he left to the orphan chamber.

The consistory accepted the trust, and was placed in possession of the books, money, etc., also of an additional sum of 208*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* given by the orphan chamber from its inheritance to furnish a room in which to keep the library. A building was erected near the church, the books were placed in it, and the sexton was required to perform the duty of librarian. The institution, however, was not much used, and in course of time several of the most interesting volumes disappeared, without any record being left of the manner in which they were lost. Those which remain are known as the Dessinian collection, now kept in the gallery of the South African public library. Among them are still many works of permanent value.

The sum of 4,833*l.* 9*s.* 9*d.*, which the orphan chamber inherited from Mr. Van Dessin and retained for its own use, was invested on interest, from which the members of the board afterwards drew small salaries.

On the 27th of April 1761 Messrs. Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon, two astronomers who had left England with the intention of observing at Bencoolen the transit of Venus on the 6th of June, arrived at the Cape. They

had been delayed on the passage, and therefore resolved to observe the transit here. From Governor Tulbagh they received all the assistance that he could possibly give. The 6th of June was showery, but at the time of the transit there were no clouds over the sun's disc, so that they were able to observe it. Their instruments were two reflecting telescopes of two feet focal length and magnifying one hundred and twenty times, a quadrant of a foot radius, and an astronomical clock. They remained at the Cape until the 3rd of October.

In 1759 an armament was sent by the government at Batavia to reinforce the garrison of the Dutch factory of Chinsurah on the Ganges. Colonel Clive was then the representative of the English East India Company at Fort William. He apprehended that if the Dutch forces were increased, the nabob Meer Jaffier, who had been raised to power by his assistance, would form an alliance with them to the detriment of English interests in Bengal. England and the Netherlands were at peace, but Clive resisted the passage of the Dutch fleet up the Hoogly, captured the ships, and destroyed the army. Conditions were imposed upon the authorities at the Dutch factory, under which they were prohibited from building fortifications or raising troops.

When intelligence of this event reached Europe, the friendly feeling that had existed between Great Britain and the United Provinces was disturbed, and for a time it was doubtful whether peace would be maintained. Orders were issued by the directors that nothing which could be refused under existing treaties should be supplied to English ships touching at the Cape. The matter, however, was adjusted without a rupture, and in 1761 instructions were received that English visitors were to be treated in a liberal manner.

In January 1762 his Britannic Majesty's ships of war *Chatham* and *York* put into Table Bay, where they were supplied with whatever they needed. The commodore,

Thomas Lynn, taking Governor Tulbagh to be an obliging, good-natured individual, who would do almost anything he was requested to, asked that all the English seamen in Dutch ships in the bay should be sent on board his vessel. But he met with a decided refusal, for in this the governor and council held that the honour of their flag was at stake.

In 1760 a burgher named Jacobus Coetsee with twelve Hottentots proceeded northward from his farm at Piketberg, and hunted elephants beyond the river known to us as the Orange, which it was believed had never been crossed by a white man before. Some time after his return he informed Hendrik Hop, one of the captains of the burgher militia, who occupied the farm Slot van de Paarl, that he had heard of a tribe of black people called Damrocquas living ten days' journey beyond the farthest point which he reached, and that they had long hair and wore clothes made of linen cloth. In June 1761 Captain Hop reported this to the government, and offered to lead an exploring party in that direction. The offer was accepted, and the captain then called for burghers to volunteer for the expedition. Such an undertaking was no longer so formidable as in the days of Simon van der Stel, for white men were now in permanent occupation of cattle runs as far north as the mouth of the Elephant river. Since 1685 the base of supplies had been moved inland nearly two hundred miles. With the party the governor sent the botanist Jan Andries Auge, superintendent of the Company's garden in Capetown,<sup>1</sup> who was

<sup>1</sup>Auge arrived at the Cape in 1747 with letters of recommendation from Boerhaave. He was employed by Governor Swellengrebel, and by Governor Tulbagh was made superintendent of the Company's garden in Capetown. Professor McOwan, director of the same botanical garden in 1887, wrote that 'some of the finest specimen trees still existing are due to Auge's assiduous labours,' and that 'he also collected together a large herbarium, which ultimately fell into the hands of Burmann, of Amsterdam.' In later years he accompanied Thunberg and Masson on their tours for collecting plants. Failing sight at length obliged him to

to collect information on plants, the surgeon Carel Christoffel Rykvoet, who went in the capacity of mineralogist, and the surveyor Carel Frederik Brink, whose duty it was to determine positions, to make a map, and to keep a journal.

It was arranged that the members of the expedition should assemble at a place called the Bakoven, near the mouth of the Elephant river, and from that point commence the journey. On the 16th of August 1761 all was ready, and the caravan left the Bakoven for the north. Beside the four Europeans named, there were thirteen colonists: Jacobus and Joris Coetsee, Abraham Russouw, Hendrik Kruger, Andries Greef, Jan van Niekerk, Tieleman Roos, Pieter Marais, Casper and Jan Badenhorst, Josua Joubert, Coenraad Scheepers, and Ocker Heyns. They had fifteen waggons and sixty-eight half-breed Hottentot servants.

They passed by the copper mountains of Little Namaqualand that had been first visited by Europeans in 1685, and keeping in a direction almost due north, crossed the Great river on the 29th of September, at a ford where the stream was nearly eleven hundred feet in width. The Little Namaquas were found in an impoverished condition. They had been robbed by Bushmen of the greater part of their cattle, and it seemed as if they must eventually be utterly destroyed. The Great Namaquas had migrated to the north about twenty years before.

The names given by Captain Hop to localities north

retire upon a pension, which he lost in 1795 when the English took the colony. He was residing with a friend near the eastern frontier when the Xosa irruption in 1799 reduced him to great distress. Landdrost Faure, of Swellendam, a man of benevolent disposition, then provided for him and gave him a home. The traveller Lichtenstein found him in good health at the age of ninety-three years, and still taking a very keen interest in botany, though he was perfectly blind. For further particulars concerning Auge see *Personalia of Botanical Collectors at the Cape*, by Professor MacOwan, F.L.S., F.R.H.S., etc., a pamphlet published at Capetown in 1887.

of the Great river have long since been replaced by others, but there is no difficulty in following the route of the expedition. They passed the hot spring now known as Nisbett's Bath, and kept along the western base of the Karas mountains, between the eighteenth and nineteenth meridians from Greenwich, the same route as that of Sir James Alexander in 1838. They found giraffes soon after crossing the Great river, and killed several. Governor Tulbagh, who had already enriched the chief museums of the Netherlands with many specimens illustrating the botany and zoology of the colony, sent the skin of one of these giraffes to the museum of the university of Leiden. It was the first taken to Europe from South Africa.

The expedition reached latitude 26° 18' S., and two of the burghers penetrated the country some miles farther. But the heat had now become almost insupportable; there was such a scarcity of food for the cattle that they were dying off rapidly, and though numerous beds of rivers were found, there was no water in any of them except at distant points where the natives had made deep pits in the sand. Captain Hop called a council, and there was but one opinion expressed, that it was impossible to go farther.

On the 7th of December the caravan turned to the south. At the Great river some time was spent in refreshing the worn-out cattle, which afforded an opportunity to examine the country around. In the mountains bordering on the river copper was discovered, but Captain Hop and his assistants came to the conclusion that it would not pay to extract it. They observed first that there was no wood in the neighbourhood which could be used as fuel, consequently the ore must be taken away in its crude state. Next, there were obstructions in the river which would prevent the use of boats to transport the ore to the sea, so that it would be necessary to remove it in waggons. And lastly, the country was not only very diffi-

cult to traverse, but it was so parched by the summer heat as not to afford a supply of food for draught cattle. The mouth of the river was too distant to be examined.

During the night of the 11th of January 1762 the water in the Great river rose suddenly. The expedition was encamped on the bank, unsuspecting of danger, and it was with difficulty that the waggons were removed to a place of safety. One night a little later thirty of the oxen were stolen by Bushmen. The colonists had volunteered to accompany the expedition, chiefly with a view of obtaining a large number of cattle in barter, but they had not succeeded according to their anticipations.

No information of a positive kind was obtained concerning the black people to the north, then called Damroquas, now Damaras. But the wild stories that had previously been current of their having long hair and wearing linen clothing were found to be incorrect, for the Great Namaquas knew of no people answering that description except Europeans. Information was obtained concerning the Betshuana, then called Briquas or Birinas, living east of the Kalahari. And it was ascertained that the small pox in 1755 had spread into Great Namaqualand and caused the loss of many lives.

Pieter Marais, one of the burghers who accompanied the expedition, understood the Hottentot language, and was a man given to inquiry. He and Tieleman Roos drew up a report upon the natives, showing that the different clans which were met were members of one tribe. They had witnessed the method of worshipping the new moon by singing, dancing, and invocations; and they had learned that the Great Namaquas had some faint conception of a supreme being, whom they called Chuyn, but what the nature of this being was supposed to be they had not ascertained. They had seen the natives smelting copper and working it into ornaments by means of a stone hammer and anvil. The Great river was called by the Namaquas Chari or Eyn. The last word was the

same as that given to Commander Van der Stel by the Little Namaquas in 1685. The first word Chari is the same as Gariep of our days.

On the 27th of April 1762 the expedition reached the castle, none of its members having died or suffered serious illness during the journey.

A little before two o'clock in the morning of the 14th of July 1766 a slight shock of earthquake was felt throughout the Cape peninsula. It was accompanied by a noise like rolling thunder. No damage was caused by it, though at Simonstown it was sufficiently violent to throw the bedsteads in the hospital against the walls of the wards.

In 1767 the small pox was again brought into the colony. On this occasion it was introduced by a Danish ship returning to Europe. From May until November it was prevalent in Capetown, but owing to precautions which were taken, only a few families in the country districts were attacked by it. In 1713 and 1755 it died out entirely when the hot weather set in; but there were occasional cases throughout the summer of 1767-8, and it was not until April 1769 that it quite disappeared. Altogether between eighteen and nineteen hundred persons were attacked, of whom one hundred and seventy-nine Europeans, one hundred and forty-five free blacks, and two hundred and fifty-one slaves died. The ravages of the disease were thus slight when compared with earlier years.

During the period that Governor Tulbagh was at the head of the colony, the town in Table Valley was considerably enlarged, and strangers began to know it by its present name of Capetown, though by the colonists it was still termed the Cape. Several new streets were laid out. The parade ground was again levelled, and an oak hedge was planted round it. The artificial fountains from which the inhabitants got water were renewed. The building now used as municipal offices, on Greenmarket square, was erected at the expense of the inhabitants, under the direc-



tion of the burgher councillors, to serve as a burgher watchhouse. The graveyard round the church was closed in 1770, though interments within the building itself took place until 1836. The hospital was falling to ruins, and it had been resolved by the directors to build a new one, but the work was not yet commenced, though the materials were being collected. The fortifications were repaired, and a new battery was constructed near the mouth of Salt River. The tower of the church was raised a few feet, and a clock was placed in it, which, however, on account of something being defective did not indicate the time until the 25th of November 1771. No enlargements were made to the building, though it was too small for the growing congregation. It was only in October 1779, more than eight years after Mr. Tulbagh's death, that the consistory resolved to increase the accommodation without further delay. The church was then lengthened, and a gallery was added to it, the whole being completed in June 1781, after which date no alterations of importance were made in the building. In June 1836 it was broken down to make place for the present structure.

At Simonstown expensive works were carried out. The hospital—a square building of one hundred and thirty feet frontage—was commenced in 1760 and completed in 1765. Substantial storehouses were then put up, and when these were finished, in 1768 a stone pier was constructed. A slaughter house, a bakery, workshops for smiths and carpenters, and a dwelling house for the officer in charge of the station, followed. The building erected in the time of Governor Swellengrebel—which was four hundred and fifty feet in length and had previously served for all purposes—was now used solely as quarters for the garrison and workmen. In March 1751 Adriaan de Nys was appointed postholder in succession to Justinus Blas. Mr. De Nys died in May 1761, when Jan Frederik Kirsten was appointed officer in charge at Simonstown, with the title of resident.

The village of Stellenbosch was also considerably enlarged and improved in appearance during this period. On the 31st of October 1762 the drostdy buildings were destroyed by fire, but they were shortly re-erected in a handsomer style. On the 30th of May 1768 much damage was done to the village by a flood, which for some hours threatened the total destruction of the place. The same thing had occurred once before—on the 13th of October 1716. To prevent similar disasters in future, the course of the river was altered, according to plans furnished by the heemraad Martin Melk, under whose supervision the work was carried out. In September 1748, upon the death of Pieter Lourens, Adriaan van Schoor was appointed landdrost of Stellenbosch and Drakenstein. In August 1763 this gentleman was promoted to an office in Capetown, and Jacobus Johannes le Sueur succeeded him as landdrost. Mr. Le Sueur held the appointment until June 1769, when he was promoted and was succeeded by Lucas Sigismundus Faber.

Swellendam remained a mere hamlet. To facilitate access to it from the Cape, in 1757 a pontoon was placed on the Breede river, close to the junction of the Zonderend. In 1766 Mr. Horak retired from the Company's service and became a burgher, when Joachim Frederik Mentz, who had previously been secretary of the district, was appointed landdrost.

During the administration of Mr. Tulbagh the natives gave very little trouble to the colonists. The Hottentot clans that still held together in compact bodies within the limits of the European settlement retained their own government, though their chiefs were practically appointed by the Dutch authorities. Only when Europeans or slaves were also concerned were they made amenable to colonial law. But the greater number of these people had lost their old tribal distinctions, and recognised no chief of their own race. Many of them were living as dependents of farmers, or wandered about the country,

taking service occasionally as they felt disposed. These were of necessity to some extent amenable to colonial law, even in matters affecting their relationship to each other.

There were instances of harsh and unjust treatment of Hottentots by colonists, especially on the remote border; but the courts of law were open for their protection, and the heavy sentences that are found recorded against European criminals in such cases prove that the law was not a dead letter. The government of Mr. Tulbagh, being popular, was strong; and oppression of the Hottentots on any large scale could only take place in times of anarchy. Farms were allotted to colonists without consulting them, which will be considered just or unjust according as one regards the right of property in the soil by a race of nomads unacquainted with agriculture. In the parts of the country long settled there were tracts of land specially reserved for their use, and on the border there was plenty of open ground for them and their cattle, so that this question was not a pressing one. It had already been noticed, and was as well recognised then as it is now, that nearly every case of cruelty by colonists was committed by men who either had coloured blood in their veins or who had mixed with the uncivilised coloured people on terms of equality.

The government was anxious to prevent the Hottentots from becoming possessed of guns and horses, as many of those who accompanied the elephant hunters in their expeditions had learned to be expert marksmen, and might prove dangerous to the peace of the colony if mounted and armed. In 1755 some Hottentots in the district of Swellendam acquired several horses and a couple of muskets as wages from burghers, when the landdrost was instructed to endeavour to procure the forbidden property in a friendly way in exchange for something else, and strictly to prohibit such transactions in future.

With Bushmen there were occasional contests.

In the spring of 1754 a large party of these savages made their appearance in the Roggevelden, and drove off great herds of cattle. Only one individual—a Hottentot—was murdered by them; but the farmers on the north-western frontier abandoned their homes in alarm. The military board (*krygsraad*) of Stellenbosch and Drakenstein instructed the field corporals Willem van Wyk, Godlieb Opperman, Nicolaas Ryk, Pieter van Zyl, Barend Lubbe, and Barend Vorster to proceed with their forces against the robbers. For six weeks the commando was in the field, as the Bushmen retired to mountains, where they made an obstinate resistance. One stronghold was besieged in vain, the robbers from secure positions shouting defiance and declaring they would have the whole of the cattle in the country. In other places, however, sixty-four Bushmen were killed, at a cost on the farmers' side of one white man and two Hottentots wounded. The commando then returned home, with only seven head of cattle out of all that had been lost.

A little later in the same year the cattle of Jacobus Gildenhuis were driven away from his farm in the Bokkeveld. Gildenhuis's neighbours—Dirk Koekemoer, Jan van Aswegen, and Andries van der Heiden—with twenty Hottentots, pursued, shot down twenty-six of the robbers, wounded eight others, and recovered nearly all the cattle.

The Bushmen in that part of the country then promised to abstain from robbery, and peace was made with them.

In May 1758 a party of about two hundred Bushmen from beyond the interior range of mountains made a raid into the Roggeveld, and drove off some four hundred head of cattle. A commando, under David van der Merwe, assembled and pursued the robbers for fourteen days. The Bushmen were overtaken in a mountain, when fifty-six were shot, and all the cattle but forty-eight were recovered. Commandant Van der Merwe was slightly

wounded, but there was no other casualty on the European side.

In the winter of 1763 a party of Bushmen drove off the cattle of Pieter Loubser from his farm in the Bokkeveld. A European named Hermanus Vos and a few Hottentots pursued the robbers, but upon being overtaken the Bushmen turned and killed Vos with poisoned arrows, when the Hottentots retreated. Landdrost Van Schoor called out a commando, which was placed under order of Dirk Koekemoer. The commando searched for the Bushmen three weeks without success, and then broke up. In January 1764 the farms of Nicolaas Loubser and Willem Engelbrecht were in the same way cleared of cattle. On this occasion a commando assembled more hastily, when the Bushmen were surrounded, and the whole of them were shot.

In June 1764 some Bushmen visited a cattle station on the Zak river, where the burgher Jacob van Reenen had a flock of sheep running. They murdered Van Reenen's European servant, who was in charge of the station, and drove off three hundred sheep. Upon hearing what had occurred, Gerrit van Wyk, who was the nearest field corporal, raised a commando and hunted up the robbers. Their retreat was discovered, and they were attacked, when twenty-five of them were shot, and ten children were taken away. Only sixty-three sheep were recovered. The children were distributed as servants among some of the members of the commando, on the ground that it would be unjust to shoot them for the sins of their parents, that to leave behind those whose parents were killed would be to leave them to perish, and that those who had relatives to provide for them would assuredly become robbers if not removed from evil influences.

In May 1770 some Bushmen drove off thirty-four head of cattle from the farm of Casper Scholtz on the Salt river, between the present villages of Beaufort West and

Murraysburg. Adriaan van Jaarsveld, a man whose name was afterwards to be well known throughout South Africa, was then field corporal of that part of the country. He mustered a commando, followed the Bushmen, and shot six of them, the others managing to escape. The cattle were found dead. The commando, before dispersing, came across a party of Bushmen in the act of lifting the cattle of David van Heerden. They shot two, and made prisoners of the others, who were afterwards distributed as servants.

Later in the same year many of the farms along both sides of the Roggeveld and Nieuwveld mountains were plundered by Bushmen, and three servants of Barend Lubbe, Cornelis van Wyk, and Willem van Zyl were murdered. The field corporals assembled their forces, hunted up the plunderers, and shot a good many, the exact number not being given. Some of the cattle were recovered, and for a time it was hoped that there would be no more depredations. But early in 1771 the Bushmen mustered in force, laid siege to several houses, murdered three of Jacob Joubert's servants, and drove off large herds of cattle. Adriaan van Jaarsveld determined upon giving the marauders a severe lesson. With thirty picked men, well mounted, he took the field, and did not return until he had counted ninety-two dead Bushmen. After that there was quietness for a short time.

In December 1769 a commission consisting of Lucas Sigismundus Faber, landdrost of Stellenbosch, Joachim Frederik Mentz, landdrost of Swellendam, two heemraden from each court, and the two secretaries, was directed to lay down a permanent boundary between the two districts. The Zwartberg range was settled upon as a good dividing line, the country to the north being allotted to Stellenbosch, and that to the south to Swellendam.

The commission was also required to inspect the most distant farms and ascertain the state of affairs on the

frontier. They reported that they found between the Gamtoos and Fish rivers many persons with large herds of cattle, who were not paying rent to the Company, and others who were paying for a farm within the colonial limits, but who were moving about with their cattle wherever they pleased. They had reason also to believe that notwithstanding the placaat of the 8th of December 1739, which prohibited the purchase of cattle from natives, a large trade with the Xosas was being carried on, for they found a well-beaten waggon-road from Swellendam into Kaffirland.

The council of policy therefore resolved—13th of February 1770—that on the northern or Stellenbosch side of the Zwartberg and the corresponding range farther eastward the colonial boundary should be the hills known as Brintjes Hoogte, that on the southern or Swellendam side it should be the Gamtoos river, that all persons then beyond these limits should be called upon to return within them, that all cattle found away from farms held on lease as well as all found in possession of nomads should be forfeited to the Company, and that the landdrosts who neglected to prevent such irregularities should be dismissed and declared incapable of serving the Company.

Governor Tulbagh was regarded as a model officer by his superiors in Europe and India. In March 1755 he was raised to the dignity of councillor extraordinary of Netherlands India, a position which gave him higher rank than that of governor, though it did not add to his duties. In March 1767 he was further elevated to be an ordinary councillor. He had now only two superiors out of Europe, the governor-general and the director-general.

In his declining years he was often laid upon a bed of sickness. In 1766 his life was despaired of, but he rallied, though he did not recover his former strength. At length, in the winter of 1771, he was prostrated by illness which he felt was to be his last, for to other ailments was now added a painful attack of gout in the feet. His deathbed,

on which he lay for eleven weeks, was one of patient suffering and contemplation of the hereafter. In the afternoon of the 11th of August he appeared to be better than usual, but between five and six o'clock in the evening, without a struggle, his spirit passed away. He died at the age of seventy-two years and nearly three months.

A quarter of a century earlier he had been surrounded by his wife's relatives, who were then numerous. At the time of his death he had no nearer connection in South Africa than the three brothers Le Sueur, who were his wife's nephews. The whole of the Swellengrebel family had moved to other countries or had died out. The governor had no children, and he had been a widower since October 1753. By his will he bequeathed 416*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* to the board of deacons on condition of supporting his infirm slaves until death, the remainder of his slaves he emancipated, and he bestowed small legacies upon a maternal uncle and his wife's near relatives. The remainder of his property he left to his younger brother, Jan Tulbagh, a retired captain of the national army, who was living at Bergen-op-Zoom, and to whom for a long time he had made an allowance of 200*l.* a year.

On the morning after Mr. Tulbagh's death, the council of policy met to make provision for carrying on the government. The principal offices at the time were filled by men with only acting appointments. In April 1766 the secunde Van Oudtshoorn had gone to Europe on leave of absence to attend to his private affairs, when the fiscal Cloppenburg was chosen to act for him, and Mr. Otto Luder Hemmy was directed to act as fiscal. In March 1767 a despatch from the directors was received, announcing that Mr., then Baron, Van Oudtshoorn had resigned, that Mr. Cloppenburg was to succeed as secunde, and Mr. Joachim van Plettenberg—then a member of the high court of justice at Batavia—was appointed fiscal. On the 21st of December of the same year Mr. Van



Plettenberg arrived in South Africa. On the 30th of May 1770 Mr. Cloppenburg died, and the council then directed Mr. Van Plettenberg to act as secunde until the directors could make their wishes known. He was also to perform the most important of the fiscal's duties, but his assistant, Mr. Olof Godlieb de Wet, was to relieve him of the routine work of the office. This was the condition of matters at the time of Mr. Tulbagh's death, for the directors had not yet expressed their pleasure.

The council decided that Mr. Van Plettenberg should act both as governor and secunde, and that the secretary, Mr. Olof Martini Bergh, should act also as fiscal until the supreme authorities could make new appointments. They then resolved to go into full mourning with their families for six weeks. The principal townspeople did the same. The funeral of the late governor was kept back till the 17th, to allow the country people to attend. On that day the town was filled as it never had been before, and with all the solemnity and state that was possible the remains of the landsfather were laid beneath the pavement of the church.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>During the two centuries succeeding the formation of the colony—1652 to 1852—Ryk Tulbagh was at the head of the government longer than any other individual, as the following list will show:—

Ryk Tulbagh	nearly 20½ years.	Zacharias Wagenaar	
Simon van der Stel	19½ "		nearly 4½ years.
Joachim van Plettenberg	13½ "	Sir Harry Smith	4½ "
Hendrik Swellengrebel	11½ "	Earl of Caledon	4½ "
Jan de la Fontaine		Sir Benjamin D'Urban	4 "
	nearly 11 "	Louis van Assenburgh	
Maurits Pasques de Chavonnes	nearly 10½ "		nearly 3½ "
Jan van Riebeeck	10½ "	Isbrand Goske	3½ "
Lord Charles Somerset	10 "	Jan Willem Jansseus	
Wilhem Adriaan van der Stel	nearly 8½ "		nearly 2½ "
Cornelis Jacob van de Graaff	6½ "	Major-General Dundas	
Sir George Napier	nearly 6½ "		nearly 2½ "
Sir Lowry Cole	4½ "	Sir Peregrine Maitland	2½ "
		Sir John Cradock	2½ "
		Sir Richard Bourke	2½ "
		Johan Bax	2½ "

The principal names added to the burgher population during the third quarter of the eighteenth century were:—

Carel Aggenbach, before 1773,	Gerhardus Croeser, 1754,
Maarten Arents, before 1751,	Johan Deetlefs, before 1773,
Erik Gustavus Aspeling, 1758,	Johan Frederik Deyssel, before
Jan Gerrit Bantjes, 1755,	1752,
Jan Nicolaas Barkhuizen, before	Jan Christoffel Dill, before 1757,
1771,	Godfried Droskie, before 1757,
Johan Matthys Benade, 1752,	Abraham Duvenage, 1765,
Anthonie Berrangé, before 1752,	Johan Hendrik Eckard, before 1756,
Jan David Beyers, 1757,	Caspar van Eerten, before 1761,
Jan Hendrik de Boer, 1770,	Johan Hendrik Ehlers, before
Johan Christoffel Bredekamp,	1769,
1763,	Zacharias Arend Eloff, 1759,
Johan Bresler, before 1761,	Johan Martin Els, before 1764,
Johan Christiaan Bresler, 1750,	Johan Adam Enslin, before 1761,
Casper Brevis, before 1766,	Willem van Eyk, 1755,
Pieter Briers, before 1775,	Meyndert van Eyk, 1767,
Jan Christoffel Broodrik, 1751,	Matthys van Eyssen, before 1763,
Hendrik Arnoldus Brugman, before	Jan Jurgen Faber, before 1771,
1756,	Hendrik Fehrsen, before 1756,
Wilhelm Buissinné, 1764,	Johan Fischer, 1759,
Johan George Carinus, before	Carel August Freislich, 1759,
1774,	Johan Coenraad Froneman, 1771,
Jan van Coeverden, before 1769,	Johan Hendrik Gans, 1770,
Lourens Cornelissen, 1755,	Carel Frederik Geere, before 1755,
Hendrik Bartholomeus Crause,	George Carel Geeringh, before
1750,	1768,

Willem Helot	2½ years.	Sir George Yonge	1½ years.
Pieter Gysbert Noodt	2½ "	Hendrik Crudop	1½ "
Abraham Josias Sluysken	2 "	Messrs. Nederburgh and	
Sir Rufane Donkin nearly	1½ "	Frykenius nearly	1½ "
Jacob Borghorst	1½ "	Johan Isaac Rhenius	1 year.
Cornelis van Quaelberg		Major-General Baird	1 "
nearly	1½ "	Sir Henry Pottinger	½ "
Pieter Hackius	1½ "	Johan Cornelis d'Ableing	
Daniel van den Henghel		nearly	½ "
nearly	1½ "	Albert van Breugel	½ "
Lord Macartney	1½ "	Lieutenant-General Grey	½ "
Major-General Craig		Lieutenant-Colonel Wade	½ "
nearly	1½ "	Adriaan van Kervel	½ "

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*Ryk Tulbagh.*

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August Wilhelm Genade, before 1770,	Cornelia Nicolaas de Kat, before 1764,
Johan Godfried Geneke, before 1771,	Johan Rynhard Keet, 1755, Frans Michiel Kilian, 1763,
Frans Anthonie Gerber, before 1767,	Johan Georg Kilian, 1769, Ernst Hendrik Klynsmit, before 1756,
Johan Christoffel Germishuizen, 1757,	Thomas Knoetzen, 1769, August Christoffel Koch, 1757, Godfried Frederik Koch, 1766, Jan Frederik Koegelenberg, before 1753,
Lucas Gertenbach, 1768, Ferdinand Christiaan Geyer, 1764, Hendrik Geyser, before 1759, Johan Coenraad Gie, 1751, Jan Godfried Grabe, before 1772, Johan David Griesel, before 1760, Pieter Caspar Hammes, before 1763,	Carel Frederik Kolbe, before 1762, Christiaan Lodewyk Koning, before 1763, Theodorus de Kooker, before 1764, Jan Koster, before 1761, Johan Andries Kramer, before 1763,
Andries Hanssen, before 1769, Carel Albrecht Haupt, before 1756, Harmen Sibolts Havinga, before 1761, Johan Pieter Heckroodt, before 1758, Pieter Hendrik Henning, before 1768, Jan Hendrik Herbst, before 1757, Johan Georg Herbst, 1770, Johan Zacharias Herman, 1767, Johan Andries Heyneke, before 1753, Frederik Arnold Heyneman, 1762, Hermanus ter Hoeven, before 1774, Jan Hendrik Hofmeyr, before 1757, Jan Marthinus Holtman, before 1772, Andries Hough, before 1765, Frederik Hurling, before 1751, Jan Willem Hurter, before 1755, Rutger van Huysteen, 1773, Justus Ludolph Immelman, before 1755, Sirke Jansen, before 1755,	Johan Christiaan Kriegler, 1771, Johan Jacob Kritzinger, 1769, Johan Kuun, 1767, Johan Frederik Lange, before 1775, Arend de Lange, 1752, Johan Las, before 1758, Cornelis de Leeuw, before 1756, Johan Christoffel Leeuwner, before 1768, Johan Frederik Lehman, 1765, Johan Sebastiaan Leibbrandt, 1774, Christiaan Godlieb Lessing, before 1758, Andreas Christoffel Lind, before 1773, Hans Jurgen Linde, 1753, Johan Georg Lochner, 1765, Christiaan Loedolff, 1755, Frans Lottering, before 1759, Johan Wilhelm Lotz, before 1765, Joachim Ernst Ludeke, before 1771, Joseph Matthys, before 1769, Johan Nicolaas Meeser, 1752,

- Philip Lodewyk Metzler, before 1773,  
 Anthonie Michiels, before 1770,  
 Johan Godfried Mooke, 1763,  
 Hans Diederik Mohr, before 1752,  
 Johan Jacob Momberg, 1752,  
 Jan Casper Morgendaal, 1762,  
 Johan Tobias Mynhardt, 1756,  
 Hendrik Nagel, 1759,  
 Philip Jacob Naude, 1754,  
 Coenraad Nelson, 1761,  
 Frans van Nierop, before 1754,  
 Gerrit van Nimwegen, before 1754,  
 Jan Hendrik Ninaber, before 1770,  
 Andries Nolte, 1753,  
 Jan Hendrik Nyhoff, before 1765,  
 Constantyn van Nuld Onkruydt, before 1773,  
 Bernard Wilhelm Oppel, before 1773,  
 Pieter van Papendorp, before 1765,  
 Joseph Patinger, before 1754,  
 Christiaan Paulsen, before 1756,  
 Willem Paulsen, before 1767,  
 Jan Hendrik Pepler, 1759,  
 Barthold Pietersen, before 1761,  
 Philip Poggenpoel, 1768,  
 Frederik Jan Poolman, before 1765,  
 Jacobus Rademeyer, 1751,  
 Johan Adam Raubenheimer, 1769,  
 Georg Frederik Rautenbach, 1757,  
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 Jan Adam Rens, 1754,  
 David Reynders, before 1764,  
 Jan van der Riet, 1752,  
 Jacobus Roeland, 1750,  
 Nicolaas Roets, before 1759,  
 Johan Christoffel Rog, before 1753,  
 Daniel Roode, before 1752,  
 Jan Bernard Rudolph, before 1772,  
 Daniel van Ryneveld, 1759,  
 Johan Michiel Sadie, before 1762,  
 Gerrit Schierhout, before 1770,  
 Johan Frederik Schikkerling, 1773,  
 Daniel Joachim Schoeman, 1750,  
 Jan Frederik Scholtz, 1761,  
 Andries Godlieb Schoonbee, 1765,  
 Coenraad Schreyne, before 1764,  
 Johan Andries Schultz, before 1765,  
 Frans Sebrits, before 1774,  
 — Serfontein, before 1760,  
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 Johan Siebert, before 1769,  
 Carel Wilhelm Smalberger, before 1762,  
 Jan Maarten Smalbergen, before 1757,  
 Jan Hendrik Christoffel Smidt, before 1760,  
 Jurgen Smit, before 1771,  
 Johan Anthonie Smith, before 1771,  
 Johan George Stadler, 1756,  
 Hendrik Stander, before 1752,  
 Frans Hendrik Stapelberg, 1755,  
 Jan Joost Steenberg, before 1751,  
 Johan Steyn, before 1760,  
 Johan Georg Steytler, 1766,  
 Johan Michiel Stigling, 1752,  
 Johan David Storm, before 1756,  
 Hendrik Stroebel, 1764,  
 Jan Struywig, before 1753,  
 Johan Falentyn Swiger, before 1762,  
 Adam Tas, before 1772,  
 Andreas Georg Hendrik Teubes, before 1769,  
 Jan Marthinus Theunissen, before 1769,  
 Hendrik Thiant, before 1764,  
 Frans Thuynsma, before 1773,  
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Bernhard de Vaal, 1773,  
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Jan Verlee, before 1755,  
Willem Ferdinand Versfeld, 1771,  
Jacobus Verster, 1760,  
Johan Pieter Voges, 1757,  
— Volraad, before 1769,  
Kenne Nicolaas Volsteedt, before  
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Bernard Vrey, 1750,  
Johan Pieter Wagenaar, 1764,  
Jan Christiaan Wahl, before 1757,  
Johan Leonard Waldpot, 1762,  
Jan Hendrik Weeber, 1765,  
Johan Coenraad Werner, before  
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Dirk Westerhoff, before 1760,  
Stephanus Janse Weyers, before  
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Siwert Jacob Wiid, 1752,  
Johan Frederik Wilsenach, before  
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Johan Carel Winterbach, 1757,  
Hendrik Witsche, before 1753,  
Maurits Herman Otto Woeke,  
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Georg Christoffel Wolhuter, 1773,  
Johan Christiaan Wykerd, 1768,  
Johan Christiaan Yselle, before  
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Pieter Zeeman, 1753,  
Godfried Christiaan Ziedeman, be-  
fore 1756,  
Johan Hendrik Zinn, 1765.

## CHAPTER XVII.

## HISTORY OF THE XOSA TRIBE.

At this time the colonists who were pushing their way eastward came in contact with offshoots of the Xosa tribe, the southernmost section of the Bantu family. At the close of the sixteenth century this tribe, like the Tembus, Pandomisis, and Pundos beyond, was either not yet in existence as a community distinct in government from others, or was insignificant in strength and numbers. In 1593 a party of wrecked Portuguese who passed through the territory between the Umtata river and Delagoa Bay found no chief of any note south of the Abambo tribe, that then occupied the northern coast belt of Natal.

Among these people there must always have been, as there are now, men who professed to know the history of the past, and who communicated their knowledge to others younger than themselves, in order that it might not be lost. Yet when inquiries concerning the origin of the tribe began to be made by Europeans during the early years of the nineteenth century, all that any one was able to tell was that it had been founded a long time previously by a chief named Xosa. No one knew how it was formed, or anything whatever about the founder except his name. The antiquaries give the line of descent of their paramount rulers as follows: (1) Xosa, (2) Malan-gana, (3) Nkoziyamtu, (4) Tshawe, (5) Ncwangu, (6) Sikomo, (7) Togu, (8) Gconde, (9) Tshiwo, (10) Palo, (11) Gcaleka, (12) Kawuta, (13) Hintsu, (14) Sarili, called by Europeans Kreli, (15) Sigcawu, the present chief.

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was a law that a chief might have as many wives as he chose, but only one son was allowed to live. All the others were destroyed in infancy. Nkoziyamtu introduced the custom of the right hand wife, and thus preserved two sons alive. These were Cira, great son, and Jwara, right hand son.

A third, who was destined to surpass both his brothers in barbarian fame, was preserved by the flight of his mother to her father's people, the Abambo. Among them the boy, Tshawe by name, grew up, and proved himself so valiant that a large number of young men were given to him as followers by the chief, for he was known to be the son of Nkoziyamtu. At length he became desirous of visiting his father and showing his greatness, so at the head of his followers and with immense herds of cattle he journeyed southward from Embo. On the way he was joined by many people whose only weapons were clubs and stones, and who were glad of the opportunity of ranging themselves under such a famous leader.

Upon arriving in the country of his father, he found that Nkoziyamtu was dead. His two brothers assembled their followers to oppose him, and a battle took place, in which they were completely defeated, owing to Tshawe's original retainers being armed with assagais, weapons unknown before to the Amaxosa. This battle established Tshawe's supremacy in the land, and he was joined thereafter by nearly all his father's people, though he still acknowledged the superiority in rank of Cira. As for Jwara, he wandered away with a few followers to the north, and died there.

This legend shows that remote events may easily become grouped round a comparatively modern hero. The assagai was to a certainty in use by all the Bantu long before the time of Tshawe. In the Xosa folklore there are tales of people using stone weapons, which must have had their origin at a very distant date, for iron was known to the Southern Bantu before the formation of any

of the tribes now existing. But being aware from these traditionary tales that there was a time when their ancestors were unacquainted with that metal, and Tshawe being their great hero, they attributed its introduction to him. The Amaxosa are not alone in this respect, for there are other tribes in South Africa who have traditions in which the use of iron was made known to them by their most famous chief.

There is some corroborative evidence of the battle in which Tshawe was victorious, in traditions among the people north of the mountains of the defeat of Jwara and his subsequent wanderings. The traditions are dim and devoid of particulars, but the name of the chief has been preserved, together with the fact of his having been driven by war from his own country to die in exile.

What ultimately became of Cira, whether he died childless or whether his descendants sank to the level of commoners, no Xosa antiquary is now able to say. He passed entirely out of sight.

Tshawe is the hero of many legends, and stands prominently out among the great ones of the misty past. In his time there was no want and no distress of any kind, but all his people were happy and prosperous, with millet and cattle everywhere in plenty. The two chiefs before him are often omitted in the line of descent, and he is then termed the great one of Xosa's sons. He deserves, indeed, to be considered the real founder of the tribe, for in him the direct line of the great chiefs was lost. To this day all his descendants are of aristocratic rank in the Xosa tribe.

But the legends concerning him and of the golden age in which he flourished are certainly highly exaggerated, for at or soon after the time when he must have lived the territory between the Kei river and Sofala was traversed by shipwrecked people, without any mention of his name or of a Xosa tribe being made by the officer who drew up for his government an account of that

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journey, though the narrative covers ninety-six printed pages.<sup>1</sup> From it can be gathered, indeed, that west of the Umzimvubu river the Bantu inhabitants were then very sparsely scattered. Briefly, it is as follows:

On the 1st of March 1622 the Portuguese ship *S. João Baptista* left Goa for Lisbon with defective armament, with pumps much too small, and with a rotten rudder taken from a vessel broken up long before. When about twenty days out, it was found that she had several feet of water in the hold, and as only one pump would work she could not be got dry again, though the quantity was reduced by baling.

In the latitude of  $35\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  S., on the 19th of July two Dutch ships were encountered, and a running fight commenced, which was kept up at intervals during nineteen days. At the end of that time the *S. João Baptista* was waterlogged, with her mainmast and bowsprit shattered and her rudder gone, but during the night after the final action the Dutch ships separated from her, and they were not seen again. She then drifted about at the mercy of the winds and waves until the end of September, when she was close to the African coast, and her anchors were dropped. The boats were at once got out, and the crew and passengers landed, with a quantity of provisions and goods adapted for trade, as well as a number of valuable jewels. Between the ship and the shore eighteen persons were drowned, as the coast was wild. The exact locality cannot be given, though it is stated to have been in latitude  $33^{\circ}$  S., but it must have been somewhere between the Fish and Kei rivers.

On the 3rd of October some natives were seen approaching. The wrecked people took up arms and pre-

<sup>1</sup>*Tratado do successo que teve a nao S. Joam Baptista, e jornada que fez a gente que della escapou, desde trinta & tres graos no Cabo de Boa Esperança, onde fez Naufragio, até Sofala, vindo sempre marchando por terra.* A quarto pamphlet of ninety-six pages, published at Lisbon in 1625.

pared for defence, but the natives sat down at a distance, and the men were then seen to give their assagais to the children, after which they came forward with outstretched arms, while the women got up and commenced to dance. They were lighter in colour than mulattos, but were partly painted with red ochre and powdered coals. Friendship was at once established between the parties, and an ox and some milk were obtained by the Portuguese in exchange for bits of iron.

The wrecked people remained there a little longer than a month, making preparations for a journey northward. They obtained a great many cattle in barter for iron, though they were unable to learn a single word of the Hottentot language, which the journalist of these events described as a continuous clicking noise and not human speech. On the 6th of November they set out on their journey. There were two hundred and seventy-nine souls in all, including three ladies and eight children. They had obtained from the Hottentots seventeen pack oxen, which were laden with provisions, and every man bore a heavy load. A feeble old nobleman, Lopo de Sousa by name, was carried in a hammock, and three other hammocks were taken for the use of the ladies and little children.

They found the country as they advanced intersected with many streams, and trees for firewood were plentiful, but no food was obtainable. They ascertained that the inhabitants lived upon wild plants, shellfish, and the proceeds of the chase, being utterly ignorant of agriculture, though the soil seemed rich.

On the second evening of their march they reached the bank of a river, where they encamped, and placed the cattle in as good an enclosure as they could make, round which they stationed guards. But this precaution was of little avail, for during the night they were attacked by a large party of Bushmen with dogs, who wounded three of them, and drove off all the cattle. Many of the

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savages were killed in the encounter, but that was no satisfaction to the unfortunate travellers, who were filled with dismay by the loss of their oxen.

They knew, however, that some distance in front were people who had cattle, and as they were well provided with pieces of copper and brass, they went on, each man's load being increased to as much as he could possibly carry. The heavy dews at night caused them great discomfort, which was increased by violent thunderstorms, so that soon the feeblest began to die.

On the fifteenth day after setting out they came to a river, where they were detained until they could make a raft to cross it. Here they examined the burdens carefully, and threw away everything that could be regarded as superfluous. Keeping on along the coast, two days later they came to another river, and found some natives who had just killed a hippopotamus, the flesh of which they obtained in barter for trinkets.

Shortly after crossing this river, a pitiable occurrence took place. Among the children were two little orphans, son and daughter of a wealthy Portuguese who had died on board the ship. The little girl now became exhausted, and though a very large sum of money was offered by the captain to the bearers of the hammocks if they would carry her in addition to their other burdens, they declared that they could not. One of the friars—there were three of them—then gave her what consolation he could, and she was left behind to die. Her brother wanted to remain with her, but was forced away, though a few days later he too was abandoned in like manner.

By this time their sufferings from hunger were very great. They kept along the shore in order to get shell-fish, and ate all kinds of impure things and wild plants, though some of these proved to be poisonous and nearly caused the death of several persons.

About the 15th of December they came to the first Bantu kraal. In the narrative there are no particulars

given by which the place can be identified, except that it was on the bank of a river, at the mouth of which great quantities of fish were to be had at low water. Very likely the river was the Bashee. The kraal consisted of fifteen huts, and when five Europeans suddenly made their appearance in front of it the women and children raised loud cries, and the men sprang up and threw firebrands at the strangers. A Portuguese thereupon aimed with his arquebuss, and killed three of them with the shot. This would seem to be a bad opening of intercourse, but the chief, on seeing the strength of the white people, was understood to throw the blame of commencing hostilities upon the dead men, and thereafter was as friendly as possible. Some gourds were obtained in barter for two little pieces of copper, and on the following morning a young chief made his appearance with a hundred followers armed with assagais and presented a fine ox to the Portuguese captain. Four other oxen were obtained in barter, and the travellers, thinking they had now reached a land of plenty, moved on with lighter hearts.

But they were doomed to be terribly disappointed. Day after day they marched forward for nearly a week without seeing any one, and when at length human beings were again met, these were so impoverished as to depend for food upon catching fish, almost the last resource of the Bantu of the south. Nothing more than a little millet bread was to be procured. The hammock bearers now stated that it was impossible for them to carry their burdens farther. They were faint with hunger, and already many of the company had laid down exhausted and died. Great sums of money were offered to them if they would persevere, but they replied that they could not, even if the treasures of the world were to be their reward.

It was therefore resolved that all who were unable to walk must be left behind. The consolations of religion

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were offered by the friars, and then the strong proceeded on their way, abandoning the feeble nobleman Lopo de Sousa, an old lady, by name Dona Maria Colaça, Dona Beatriz Alvarez, wife of Luis da Fonseca,—who was in India,—three of her children, and several others. A son of Dona Beatriz, sixteen years old, could have gone on, but refused to leave his mother. The youngest child of this unhappy lady was taken forward, so that the whole family might not perish, but he died a little later. Some pieces of copper and brass and two pots were left with the abandoned people, in case an opportunity should be offered to purchase food. They were heard of some time afterwards, when a negro who stayed with them a couple of days rejoined the main party. They were then still alive, though De Sousa and Dona Beatriz were unable to move and were dying of hunger.

The travellers staggered onward, finding nothing more than a few crabs to eat, but two days later came to some kraals where cattle and milk and vegetable food could be procured for bits of copper. There some of them died from over eating. They left with thirteen head of cattle, but as the Bantu did not train all their oxen to carry burdens as the Hottentots did, none were draught animals. Beyond these kraals they were visited by the greatest chief in all the country. Unfortunately the journalist did not record his name or the title of his people, though describing him as blind and grave in demeanour, and mentioning that he offered a present of a little millet and a calabash. His people held him in great respect, and he governed according to laws which were strictly enforced.

Two days' march beyond this chief's residence the party came to the largest river that they saw during the whole journey. There can be little doubt from the description and other circumstances that this river was the Umzimvubu, though it is not absolutely certain. Along its bank they wandered a whole month before they were

able to pass it on a raft, for heavy and frequent thunderstorms kept it in flood.

So far the picture given is of a country very thinly populated, and the description of the greatest chief in it, though he was called a king, is not that of a powerful ruler. There was a settled government, with clans spread over an extensive area, and certainly one, possibly two—Tembu and Xosa,—central authorities west of the Umzimvubu in 1623, but a great tribe was not yet in existence. Other evidence in support of this assertion is found in the fact that the Portuguese, though now greatly reduced in strength, were regarded with fear by the inhabitants. While they were seeking a passage across the river, some natives robbed a couple of men of their firelocks, upon which the travellers took possession of the kraal to which the offenders belonged, and put to death every one they could seize in it. And the neighbouring kraals, so far from showing resentment, sent messengers to beg for peace. Still another indication of the sparseness of the population is, that though they had still a good supply of copper and brass, equivalent to a well filled purse in Europe, they suffered so terribly from hunger while roaming along the river that the blacks of the party resorted to cannibalism.

East of the Umzimvubu a different scene was presented. Not very far from that river a Portuguese was met who had been wrecked long before, and who was living with the natives as one of them. He had partly forgotten his mother tongue, but he was able to tell of another white man and an Indian in a neighbouring kraal, and of plenty of food in advance.

Thereafter, until Delagoa Bay was reached, though individuals frequently remained behind of their own accord or were abandoned owing to their weakness, the narrative is of natives occasionally hostile, but generally bringing oxen, goats, sheep, fowls, millet, and curdled milk to their line of march for sale, and of peaceable and friendly barter.

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At Delagoa Bay they learned from a Mozambique negro who could speak their language that no trading vessel had visited the place for two years, and there was no prospect of the speedy arrival of one. There had been a war between two chiefs named Sangane and Manganyra, and a Portuguese clergyman and three traders belonging to the last expedition had been robbed and killed by the latter. Both the chiefs treated the travellers well, but here fever carried off many of them, and after resting for a month, on the 7th of May 1623 the survivors set out for Inhambane.

At the Manisa river they were very well treated by the chief, who was the most powerful ruler in that part of Africa. When the trading vessel came periodically from Mozambique, the most important station was always in his country, so he was not a stranger to white people. At this place Dona Ursula, widow of Domingos Cardoso de Mello, a lady who had borne all the privations and fatigues of the journey thus far, found herself unable to go farther. One of her sons, with four others of the party, remained with her, and the chief promised to take good care of them.

The others went on. After crossing the Limpopo, they met the first Bantu who used bows and arrows. A little beyond they found the natives hostile, but they forced their way through, and reached Inhambane with most of their jewels, though the copper and brass was exhausted. Their disappointment was great on finding that no trading vessel had been there recently, and none could be looked for during the existing monsoon. A black named Motepe, who professed to be a Christian and who spoke sufficient Portuguese to act as an interpreter for the chiefs when visitors arrived, now proved a very useful friend. Through his agency an arrangement was made that for a stipulated payment one of the chiefs should furnish provisions and an escort of twenty men to conduct two of the party to Sofala, and should provide the

others with food and shelter until the arrival of a vessel to take them away.

Those who went to Sofala were joined on the road by a large number of men carrying ivory and ambergris for sale, and on the 28th of July 1623, nearly ten months after their landing from the wreck, they reached the Portuguese station. One of them died immediately after arrival, the other—the officer who drew up the report of the journey—was very kindly treated by the commandant Luis Lobo. A large boat was sent to Inhambane for the party there, and at length twenty-eight men, the survivors of the two hundred and seventy-nine individuals who set out on that terrible march, reached Mozambique and were able to proceed to Goa.

This narrative cannot be made to fit in with the Xosa traditions concerning the greatness of Tshawe, except on the supposition that he and his followers were still east of the Umzimvubu. This is indeed quite possible, and from his mother being of the Abambo, it seems not unlikely. But in that case the Bantu west of the river in 1623 could not have been of the Xosa tribe, whose members have always in historical times regarded themselves as the pioneers of the Bantu race in its onward march. The Tembus, however, have a tradition that the Xosas were once behind them, but in early times passed to the front, and this would clear away every difficulty. Still it is safer to regard the matter, for the present at least, as being doubtful, for a tradition of a distant event, preserved by only one tribe and unsupported by other evidence, is of very little value in history.

Twenty-five years after the wreck of the *S. João Baptista* two other Portuguese ships—the *Nossa Senhora da Atalaya* and the *Sacramento*—were lost on the coast between the mouths of the Fish and Kei rivers, and some survivors of their crews marched overland to Delagoa Bay. On Shefina island they found a temporary trading station, and lying at anchor off it were a couple of pan-

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gaios, or large Arab-made boats, from Mozambique. They were thus enabled to get away without further difficulty. In the narrative of their journey<sup>1</sup> unfortunately no names of tribes or chiefs south of Delagoa Bay are given, though dealings with natives are constantly mentioned, and all that can be learned is that the Bantu population to the southward was becoming denser. One of the sailors who was left behind in this journey was found living in Pondo-land forty years later by the crew of the *Stavenisse*. As there must have been a good many white men incorporated in this manner by the southern Bantu clans during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the resemblances to European tales which are observed occasionally in the folklore of these people can easily be accounted for.

To Tshawe, say the Xosa antiquaries, succeeded his son Nwangu, and to him again Sikomo, of neither of whom is anything known beyond the name. The great son of Sikomo was Togu, during whose government according to tradition offshoots of the tribe moved westward as far as the Kei. Here there is another opportunity of comparing tradition with contemporaneous records. Togu was the great chief of the Xosa tribe in 1687 when the wrecked sailors of the *Stavenisse* were in his country, and they found an offshoot as far west as the mouth of the Buffalo. But that offshoot cannot have been a clan of any importance, for the closest inquiry made by and for the writer of this history from the recognised antiquaries of the tribe has failed to recover any trace of it or of a chief of the name given by the wrecked sailors. It may have been merely a small section of a clan driven out for a time by some petty feud.

The great son of Togu was Gconde, whose usual resi-

<sup>1</sup> *Relaçam do Navfragio que fizeram as naos Sacramento & nossa Senhora da Atalaya, vindo da India para o Reyno, no Cabo de Boa Esperança; de que era Capitão mór Luis de Miranda Henriques, no anno de 1647.* A quarto pamphlet of eighty-seven pages, published at Lisbon in 1650.

dence was on the western bank of the Umtata river. He died young, and was buried on the bank of the Ngwan-guba, a stream that flows into the Umtata. After his time the tribe rapidly moved westward, and as the Xosas advanced the Tembus occupied the lands which they vacated.

Gconde's great son was named Tshiwo; but he had two others who became men of note: Umdange, right hand son, and Tinde, left hand son. The first of these was the founder of the Imidange clan, well known to colonists in all the wars since 1781. The mother of Tinde was of Hottentot blood. How she came to be a wife holding high rank in the household of Gconde is not known to Xosa antiquaries of the present day. Most likely she was of the Damaqua tribe, and it may have been owing to her union with Gconde that this tribe in later years became incorporated with the Tinde clan of the Amaxosa. This is only conjecture; but it is supported by the following facts: (a) Xosa traditions agree that the mother of Tinde was a Hottentot woman, and that she occupied the high position of left hand wife of the chief Gconde. (b) The Damaqua tribe of Hottentots has been so thoroughly incorporated with the Amantinde clan that since 1775 there is no trace of its separate existence. (c) At that date—1775—the Damaquas, though still calling themselves Hottentots, were found by the traveller Sparrman more nearly to resemble Bantu in appearance. The incorporation may have taken place, however, as the result of war. There are numerous traditions of slaughter of Hottentots about the time of Gconde, without the details being known. If the Damaqua tribe was conquered, nothing would be more in accordance with Bantu custom than for the young women to be taken into the families of the conquerors and for the vanquished chief's daughter to become a wife of the third rank in the house of the victorious chief.

Tshiwo was constantly carrying on war or employed

in hunting. He died in middle age, when on a hunting excursion in the country far to the westward, and it is not now known where he was buried.

During his government an event took place by which an individual who did not belong to the family of hereditary chiefs was raised to the rank of head of a clan. Among the Southern Bantu it often happens that a man of considerable wealth is accused by a witchfinder of having caused some calamity. In the phraseology of the country such a person is 'smelt out.' He is allowed no opportunity to defend himself, but is kept quite unconscious of there being a charge against him. A party of executioners is sent, who fall upon the person accused, usually during the night, and kill him and his family. His cattle are taken to the chief, who reserves the greater number for himself, but allows the witchfinder and the executioners a share. In Tshiwo's time a succession of disasters of various kinds was followed by an unusually large number of people being smelt out.

The principal attendant of the chief, who was generally entrusted with the duty of carrying out decisions in these cases, was a man named Kwane. Instead of literally obeying orders, Kwane was in the habit of allowing many of those to escape whom he was sent to destroy, and contenting himself with seizing their cattle. The fugitives took refuge with the Gonaqua tribe of Hottentots, by whom they were kindly received as being outcasts from their own people. On one occasion towards the close of his life, when Tshiwo was sore pressed and greatly in need of reinforcements, Kwane boldly presented himself at the head of a strong band of those whom he had saved, and tendered their services. Tshiwo was so delighted at receiving aid thus opportunely that he appointed Kwane chief, as with hereditary rights, over the former fugitives. By this time these were so mixed in interests and family connections with the Gonaquas that separation was impracticable. The whole horde there-

upon received Kwane as its chief, and was thenceforth regarded as a Xosa clan. In the time of Cungwa, third in descent from Kwane, we shall find it a formidable enemy of the colony. It had then entirely adopted the Xosa language and customs, and termed itself the Gunukwebe (correct Kaffir: Amagqunukwebe).

Tshiwo's great son Palo was not born until after his father's death. Gwali, Tshiwo's right hand son, was then in the prime of life, and being ambitious he attempted to make away with his brother. A portion of the tribe, however, rallied round the guardians of the infant chief, and Gwali was compelled to flee. With his own adherents and the Tinde clan he crossed the Kei and took refuge with a Hottentot chief named Hintsati, who resided near the site of the present village of Somerset East. Tradition points these out as the first compact bodies of Bantu to cross the Kei. The date was the year 1702. They were the people encountered by the European marauding party mentioned in chapter xii.

Gwali was received in a friendly manner by Hintsati, to whom he gave one of his sisters in marriage. After a long time an army was organised to follow him up. Hintsati's kraal was surrounded in the night, the chief was killed with many of his people, and his cattle were taken. The army at once commenced its return march, but was followed closely by the Hottentots. At the Koonap river it was overtaken, and an indecisive battle was fought. Farther on, at the broad ford of the Keiskama, another engagement took place, and yet another on the Debe flats, where the Hottentots recovered many of their cattle.

About this time the Imidange clan crossed the Kei, and it has remained west of that river ever since.

The left hand son of Tshiwo was named Tiso, and to him a number of people were given, who formed a clan ever since known as the Amambala. Tiso died without issue, when Palo placed his son Langa at the head of the

*Jan.* This chief and his people crossed the Kei some time before the year 1740, and never returned.

The great son of Palo was named Gcaleka. The right hand son, Rarabe, was a man of mature years when the great son attained his majority, and was in intellectual power the higher of the two. War between the brothers followed, and was waged with great bitterness. When the strife commenced, only the section of the tribe that was beyond the Kei took part in it. Numbers were on the side of Gcaleka, but skill on that of Rarabe. It was a natural consequence of a civil war of this kind that the weaker of the two combatants should endeavour to remove from the neighbourhood of the other. To the westward stretched a tract of country of unknown extent, and in that direction Rarabe cast his eyes.

With his followers he reached the Kei, at the place now known as the lower drift, and found there a Hottentot army ready to dispute his passage. If half of what Xosa antiquaries relate of the action that followed be true, the Hottentots fought bravely and well. Each side pressed its foremost men against the enemy and compelled them thus to battle to the death. They met in the stream, which was soon so choked with corpses that its water was red with blood. At last, by sheer force of pressure, the Hottentots were driven back, and Rarabe won a footing on the western bank. But this success was so dearly bought that he preferred to negotiate rather than risk another such encounter, and so for a great number of cattle he purchased a tract of country between the head waters of the Keiskama and Buffalo rivers, including the Amatola mountains, from the wife and followers of the chief who had fallen in the struggle. The name of this Hottentot chieftainess was Hoho, and after her the Pirie forest is still called by the Xosas 'the forest of Hoho.'

The events of this battle are related with such minuteness by Xosa antiquaries that there must be a

foundation for them, but the number that fought on each side cannot have been great. The Xosa tribe at that time was very small compared with what it is now, and the portion that followed Rarabe was only a fraction of the whole. Until a much later date, when his fame was established, he could not bring a large army into the field. What Hottentots they were that opposed him cannot be ascertained, but they were not Gonaquas, and the whole of the remaining hordes, if combined, were of no great strength.

Very shortly after the battle just mentioned Palo himself removed to the western side of the Kei. He first fixed his residence on the Nahoon, but before 1750 he settled in the beautiful Izeli valley, on the head waters of the Buffalo river, where he lived many years.

Before 1750 Gcaleka also crossed the Kei. He resided sometimes on the Kabusi, sometimes on the Kwelegha, and sometimes on the Kwenugha river, during the remainder of his life.

When the Xosas moved over the Kei, the Tembus occupied the country on the eastern bank of that river. Daba was then their paramount chief.

At this time an expedition was sent by the Cape government to explore the country east of the Cape Colony, mainly for the purpose of acquiring information concerning the inhabitants and ascertaining if any articles of commercial value could be obtained from them. This expedition left Capetown on the 29th of February 1752. It was under command of Ensign August Frederik Beutler, and was of sufficient strength to defend itself in case of sudden attack by any natives. There were thirty-seven petty officers and soldiers, twenty-five waggon drivers and leaders, a superintendent of the train, a botanist, a blacksmith, and a waggonmaker. The clerk Carel Albrecht Haupt went as journalist, the marine officer Pieter Clement to determine latitudes and distances, the surveyor Carel David Wentzel to make a map, and the surgeon

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Jan van Ellewee to attend to the sick. They had eleven waggons to transport baggage, stores, presents for native chiefs, and a boat to convey them across flooded rivers. No expedition fitted out on such a scale had ever left the Cape before, except when Commander Simon van der Stel visited the copper mountain in Namaqualand.

By the 31st of March the Gourits river was reached, and while resting there the party was joined by a French sailor in a half-famished condition. He had come from Mauritius in a brig named the *Necessaire*, which was one of three vessels sent to explore the south-eastern coast of Africa and look for a suitable place for a French settlement. At Algoa Bay a boat with an officer and eight men had been sent ashore, when the boat was swamped, and the *Necessaire* sailed away without an attempt to rescue the crew.

For thirty-four days the man who gave this account of himself had been travelling westward, and he did not know what had become of his companions. Ensign Beutler sent him to Swellendam, with a letter to Mr. Jan Andries Horak, who in April 1749 had succeeded Mr. Rhenius as landdrost, requesting that he should be forwarded to the Cape.

On the 2nd of April the farm of Esaias Meyer at Mossel Bay was reached. Here the officer of the French boat met them, and corroborated the account of the sailor in every particular. He could give no information as to the fate of the remainder of the crew, except that he knew one man had died from eating part of a poisonous fish. The ensign directed him to the farm of Ignatius Ferreira, who sent him on to Capetown.

On the 4th of April the Little Brak river was passed, and on the following day the farm of the widow Hasewinkel, the last occupied by Europeans, was reached. On the 7th the expedition came to the foot of a formidable mountain, at the place now called Montagu Pass. It took three days of excessive toil to get the waggons

across the mountain, in some places a tackle being used to assist the oxen, in other places the waggons needing to be steadied by ropes held by the soldiers.

Having got safely over this barrier, the expedition found itself in the Longkloof, a narrow valley of great length between two ranges of mountains running nearly parallel to the coast. That section of it had already been named Cannaland by the elephant hunters, on account of the canna plant, which was used by the Hottentots as a purgative, being found there in great abundance. Very little grass was to be seen, but rhenoster bush was plentiful.

On the 17th of April they passed the head waters of the Keurbooms river, their chief trouble now being the numerous lions that infested the valley. On the 20th they encamped at the Moordenaar's river, which had received its name from a deserter who had been living with a Hottentot clan being murdered on its bank some years before.

On the 4th of May they came to the end of the Longkloof, and found that the mountain range on their right terminated on the shore of the sea. For some days they had been travelling along a stream which was a branch of the Gamtoos, but they left it before reaching the junction, and proceeded to the beach to examine the curve that bears the name St. Francis Bay. They found it an open roadstead, protected only on the north and west. At the mouth of the Kabeljauw river they set up a beacon with the Company's monogram on it, as a token of possession, and then proceeded onward.

The Gamtoos river was crossed on the 6th of May, and three days later the expedition reached the Galgenbosch. The manner in which names were given to places from the most trivial events was here exemplified. Some elephant hunters had carved their names in the bark of a tree, and a later traveller had cut the figure of a gallows above the signatures, from which circumstance the forest was called the Galgenbosch.

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On the 13th of May the expedition encamped at the mouth of the Zwartkops river. The broken boat of the *Necessaire* was lying on the beach, but there was no other trace of European handiwork. The salt pans in the neighbourhood were visited, and the bearings of the shore around Algoa Bay were taken. The ensign regarded the roadstead as too exposed to be of any use for shipping. A beacon, however, was set up at the mouth of the Zwartkops, with the letters V O C (Vereenigde Oost-Indische Compagnie) upon it, to denote that possession had been taken on behalf of the Company.

On the 16th of May they passed the Sunday river, on the 17th a place called by the Hottentots Koernoe—meaning small forest—but which they named Hoenderkraal on account of the great number of Guinea fowls seen there, and on the 20th they crossed the Bushman's river. Keeping near the sea, on the 2nd of June they passed the Fish river, and on the 5th reached the Keiskama.

So far they had met only Hottentots. The names of the clans are given in the report of the expedition, but they need not be repeated, as they have long since passed into oblivion. From Cannaland to the Keiskama the Hottentots were found in a condition of great poverty, arising partly from depredations by Bushmen, partly from wars with the Xosas, and partly from feuds among themselves. They were very thinly scattered over the country. The Europeans noticed some of the heaps of stones which are still to be seen near the Fish river, and observed that the Hottentots who had joined their train threw green branches of trees upon the cairns as they passed, at the same time muttering some words or phrases. When questioned why they did so, the most intelligent among them replied that the devil had made the cairns, and that in this way they prayed for good luck and a long life. Most of the Gonaquas, who lived between the Fish river and the Keiskama, were still pure Hottentots, but they were all on good terms with the Xosas.

As the Keiskama was considered the boundary between the Bantu and Hottentot tribes, the party was now divided into three watches, one of which was constantly armed and on guard. Two burghers—Andries Arendsorp and Gerrit van Nimwegen—had joined them, and there was a large number of Hottentots in the train. After crossing the river, several Xosas came to meet them, and with these and some Gonaquas presents were sent on in advance to the paramount chief Palo and to Bange, head of the Amantinde branch of the Xosa tribe. The Amantinde then occupied the territory from the lower Keiskama to the Tshalumna, and were regarded as a powerful clan. A few of their kraals were on the western bank of the Keiskama.

As the expedition advanced, the country was found to be more thickly peopled. It was the winter season, and the district had been subject to a long and severe drought, still there was ample proof that the inhabitants were agriculturists, for they brought millet, bread made of the same grain, leaf tobacco, and dacha for sale.

The travellers were visited by several petty chiefs or captains, of whom one, whose name is given as Goeary, was regarded as unfriendly. With Bange much intercourse was had. He was a stout man, who wore ornaments made of beads—obtained from elephant hunters—on his head and hanging from his ears, round his neck were pieces of copper strung together on a thong, from which were suspended two pieces of ivory, and his arms were decorated with metal rings. His only clothing was a skin kaross. He complained of having a sore throat, and asked for some medicine, which was given to him. He also wanted a musket, but with that he was not supplied. A few head of cattle were obtained from him in barter, but at a very dear rate, and though large herds were seen, he asserted that he had none to spare.

While they were at Bange's kraals, which were not far from the sea, messengers from Palo arrived to thank

them for the present that had been sent to that chief. These people must have been well acquainted with ivory hunters and traders, as they brought an elephant's tusk for sale, and asked an extravagant price for it.

Before the expedition reached the Buffalo river, which was crossed on the 17th of June, all the Hottentots with the train, except a few Gonaquas, deserted through fear of the Xosas.

On the 24th of June the Gonubie river was reached. On the 28th the expedition halted at the kraal of Gcaleka, great son of Palo, who was then residing on the western bank of the Kwenugha, a stream which falls into the sea between the Gonubie and the Kei. The place where Hubner's party had been massacred in 1736 was to the north-east, and at no great distance. Upon being questioned as to the massacre, the Xosas tried to throw the blame upon Hubner's interpreters, who, they said, had caused a misunderstanding. It may have been so; but the declarations of the survivors record an event similar to some of our own day, in which misunderstanding certainly had no part.

After resting a little, the party proceeded due north to the ford of the Kei, which they crossed on the 3rd of July, and on the following day encamped at the Toleni river. Here messengers whom they had sent in advance to a Tembu chief met them and delivered a friendly greeting. To the east of the Kei only Tembus were found, as that river was then the boundary between them and the Xosas.

Five days longer the party marched north-eastward, without making any discovery of note. The oxen were now beginning to die from fatigue and want of food, and the members of the expedition were almost wearied out. Travelling over a broken country, where at every brook a road had to be made, was no easy task. Cattle could not be purchased from the Tembus, who stated also that neither the Pondos who lived beyond them to the east-

ward nor the Bushmen who occupied the territory to the north had any. The ensign took counsel with the leading men of the party, and all decided that it was advisable to go no farther. On the 10th of July therefore they turned towards home. Crossing the Kei at the same ford which they had used before, they pursued their journey westward along the route now followed by the main waggon road from the bridge to King-Williamstown, passing on the way through several kraals between the upper forks of the Nahoon, whose inhabitants were under a chief named Macholla.

Palo, the head of the Xosa tribe, was then living near the head waters of the Buffalo river, at the foot of the Amatola mountains. The travellers were desirous of seeing him, but he probably feared meeting a strong body of Europeans, for they were unable to obtain an interview. From the halting place of the expedition some men were sent with a small present to the kraal in which he usually resided, and were received there by one of his sons of minor rank named Coposa, who informed them that the great chief was not at home. On the same day Coposa paid the ensign a visit, and learning that cattle were needed, he returned on the following morning with twenty-two head, which he bartered for articles of no great value. Promises of friendship were made on both sides.

Ensign Beutler estimated the number of the whole Xosa tribe, including the Gonaquas who were closely allied with it, at twelve thousand souls. This is certainly too low, though it is impossible to say by how much with any pretension to accuracy. He thought they could put four thousand warriors in the field, that is one out of every three individuals, men, women, and children, which is very far from a correct proportion.

The partial incorporation of the Gonaqua tribe of Hottentots had a strong tendency to expedite the migration westward of the Xosa tribe. Originally nomads,

these people had not yet acquired settled habits, and the Bantu who were intermarried with them also became restless. Ensign Beutler found the great body of these people between the lower Fish and Keiskama rivers, though individuals were scattered among the Xosa kraals all the way to the Kwenugha. Twenty years later, in 1772 and 1773, the botanist Thunberg found parties of them near the Gamtoos river, west of Algoa Bay, some of which were in appearance pure Hottentots and others pure Bantu. They were thus acting as pioneers in a general forward movement.

Ensign Beutler's party noticed that from the eastern side the peak which the elephant hunters called Kaffirland's Berg, because they considered the Xosa country commenced there, could be seen at as great a distance as when approaching in the opposite direction. This is the Intaba-ka-Ndoda—the Mountain of the Man—of the present day.

It was intended, if possible, to cross over to the copper mines in Little Namaqualand, so keeping close to the foot of the mountain chain, the expedition, after leaving the Xosa country, passed the Tyumie, Kat, Koonap, Baviaans', Tarka, and Fish rivers. The only inhabitants of this tract of country were Bushmen, with whom it was impossible to have much intercourse. In the report it is stated that one division of these savages practised polyandry as well as polygamy, but this may be doubted, as there is not sufficient evidence in support of the assertion. The Bushmen along the Fish river—called Little Chinese by the Europeans—were reported to be monogamists. Many rock paintings made by these people were noticed. The country was so parched by a long drought that the cattle were half famished, and large thorn trees were perishing through want of moisture. The ensign had not been able to purchase as many oxen as he needed, so after keeping upward along the bank of the Fish river until the 18th of August without dis-

covering anything of importance, he was compelled to abandon the design of crossing the country to the westward and to turn again towards the sea. For many days nothing more noteworthy occurred than the recovery of a runaway slave of the burgher Willem Landman.

When resting at the farm of Hendrik Blankenberg at the Zoetmelks river, the ensign received a letter from the landdrost of Swellendam, written under instructions from the governor, directing him to search for a bay that was reported to have been found by some hunters on the coast of Outeniqualand. He accordingly sent part of the train on to Capetown, and with a few men on horseback he endeavoured to find a way to the shore. He reached the two lakelets nearest the present village of George, and supposing them to have been mistaken for a bay, he turned back without seeing the Knysna inlet. On the 6th of November he reached the Cape, after an absence of a little over eight months.

In the narrative of this expedition no mention is made of Palo's right hand son Rarabe, and the travellers do not appear even to have heard of him. Yet for a barbarian he was a man of considerable ability and of enterprising character, and just at this period was at the zenith of his greatness. With a section of his people he had moved away to the north, and was then living between the Tsomo and White Kei rivers. There he formed an alliance with the Dungwana clan of Tembus, and with them attacked the paramount Tembu chief Daba, conquered him, and took all his cattle. He thus made himself so famous and respected that the different clans of the Amagwali, Imidange, Amantinde, Amambala, and Gunukwebe in course of time to a limited extent submitted to his authority and adopted his name. The Xosa tribe thus became divided into two branches: the Amararabe and the Amagcaleka, though both acknowledged Palo as their paramount chief.

Some time between the years 1770 and 1775 Rarabe moved again, on this occasion fixing his residence on the site of the present village of Butterworth. His father Palo wished to visit him there, and travelled from the Izeli for that purpose, leaving one of his councillors in charge of his kraal. On the way he visited Gcaleka near the present village of Komgha. At Tongwane the old chief was seized with pleurisy, and he died there. His grave is near the Springs, in the district of Butterworth; and to this day many Xosas will not drink the water of the Tongwane stream, because he was buried on its bank. When the councillor whom he left at the Izeli died, another was appointed with the title of representative of Palo, and the succession was continued until 1851, when the Xosas were driven from that valley by European forces.

After the death of his father, Rarabe went to live again between the Buffalo and the Keiskama. Between 1781 and 1785—the date cannot be exactly fixed—he became involved in a dispute with the Kwati and Geina clans of the Tembu tribe concerning the marriage of one of his daughters. The dispute led to war, the Tembus retired to the north-west, and in a battle, fought on the western bank of the Kei above the junction of the Tsomo, Rarabe fell pierced with an assagai. His grave is in one of the Amabele hills, at the head of the Bolo stream, near Emgwali.

Rarabe's great son, Umlawu by name, died before his father, leaving an infant as his heir. Of the other sons, Ndlambe and Cebo were the most noteworthy. Ndlambe was a full brother of Umlawu, and if the infant son of the latter—Gaika (correct Kaffir spelling Ngqika) by name—had not been born, he would have succeeded as head of the Rarabe branch of the tribe. As it was, the councillors of his deceased father appointed him regent during the minority of his nephew. Cebo was the right hand son of Rarabe. Several years after this date he died without

issue, when Ndlambe placed one of his own sons—Dushane by name—at the head of the clan.

Gcaleka died about the year 1790, and was buried on the bank of the Umsuzi, a little stream near the present village of Komgla. Kawuta, his son in the great line, succeeded him as head of the Gcaleka branch and paramount chief of the whole Xosa tribe.

At this time the country between the Kei and Bashee rivers was uninhabited except by Bushmen, the Tembu clans who had lived there having been almost exterminated by an attack of small pox, after which the survivors returned to the district between the Bashee and the Umtata. Kawuta, with the Gcaleka branch of the Xosa tribe, crossed over to the eastern side of the Kei, and went to live in the present districts of Butterworth and Kentani. Kawuta died at an early age about the year 1804, leaving Hints, his great son, and Buku, his right hand son, both mere children. His grave is at the Emnyameni, near Kentani hill, in the district of Kentani.

Going back to 1775, the whole Xosa tribe was then living between the Kei and Fish rivers, the Gcaleka branch east of the Buffalo, the Rarabe clans west of that river. The greater part of the Gunukwebe clan, then under the chief Tshaka, son of Kwane, and the Tinde clan, under the chief Cika, occupied the present district of Peddie. The Amagwali clan, under the chief Titi, and the Imidange clan, under the chief Mahuta, had their kraals along the Koonap river. The Amambala clan, under the chief Langa, lived on the Tyumie.

The following genealogical table shows the relationship of the principal Xosa chiefs of this and the next generation. The line of the Amagwali and Imidange is not continued as far as the others, because those clans were broken into fragments, and the heirs in the great line were not the most important heads of divisions. Tiso and Cebo died without issue.

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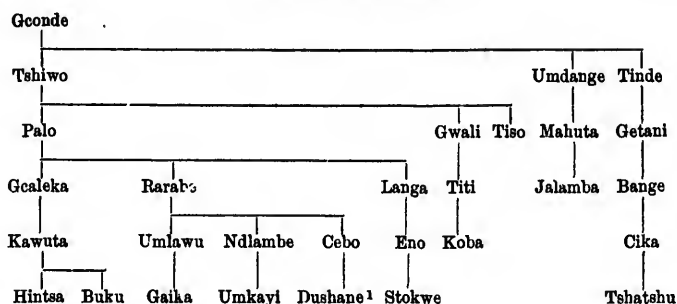
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From Bantu antiquaries it is not possible to learn much about the condition of the mass of the people at any time, whether progress was made in knowledge, or whether any useful plant was introduced from abroad. Their whole attention is devoted to the chiefs, and a list of the names of past rulers, with the family ramifications of the governing house, and events affecting each of the heads of clans, constitute the stock of historical information which they are able to impart. The mode of living of commoners is regarded as a subject unworthy of notice.

But by comparing the Portuguese accounts at the beginning of the seventeenth with the Dutch and English accounts at the close of the eighteenth century, it can be ascertained that the Southern Bantu made no progress in knowledge or in morals during the two hundred years between Xosa and Kawuta. The tobacco plant was introduced at an early date, and the maize towards the close of the period, but no other addition to the products of the garden appears to have been made. Both these plants spread very rapidly in South Africa. Tobacco was highly esteemed as soon as strangers made it known, and the advantage of maize over millet, in being less subject to destruction by birds, was immediately recognised.

<sup>1</sup> Dushane was really the son of Ndlambe, but as Cebo died childless, he was transferred to that house.

Improvement must be incalculably slow among people situated as the Xosas then were, for any one mentally in advance of his fellows would to a certainty perish on a charge of dealing in witchcraft. But a change in the disposition and character of the people was effected by the mixture of Hottentot blood, which must have commenced at a very early date, and after the incorporation of the Damaguas quickly spread through the whole tribe. The Hottentot was much the less stable of the two, but he was vastly more imaginative, and his blood quickened the intellect of the stolid Bantu. It gave to the Xosas a lighter colour than that of their brethren farther north, and made them more excitable, though it was not sufficient to weaken their attachment to a strict form of government or to affect their reverence for their hereditary chiefs.

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## CHAPTER XVIII.

JOACHIM VAN PLETTENBERG, FISCAL AND SECUNDE, ACTING  
GOVERNOR, 12TH AUGUST 1771 TO 18TH MAY 1774;  
GOVERNOR, INSTALLED 18TH MAY 1774,  
RETIRED 14TH FEBRUARY 1785.

JOACHIM VAN PLETTENBERG, who was elected by the council to act as head of the government until the pleasure of the directors could be known, had been educated as a lawyer, and had very little experience in any other employment. Before the death of Mr. Tulbagh was known in the Netherlands, the prince of Orange, acting upon the nomination of the directors, appointed the baron Pieter van Reede van Oudtshoorn secunde, as that gentleman had applied for employment again in South Africa, where some of his children were residing. It was then intended that Mr. Van Plettenberg should resume the duties of fiscal.

Despatches announcing the death of Mr. Tulbagh arrived from the Cape, however, before Baron Van Oudtshoorn could leave Holland, and he then had the office of governor conferred upon him, Mr. Van Plettenberg being at the same time appointed secunde. This information was received at the Cape on the 4th of September 1772.

The newly appointed governor embarked in the ship *Asia*, but was taken ill at sea, and after nineteen days' confinement to his bed, died on the 23rd of January 1773. His body was placed in a leaden coffin which he had taken on board with him, and a few days after the arrival of the ship was buried with state under the pavement of the church. The flagstone which covered the grave was

taken up when the building was enlarged, but it was not removed from the grounds, and it is now attached to the eastern wall of the church.

When the death of Van Oudtshoorn was reported, the prince of Orange, upon the nomination of the directors, appointed Mr. Van Plettenberg governor, Mr. Otto Luder Hemmy secunde, and Advocate Willem Cornelis Boers fiscal. The ceremony of installation of the new governor took place on the 18th of May 1774. Mr. Hemmy, who had previously filled the post of chief salesman, took over the duty of secunde some three weeks earlier. Advocate Boers, who was practising at the Hague when he received his appointment, did not arrive in the colony until the 10th of the following December. The office of master of the naval establishment had become vacant in April 1773, and the council had filled it provisionally by detaining here an energetic skipper, named Damien Hugo Staring, whose appointment was now confirmed by the supreme authorities.

The eastern boundary of the colony at this time, according to the resolution of the council of policy, was Brintjes Hoogte and the Gamtoos river; but, in defiance of the prohibition of the 13th of February 1770, Europeans were settled along the high lands as far as the Little Fish river. The first white man who made himself a home on the banks of this stream was an old elephant hunter named Willem Prinsloo, who in June 1771 obtained permission from Governor Tulbagh to select two farms within the colonial limits, but had gone beyond them and occupied the site of the present village of Somerset East. In October 1772 the acting governor Van Plettenberg came to hear that Prinsloo was living beyond the boundary, and instructed the landdrost of Stellenbosch to have him removed; but he managed to evade the summons. Several others soon followed him. These settlers sent a petition that they might be authorised to remain where they were, and, in order to secure the land

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rents, on the 11th of July 1775 the council of policy decreed the extension of the district of Stellenbosch eastward to the Fish river, and of that of Swellendam to the Bushman's river.

The boundary between the new portions of the two districts was referred for settlement to the combined landdrosts and heemraden, who fixed upon the mountain range corresponding to the Zwartberg and parallel to the coast. The district of Swellendam was thus clearly defined on all sides, but Stellenbosch had no fixed limit on the north. In that direction, the Kamiesberg, the Hantam mountain in the present district of Calvinia, the country about the sources of the Zak river in the Nieuwveld mountains, and the Sneeuwberg had been occupied for several years.

The ground upon which the new hospital was to stand had been prepared before the death of Governor Tulbagh, but the building had not been commenced. It was designed for the accommodation of one thousand four hundred and fifty patients, with quarters for the medical officers and attendants, and spacious storehouses. The foundation stone was laid by Mr. Van Plettenberg on the 2nd of November 1772.

As most of the materials used in the construction of this building—now the military barracks—were sent from the Netherlands, the directors, in a despatch dated 18th of October 1771, required the council to provide return cargoes of Cape produce for the ships bringing them out, provided produce of good quality could be had at reasonable rates. They complained of the high prices and inferior quality of various samples previously sent home, excepting wheat, and they therefore issued orders that the bulk of the cargoes should consist of that grain.

When these instructions arrived in South Africa, the French were laying in large supplies of meal, wine, and meat for their men-of-war and magazines at Mauritius, and the preceding harvest had not been quite as good as usual, so that prices were ruling high. In 1772 only one

ship laden with materials for the Cape arrived, but she was a large one, and brought out reinforcements of troops also. The council found it would not be possible to get a full cargo for her, so they sent her to Batavia for orders, and prepared the Cape packet *Zon*, a vessel of about three hundred tons burden, to take produce to Europe. To obtain even this quantity, it was necessary to prohibit for a time the sale of grain to foreigners for exportation.

This first cargo of Cape produce sent to Holland consisted of two thousand nine hundred and ninety-seven muids of wheat, purchased at 10s. 8d. a muid after the tithe was paid; thirty-seven muids of rye, purchased at 9s. 4d. a muid; two hundred and twenty-two muids of barley, purchased at 5s. 4d. a muid; thirty-two leggers of assorted wines, for which the farmers were paid from 5l. 8s. to 13l. 8s. a legger according to quality; and five thousand three hundred pounds of tallow, purchased at 20s. the hundred pounds. On arrival at Amsterdam, the wheat was sold at 16s. 2d. to 16s. 6d. a muid, and the wine at 11l. 16s. to 48l. 19s. a legger. These profits were so satisfactory to the directors that they resolved to continue the importation of South African produce, especially as the Cape government wrote that purchases would in future be made at much lower rates.

During the period 1st of January 1751 to 31st of December 1771 there were five years of drought, more or less severe, in the corn-growing districts. These years were 1755, 1756, 1763, 1764, and 1771. In 1755 the drought was severe during the early months, and many cattle died of starvation, but after June abundance of rain fell, and the corn crop was a very good one. In 1756 the rain that fell was insufficient for wheat, and only a poor crop was gathered. There was such a quantity in reserve, however, that as much as usual was exported. In 1763 not only was the drought severe, but south-east gales set in early and with such force as partly to destroy what wheat was growing, and a plague of

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caterpillars followed, so that little or nothing was reaped. There was plenty of grain in reserve, but it was considered prudent only to send one-fourth of the usual quantity to India. In 1765 the drought continued, and there was hardly any harvest. Of the grain which remained in stock, a small quantity was sent to India, but rice was imported to compensate for it. In 1771 the drought was not very severe, though the crop gathered was poor.

During these twenty-one years the average quantity of farm produce exported to India was eleven thousand seven hundred and ninety-one muids of wheat, two hundred and two muids of rye, sixty eight muids of barley, two hundred and two muids of peas, one hundred and seventy-four muids of beans, and three hundred and forty-six leggers of common wine. In 1754 butter was first exported to India. During the next eighteen years the quantity sent abroad annually averaged twenty-two thousand three hundred and twenty-two pounds. It was usually purchased at the Company's stores at six pence to eight pence a pound, but occasionally in times of scarcity as much as a shilling a pound was paid for it. A small quantity of dried fruit and a little ivory were also exported to India.

To Europe were sent yearly rather over one hundred leggers of common wine and as much Constantia wine as could be obtained, which was usually not more than fourteen or fifteen leggers. From 1736 to 1761 the price paid by the Company for red Constantia wine was 20*l.* 16*s.* 8*d.* and for white Constantia wine 10*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.* the legger, the proprietors of the farms into which the original estate was divided being obliged under an old contract to sell at that price. But as they could easily get double those sums from foreigners, they were loud in complaining, and in 1761 an agreement was made with Jacobus van der Spuy, then owner of Little Constantia, that he should deliver to the Company two-thirds of all

the red wine made by him at 3*l.* 5*s.*, and two-thirds of all the white wine at 15*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.*<sup>1</sup> the legger, he to be at liberty to sell the remaining third to whom he chose at the best price which he could obtain. A similar agreement was subsequently made with Lambert Myburgh, owner of Great Constantia.

In 1761 the first aloes were exported from South Africa. A quantity of two hundred and eighteen pounds in weight was produced by the old burgher councillor Petrus Johannes de Wit, who lived at the Cape, but who had a farm in the country, and had caused the drug to be prepared there. The council of policy decided to send it to Europe, where it was pronounced to be of good quality. The directors issued instructions to purchase it at the stores at a price not exceeding two shillings and three pence half-penny a pound. From that date it has been an article of export to Europe, but the quantity in demand being inconsiderable, it has not been of much advantage to the colony.

The first horses were exported from South Africa in 1769. Six years earlier the horse sickness had been unusually severe, the burghers losing over two thousand five hundred within a few months; but the loss had been made good by breeding, and when some English officers visited the Cape to procure remounts for India, there were plenty to be had, though they were small and not very handsome. On the 25th of December 1769 the *Duke of Kingston* sailed from Table Bay with a shipment for Madras.

From 1772 until the commencement of the war with England, a period of nine years, a quantity of Cape pro-

<sup>1</sup>The agreement was made in rixdollars, at that time current at two and a half gulden of Holland, or four shillings and two pence English money each. In 1770 the supreme authorities issued instructions that the rix-dollar was to be valued at 2½ gulden of Holland, equal to four shillings English money. The prices named must be reduced by four per cent after that date, for the sellers had to bear the loss in the difference of exchange.



duce was yearly sent to the Netherlands. In 1777 the grain crop was very poor, owing to a severe drought, and after the requirements of the Company in India had been met, no wheat could be spared, but the usual quantity of wine was forwarded. The average exportation to Europe during these nine years, 1772-1780, was fifteen leggers Constantia wine, ninety-three leggers ordinary wines, ten thousand seven hundred and fourteen muids of wheat, twenty-three thousand eight hundred pounds of tallow, and three thousand six hundred and fourteen pounds of aloes. Small quantities of brandy, rye, barley, vegetable wax, oxhides, sheepskins, coarse wool, skins of wild animals, and leather were also sent to Europe, but neither regularly nor of sufficient value to need further notice.

During these nine years the average export to India was fourteen thousand four hundred and nineteen muids of wheat, one hundred and eighty muids of rye, sixty-six muids of barley, thirty-seven muids of beans, one hundred muids of peas, two hundred and ninety-six leggers of wine, thirteen thousand six hundred and thirteen pounds of butter, eleven thousand five hundred and fifty-five pounds of tallow, and one thousand one hundred and eighty-three pounds of ivory. Some dried and preserved fruits, mustard seed, peltries, and leather, though not to any great value, were also exported to India.

The increase of exports above those of previous years did not, however, cause increased prosperity to the colonists. The prices paid by the Company were ruinously low. For the wheat sent to India the farmers received only 9s. 9½*d.* and for that sent to Europe only 6s. 7*d.* a muid, after they had paid the tithe. The butter was bought at 6*d.* to 8*d.*, and the tallow at about 2*d.* a pound.

At the same time there was a constant demand for all kinds of farm produce at more than double the prices which the Company was giving. During the twenty-one years 1751-1771 there put into Table Bay nine hundred

and thirty-eight ships belonging to the Dutch East India Company, one hundred and sixty-eight English, one hundred and forty-seven French, thirty-one Danish, thirteen Swedish, four Prussian, one Portuguese, and one Spanish. During the same period one hundred and twenty-nine ships belonging to the Dutch East India Company, fourteen English, eleven French, thirteen Danish, and two Swedish put into Simon's Bay. The whole number that touched at the two ports was one thousand four hundred and seventy-two, and the average yearly number seventy.

The Prussian flag was first seen on a ship in Table Bay in 1755, and the Swedish in 1759. The Spanish ship touched here in 1770. According to the treaties of Münster and Utrecht, the Spaniards were prohibited from sending vessels to India by way of the Cape of Good Hope. The government therefore refused to allow the captain of this ship, which was a man-of-war, to procure any supplies except water and fuel. The other foreigners obtained whatever they chose to pay for, except when the council thought it necessary to prohibit the sale of such articles as the Company needed and of which the supply was insufficient for all.

In 1772 there was a sudden and great increase in the foreign shipping that put into South African ports, and the number of vessels did not fall off again until the commencement of the war with England. During these nine years, 1772-1780, there put into Table Bay four hundred and eighteen Dutch ships, one hundred and fifty-nine English, one hundred and ninety-two French, forty-one Danish, seven Swedish, sixteen Spanish, nine Portuguese, and three Austrian; and into Simon's Bay forty-seven Dutch, eighty-five English, forty-six French, seventeen Danish, one Austrian, and six Swedish ships; or, on an average, fifty-two Dutch ships and sixty-five under various other flags touched yearly at the two ports.

All of them needed fresh provisions. Some of the French vessels, indeed, were sent here from Mauritius ex-

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pressly to obtain cargoes of grain, meat, and wine; and occasionally an English vessel arrived from St. Helena for the same purpose. The directors admitted that they should be encouraged to call, as they brought ready money into the country and increased the revenue. Owing to them, the contract for the supply of meat to the Company could now be taken at less than  $\frac{1}{2}d.$  a pound, for the contractor had the privilege of charging foreigners  $2d.$  The farmer of the duty of  $1l.$  a legger on wine and spirits sold to foreigners for exportation could now afford to pay nearly  $1,000l.$  a year for it. The licensed retail dealer in wines and spirits could afford to bid  $1,000l.$  a year more for his monopoly. The average production of wine was three thousand two hundred and forty-four leggers, and the Company needed only nine hundred and forty-five leggers for its own use and for sale in Europe and India. The directors were therefore only too glad to know that the surplus could be sold at high rates at the Cape. They protected their own trade, however, for in 1776 when some burghers requested to be allowed to export wine to Holland, they declined to give permission.

With grain it was different. As much of this as could be produced could be sold at a profit, and it therefore became a matter for calculation to get as large a quantity as possible without driving foreigners away. The fiscal took control of the trade, and permitted nothing to be sold to strangers without his leave. The burghers protested against this infringement of their rights, but to no purpose.

The number of male slaves imported was always much larger than that of females, and as a consequence many of those men who were unable to obtain wives of their own colour had formed connections with Hottentot women. A large class of half-breeds had sprung from such unions, and these were generally indisposed to gain a living by honest industry. From early times it was observed that Hottentot women who formed connections

with either Europeans or slaves had many more children than those who took husbands of their own race, though the half-breeds did not possess high fertility among themselves. The farmers could not prevent their union with slaves, for if they tried to do so the slaves were certain to run away. And if they permitted the women to remain on the farms, directly or indirectly they were obliged to maintain them and their offspring, without any return in labour.

These circumstances gave rise to a regulation which was first put in force in 1775, and which provided that children born of Hottentot mothers by slave fathers upon attaining the age of eighteen months should be apprenticed to the owner of the farm on which they were living until they were twenty-five years old. In every case a formal application to the board of landdrost and heemraden of the district was to be made by the owner of the farm, and a register of all apprenticeships was to be kept by the secretary of the board. Hottentot mothers were to be at liberty to remove their children under eighteen months of age. The apprentices were to be properly fed and clothed, and were to be otherwise well treated.

It was not always possible to prevent ill usage of either slaves, or apprentices, or Hottentots on the distant frontier, far from the eye of a magistrate; but an honest effort was made to do it. Instances of injuries that came to light were always attended to, and redress was made as public as possible, so that the dependent classes might know where to bring their complaints. Thus in May 1777 two Little Namaqua captains, named Wildschut and Groot Vogel, came to the castle and informed the governor that the half-breed Adam Boer, who was overseer on the farm of a burgher between the Great river and the Copper mountain, was in league with two soldiers out with passes to seek temporary employment, and that these partners employed a gang of Bushmen miscreants to steal their cattle. Upon hearing this, the

governor at once issued instructions to the landdrost of Stellenbosch to give the Hottentots the protection to which they were entitled, and to cause the half-breed and the two soldiers to appear before his court and answer to the charge.

In February 1776 a despatch was received, announcing that the governor, who was then a baron, had been raised to the dignity of councillor extraordinary of Netherlands India. In January 1777 the secunde Hemmy died. The council met on the 1st of February to elect an acting successor, when the fiscal Boers, to whom the post was offered, declined to accept it. Pieter Hacker, who had long been in the service at the Cape and then filled the situation of master of the winestores, was thereupon chosen, and his appointment as secunde was shortly afterwards confirmed by the directors. He was succeeded as master of the winestores by Jacobus Johannes le Sueur.

In October 1777 the surveyor Hieronymus Leiste was sent to inspect the country as far as it was occupied by Europeans, and to frame a map. He returned in the following January, having made but slight acquaintance with the interior.

In March 1778 a petition was sent to the council by Jan Kruger, Jan Adriaan Venter, Adriaan van Jaarsveld, Jan Oosthuizen, and thirty other heads of families living near the eastern frontier, praying for the establishment of a landdrost's court and a church in that part of the country.

This petition, together with Leiste's report and the numerous accounts of depredations by Bushmen, caused the governor to resolve upon visiting the eastern border, and ascertaining for himself the condition of affairs there. Four months before he intended to set out, orders were issued to the landdrosts of Stellenbosch and Swellendam to have burgher escorts and cattle ready to forward him from stage to stage on his journey.

On the 3rd of September 1778 he left Capetown,

taking with him the junior merchant Olof Godlieb de Wet as secretary, the surgeon Johan Michiel Seyd as medical attendant, and the lieutenant Christiaan Philip van Heiden as purveyor and conductor of the train. He was accompanied also by Captain Robert Jacob Gordon, previously an officer in the Scotch regiment under Colonel Dundas in the service of the United Provinces, but who had recently been engaged by the East India Company, and had arrived at the Cape on the 1st of June 1777. Captain Gordon was then second in command of the garrison, the chief military officer being Lieutenant-Colonel Van Prehn. Altogether the train, when made up, consisted of seven ox-waggons, besides which there were from two to four others belonging to the burgher escort at different stages of the journey. The governor took also a considerable number of saddle horses for the use of himself and his attendants.

At that time a road was being made through Dutoit's kloof, to connect Drakenstein with the valley of the Breede river, but it was not yet passable for waggons, so the cavalcade followed the course of the present railway through Roodezand's and Hex River kloofs. The karoo was then entered, which in midsummer presents the appearance of a desolate waste, but which in August and September is not devoid of charms. Patches of flowers of brilliant yellow and snowy white, of purple and mauve and orange are then seen on the brown plain and hill sides, with tufts of bright green shrubs casting the darkest of shadows on the ground. Before the sun turns the surface soil into dust, the air too is so pure and fresh as to be highly exhilarating. This was the condition of the karoo when the governor crossed it. He left a portion of his train at a camp below the Sneeuwberg, near the site of the present town of Graaff-Reinet, and with the remainder he crossed the mountain range.

The farms about the Sneeuwberg were found to be suffering severely from the depredations of Bushmen.

Their chief request was to be provided with a landdrost and a clergyman, as owing to the unbridged rivers it was often a journey of a month to the village of Stellenbosch. Practically, they said, they were cut off from a court of justice, and as for the same reason they were unable to attend the church services at Roodezand, their children were growing up without proper instruction. It was also a matter of great hardship to be obliged to take part in the militia exercises at Stellenbosch, because during their absence from home their families and herds were unprotected.<sup>1</sup> They offered to contribute liberally towards the expense of erecting the buildings needed by a landdrost and a clergyman, if their request was complied with.

Here were seen the skeletons of about three thousand sheep that had perished in a storm in the middle of August, when for five days together snow a foot in depth lay on the ground.

From the Sneeuwberg the party proceeded northward nearly to the site of the present village of Colesberg. Two hundred yards from the bank of a stream which was named the Plettenberg's river, but which is now called the Zeekoe, on the 4th of October a stone beacon, with the honourable Company's monogram, the governor's name and arms, and the year 1778 engraved on it, was set up to mark the farthest point reached and the north-eastern limit of the colony. North-north-west rose a dome in the Gordon mountains, which was named the Mosque, owing to its resemblance to the roof of a Turkish place of worship. The river on which they were encamped is a tributary of the Orange. In it in a single day twenty hippopotami were killed by the party.

<sup>1</sup> Since 1711 a fine of 2*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.* was imposed on every absentee from the yearly drill at the seat of magistracy of the district in which a burgher lived, unless sufficient cause could be shown for not appearing. To evade the drill and the fine excuses were made which could not always bear investigation, so that the system had a demoralising effect upon the character of the people.

From this point the governor returned to the camp below the Sneeuwberg, and then proceeded to the farm of Willem Prinsloo on the Little Fish river, the site of the present village of Somerset East. Along the route game of various kinds was exceedingly plentiful, and on some rocks paintings made by Bushmen were observed.

Immediately after arrival at Prinsloo's Captain Gordon set out for a Xosa kraal a little farther down the river, and in a couple of hours returned with Koba, son of the old chief Titi of the Amagwali clan, and twenty-eight of his followers. They were entertained with arrack and tobacco, and returned the favour by a dance in honour of the governor. Forming themselves in four rows, one began to chant, when the others joined in a chorus, and all stamped upon the ground and quivered their bodies in perfect time.

At a little kraal close by the party noticed that the intonjane ceremony was being observed. A burgher named Jacob Joubert had been sent forward on horseback with interpreters to convey presents and a friendly message to the chief Rarabe, who was then living on the Keiskama, but after proceeding some distance he fancied he saw hostile indications on the part of the Xosas, so he returned by night on foot to the camp at Prinsloo's farm.

Here the governor met the farmers of the eastern frontier, several of whom were residing close to the right bank of the Great Fish river. They made the same request as those of the Sneeuwberg, and their grievances were identical, if Xosas be substituted for Bushmen. The governor admitted that their request was reasonable, and promised to recommend it favourably to the directors, a promise which was fulfilled upon his return to Capetown, though it was not immediately attended to in Holland.

The Xosas, who were addicted to lifting the stock of the European graziers, had only recently moved so far westward. They were the advance parties of different



clans—mainly the Amagwali,—and there was not a single chief of any note among them. The most important man of them all was Koba, whose father, the old chief Titi, was then living on the Koonap. A few families had crossed the Great Fish river, and were moving about in the territory to the westward, but the whole number within a day's journey of that stream on either side was still very small.

Koba and another petty captain named Godisa promised the governor to respect the Great Fish river as a boundary between themselves and the white people, and to recall their followers who were on the western side as soon as the crops which those people had planted were gathered. Some articles of trifling value were given to them, and to Koba was confided a present for Rarabe.

After a stay of forty-eight hours at Prinsloo's the party left, and for two days travelled down along the stream. Then Captain Gordon turned to the north-west to inspect the country in that direction, and the governor directed his course towards the south and west. At the Bushman's river a petty Xosa captain named Jamosi was met. He promised to return at once to the country from which he had come, and was thereupon gratified with a trifling gift. Here two messengers from Rarabe overtook the governor, and delivered the chief's thanks for the presents sent to him through Koba's agency. They were informed of the arrangement as to a boundary agreed to by Koba, Godisa, and Jamosi, and were directed to make Rarabe acquainted with it. Between the Bushman's and Sunday rivers some half-breed Xosa-Hottentots of the Gunukwebe clan were seen, a sufficient proof that the Bantu were advancing as rapidly in one direction as the Europeans were in the other.

The governor inspected Algoa Bay, and continuing his route westward passed the Gamtoos, reaching a little farther on the first good farm-house he had seen since leaving the Hex river. It belonged to the burgher Jacob

Kock. From it he proceeded through the Longkloof to the point where a waggon track over the Duivelskop led to the Knysna. Here seven waggons were sent on to wait at the nearest of the Company's posts, and with three others the governor crossed the mountain range to the belt along the sea. His route took him past Buffels Vermaak and the Knysna inlet. The farm Melkhoukraal, in one of the most charming situations in South Africa, was then occupied by the burgher Stephanus Terblans. The track—it could not be termed a road—led over it and through the poort some distance beyond to a bay that had recently been inspected by the officers of the hooker *Catwyk aan Rbyn*.

On the 6th of November the governor arrived on the shore of this bay, which had previously been known by several names. A stone pillar, prepared in Capetown, and having engraved upon it the arms of the United Provinces, the monogram of the East India Company, the arms of the governor, and a suitable inscription, was conveyed to its destination on the waggon of Jacob Joubert, and was placed in the position which it has occupied ever since.<sup>1</sup> The sheet of water was then officially named Plettenberg's Bay, by which designation it is still known.

On the 7th of November the cavalcade turned back, and passing again through the poort, over Melkhoukraal and Buffels Vermaak, continued along by the lakelets and the seashore, crossed the Zwart river, and at the site of the present village of George emerged from a track that no vehicle but a South African bullock waggon could have traversed. From that point the route led

<sup>1</sup> By order of the government this pillar has recently been enclosed with a stone wall, in order to insure its preservation. It is seven feet in height, and consists of two slabs of blue slate, each about twelve inches by five, bolted together with lead. The inscription upon it is: Deese steen is opgeregt door Mr. Joachim baron van Plettenberg, Raad van Nederlandsch Indien en Gouverneur aan Cabo de Goede Hoop en den Bessorte van dien, &c. Anno 1778.

by a well beaten road past Mossel Bay, Swellendam, and over the Hottentots-Holland mountains to Capetown, where the party arrived in safety on the 26th of November.

Captain Gordon, who accompanied the governor to the Fish river on this occasion, was the foremost South African traveller of the day. In October 1777 he left Capetown in company with Lieutenant William Paterson, an English traveller, on a journey of exploration, and proceeded by way of the Sneeuwberg to the Great river, which he came upon quite unexpectedly somewhere near the twenty-sixth meridian from Greenwich. He travelled for a day along its southern bank in search of a ford, but did not find one, so was unable to cross. From the summit of a hill he observed that the river was formed by the junction of two streams, at no great distance to the eastward. Lieutenant Paterson had returned to the Cape, in ill health, some time before.

Two years later the same gentlemen made another journey together, this time travelling northward through Little Namaqualand to the mouth of the Great river. Captain Gordon had taken a boat with him, which he placed on the stream, so that he had now a much better opportunity for examining the immense flow of water than in 1777, when he had seen it at a point inland nearly six hundred miles distant. On the 17th of August 1779 he hoisted the Dutch colours to a staff in his boat, and while floating in the centre of the stream he named it the Orange, in honour of the stadtholder. He and Lieutenant Paterson examined it from the mouth upward some thirty or forty miles. Since that date geographers have usually called the river by the name which Captain Gordon gave it, but the colonists term it indiscriminately the Orange, Great, and Gariep.

In 1779 the jurisdiction of the courts of landdrost and heemraden was enlarged, owing to the difficulty of bringing cases from distant parts for trial before the court

of justice in Capetown. Henceforth civil cases in which the amount in dispute was less than 10*l.* were summarily decided in these courts.

Governor Van Plettenberg had arranged with some petty Xosa captains that the Fish river should be a boundary between the Europeans and the Bantu, but this agreement had not been officially recorded. On the 14th of November 1780, however, the council of policy ratified it by resolving that the Fish river along the whole of its lower course should be the colonial boundary, thus adding to the Company's possessions the tract of country then usually known as the Zuurveld, now the districts of Albany and Bathurst.

In 1780 the Congo caverns, in the present district of Oudtshoorn, were accidentally discovered by a farmer named Van Zyl, who was out hunting. They are of great size, passages having been explored for at least a mile into the mountain, without the end being reached, while on each side openings of unknown depth occur at short intervals. The stalactites in some of the chambers present a very grand appearance when seen by the light of numerous torches. Being saturated with water, they are semi-transparent and of dazzling brightness, while they present innumerable varieties of fanciful and grotesque forms. One of the chambers is eight hundred feet in length, another six hundred feet in length, one hundred in breadth, and sixty to seventy in height.

Ever since the accession of Mr. Van Plettenberg to power there had been a feeling of discontent throughout the colony. There was no sympathy between the governor and the people. If his proclamations be compared with those of his predecessor, and judgment be formed by them alone, the administration of Mr. Tulbagh will be pronounced the harsher of the two. Yet in reality not only was the reverse the case, but a period of misrule had succeeded a period of tranquillity. Governor Tulbagh had kept a watchful eye upon every official, and allowed

no one to overstep the directions concerning farming and trading, or to take a fee that he was not entitled to. Governor Van Plettenberg permitted his subordinates to do almost as they chose. The result was a condition of affairs in which no transaction with government could be carried on without bribery, in which many of the officials farmed and traded openly, and the colonists generally became discontented.

From the earliest days of the settlement the government had claimed and exercised the right of sending out of the country persons of bad character, especially those of idle and dissolute habits. During the forty years from 1738 to 1778 thirty-three individuals were thus deported, without a trial before a court of justice. In some instances the burgher councillors or the heemraden requested that a vagabond of some kind should be removed, in other instances notorious offenders were thus summarily disposed of. Governor Tulbagh, during the twenty years that he was head of the colony, had sent away ten. Governor Van Plettenberg in less than eight years sent away eighteen.

The fiscal was detested as few men in South Africa have been, and instead of being a check upon the governor, he was held to be the worse of the two. His control of trade with foreigners opened a door to extensive bribery. The system of paying higher prices at the Company's stores for produce sent to India than for that sent to Europe led also to serious abuses.

The American revolution had commenced, and tidings came over the sea of other colonists resisting rulers who oppressed them. In distant farm-houses and in dwellings in Capetown the question of rights and liberties was discussed as it had never been before. By some of the least educated very wild views were enunciated, views subversive of all government; but the great majority of the people favoured a strong administration, provided it was honest. Party feeling began to run very high. The

junior officials were mostly either colonists by birth or married into colonial families, so that the existing system had its defenders. There was a large party loyal to the Netherlands, but desirous of a change from a bad to a good government, and there was a small party ready to plunge into anarchy, without understanding what they were advocating.

Matters were in this state when the fiercest passions of the burghers were roused by an act of the government as imprudent as it was tyrannical. A man named Carel Hendrik Buitendag, who had been living in the land of Waveren, had recently come to reside in the town. This man was addicted to intemperance, and when partly intoxicated was very violent in his conduct. He was married into a respectable colonial family, but his treatment of his wife and of his Hottentot servants was at times so brutal that when he was residing at Waveren the landdrost and heemraden of Stellenbosch and Drakenstein petitioned the council of policy for his forcible removal. No action followed this petition, nor was any immediate notice taken of an application to the fiscal by his wife to be separated from him, made during one of his outbursts of intemperance.

Twenty days later, however,—20th of January 1779, —when he was conducting himself properly and the domestic quarrel had been forgotten, he was seized in his own house by order of the fiscal, dragged hurriedly through the streets by the lowest menials of the law, and sent on board the *Honkoop*, a vessel lying in the bay and bound to Batavia. His wife and children followed to the beach, crying and imploring help, but there was not time to effect a rescue. The persons employed by the fiscal to arrest Buitendag and convey him to the ship's boat were the black scavengers of the town, who were used to take drunken slaves to prison. Hardly any act of oppression could have wounded the burghers so deeply as this, for pride of race was part of their nature.

On his arrival at Batavia, Buitendag complained of his treatment to the council of India, by whom permission was given him to return to the Cape. He therefore embarked in the first ship that left, but died during the passage.

The deportation of Buitendag in the manner here related brought on a crisis. The most respectable burghers living within forty miles of Capetown consulted together, and came to a determination to send delegates to the Netherlands to endeavour to obtain from the stadtholder and the directors redress of their grievances and guarantees against future misgovernment. Then for the first time in the history of the colony was discussed the right of the people to have representatives in the legislature, and the theory rapidly gained ground that such representation would prove the best safeguard of liberty.

At the sitting of the council of policy on the 30th of March 1779 a letter was read from the three burgher councillors, Cornelis van der Poel, Christiaan George Maasdorp, and Gerrit Hendrik Meyer, and four of the hœmraden of Stellenbosch and Drakenstein, Philip Albert Myburgh, Jan de Villiers, Joost Rynhard van As, and Hendrik Louw, stating that they had been requested by between three and four hundred burghers to apply for permission to elect some persons to be sent to Holland to lay before the directors the condition of affairs in this colony, and asking leave to do so. The council refused its consent, but asserted its willingness to consider any complaints made to it and to redress any grievances that could be shown to exist.

The opponents of the government were not satisfied with this decision, because they had no confidence in the men who were at the head of affairs. They made no further applications to the council therefore, but elected the burghers Jacobus van Reenen, Barend Jacob Artois, Tieleman Roos, and Nicolaas Godfried Heyns as their representatives to proceed to Europe. These persons drew

up a memorial of grievances and proposed remedies, which received the approval of their constituents. It was dated the 7th of May 1779. The four delegates then proceeded to Holland, carrying with them a document authorising them to act for the persons who signed it, four hundred and four in number. The memorial contained thirty-seven clauses. The first part was devoted to accusing the officers of government, and particularly the independent fiscal Willem Cornelis Boers, of fraudulent conduct and oppression. Many of the junior officials were accused of trading so openly that shops were kept and accounts made out in their names. The burghers of the town who lived by commerce, it was asserted, could not compete with these traders, and were consequently being ruined. The whole system of exacting fees by the various officials on almost every business transaction was explained, and the individuals receiving them were charged with corruption. But in this the complainants laboured under the same difficulties that those must always do who are ignorant of the confidential instructions of the heads of a government to subordinates. They supposed that the receipt of fees except in certain well-known cases was unauthorised, whereas in reality the various officials were empowered to charge certain amounts, and could in justice only be accused of corruption when these amounts were exceeded.

The complainants asked that the orders issued in 1706 prohibiting officials from farming or dealing in farm produce should be strictly enforced; that the burghers should be allowed to dispose of the produce of the country to strangers, without first obtaining the consent of the fiscal; that persons banished from the colony should be sent to the fatherland, not to India; that the burghers should be at liberty to punish their slaves without the necessity of first applying to the fiscal; that the laws of the country should be clearly defined and made known; that seven burgher members should have seats in the council of



policy, and that these members should send a report upon the colony yearly to the assembly of seventeen; that the high court of justice should consist of equal numbers of officials and burghers;<sup>1</sup> that there should be a right of appeal to the supreme court of justice in the fatherland, instead of to the court at Batavia; that the burghers should be allowed to trade with the Netherlands to the extent of one or two ships' cargoes yearly; that they should also be allowed free trade with India and in slaves with Madagascar and the east coast of Africa; that the Company should purchase ordinary wine at 8*l.* a legger, from which nothing should be deducted but 12*s.* government dues; that foreigners should not be allowed to travel about the country; that a smaller rental than 4*l.* 16*s.* should be charged on farms of inferior quality; and that more churches should be provided.

On the 16th of October 1779 the four delegates appeared before the assembly of seventeen. They made a verbal statement of the wretched condition of the colony and the unjust acts of the officials, and delivered the memorial with a large number of documents supporting it. But the time was not opportune for the redress of grievances, as the condition of things in the fatherland was very different from what it had been when charges of misgovernment were made against Wilhem Adriaan van der Stel. Then the East India Company dreaded attack by opponents in the national legislature, now there was no fear of any strong or influential body of men seeking its destruction, as all parties were interested in its welfare. The directors, however, were desirous of doing what they considered right, so in the following week the whole of the papers were referred to a committee of the chambers of Amsterdam and Zeeland to examine, collect evidence, and report upon. A copy of

<sup>1</sup>This court still sat in the castle, but in 1781 it was provided with a building expressly erected for the purpose in the town. The sentences, however, continued to be pronounced from the balcony of the castle.

the memorial and its annexures was sent to the Cape for the various officers concerned to reply to. The directors at the same time wrote expressing great regret that there should be an ill feeling between the colonists and the officials, and hoping that tranquillity would be speedily restored. They stated that they desired the prosperity of the colonists, and commanded that everything that was possible should be done to allay strife. They would be greatly displeased, they said, if any resentment were shown, directly or indirectly, towards those who had signed the memorial.

Governor Van Plettenberg's reply is dated the 21st of March 1781. He did not think the memorial could be taken to represent the views of the whole body of colonists, as there were nearly three thousand burghers in the country, and the delegates had been chosen by only four hundred and four. It had always been a custom for the government to consult the acting and retired burgher councillors whenever it was requisite to make regulations affecting the colonists, and he had not failed on any occasion to do so. The country presented every appearance of prosperity. There was no difference observable between wealthy and poor people, all showed signs of being in comfortable circumstances. Every year numbers of the Company's servants, who had the condition of affairs before their eyes, were taking their discharge and becoming colonists, in preference to returning to Europe.

On the frontiers, he stated, the people were less fortunately placed, for they were exposed to depredations from Bushmen and Xosas, and had suffered greatly by recent inroads of the savages. With them money was not plentiful, but following the example of Mr. Tulbagh and others of his predecessors, he had usually taken three young bullocks instead of the 4*l.* 16*s.* yearly rent for each of their farms.

The colonists in general, he affirmed, desired to lead an indolent life, merely directing the labour of Hottentots

and slaves. They were not disposed to qualify themselves either as mechanics or as schoolmasters, in proof of which there were then nearly two hundred of the Company's soldiers on leave earning their living in these capacities; and more had been applied for, but he had refused to allow a larger number to be temporarily released from duty. The colony furnished no seamen, though many of those who complained of poverty could obtain a living in the fleets. They preferred, however, to depend upon a single industry, the chief profits from which were precarious, being derived from foreign ships. Their right to trade in the products of the country was undisputed. The interests of the officials and the burghers were the same, for with few exceptions they were intermarried, most of the junior officials indeed being members of colonial families.

He objected to the admission of burgher members to the council of policy. The interests of the colony should not be lost sight of by the government, but those of the Company were to be regarded as of greater importance. If there were burgher members in the council, everything that the government did for the colonists would be attributed to them, and the Company would lose favour. There would also be constant strife, owing to the divisions among the population. The request of the complainants that the high court of justice should consist of equal numbers of officials and burghers he recommended should be acceded to. He also favoured their petition that the laws should be clearly defined, and stated that the collection of the placats for that purpose had already been commenced.

He protested that he had done nothing to draw upon himself the enmity of the colonists. He thought the standing of high officials would be greatly improved if the suspicion of corrupt dealing were removed by giving them suitable salaries and depriving them of perquisites. The principal perquisite of the governor and the secunde

was 1*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* for the former and 13*s.* 4*d.* for the latter on every legger of wine sold by the burghers to the Company. The seller was obliged to sign a receipt for 8*l.*, whereas he only received 5*l.* 8*s.*, the remaining 12*s.* being the government duty. It would make no difference to the Company, and be much better in appearance, if a receipt for only 5*l.* 8*s.* were demanded. The other prerequisites of the governor he thought there could be no objection to. They were, first, the produce of the farm Visser's Hok, which farm had from early times been cultivated at the Company's expense for the express purpose of supplying the governor's household with grain and his stable with forage; second, the contractor for meat was required to supply him with twelve sheep monthly and such other meat as he might require for his household at the same price as was paid by the Company.

In conclusion, he requested to be relieved of his duties. Party feeling was running very high in the colony, he said, and only an entire stranger could restore concord.

The document containing the comments of the fiscal upon the memorial of the complaining burghers is dated 2nd of February 1781, and is of great length. Mr. Boers was a man with many good qualities. He was hospitable, generous, diligent in his duties, fond of scientific pursuits. But his sympathies were all with the ruling classes of society, and he felt and expressed supreme contempt for the colonists, who were to him simply unlettered peasants.

For more than a century the burgher councillors had been consulted by the government whenever enactments affecting the colonists were in contemplation. They had not indeed a written constitution granted by the supreme authorities, nor did they form a board with regular times of meeting and with a recognised staff of officers to carry out their instructions. Neither had they taxing powers, though upon their recommendation the council of policy

levied rates which they collected and applied to the construction and maintenance of roads and bridges, the incidental expenses of the night watch, and other purposes now provided for by divisional and municipal councils. They proposed maximum prices for articles, inspected weights and measures, and performed a great variety of other duties. In numberless instances they had appeared before the authorities as the representatives of the burgher community. Yet Mr. Boers maintained that their sole legal functions were those of assistant members of the high court of justice when cases in which colonists were concerned were being tried, and in support of his contention he quoted the terms of the appointment of the first burgher councillor by the commissioner Van Goens in 1657. Long usage did not affect the question in his eyes.

He admitted that the right of the farmers to free trade in the produce of their land had been recognised by the supreme authorities. But he pleaded that the circumstances of the country were such that the channel in which the trade should flow must be pointed out by the government. The farmers here, he said, were like those in Europe, always eager to make large profits, and were unwilling to sell to the Company when they could get higher prices from foreigners. If no restraint were put upon them, the country might often be in danger of famine, and the consequences might be very serious, for food could not be imported in time to avert starvation. On this account it had been found necessary on more than one occasion to prohibit for a time the sale of grain and cattle to foreigners. The governors De Chavonnes and Tulbagh had been obliged to do so. For this reason, and also to collect the export duty of 1*l.* and the licensed dealer's dues of 1*l.* on every legger of wine and his own fee of 1*s.* 4*d.* on every hundred pounds of grain or meal supplied to foreigners, he had prohibited the sale of anything without his permission. The burghers talked about

the law of free trade in the productions of their land, he begged to state that there was also a law prohibiting foreigners from selling anything at the Cape, yet it was never observed.

The colonists prated of their rights. Who were these colonists? he asked. A body of people who had been released from the Company's employment, and permitted as an act of grace to live in the country, under condition that they could be ordered back into service at the will of the government. He quoted the wording of a certificate of permission to a discharged soldier to reside in the country, and argued that as no one could transmit greater rights than he himself possessed, the descendants of released soldiers were in the same condition as their ancestors. He quite ignored the fact that a large proportion of the colonists were descendants of immigrants who had never been in the Company's service.

A document of great length was drawn up by Mr. Boers in this strain. The other officials who were accused of wrong-doing also drew up statements, admitting some of the charges, denying some, and endeavouring to explain away the remainder. The transmission of these papers to the Netherlands was delayed, however, for several months by the cessation of the ordinary traffic.

On the 31st of March 1781 the French frigate *Silphide* arrived in Table Bay with a despatch from the Dutch ambassador at Paris, announcing that on the 20th of the preceding December Great Britain had declared war with the United Provinces, and that the States were in alliance with France. The intelligence was received with alarm by the government, for the mother country no longer occupied the proud position among nations which was hers a century earlier, and it was certain that England was casting longing eyes upon the Cape, as the key of the Indian seas.

The colony was almost defenceless. Its revenue was between 15,000*l.* and 16,000*l.* a year. For a long time

the balance of expenditure over revenue had averaged 25,000*l.* a year, and the Company, which was declining in wealth and power, could not afford to maintain a large garrison. There were five hundred and thirty soldiers of all arms on the books, but to save expense, more than one-fourth of these had been allowed to take service with farmers, and it was pretty certain that many would never return to their colours. There were further some six hundred and fifty individuals in the Company's pay, including the civil servants, the mechanics at the workshops, the boating establishment, and convalescent sailors. Next there was a corps of free blacks, which had been in existence for many years, and which was usually drilled for a few days in the month of October. From these sources combined about eleven hundred combatants could be counted upon, of whom only one half were well drilled.

At the head of the military forces proper was Captain Gordon, who in February 1780 had succeeded Lieutenant-Colonel Van Prehn as commandant of the garrison. He was a man of unblemished character, an enthusiast in the study of natural history, and an ardent explorer, but with no special qualifications as a leader in war. Next to him in rank was Captain Carel Matthys Willem de Lille, who arrived in the colony from Bengal in February 1771. The seamen and mechanics were under command of the old skipper Staring, as brave a man as ever sailed the sea, but so deeply implicated in the prevailing speculations that he was greatly disliked by the colonists.

The Company relied chiefly upon the burghers to protect the country, but the South African militia, though nearly three thousand strong on paper, could not furnish a fourth of that number of men for the defence of Capetown. These three thousand burghers were scattered over an immense area, covering not less than ninety or a hundred thousand square miles. Along the frontier, east and north, they were constantly in arms to hold their own

against Xosas and Bushmen, to whom their flocks and herds presented an irresistible temptation to plunder.

The struggle between the farmers along the northern border and the Bushmen had become almost incessant. The two races could not live side by side. Occasionally white men, obliged to defend themselves without aid of soldiers or police, committed acts almost equalling in cruelty those of their savage opponents. Yet without violence the country could not be held. All the philanthropic efforts of the present century, supported by a strong police, have not succeeded in establishing a single Bushman community in a civilised mode of life.

The method of conducting warfare against these savages did not need a knowledge of complicated military movements. There were probably many contests between farmers and Bushmen of which the government never heard. Those that are recorded, however, give very plain pictures of what was taking place.

In May 1772 a letter was received from the landdrost of Stellenbosch, giving information that a party of Bushmen on the border of the Roggeveld had murdered a burgher named Hendrik Teutman, his wife and daughter, and a servant of Adriaan Louw; and that they had driven off the cattle from several farms. The field corporal Willem van Wyk raised a commando, followed the marauders to a mountain, and besieged a cave in which they took shelter, but was unable to get possession of it. He then wrote to the landdrost for help. The council of policy resolved to send a corporal and five grenadiers, with a supply of hand grenades, to aid him. A party of Hottentots was also engaged to assist, and upon the arrival of these reinforcements the cave was stormed. Six Bushmen were killed, and fifty-eight of both sexes, great and small, were captured. The prisoners were forwarded under escort to the Cape, where they arrived on the 27th of June. After some delay the men were brought to trial before the high court of justice, and on the 31st of



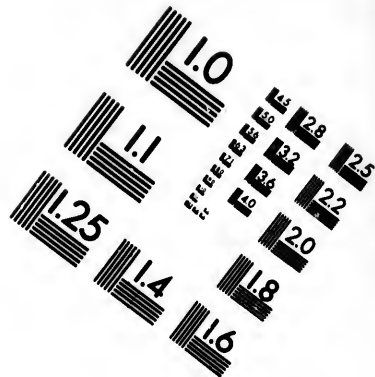
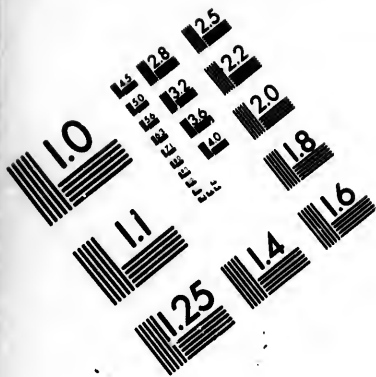
December sentence was passed. One was broken alive on a wheel; one was hanged; four were flogged, had the tendons of their heels severed, and were kept to hard labour for life; and three were flogged and kept to hard labour for life. The women and children were distributed in several periods varying in duration.

In the month of the same year the landdrost of Stellenbosch reported that a party of Bushmen had stolen eight hundred head of cattle from the burgher Gerrit van Wyk. Whereupon a commando assembled, followed up the robbers, shot thirty-one of them, and recovered thirty-nine of the cattle.

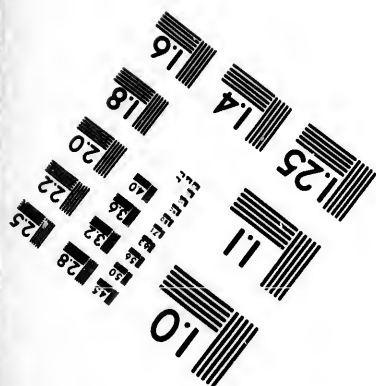
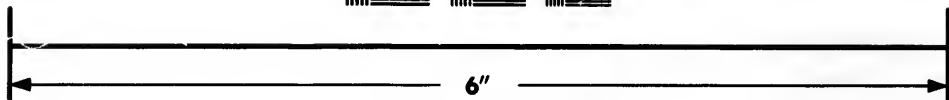
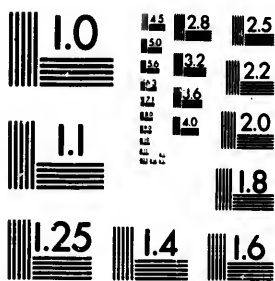
Despite of such punishment, the Bushmen seemed to become constantly bolder, and at length they did not fear to attack farm-houses in open day. Horned cattle, sheep, and goats were driven off in hundreds together, the herdsmen were murdered, and from several localities the Europeans were obliged to retire. In May 1774 the council of policy approved of the appointment by the board of militia of Stellenbosch of Godlieb Rudolph Opperman, a burgher of long experience and recognised ability, as field commandant of the whole northern border from Piketberg to Sneeuwberg, and operations were planned with a view of punishing the marauders and restoring the farmers to the places from which they had been driven.

The Hottentots and half-breeds were just as anxious as the colonists to chastise the Bushmen, for they had suffered equally from the attacks of these wild people. The Hottentots indeed were more embittered than the others, for many of them had lost all their cattle and had besides to lament friends and relatives put to death by torture. Some of the Hottentots were living in reserves, under captains recognised by the Cape government, and were not subject to colonial courts of law except in cases affecting white people. The tract of land called Lilyfontein, in the Kamiesberg, where an important Wesleyan mission was founded in the early years of





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the present century, for instance, was a reserve secured to the Hottentot captain Wildschut and his people by Governor van Plettenberg in 1772. Others of this race were living with the colonists, either in charge of herds of cattle or as domestic servants. As many as were needed joined the burghers on the expedition against the common enemy, and were provided with firearms and ammunition.

At the beginning of summer three parties of mixed burghers, half-breeds, and Hottentots, acting in concert, took the field under Commandant Opperman and the field corporals Nicolaas van der Merwe and Gerrit van Wyk. The base of operations was more than three hundred miles in length. The country along the great mountain range of South Africa was scoured, and all the Bushmen found who would not surrender were shot. According to the reports furnished to the government, five hundred and three were killed and two hundred and thirty-nine taken prisoners. Some of these were afterwards released, and others were apprenticed to the farmers for a term of years. Only one European was killed during the operations. From the leader of a small party of Bushmen a promise was obtained to keep the peace and desist from robbery, and to him presents were made as proofs of a desire for friendship. The instance, however, was a solitary one.

It was hoped that the punishment inflicted by the expedition would deter the Bushmen from continuing hostilities, but it had no such effect. They became even more troublesome than before, and year after year it was necessary to call out commandos against them. Thus it often happened that the farmers were unable to attend the musters for drill, which took place at the drostdies yearly in October. They had come to regard these musters as vexatious taxes upon their time, and military drill as useless in their circumstances. The men of the northern border considered their first duty to be the pro-

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tection of their families against savages, and hardly gave a thought to the Company's interests at the remote seat of government.

On the eastern border matters were in a similar condition. The colonists there had to deal with the advanced clans of the Xosa tribe, a people who might be called civilised when compared with Bushmen, but who were almost as expert stocklifters.

In 1779 a quarrel arose among the Xosa clans, whereupon the Gunukwebes under the chief Tshaka entered the colony and took shelter behind the Bushman's river. They were followed by the Imidange under the chiefs Mahuta and Jalamba, the Amambala under the chief Langa, the Amagwali under the chiefs Titi and Koba, and the Amantinde under the chief Cika, who crossed the Fish river and spread themselves over the present districts of Somerset East and Albany. Some persons asserted that the Europeans had provoked the Xosas to invade the colony. There was a story in circulation that old Willem Prinsloo, of the Boschberg, had exasperated the Imidange by shooting one of them whom he caught in the act of stealing a sheep, and by seizing some of their cattle to make good his losses. There was another story that Marthinus Prinsloo, a son of the former, had gone across the Keiskama with a party trading for cattle in defiance of the prohibitions of the government, and had there in a quarrel killed one of Rarabe's immediate retainers. It was stated also that the petty chief Koba, who was one of those that agreed to the Fish river being the boundary, having crossed over to the colonial side, was driven back again by the graziers with unnecessary violence. It is impossible now to say whether these reports were true or not. They were put in circulation by men who were certainly biassed in favour of the Kaffirs, and the explanations of the Prinsloos, if any were ever given, are not to be found.

The official reports were to the effect that the clans

who crossed the Fish river said they did not want to quarrel with the Europeans, and to prove the truth of their assertions, they murdered a number of Hottentots and took their cattle, without molesting the colonists. But shortly they began to drive off the herds of the white people also, and on the 27th of September 1779 the field corporal Jan Hermanus Potgieter sent a report that the farmers of the Zuurveld or the present districts of Albany and Bathurst, together with those along the right bank of the Bushman's river, had been obliged to withdraw to a place of greater safety.

The same tactics that have been practised by the Xosas in every subsequent struggle with the colony were used in this, the first Kaffir war. Rarabe sent a message to the nearest European outpost, to the effect that the clans committing the depredations were rebels, and that he would be glad to receive assistance against them. The colonists, as yet without experience of Bantu duplicity, believed Rarabe's statement, though some of his immediate followers were among the plunderers.

During the summer of 1779-80 two commandos took the field for the purpose of expelling the intruders. One, composed of the farmers from both sides of Brintjes Hoogte, was under command of Josua Joubert. The refugees from the Zuurveld and their friends west of the Bushman's river formed the other, which was commanded by Pieter Hendrik Ferreira. The Xosas were attacked and defeated on several occasions, when a considerable number of their cattle were taken; but they were not entirely driven to their own side of the Fish river.

During the winter those who had been apparently subdued crossed again into the colony, accompanied by many others, and it became evident that a grand effort must be made to expel them. On the 24th of October 1780 the council of policy, at the request of the district courts, appointed Adriaan van Jaarsveld field commandant of the eastern frontier, and gave him military authority over

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the whole of the border farmers. There was no man in the country better qualified for the post than he. Accustomed from his earliest boyhood to warfare with savages, compelled to be ever ready to defend his family and his flocks from marauders, he knew exactly how to act in an emergency of this kind. He had retired to Bruintjes Hoogte from the Sneeuwberg in 1776 to be free of depredations by Bushmen, and he was resolved not to move again if he could by any means hold his own.

On the 14th of November the council of policy resolved that as the Xosas had not respected the Fish river as the boundary, the commandant should be authorised to expel them by force. On the 5th of December instructions were issued for his guidance, in which he was directed to endeavour to come to an amicable arrangement with the intruders, on the basis of their retirement across the Fish river and a mutual restoration of all cattle captured. If they would consent to this proposal, the commandant was to take care that no European molested them or thereafter entered their country for any purpose, and he was not to interfere in the feuds between the clans. But if they declined, he was to assemble an armed force and drive them over the river.

Early in the summer the old chief Langa, brother of Rarabe and head of the Amambala clan, moved to the west bank of the Bushman's river. As a peace offering he sent to the nearest European camp a small herd of cattle and a few horses taken from farmers in the Zuurveld, with a message that he wished to remain for a short time where he was. He was still there when Commandant Van Jaarsveld offered him the choice of retreating to his own country or being attacked. Langa elected to retire, and did so at once. He was consequently not molested, but of all the chiefs who had invaded the colony he was the only one willing to retreat.

The commandant therefore collected the European and



Hottentot families of the frontier in a couple of lagers, or camps formed by drawing up waggons in a circle and filling the spaces between the wheels with thorn trees. Leaving a few men to defend the lagers, with ninety-two burghers and forty Hottentots, all mounted and well armed, he fell upon the Xosas and smote them hip and thigh. The commando was in the field from the 23rd of May to the 19th of July 1781, and was only disbanded when the last of the intruders was again beyond the Fish river and the first Kaffir war was over.

The spoil—five thousand three hundred head of horned cattle, among which, however, were many recently taken from the farmers—was divided by the commandant among the members of his force. On the 9th of October the matter was discussed by the council of policy, when it was resolved that the cattle which were taken from the Xosas and divided among the men of the commando might be retained on this occasion, but that the decision was not to form a precedent, much less was it to serve as a basis for the colonists to seek a quarrel with the Kaffirs and to rob them of anything that belonged to them.

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## CHAPTER XIX.

JOACHIM VAN PLETTENBERG'S ADMINISTRATION (*continued*).

WHILE the events that have been related were taking place, it was too much to expect that the farmers of the eastern districts would leave their families and property exposed, and proceed to Capetown, four or five hundred miles distant, to keep watch against a foreign foe.

As soon, however, as intelligence was received that the mother country was at war, the burghers within the old settled districts declared their readiness to do all in their power for the defence of the colony. Their disaffection to the government of Mr. Van Plettenberg did not interfere with their loyalty to the Netherlands. A call was made upon the burghers of Stellenbosch to come to the assistance of the garrison, and on the 2nd of April a detachment arrived at the castle. It was arranged that half of the Stellenbosch militia should remain under arms in Capetown for a month, and then be relieved by the other half, who would remain for the same period.

There were several richly laden ships, homeward bound, lying in Table Bay, and their officers as well as the Cape council considered it injudicious for them to proceed upon their voyage until they could sail under the protection of a fleet of war. But as the winter was approaching they could not be kept in Table Bay, and in Simon's Bay there were no means of defending them in the event of an attack by an English fleet. Under these circumstances it was resolved to protect the entrance to Hout Bay by constructing a battery upon the western

point and mounting twenty cannon upon it. Within the next few weeks the ships *Batavia*, *Amsterdam*, *Morgenster*, and *Indiaan* were sent there for safety.

But Hout Bay is too small to contain more than four or five ships of heavy burden, and it was therefore resolved to send any others that might arrive to Saldanha Bay, which was considered less liable than Simon's Bay to be visited. On the 13th of May the homeward bound ships *Hoogkarspel*, *Honkoop*, *Middelburg*, *Paarl*, and *Dankbaarheid* were sent there, and with them was sent the *Held Woltemaade*, an outward bound Indiaman, that she might undergo some necessary repairs and refresh her crew before proceeding to Ceylon. Gerrit Harmeyer, skipper of the *Hoogkarspel*, was appointed commodore of the squadron. He was directed to anchor in a sheltered position and then unbend all the sails of the ships, which he was to stow away in the packets *Zon* and *Snelheid*, now useless owing to the war. These vessels were to be sent some distance up the bay, so that they could be easily destroyed in case of necessity. The commodore was enjoined to make the best possible preparations for defence, but no means could be provided by the government beyond the ordinary armaments of the Indiamen.

The day after intelligence was received that the United Provinces were at war, the English brig *Betsy*—a packet used by the government of St. Helena—came into Table Bay and dropped her anchors without suspicion of danger. Some French cruisers were lying in the bay, and as soon as the *Betsy's* yards were lowered they sent their boats and took possession of her without resistance. The French also seized a vessel under Tuscan colours lying in the bay, and retained her as a prize on the ground that she was really English property.

The *Betsy* was transferred by her captors to Governor Van Plettenberg, by whom she was renamed the *Postiljon*.

There was living in Capetown at the time a retired French naval officer, Captain (after 1783 the chevalier)

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François Duminy, and he was placed in command of the prize, with directions to convey intelligence of the war with all possible speed to Ceylon. The Company's packet *Herstelder* was ready to sail with a cargo of wheat for Europe. Her destination was altered, and within twenty-four hours she was on her way to Batavia with despatches.

There were several English visitors at the Cape, passengers by Dutch Indiamen to Europe, and others. These, with the officers of the *Betsy*, were sent to one of the Company's outposts, to prevent them from communicating with their countrymen.<sup>1</sup> The English sailors were distributed among the Dutch ships.

Seven weeks of suspense and anxiety passed away without any further knowledge of what was transpiring in the outer world. At length, on the 20th of May, the French frigate *Serapis* dropped anchor in Simon's Bay, and her captain reported that a French fleet with a strong body of troops might shortly be expected to protect the Cape.

The intelligence was correct. As soon as war was proclaimed with the Netherlands, the English government commenced to fit out an expedition to seize this colony. Every particular concerning it, however, was made known to the French court by a spy named De la Motte, who was resident in London, and who was detected, tried for high treason, and condemned to death a few months later. At this time a French fleet was being prepared to act against Sir Edward Hughes in the eastern seas. Its equipment was therefore hurried on with the utmost expedition, and some transports were added for the purpose of conveying land forces to South Africa. It was seen to be a trial of speed, in which the possession of the Cape was to be the prize of the winner.

<sup>1</sup>Four of them—Archibald Blair, John Robinson, James Plunkett, and Lewis Andrew de la Chaumette—remained at Vissershok as prisoners at large for two years and a half.

On the 13th of March 1781 the English fleet sailed from Spithead. It consisted of the *Romney*, of 50 guns, carrying the flag of Commodore George Johnstone, commander-in-chief of the expedition, the *Hero*, 74, *Monmouth*, 64, *Jupiter*, 50, *Isis*, 50, *Apollo*, 38, *Jason*, 36, *Active*, 32, *Diana*, 28, *Infernal*, fireship, *Terror*, bomb, seven light armed cruisers, two cutters and a sloop as despatch vessels, four transports, eight storeships and victuallers, and thirteen Indiamen, in all forty-six sail. Three thousand soldiers, under General Meadows, were on board. On the fourth day after sailing, a Dutch merchantman was chased by the *Rattlesnake* cutter, and captured after a sharp action.

All went well until the arrival of the fleet at St. Jago, where the commodore intended to take in a supply of fresh water, for which purpose he came to anchor in Porto Praya roads. He had no suspicion of danger, as he did not consider it possible that his destination was known to the enemy. No precautions were therefore taken against surprise, but, on the contrary, the decks of the ships of war were encumbered with casks and lumber of various kinds, and the best of the seamen were sent ashore to bring water to the boats. While in this condition, on the 16th of April some strange ships with no colours flying were observed from the *Isis* to be standing in under all sail, and immediately the intelligence was conveyed by signal to the rest of the fleet. There was hardly time to clear the guns before the strangers were abreast of the outermost English ships, and dropping anchor within cable's length of the *Isis*, the leading vessel poured a broadside into that frigate and then ran the French flag to her mizen peak.

The ships which made the attack were the *Heros* and *Hannibal*, each of seventy-four guns, and the *Artésien*, of sixty-four guns, forming part of a squadron under command of Acting Commodore Pierre André de Suffren, in after years vice-admiral of France. Two other ships

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of the line, the *Vengeur* and the *Sphinx*, each of sixty-four guns, were present, but not keeping close enough to the wind, they failed to get within proper cannon range, and took hardly any part in the action. The remainder of the squadron, consisting of a corvette and eight transports with troops on board, remained at a distance in the offing.

Suffren sailed from Brest on the 22nd of March in company with a fleet under the count De Grasse bound to the West Indies. On the 29th he separated from De Grasse, and pushed on southward, hoping to reach the Cape before Johnstone. The *Hannibal* was originally intended to form part of the West India fleet, but had been added to his command just before he sailed, and was not supplied with sufficient water for a long voyage. Suffren resolved therefore to put into Porto Praya, and that no time might be lost the water casks were got on deck as the ships approached the roadstead. The *Artésien* was in advance, and as she rounded a point the English fleet at anchor came in sight. Captain De Cardaillac, her commander, communicated this information by signal, and Suffren immediately resolved to make use of the advantage of an attack by surprise. He therefore gave the signal for action, and took the lead in the *Heros*. Captain De Cardaillac hailed him, and inquired what was to be done if fire should be opened upon them from a fort on land, as the Portuguese—the owners of the island—were neutral in the war. 'Open fire in return' was the reply. The *Hannibal's* decks were encumbered with casks, and her guns were not ready for action, but she stood on, and dropped her anchor close ahead of the *Heros*. The *Artésien* took up a position at no great distance.

The English fleet was at a tremendous disadvantage. The commodore's ship, moored inside the Indiamen, could take little or no part in the defence. The smaller men-of-war were almost useless against such formidable

assailants, and the transports, victuallers, and merchantmen were in even a worse condition. The French ships of the line were pouring in broadsides as fast as their guns could be loaded. The enemy could not be clearly distinguished through the smoke, and some of the transports in the confusion fired into the Indiamen.

But the English seamen were neither idle nor dismayed. Soon after the *Isis* received the broadside of the *Heros* they were answering shot for shot, and in ten minutes from the commencement of the action a cheer arose from the outermost ship and was echoed throughout the fleet as the French admiral's mizen topmast and ensign were carried away. One worthy scion of the seakings, Captain Ward of the *Hero*, was not content with mere defence, but resolved to become the assailant. Having got hands from the nearest ships to assist in working his guns, he boarded the *Artésien* with some of his own crew, and though he did not succeed in capturing that vessel, after a desperate fight in which Captain De Cardaillac was killed, he actually took twenty-five prisoners and brought them away with him. From these prisoners the English officers and sailors first learnt that their destination was the Cape of Good Hope, for the fleet was sailing under sealed orders, no one except the commodore himself being acquainted with the object of the expedition.

After cannonading each other at cable's length for nearly two hours it was still doubtful which side would be victorious, when the *Hannibal's* mizen mast was seen to fall, and almost immediately afterwards her main and fore topmasts tottered and went over. Cheer after cheer now rose in the English fleet, and hundreds of men stood ready for the order to spring into the boats and board the wreck. Suffren hailed the *Hannibal*, and asked after the condition of the crew. The captain had been killed and nearly two hundred men were lying dead or wounded on the decks, was the reply. There was not a

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moment therefore to lose, so the cables of the French ships were cut, the *Hannibal* was taken in tow by the *Heros*, and Suffren stood out to sea. He took with him the *Hinchinbroke* and *Fortitude*, Indiamen, the *Infernal*, fireship, and the *Edward*, victualler, which had been cut out and placed in charge of prize crews.

Johnstone at once gave orders for the ships of war under his command to follow the enemy. But some of them were unprepared for sea, and it was only after three hours' delay that they assembled outside. The *Isis* was then found to be crippled by the loss of a topmast and several yards, besides having her sails and rigging cut to pieces, and two or three others had sustained injuries which needed prompt attention. Meanwhile the French fleet was increasing its distance, and as night was setting in the commodore judged it expedient to abandon pursuit.

In the action at Porto Praya the English loss was forty-two killed and one hundred and forty-one wounded, that of the French was somewhat heavier. Both suffered more in material comparatively than in men. Several of the Indiamen were badly cut up. The *Terror*, bomb, lost her bowsprit and foremast; she then caught fire, and her cable parting she drifted out to sea, but managed to get back in the night. The *Hinchinbroke*, *Fortitude*, *Edward*, and *Infernal* were made prizes, but none of them remained under the French flag. The first three were so shattered that the prize crews abandoned them, and they were all recovered within a few days. The *Infernal* was retaken by her own crew while the captors were off their guard. Twenty-one Englishmen, however, had been removed from this vessel and remained prisoners in the *Heros*, against whom, on the other side, must be counted the twenty-five Frenchmen carried off by Captain Ward from the *Artésien*.

Suffren, after the action, made the best of his way to the Cape. Spare masts were fitted up in the *Hannibal*, and as the wind was generally fair, a quick passage,



under the circumstances, was made. On the 21st of June the *Heroes* arrived in Simon's Bay in advance of the rest of the squadron. It was feared that the English fleet was close at hand, so the signal guns which had been placed on prominent hills were fired, and in response a large body of burghers hastened from all parts of the country within two hundred miles to aid in the defence of Capetown.

After a few days the French transports arrived, when a company of artillery, part of the infantry regiment of Austrasia, and the regiment of Pondicherry—the last commanded by Colonel Conway, an Irishman in the French service—were landed. These troops marched overland to Capetown, where they arrived on the 3rd of July. The Austrasia regiment was not intended to remain here long. It was quartered in a large warehouse adjoining the Lutheran church, until it could be sent to Mauritius. The regiment of Pondicherry, which was to remain here during the war, was quartered in a wing of the new hospital. This building was not yet completed, though eighty to a hundred men had been working upon it nearly nine years. In June 1779 a portion of it was first used as a hospital. One large ward was converted into a grain and another into a wine magazine. And now for the first time, owing to there being no other accommodation available, the right wing became a barrack.

The demand for provisions for the French fleet and troops caused a sudden and great increase in prices. The governor and council considered this circumstance unfair to those who had come to save the colony from conquest, and they therefore invited the acting and retired burgher councillors to form a committee with two government officers to draw up a scale of prices which should be adhered to while the war lasted.

The committee proposed as a maximum: wheat to strangers not higher than twelve shillings a muid, meal fourteen shillings and eight pence farthing the hundred

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pounds, wine nine pounds a legger (of which one pound was to be paid to the licensed dealer), beef two pence a pound, and mutton a penny a pound. To this scale the council of policy agreed, and all persons were prohibited under heavy penalties from selling at a dearer rate.

To prevent intelligence being conveyed to the English, two Danish Indiamen, homeward bound, that put into Simon's Bay for supplies, were detained there, as it was feared that they might either touch at St. Helena or meet with strangers at sea. The *Held Woltemaade*, however, having completed her repairs, was permitted to sail for Ceylon.

On the morning of the 22nd of July a report reached Capetown that a fleet of thirty-three sail was in sight off Saldanha Bay. The burgher lieutenant Van Reenen was thereupon hurried off with a troop of mounted men to ascertain particulars, and a messenger was despatched to Hout Bay with orders to the skippers of the vessels there to return at once to Table Bay, to keep close inshore on the passage, and if attacked to run their ships aground and destroy them. Lieutenant Van Reenen had not proceeded far when he met a company of sailors who informed him that an English fleet was in possession of Saldanha Bay.

As soon as Johnstone could refit his ships after the action at Porto Praya, he sailed for the Cape, which he still had some hope of reaching before Suffren, as he thought it likely that the French fleet would be compelled to put into a Brazilian port to repair damages. This being doubtful, however, when near his destination he sent the *Active* on ahead, for the purpose of reconnoitring Table Bay.

Soon after parting from the fleet, a strange sail standing to the southward was observed by the *Active's* lookout, upon which Captain Mackenzie hoisted French colours and ran towards her. It was the *Held Woltemaade*, just

out of Saldanha Bay. Being hailed in French, the officers of the Indiaman were unsuspecting of danger, and they gave full information concerning the arrival of Suffren and the condition of the five ships they had recently parted from. Captain Mackenzie then hauled down the French flag and demanded the surrender of the *Woltemaade* under pain of instantly sinking her. She was given up without a blow. On taking possession, the captors found in addition to a valuable cargo a sum of money equal to forty thousand pounds sterling, which was intended to aid the government of Ceylon. The *Active* immediately returned with her prize and reported to the commodore, who, upon learning that the garrison of the Cape was now too strong to be attacked, resolved to make himself master of the five Indiamen.

At half past nine in the morning of the 21st of July, a signal was made from the lookout station at Saldanha Bay that a large fleet under French colours was in sight and standing straight in. An hour later the leading ships were within the entrance, when they hauled down the French and hoisted English colours.

According to their instructions, the Dutch officers should now have destroyed their ships, seeing that defence and escape were alike impossible. But Skipper Van Gennepe of the *Middelburg* was the only one of the five who had taken the precaution to have a quantity of inflammable materials in readiness for such an occasion, and the consequence was that although all the ships were hastily set on fire and abandoned, the English sailors got possession of the *Hoogkarspel*, *Honkoop*, *Paarl*, and *Dankbaarheid*, in time to extinguish the flames before any material injury was done.

Three fires were kindled in the hold of the *Middelburg* by her chief officer, Abraham de Smidt, ancestor of the colonial family of this name. He with the steward and one seaman had remained behind for that purpose when the remainder of the crew left, and they did not make

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their escape until the English were within cannon shot. In a moment the flames were pouring through the lower hatchways, and shortly they reached the magazine, when an explosion took place which hurled chests of tea and bales of cotton goods together with fragments of timber high into the air. What was left of the hull sank to the bottom, but as the water was shallow the remains of the cargo were easily recovered some years later.

The *Zon* and *Snelheid* were abandoned without any effort to destroy them, and thus the captors obtained possession of all the equipage of their prizes. At Saldanha Bay two Indian princes were found, who had been banished by the Batavian government from Ternate and Tidor for political offences. These exiles were released from captivity, and were received as guests on board one of the men-of-war. In two days the Indiamen were got ready for sea, and on the 24th the fleet sailed, leaving nothing afloat but the two empty packets *Zon* and *Snelheid*, which were so old and decayed as not to be worth taking away.

The main object of the expedition having been frustrated, Commodore Johnstone resolved to send the troops on to India and to take a portion of the fleet back to Europe. He therefore placed Captain Alms in command of the convoy, for the protection of which he left five of his best ships of war; and with the *Romney*, *Jupiter*, *Diana*, *Jason*, *Terror*, *Infernal*, one light cruiser, three victuallers, and the Dutch prizes, he stood away for England.

As there was now no danger of an immediate attack, in August the burghers were permitted to return to their homes. The governor reported to the directors that their alacrity to serve had surprised him, and Colonel Conway expressed great satisfaction with their conduct. The defence of the Cape was left to the regiment of Pondicherry and the Dutch troops, together with a small corps of half-breeds and Hottentots which was raised in the

country and stationed in Capetown. The armaments on the forts were very defective, but in November forty cannon and a large supply of ammunition arrived from Mauritius.

The necessities of the government were pressing and the treasury was empty. No money could be expected from the mother country during the continuance of the war. In these straits, on the 6th of November 1781 the council of policy resolved to borrow from the colonists as much as was urgently needed, to pay interest monthly for the loan at the rate of half per cent, and to promise to repay the principal upon the arrival of the first outward bound fleet. Sufficient money was not to be obtained in this way, however, and after the 30th of April 1782 expenditure was met by notes, which in a short time were issued to the amount of 185,044*l.* This was the introduction of a system of equalising revenue and expenditure that for nearly half a century caused great confusion in commercial transactions.

A few years later notes to the amount of 165,180*l.* were redeemed, either in specie or by bills on Holland, but further issues were afterwards made. In 1795 the amount of such paper outstanding, with no security except the promise of the government to pay when it could, was 122,782*l.* The notes offered great temptation to unprincipled persons to defraud the uneducated farmers of the interior. They were easily forged, and in this way many persons became the victims of swindlers.

In May 1782 the garrison was strengthened by the arrival of a body of troops termed the regiment of Luxemburg, raised in France, but in the pay of the Dutch East India Company. This regiment remained until February 1783, when it was sent to Ceylon. Just before it left the Cape, the regiment of Meuron, a strong body of Swiss troops in the pay of the Dutch Company, arrived to replace it. In February 1783 the French regiment of Waldener, also in the Company's pay, arrived and formed

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a camp under canvas at Diep River. In April of the same year this regiment left for Batavia. The regiment of Pondicherry, which was sent to assist the Dutch, but was not in the pay of the Company, remained at the Cape until some time after the conclusion of peace, and in April 1784 it embarked for Mauritius. In 1785 the troops that remained consisted of the Swiss regiment of Meuron, some five hundred Dutch infantry under Gordon, who had been advanced to the rank of colonel, and a few engineers under Major Philip Herman Gilquin, who since June 1779 had been director of fortifications in Table Valley.

Owing to the war with England there was no communication between South Africa and the Netherlands for more than a year, and until the 1st of April 1782 the replies of the officers of the Cape government to the charges made against them by the burghers could not be sent away. When these documents reached the Netherlands they were referred by the directors to the committee which had the case under examination. One of them attracted special attention. This was the statement of the fiscal, the tone of which convinced the directors that Mr. Boers was not an officer who could safely be left in power. They therefore agreed without hesitation to his request to resign his duties, but required him to furnish bail to the amount of a little over 1,000*l.* if he should leave the colony for Europe before the charges against him were decided. He retired from office in April 1783. Mr. Jan Jacob Serrurier was instructed by the council to act as fiscal, and in November 1784 he received from the prince of Orange the permanent appointment.

The principles of Mr. Boers have been commented upon, but another instance of the manner in which he put them in practice may be given. During the war there was such a scarcity of blankets and rough cloth in the colony that the slaves were almost naked. Thereupon several enterprising persons formed the idea of

manufacturing blankets and cloth at the Cape, and a company was got together prepared to risk the necessary capital. There was coarse wool to be had in plenty, and a burgher named Frederik Heyneman, who was living in the village of Stellenbosch, and who had been a weaver before he came to this country, was engaged to commence the work. All was in readiness, and only permission was needed from the government. The company—Messrs. Tobias Christiaan Ronnekamp, Jan Frederik Kirsten, Olof Godlieb de Wet, and Gerrit Hendrik Cruywagen, all in the government service, and the burghers Jan Meyndert Cruywagen, Jan Serrurier, Jan Bottiger, and Gerrit Hendrik Meyer—applied to the council for the necessary leave. All the members were willing, except Mr. Boers, who denounced the project of establishing manufactures in a colony as little short of treason, and succeeded in thwarting the plan.

The old skipper Staring, head of the naval establishment, left South Africa before the fiscal. In January 1782 the Danish ship *Castle of Dansbury* put into Table Bay, where an embargo was laid upon her. Staring and Captain De Lille went on board to communicate the decision of the council, when the Danish skipper ordered sail to be set and tried to get away. Fire was then opened upon the ship from the forts, upon which the skipper obliged Staring to stand in the most dangerous position. He did so with the utmost composure, although the shot was flying thick around him. In a few minutes the Dane was obliged to surrender. But Staring, brave in front of cannon balls, feared the result of the inquiry that was being made into his alleged peculations, and within a week of this event he requested the council of policy to allow him to take his discharge. This was granted, much to the dissatisfaction of the directors when they were informed of it, and he left for Europe in a neutral ship. He was succeeded as head of the naval

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establishment by Justinus van Gennep, recently skipper of the *Middelburg*.

While the statements of the officials were on the way to Europe, the assembly of seventeen met. The delegate Roos had died, but Messrs. Van Reenen, Artois, and Heyns were still in Amsterdam. They delivered to the directors another memorial containing further charges against the Cape officials, supported by numerous documents. The memorial and its annexures were referred to the committee of investigation. The directors resolved to instruct the government at the Cape to do everything in its power, consistently with the Company's interests, to smooth over matters and to allay the discontent of the burghers. But they did not explain how that was to be effected without making concessions or amending the system under which their officers were paid, so that such instructions were practically of no value.

Towards the close of 1783, four years after the matter had been placed in their hands, the committee of investigation sent in a report. They had come to the conclusion that the complainants could not be held to represent the whole body of burghers at the Cape, and that the charges against the officials had not been proved. They recommended that no changes in the regulations regarding commerce should be made until a general European peace, and that consequently the colonists should not be granted liberty to trade on their own account with Europe and India. They objected to allowing an appeal from the high court of justice at the Cape to the supreme court of the Netherlands instead of to the court at Batavia, as that would practically remove the Cape from the jurisdiction of the Company; but they approved of reconstituting the high court of justice, so as to make it consist of six servants of the Company beside the president and six burghers, instead of nine servants of the Company and three burghers as formerly. They were in favour of allowing the Company's servants to have gardens



for their own use, but not to sell produce from them. They left to the fiscal his perquisites, including the fee of one shilling and four pence on every muid of corn or meal sold to foreigners; but they proposed to restrict to 40% his power of compounding cases instead of bringing them into court.

On the 3rd of December 1783 this report was adopted by the assembly of seventeen, and was communicated to the Cape government by the next ships that sailed. At the same time the directors resolved not to prohibit the banishment of useless persons from the colony, but to instruct the governor and council of policy to use this power sparingly and with discretion, and to give the person deported the choice of removal to Europe or India.

This result of their complaints gave great dissatisfaction to the colonists. Since 1779 the condition of affairs had greatly altered, as there had never before been such a demand for produce as that created by the large garrison and the French forces in the East. A French commissariat officer, M. Percheron, resided at the Cape, and purchased large quantities of provisions at high prices. Other nationalities also had agents here for the same purpose, though their requirements were not nearly so great. Next to the French in commercial dealings in South Africa at this time were the Danes, whose agent in Capetown was the burgher Hendrik Justinus de Wet. Many new trading houses had been established by burghers. In Capetown there was a display of prosperity which astonished strangers. European and Indian wares in the greatest variety and of the most costly description were introduced in large quantities by Danish ships; and though the prices asked were exorbitant, they commanded a ready sale. The defective means of communication with the interior attracted greater attention than at any previous period, and the council of policy was desired to adopt measures for making good roads, that the inhabitants might more easily exchange the productions of the

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country and obtain foreign wares. The subject of a free coasting trade came also into prominence, and a memorial upon it was addressed to the government.

But the burghers of South Africa, though keenly alive to the advantages of material prosperity, have at every period of their history shown a firmer attachment to what they held to be their political rights and liberties. There have indeed been times when considerable parties of men have wavered between money and freedom from misrule, but the women have never hesitated in rejecting prosperity at the price of oppression or disdainful treatment. And perhaps nowhere else in the world have women the influence that they have on South African farms. On this occasion neither men nor women were disposed to let the question rest. The government resorted to various petty persecutions, but the party opposed to it increased in strength, and resolved now to appeal to the states-general of the Netherlands.

With this object, in December 1784 two memorials, signed by Marthinus Adriaan Bergh, Christiaan George Maasdorp, Gerrit Hendrik Meyer, Hendrik Pieter Warnecke, Jan Albert Myburgh, Jan Daniel de Villiers, Jan Caspar Groenewald, Philip Albert Myburgh, Hendrik Louw, and Jan Roos, who had been chosen as representatives by the Cape burghers, were forwarded to the delegates who were still in Holland. In these memorials complaints were made of iniquitous and imperious government, of maladministration of justice, and of the scanty attention paid by the directors of the East India Company to the representations of the colonists.

In the mean time, however, the directors had come to the conclusion that changes were necessary in the government of the Cape, though they could not bring themselves so far as to grant to the colonists liberty of foreign commerce. They had narrowly escaped losing the country altogether, and they were now aware that the burghers were not in a position to defend it from foreign attacks.

Governor Van Plettenberg, who had been surprised at the alacrity shown by the farmers to aid the garrison in time of danger, had tried to get a company of burghers stationed in the town, to be relieved monthly by others, but the duty to be permanent. In this he had not succeeded. Early in 1783 the preliminaries of a treaty of peace had been arranged with Great Britain; but it was admitted on all sides that a garrison of at least two thousand men was required to secure the Cape against surprise in the event of another war, and that additional fortifications must be built.

The directors therefore resolved to send out as governor a military officer of rank and experience, to station here a large body of troops as a depôt for India, and to employ these troops in the construction of necessary works. In concurrence with the states-general, they selected as governor Lieutenant-Colonel Cornelis Jacob van de Graaff, an engineer officer, who was then controller-general of the fortifications in Holland, and who enjoyed the confidence of the stadtholder. Colonel Van de Graaff with his family arrived in South Africa on the 22nd of January 1785, and he took over the administration on the 14th of February. On the 10th of April Mr. Van Plettenberg left for Europe as admiral of the homeward bound fleet of the year.

During the war with England the Company's trade had been almost annihilated. Its fleets were laid up in harbours or were swept from the seas. It was compelled to employ ships under neutral flags to convey cargoes to and from India, and to prevent the utter ruin of its dependencies was obliged to allow any one who chose to buy and sell freely in its foreign possessions. There was hardly a nation in Europe that did not furnish adventurers to take advantage of this condition of things. The list of ships that put into the two open ports of South Africa during the four years 1781-1784 shows this very clearly.

	Table Bay				Simon's Bay			
	1781	1782	1783	1784	1781	1782	1783	1784
Dutch . . . . .	29	13	14	38	2	2	7	10
English . . . . .	2	—	18	18	—	—	—	5
French . . . . .	19	18	42	40	16	38	8	5
Danish . . . . .	10	18	20	14	5	5	7	5
Swedish . . . . .	3	3	8	8	1	1	2	3
Austrian . . . . .	1	8	27	12	—	—	2	1
Portuguese . . . . .	1	2	3	2	—	—	—	—
Italian . . . . .	1	—	1	—	—	—	—	—
Prussian . . . . .	—	1	8	4	—	—	4	1
Hamburg . . . . .	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—
Russian . . . . .	—	—	2	1	—	—	—	—
Spanish . . . . .	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—
American . . . . .	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—

Thus out of an average yearly number of one hundred and thirty-five ships, only twenty-nine were Dutch, and many of these were owned by individuals or were men-of-war belonging to the national government. In September 1783 peace was concluded, but the old order of things could not at once be restored.

During these years it was not possible to send much produce to Europe, though a considerable quantity of provisions was forwarded to the Company's establishments in India, for the use of the garrisons there. Three or four hundred casks of beef and pork salted at the Cape formed part of these shipments. The years 1783 and 1784 were marked by severe drought in the western parts of the colony, and the grain crops were very poor; but abundance of rain fell in the east, and meat and butter were plentiful and cheap.

Since the middle of the century the colony had been visited by several distinguished strangers, some of whom have left impressions of what they saw in interesting volumes.

Lord Clive touched here when on his way to India  
VOL. II.

for the last time, on the 17th of December 1764. Shortly after the anchor of his ship—the *Kent*—was dropped, a stiff south-easter set in, but he determined to try to get ashore. He left the ship in a large boat well manned, but could not reach the jetty, and after a long struggle against the gale, was obliged to run to Robben Island and pass the night there.

On landing at the Cape next morning, he was received with all possible honour, and during his stay he resided in the government house in the garden as the guest of the Company. He was provided with a military guard, not only for himself, but for the colonels who accompanied him. Captain Collins, who commanded an English man-of-war lying in the bay, took offence at this. He was lodging on shore, and ascertaining late one evening that Clive's colonels had a guard of soldiers, he sent to request the immediate attendance of the government secretary. When that gentleman arrived, Captain Collins demanded that he should be informed on the authority of the governor why he, who held the king's commission, was treated with less courtesy than officers who held their rank from Lord Clive. It was with difficulty that the offended captain could be induced to let the matter rest for that night, as the governor had retired, and the secretary did not wish to disturb him. In the morning the matter was laid before Governor Tulbagh, who assured the captain that no slight whatever was intended; and a guard was placed at his service, as he desired it.

Lord Clive remained ashore until the 12th of January 1765, when he embarked, and sailed on the 16th. On the 22nd of April 1767 he arrived at the Cape again, on his return passage to England. On this occasion also the government house in the garden was placed at his disposal, but he declined it with thanks, and took lodgings with the burgher Petrus Johannes de Wit. He left on the 4th of May.

Captain James Cook called at Table Bay in the *En-*

*deavour* on his homeward passage, on the 15th of March 1771. After refreshing his crew and taking in a stock of provisions, he sailed on the 14th of April. He touched again at Table Bay with the *Resolution* and *Adventure* on his outward passage in November 1772, and when returning homeward in March 1775. He was here again when outward bound on his last voyage with the *Resolution* and *Discovery* in October 1776.

Bernardin de St. Pierre, author of *Paul et Virginie*, spent about six weeks at the Cape in 1771.

Dr. Andrew Sparrman, a Swedish naturalist, was here in 1772 and in 1775-76, Dr. C. P. Thunberg, also a Swede, from 1772 to 1775, Captain Stavorinus, a Zeelander, on several occasions between 1768 and 1773, Lieutenant William Paterson, an Englishman, from 1777 to 1779, and M. François le Vaillant, a French creole, from 1780 to 1785. These have all given accounts of their travels.

The French explorer Captain Kerguelen when proceeding to visit the South Polar sea put into Simon's Bay with the *Rolland* and *Oiseau* in May 1773. Just a year later he put into the same port again when returning to Brest.

During this period the following shipping disasters took place on the South African coast:

On the 9th of June 1752 the Danish ship *Crown Princess of Denmark*, homeward bound from Tranquebar, put into Mossel Bay disabled, having sustained great damage in a gale. The cargo was landed and stored in sheds until it could be forwarded to Copenhagen, and the wreck was then abandoned. All possible assistance was given to the crew by the Cape authorities.

The English East India Company's ship *Doddington* sailed from the Downs on the 23rd of April 1755. At a quarter to one in the morning of Thursday the 17th of July, while no one on board suspected danger, she struck a rock on the eastern side of Algoa Bay, and at once

went to pieces. Of two hundred and seventy persons on board, all perished but twenty-three. Those saved found themselves upon a barren islet frequented only by sea-birds. Fortunately for them, a quantity of provisions, a small boat, a smith's bellows, much timber, and numerous other useful articles washed up from the wreck. They at once set to work to build a sloop of twelve feet beam and thirty feet keel, with which to make their escape. They had no nails; but a Swedish sailor, who had once been a blacksmith, put up a forge, and with iron obtained from pieces of the wreck managed to make as many as were needed.

As smoke was often seen on the mainland, on the 3rd of September three men left in the little boat to find out something of the country and its people. They steered for a point about nine or ten miles east of the islet, but when attempting to land the boat was overturned in the surf, and one man was drowned. The other two passed the night on the shore. Next day they found the boat, and managed to pull it up on the beach. In the evening, weary and almost exhausted from want of food, they turned the boat over and lay down under it to sleep, but were disturbed by wild animals prowling about. After sunrise a party of Hottentots appeared, who took from them a pistol and the greater part of their clothing, though otherwise the wild people were friendly and, seeing their distress from hunger, gave them some roots to eat. The wind was adverse that day, and they were obliged to pass another night under the boat, but on the following morning they returned to the islet.

During the last months of the year the wrecked people had as many sea-birds' eggs as they chose to gather, and at all times fish could be obtained, so that they did not suffer from hunger. On the 16th of February 1756 they launched their sloop and named her the *Happy Deliverance*. Two days later they sailed from the rock, to which they gave the name Bird Island, which it

still bears. They reached Delagoa Bay safely, and there found a ship in which some of them obtained a passage home. The others proceeded to Bombay in their sloop.

Two burghers—Andries du Pré and Pieter Ferreira—who were hunting elephants along the Bushman's and Sunday rivers, heard from some Hottentots rumours of the landing of the boat, and sent a report to the landdrost of Swellendam. Mr. Horak thereupon directed the farmers Nicolaas Haarhof and Pieter van Vuuren to make inquiries among the natives, and they obtained the pistol which had been taken from the English sailors, but could learn nothing of a wreck. For anything they could gather, the boat might have belonged to a passing ship. In December 1755, by order of the government, the landdrost sent Dirk Marx, a hunter who was well acquainted with the country, to look for any white people who might be in distress; but he could hear of none, nor could he find any trace of a wreck. He reported having met Xosas as far west as the Great Fish river.

On the 19th of March 1756 the French ship *Cybelle*, bound to Mauritius from the coast of Guinea with slaves, in trying to beat into Table Bay ran ashore a little above Blueberg, and shortly went to pieces. Her crew, with the slaves, got safely aboard another French ship lying at anchor in the bay.

On the 3rd of June 1756 the Cape packet *Schuylenburg* left Table Bay to take some stores to Simon's Bay. That night there was a violent storm, and the *Schuylenburg* was never afterwards heard of.

On the 8th of June 1757 the Company's provision ship *Voorzigtigheid*, which had recently arrived from Batavia with goods for the Cape, in a gale from the north-west went ashore near Salt River mouth, and became a wreck. Her crew of fifty-nine men got safely to land.

In January 1757 the Company's ship *Naarstigheid* sailed from Bengal with a valuable cargo, and on the 9th of the following April was dismasted in a hurricane.



During six weeks her crew did their best to reach False Bay under jury masts, but finding this impossible, and being in great distress, they put the ship about and steered for Mozambique. The Agulhas current being now against them, they found they could not get so far north, so on the 1st of July they put into Delagoa Bay, and cast anchor before the ruins of the abandoned Dutch fort. They then sent out parties to endeavour to reach the Cape and Sofala overland, but these were soon obliged to return unsuccessful. In May 1758 a boat with an officer and five men left for Mozambique, but she was never afterwards heard of. After being dismasted, the *Naarstigheid* was spoken by the English ship *Delaware*, homeward bound, whose master reported the circumstance to the chamber of Delft. The directors thereupon issued instructions to the Cape government to cause a search to be made, and towards the close of 1758 the packet *Hector* left Table Bay for this purpose. She found the wreck, with fifty-nine individuals—including some passengers—still living. The greater portion of the cargo was undamaged. The *Hector* returned to the Cape with the intelligence, when some vessels were sent for the crew and cargo. As she also brought word that elephants in large numbers had been seen in the neighbourhood of the wreck, four experienced hunters from the district of Swellendam, who volunteered for the purpose, were sent to Delagoa Bay by this opportunity. Two of them died of fever immediately after landing, and the other two—Jan Deetlefs and Jacob Kock—only shot twenty elephants, most of the animals having gone inland before their arrival.

On the 11th of September 1763 the French man-of-war *Fortuné*, homeward bound from Mauritius, after encountering a heavy gale off the coast put into Fish Bay in a sinking condition. She was kept afloat until everything of value was landed, but was abandoned on the 27th, when she went down at her anchorage. Two days

later she broke up in a storm. Her crew and some soldiers, four hundred and forty-one in all, proceeded overland to the Cape, where they embarked in French ships returning to Europe.

Contrary to the instructions of the directors, there were five Indiamen in Table Bay on the 1st of June 1773, when a gale from the north-west set in. A little after dawn, one of them—the outward bound ship *Jonge Thomas*—was driven from her anchors and cast on the beach beyond the mouth of Salt River. It was seen that the wreck could not hold together long, but for some time nothing was done to save the crew. In the course of the morning, however, a dairyman named Wolraad Woltemaade visited the scene of the disaster, and being mounted on a powerful horse, he dashed into the breakers and reached the ship's side. With two men holding to the horse's tail he returned to the shore, and this feat he repeated until he had saved fourteen of the crew. In the next venture he was swept under a breaker and was drowned. Shortly after this the wreck broke up, when one hundred and thirty-eight men lost their lives and fifty-three reached the land, making sixty-seven saved in all. The directors caused the exploit of the brave dairyman to be pictured on the stern of the next ship built for them, which they named the *Held (Hero) Woltemaade*.

On the 31st of January 1776 the Company's homeward bound ship *Nieuw Rhoon* when attempting to enter Table Bay was driven by a violent south-easter upon a reef at Robben Island, and was badly damaged. She was got off, and was brought up to the anchorage; but it was found necessary to beach her by the jetty to save her cargo.

On the 15th of October of the same year the French ship *Ceres*, homeward bound from Pondicherry, in a gale from the north-west parted her cables and went ashore near the mouth of Salt River. The ship broke up quickly, and very little cargo was saved; but no lives were lost.

On the 25th of August 1778 the English East India Company's outward bound ship *Colebrooke* when entering False Bay ran on a concealed reef, and was so much damaged that it was necessary to beach her near Cape Hangklip to save the crew. She went to pieces almost at once, and all the cargo was lost; but the crew, with the exception of two men, were saved by boats sent from ships in Simon's Bay.

In January 1778 the Company's ship *Venus* left Batavia to return to Europe. In July she put into Delagoa Bay with her rudder loose, and only eighteen men able to work. Fifty-five sailors had died of scurvy. One English and two Austrian vessels were found in Delagoa Bay, and with these intelligence of the condition of the *Venus* was sent to Ceylon, whence it reached the Cape. In June 1779 a packet from Table Bay found the ship with forty-five living men on board, out of the original crew of one hundred and twenty-nine. A fresh crew and provisions were sent from the Cape, the damages were repaired, and the *Venus* resumed her voyage.

On the 5th of January 1780 the Company's homeward bound ship *Mentor* went down in a great gale off the southern coast. On the 9th two of her crew were picked up by the French ship *Salomon*. They had been drifting about on a fragment of the poop, and were the only ones saved.

On the 24th of September 1782 the French corvette *Victor*, having anchored in the night too close to the breakers, was driven ashore in a north-west gale beyond the mouth of Salt River, and went to pieces. Nearly all of her crew were saved.

On the 11th of July 1783 the Danish outward bound ship *Nicobar* ran ashore on the coast a little to the eastward of Cape Agulhas, and became a total wreck. Only eleven of her crew managed to get to land.

On the 27th of January 1784 the French sixty-four gun ship *Sevère* when trying to beat up to the anchorage

in Table Bay missed stays, and ran ashore on the Blueberg beach. She became a total wreck, but her crew got away safely in boats.

On the 7th of the following July the Company's ship *Hoop* ran ashore in the night close to Mouille Point, and became a wreck. Only one of her crew was lost.

More noteworthy than any of the above was the wreck of the English East India Company's ship *Grosvenor*, which was lost on the coast a few miles north of the Umzimvubu river in August 1782. This wreck has been a favourite theme for poets and romance writers, and to the present day speculations are frequently put forward as to the fate of the lady passengers. The *Grosvenor* sailed from Trincomalee on the 13th of June, having on board one hundred and fifty souls, passengers and crew all told. Among the passengers were several officers of position in the English East India Company's service, viz. Colonel James, Mr. Hosea, Captain Adair, and Messrs. Williams, Taylor, and Newman. Colonel James was accompanied by his wife, and Mr. Hosea by his wife and three children. The other passengers were Captain Talbot, of the royal navy, Colonel D'Espinette and Captain Olivier, French exchanged prisoners of war, Mrs. Logie, wife of the chief officer of the ship, and several children proceeding to England to be educated.

The ship was believed to be still a day's sail from the African coast, when at half past four in the morning of the 4th of August some seamen aloft saw land ahead. The fact was reported to the officer of the watch, who would not believe it. Presently the land was seen from the deck, though it was not yet daylight, and as the officer was still incredulous, a quartermaster ran below to the captain's cabin and begged him to hasten up. Captain Coxon instantly gave orders to wear ship, but before that could be done the *Grosvenor* was in the breakers and struck heavily.

A raft was made, but it broke adrift and was dashed

to pieces. Two lascars then swam ashore with a lead line, by which means a hawser was stretched between the ship and the beach, and a number of men went safely along it. The wreck soon broke up, when a portion of the poop and quarter, upon which the passengers had crowded, drifted ashore. One hundred and thirty-six persons now found themselves on dry land, the remaining fourteen were drowned. Some provisions were washed on the beach, and having collected these, on the third day after the disaster the whole party, except two men who preferred to remain where they were, set out in hope of being able to make their way to the Cape. They had sufficient food to last eight or nine days, and were provided with five or six cutlasses. A great many natives made their appearance, but instead of helping the distressed people, they robbed the lady passengers of their trinkets, and carried off all the iron they could find.

Shortly after setting out, a quarrel arose with some natives, but it ended in a skirmish without a serious battle. Then the crew broke up into several parties, and the sturdiest pushed on ahead. One hundred and sixteen days after the wreck, six sailors, who had suffered very severe hardships from want of food, reached a farm on the Zwartkops river, where they were treated with the utmost kindness. Five of them were sent on to Swellendam, where they arrived on the 4th of December. By order of the governor and council, a relief expedition, consisting of one hundred Europeans and three hundred Hottentots, was at once organised, with which two of the sailors returned to the Kaffir country. Before reaching the Fish river, three more sailors and a lascar were met. Captain Hillegard Mulder, who was in command of the expedition, left the waggons at the Kei, and pushed on with a party on horseback, but was obliged to turn back by the hostile attitude of the Tembus. In the Kaffir country six lascars and two black women who had been servants to the lady passengers were found. These stated

that to the best of their belief all the other shipwrecked people had either been killed by the Kaffirs or had perished of want and fatigue.

They had been eye-witnesses of the death of many, but as they had left parties still struggling on behind, the fate of the others is involved in mystery. Two white men lived for some years near the scene of the wreck, but whether they were the same who remained behind, or others who turned back, is doubtful. One of them formed a connection with a native woman, and left a son who in 1824 was in the service of Mr. F. G. Farewell at Natal. This man informed Mr. Farewell that two women also lived near the wreck for a time, but that upon an invasion by a tribe from the westward, they hid in a forest, and were there starved to death. Who these women were cannot be ascertained, but it is nearly certain that they were not wrecked in the *Grosvenor*.

The lady passengers—Mrs. James, Mrs. Hosea, and Mrs. Logie—were with their husbands and Captain Coxon when they were last seen by those who were rescued. Three girls—Misses Dennis, Wilmot, and Hosea—were also with this party. No trace of any of these has ever since been found, and there can hardly be a doubt that they all perished of hunger and fatigue.

Several years later a report reached the colony that some white women were certainly living in the Kaffir country, and a party of thirteen burghers—Jan and Philip Holtshausen, Hillegard, Cornelis, and Ignatius Mulder, Tjaart and Pieter van der Walt, Lodewyk Prins, Pieter Lombard, Stephanus Scheepers, Hendrik van Rensburg, Jacob Joubert, and Jacob van Reenen—resolved to go in search of them. They elected Jan Holtshausen to be leader of the expedition, and Jacob van Reenen to be journalist. In August 1790 they set out. At the Kat river they first met Xosas, and at the Keiskama they found the chief Ndlambe at war with the Gunukwebe clan. A little farther on they turned more to the north-

ward, and crossed the eastern extremity of the Amatola mountains, the Bontebok flats, and the Kei and Tsomo rivers. From the Amatola they found the country without other inhabitants than Bushmen until five hours' journey beyond the Tsomo they reached the first Tembu kraals. They then crossed the Bashee and the Umtata, and on a branch of the Umgazi river came to a kraal occupied by about four hundred people of mixed race, descendants of Europeans, Bantu, and East Indians.

Among these people were three old white women, who could not speak any European language, and did not know to what nation they belonged, though from one of them being called Bessie it was concluded that they were English. These women were wives of a petty chief, and had children and numerous grandchildren. It is almost certain that they belonged to the same shipwrecked party as the three Englishmen with whom the colonists under Hubner's leadership had dealings in 1736.

Holtshausen's party proceeded to the coast beyond the mouth of the Umzimvubu, where some remains of the *Grosvenor* were seen, but no trace of any of her crew or passengers was found. Holtshausen had the misfortune to fall into a native game trap, and died from the effects of a wound received from a pointed stake in it. Another of the party—Lodewyk Prins—was killed by an elephant. On the 29th of December the expedition repassed the Keiskama on its return to the colony.

No new congregations had been formed since the middle of the century, but the five churches then in existence were kept supplied with chaplains by the East India Company. At the beginning of this period Mr. Van der Spuy was alone at the Cape, Stellenbosch was vacant, Mr. Van Echten was at Drakenstein, Mr. Meyring at Waveren, and Mr. Voltelen at Zwartland.

In October 1752 the reverend Hendrik Kroonburg arrived from Europe and was stationed at Capetown. In January 1753 Mr. Van der Spuy was transferred to

Drakenstein, at his own request, when Mr. Van Echten returned to Holland. The Cape church was then again under the care of a single clergyman until September 1754, when the reverend Gerhardus Croeser arrived from Europe, and was inducted as second pastor. In November 1755, under an arrangement between themselves of which the government approved, Mr. Croeser went to Zwartland and Mr. Voltelen came to Capetown. In April 1758 Mr. Voltelen died, but his place was filled in November of the same year by the reverend Johannes Frederik Bode, who was sent out by the directors.

In March 1760 the reverend Johannes Petrus Serrurier arrived from Europe. The council of policy decided to keep him at Capetown and to send Mr. Bode to Waveren. But Mr. Bode declined to remove, on the ground that having been inducted as clergyman of Capetown he could not be required to fill a position of less dignity, without being found guilty of misconduct. Some members of the council were also of this view, but the majority suspended him from duty and stopped his pay until the opinion of the directors could be ascertained. The directors decided that his contention was just, and they issued instructions—which were received here in April 1761—that Mr. Serrurier should be inducted as third clergyman of Capetown, that Mr. Bode should resume duty as second clergyman and be paid his arrear salary, and that upon the first death or removal of either Mr. Kroonenburg, Mr. Bode, or Mr. Serrurier, no successor should be appointed. In December 1778 Mr. Kroonenburg retired on pension, owing to age and ill health, and he died in the following June. The directors now annulled their former decision, and sent out the reverend Christiaan Fleck, who was inducted as third clergyman of Capetown in January 1781. In July 1784 the number was again reduced to two by the death of Mr. Bode.

In September 1753 the reverend Johannes Appeldoorn arrived from Europe, and in the following month was



stationed at Stellenbosch. In September 1772 he died, and the congregation was then left without other ministrations than those of a consulent until April 1777, when the reverend Philip Kuys arrived from Holland, and was appointed resident minister of Stellenbosch. Mr. Kuys died in February 1785, when the church was again for a time attended to by the clergyman of Drakenstein acting as consulent.

The church at Drakenstein was an arena of strife during the later years of this period. The election in January 1772 of Thomas Arnoldus Theron as an elder was objected to by a considerable section of the congregation, on the ground that he was not properly qualified, and the controversy soon became violent. Four of the opposite faction were excommunicated by the consistory. By 1775 the strife was so great that many persons refused to attend the services, and the disaffected party sent Messrs. Pieter Marais and Jan Rocs to Holland, to bring their case before the directors and the classis of Amsterdam. Mr. Marais died soon after reaching the Netherlands. The directors declined to interfere in the matter, but the classis investigated the dispute, and tried to conciliate the opposing factions. The dissension in the congregation was continued, however, until March 1781, when Mr. Van der Spuy was obliged to retire on pension, owing to age and bodily infirmities. In April 1784 he was succeeded by the reverend Robert Nicolaas Aling, who was sent out by the directors.

In May 1757 Mr. Meyring, clergyman of Waveren, died. In January 1758 the commissioner Johan Gideon Looten, who was then at the Cape, removed the reverend Remmerus Harders from a ship of which he was chaplain, and sent him to minister to the congregation at Waveren until the place should be filled by an appointment from the Netherlands. In 1761 the directors issued instructions that Mr. Harders was to remain there permanently. In June 1774 his health broke down, and he was

obliged to retire on a pension. The post remained vacant until April 1777, when the reverend Johannes Abraham Kuys arrived from the Netherlands, and was stationed at Waveren.

In May 1770 Mr. Croeser died at Zwartland. The three clergymen of Capetown then in turn held monthly services at that place until April 1774, when the reverend Daniel Goldbach arrived from the Netherlands, and was stationed there. Mr. Goldbach died in March 1783, and the church at Zwartland was then again left to the ministrations of a consulent.

Before 1780, except in occasional instances, no other public worship than that of the Dutch reformed church was tolerated in the colony, though the Lutherans, who were numerous in Capetown, had long been striving to obtain the consent of the government to their having a resident clergyman of their own faith. On a plot of ground facing Strand street a wealthy burgher named Martin Melk erected a building to be used as a church, and on the 6th of April 1774 presented it to the congregation by a notarial deed. It is the church still in use by the Dutch Lutherans, except the tower in front, which was not added until a much later date.

In 1778 the Lutherans sent in a memorial, in which they stated that in this building services had already been conducted with the governor's permission by chaplains of Danish and Swedish ships and also by the reverend Johannes Brandes, who was on his way to Batavia. They were then forming a fund from which the clergyman's salary could be paid, and they therefore requested that their memorial, in which they applied for permission to have a pastor, might be favourably submitted to the assembly of seventeen. In the following year their request was repeated, when they stated that their church building was valued at 3,000*l.*, that their ground, organ, furniture, etc., were worth 1,932*l.* 16*s.* 8*d.*, and that they had a subscribed fund of 4,571*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.*, from the interest of which the clergyman's salary could be paid.

The directors then acceded to their request, on condition that the Company should not be called upon to meet any portion of the expense, and the Lutheran church in Amsterdam was requested to select a clergyman, with the sole reservation that he should be a Netherlander by birth. The choice fell upon the reverend Andreas Kolver, who arrived in South Africa on the 22nd of November 1780, and on the 10th of December held service here for the first time.

On the 16th of December the establishment of the new congregation was completed by the approval of the council of policy of the elders and deacons that had been nominated. These were Tobias Christiaan Ronnenkamp, Johan Frederik Wilhelm Böttiger, Johan Frederik Kirsten, and Martin Melk as elders, and Frederik Godhold Holtzappel, Johan Michiel Seyd, Charles van Cahman, and Christiaan Hendrik Schrader as deacons. Four elders were thus appointed for the first year, but it was decided that after 1781 there should be only two, who were to be nominated by the consistory, but were not to assume duty before appointment by the council of policy. There were to be four deacons in perpetuity, to be appointed by the council of policy from a double list of names submitted yearly by the consistory.

In the staff of officers in the country districts the following changes had taken place:

In August 1773 Landdrost Faber, of Stellenbosch and Drakenstein, died. The secretary of the district—Abraham Faure—acted until October, when Marthinus Adriaan Bergh was appointed landdrost. In December 1778 Mr. Bergh retired at his own request. His term of office had been marked by violent altercations with the burghers, and it had become impossible for him to hold the situation longer. He was succeeded by Olof Godlieb de Wet. In February 1782 Mr. De Wet was promoted to be master of the warehouses, and was succeeded as landdrost by Daniel van Ryneveld.

During Mr. Van Ryneveld's tenure of office the council

of policy authorised the landdrost and heemraden to divide the old churchyard into building lots, and dispose of them for the benefit of the church and district. The site of the old church was alone reserved. It was enclosed by a wall built upon the foundations, which had not been disturbed since the fire that had destroyed the building. The alienation of the cemetery was repugnant to the feelings of many of the inhabitants, who threw the blame of the transaction entirely upon the landdrost. Even after his death several years later the matter was not allowed to be forgotten, and for a couple of generations children in the village heard from their elders tales of a spectral landdrost doomed at dead of every night to bewail the desecration he had committed.

In February 1776 Landdrost Mentz, of Swellendam, retired from the service at his own request, and Sergeant Pieter Diederik Boonaker was appointed by the council to succeed him. But upon this appointment being reported to the directors, they expressed their disapproval of it, on the ground that a new landdrost should have been chosen from the civil—not from the military—branch of their service. Sergeant Boonaker was therefore replaced in May 1777 by Daniel van Ryneveld. In February 1782 Mr. Van Ryneveld was transferred to Stellenbosch, and Constantyn van Nuld Onkruydt succeeded as landdrost of Swellendam.

In May 1774 Mr. Kirsten, the resident at Simonstown, was promoted, and the bookkeeper Christoffel Brand was appointed to succeed him.

The outposts at Saldanha Bay, Groenekloof, Klappmuts, Zonderend, and Buffeljagts River were still maintained. In July 1777 another was formed near Zwart River, in Outeniqualand, close to the site of the present village of George. A few soldiers were sent there, but the object was not so much to establish a military station as to assist a party of woodcutters who were employed in felling and preparing timber for the Company's use.

## CHAPTER XX.

CORNELIS JACOB VAN DE GRAAFF, GOVERNOR, INSTALLED  
 14<sup>TH</sup> FEBRUARY 1785, LEFT SOUTH AFRICA 24<sup>TH</sup> JUNE 1791.  
 JOHAN ISAAC RHENIUS, SECUNDE, ACTING GOVERNOR, 24<sup>TH</sup>  
 JUNE 1791 TO 3<sup>RD</sup> JULY 1792.

COLONEL VAN DE GRAAFF had the reputation of being an able military officer, but his qualifications were small for such a situation as that of governor of the Cape Colony. He was arbitrary and headstrong in disposition, violent in temper, and careless in business matters. In addition to the salary and perquisites of his predecessor, which amounted to about 3,650*l.*, he had a special allowance of 1,500*l.* a year. He had the official residence in the castle, the house in the gardens, and the country seat at Newlands. He was provided with carriages and horses, and had the produce of the farm Visser's Hok, besides the established table allowances.

On the 10th of May 1785 the memorials sent from the Cape five months previously were laid by the delegates of the burghers before the states-general of the Netherlands. By that body they were referred for report to the chamber of Zeeland. An informal conference of the leading members of the legislature and of the directorate of the Company was held, the result of which was that on the 28th of July the assembly of seventeen, while complaining that the Cape colonists gave more trouble than the inhabitants of all the Indian islands put together, announced that several changes would be made in the system of government.

The members of the council of policy were all to rank

as senior merchants, and the secretary, who was not to have a voice in the proceedings, was to rank as a merchant. The high court of justice was to be presided over by the secunde, and was to consist besides of six servants of the Company and six burghers, all of whom were to rank as merchants. Its secretary was to rank as a junior merchant. Only members of the Dutch reformed church could sit in either the council of policy or the high court of justice; but Lutherans could be appointed to any other offices.

The Company would purchase and send to Europe all grain, wine, and other produce of the colony that could not be sold to foreigners, after the wants of the Cape and India had been supplied. The prices were to be fixed yearly by a board to be appointed by the council of policy from the members of the high court of justice, and to consist of three servants of the Company and three burghers. This board was also to propose to the council of policy the method and amount of taxation; it was to have the care of roads, bridges, and other colonial works; it was to let the public mills, to employ watchmen for the town, and to perform various municipal duties.

The council was directed to report upon the likelihood of obtaining produce at various bays, pending the receipt of which report no decision would be arrived at concerning a coasting trade.

The request of the frontier colonists to have a landdrost and a clergyman stationed among them was to be complied with, and a new district was to be created, with a board of heemraden similar to those of Stellenbosch and Swellendam.

All the governing bodies in the Netherlands were agreed that the system thus introduced should have a fair trial, so no further redress was to be had from the states-general.

In the mean time, however, the colonists resolved to send another deputation to Holland to press their charges,

and on the 8th of March 1785 the committee elected in the preceding December, to which Hillegard Mulder was now added, appointed Marthinus Adriaan Bergh, Jan Roos, Jan Hendrik Redelinghuys, and Jan Augustus Bresler, delegates to proceed to the Netherlands and continue to urge their complaints before the states-general. About 1,800*l.* was contributed by the burghers to defray the expense of this mission. But the delegates hardly reached Europe before they began to quarrel among themselves. In December they brought their dissensions before the public in letters published in the leading Dutch newspapers, and from that moment their influence was at an end.

Messrs. Roos, Redelinghuys, and Bresler then took upon themselves to dismiss their associate, Mr. Bergh. On the 4th of April 1786 they appeared before the states-general with a petition for leave to present a statement of grievances, but were very coolly received, and could not obtain what they desired. Their conduct gave much dissatisfaction to the colonists, and when they requested that further sums of money might be forwarded, the committee at the Cape declined to supply them with more. A series of very bitter letters passed between the delegates and the members of the committee, and as this correspondence was published, not only was no good effected by the mission, but positive harm was done to the cause of the colonists by its being brought into disrepute.

The change in the high court of justice was made in March 1786. One of the three councillors under the old system retired at that time, and out of eight names presented by the court, the council selected Christiaan George Maasdrorp, Gerrit Hendrik Meyer, Jan Coenraad Gie, and Hendrik Justinus de Wet to make the number of burghers up to six.

The board that was to fix prices and perform so many other duties was established at the same time. It con-

sisted of six members of the high court of justice, three of whom—Gerrit Hendrik Kruywagen, Salomon van Echten, and Jan Marthinus Horak—were servants of the Company; the other three—Jan Smuts, Andries van Sittert, and Christiaan George Maasdorp—being burghers. This board was a failure from the very first. The officials and burghers could not work amicably together, and everything proposed by one party was objected to by the other. As for fixing prices of produce, it had no opportunity of making trial of its ability. The harvest of 1785 entirely failed, owing to protracted drought, and when in 1786 the ship *Negotie* arrived from Amsterdam to take in a cargo of wheat and wine, there was not a muid of grain to be had, and the government was obliged to send her to Batavia in ballast. The directors were thus disappointed, and the plan was never again brought forward.

In its stead, in October 1789 the directors gave the colonists permission to export wine to Holland, provided it was sent in their vessels, and *l. 13s. 4d.*—shortly afterwards increased to *2l. 13s. 4d.*—a legger freight paid upon it.

For its own purposes the Company from this time forward did not purchase more than seven hundred and sixty leggers yearly, of which about half was needed for its establishments in the colony and the other half for India and the fleets.

There being a large profit to be made on wheat, the Company endeavoured to procure as much of that article as possible for the European market. In 1786 it was necessary to import flour from Europe and rice from Java to ward off actual famine; but in that year the long drought broke up, and in 1787 and later there was a considerable surplus of grain in the colony.

To encourage its growth in the district of Swellendam, a magazine was built at Mossel Bay, where the grain was received, so that the long overland journey to the Cape was saved to the farmers. The first cargo shipped at



that port was in July 1788, when the Company's yacht *Johanna Jacoba* was laden with wheat for Batavia. It was purchased by the officer stationed there at 9s. 7½*d.* a muid, after the tithe was deducted, which was the price given at the Cape. But after 1789 the price at Mossel Bay was reduced to 7s. 2½*d.* a muid, after the deduction of the tithe, the difference between that and the price given at the Cape being set against the cost of sending vessels specially for it.

In the same year a magazine for storage of timber was opened at Plettenberg's Bay, the post at Zwart River having been broken up and the men removed to the forest nearest the bay. Mr. Jan Frederik Meding was placed in charge of the magazine. The first cargo of timber was shipped in August 1788, when the Cape packet *Meermin*, of which the chevalier François Duminy was master, was laden with waggon wood and material for gun carriages.

Nothing except timber, however, was taken from this port. Some farmers in its neighbourhood offered to supply aloes at 2½*d.* to 3*d.* a pound, to be delivered at the bay, but as the Company's storekeeper in Capetown received as a perquisite 2*d.* a pound commission on all that was brought for sale to the magazine under his charge, he found means to prevent any being purchased elsewhere for exportation.

In 1785 an event took place which caused the governor no little anxiety. On the 7th of May of that year the English Indiaman *Pigot*, homeward bound from Madras, put into St. Francis Bay in distress. She landed about one hundred sick people, and from the farmers in the neighbourhood abundance of provisions was purchased for their use as well as for consumption by those who remained on board. The ship lay at anchor there until the 30th of the month, during which time she was repaired and to a considerable extent revictualled.

On board this ship were several military officers re-

turning home, one of whom, Colonel Dalrymple, had his family with him. These officers hired waggons from the farmers, with which they travelled overland to Capetown, and they were believed to have made minute observations of the condition of the country along the route. The French, when they came here as friends, were known to have prepared military maps, and now the English were held to possess the same information. The matter was discussed by the council, and it was regarded as of such importance that it was resolved to land a hundred soldiers from the first ships that called with troops on board and to station detachments at Mossel Bay, Plettenberg's Bay, St. Francis Bay, and Algoa Bay.

But this resolution could not be carried out, because no soldiers were obtainable for the purpose, and all that could be done was to set up stone beacons, with the arms of the Netherlands and the Company's monogram on them, at important points where none were standing before. One of these beacons, originally placed at the outstation close to the site of the present village of George, is now in the museum at Capetown.

When Governor Van de Graaff arrived in South Africa, the construction of the Amsterdam battery was so far advanced that he was unable to alter the design, though he considered it faulty. He therefore completed it, and in February 1787 the guns were mounted. On the 23rd of that month the first trial of the armament was made, when one of the cannon burst, and two men were killed and five badly wounded. The governor, who was standing close by, was also slightly hurt.

A battery was then built in Rogge Bay, and after its completion some additions to the old battery Chavonnes were commenced. The remaining forts in Table Valley were repaired. The earthen embankment thrown up by the French troops in 1781 between Fort Knokke and the Devil's peak—commonly called the French lines—was strengthened, as was also the line between the castle and Fort Knokke.

A great deal of attention was devoted to practice with red hot cannon balls, and it was believed that the artillerymen at the Cape were as proficient in their use as any in the world. The system of allowing soldiers to take temporary employment with farmers was continued, but this custom did not extend to engineers or gunners. It was very severely commented upon by critics such as Van Braam Houckgeest, who asserted that the officers regarded the money saved as their perquisites, and did not credit the Company with it. This, however, was almost certainly a gross exaggeration.

In the summer of 1787-8 the regiment of Wurtemberg—a body of mercenary troops two thousand strong—arrived at the Cape to relieve the Swiss regiment of Meuron, which proceeded to Colombo. The garrison included also the national battalion, as it was called, under Colonel Gordon, about six hundred strong, and four hundred engineers and artillerymen.

As landdrost of the new district, to the formation of which the directors had consented, on the 13th of December 1785 the council of policy appointed an old burgher resident in the village of Stellenbosch, named Maurits Herman Otto Woeke, who was believed to be a man of sound judgment. He was directed to make a tour along the border, to select a site for his court, and to report fully to the council. The district at the same time had the name Graaff-Reinet given to it, in honour of the governor and his lady.

The boundaries were decided upon, but were not made known until the 19th of July 1786, when a placaat was published concerning them. They were: on the west the Little Lion river from its source in the Nieuwveld mountains to its junction with the Gamka, the Gamka to the Zwartebergen, the northern base of the Zwartebergen to the source of the Brak river, the Brak to its junction with the Gamtoos, and the Gamtoos to the sea; on the east the Tarka river, the Baviaans' river to its

junction with the Fish, and the Fish river to the sea. On the north the boundary was undefined, the only fixed point being the beacon placed by Governor Van Plettenberg on the bank of the Zeekoe river.

As the best site for the public offices, Mr. Woeke selected two farms near the source of the Sunday river, then in occupation of a burgher named Dirk Coetsee, who agreed to dispose of the buildings on them for about 530*l.*, and to accept land of equal extent elsewhere. This arrangement was ratified by the council. In July 1786 a board of six heemraden was appointed, two of whom were thereafter to retire every year, and to be succeeded by others selected by the council of policy from a double nomination. The first members were Adriaan van Jaarsveld, David de Villiers, David Schalk van der Merwe, Andries Pieter Furger, Josua Joubert, and Jacobus Gustaf Triegard. In October the landdrost opened his court for the first time.

Shortly afterwards a schoolmaster, who was also to act as a comforter of the sick until the arrival of a clergyman, was sent to the new drostdy. In September 1791 the directors engaged the reverend Jan Hendrik von Manger to minister to the people of Graaff-Reinet, but when he arrived in South Africa no instructions had been received concerning him, and the council therefore resolved to keep him in Capetown until despatches should come to hand. Thus he did not commence his duties until October 1792. Steps were taken, however, in anticipation to establish a consistory at Graaff-Reinet, and on the 13th of March 1792 the council approved of Marthinus Wessel Pretorius and Jan Jacobsen as elders, and selected from a double nomination Andries Pretorius and Barend Burger as deacons of the newly-formed congregation.

The district was of such immense extent that many of the parishioners could only attend the services at very long intervals, some for instance needing three weeks to

a month for the journey to and from their homes. Mr. Von Manger considered he was fulfilling his duty if he conducted public worship regularly at the drostdy, and put himself to no trouble in travelling about. In consequence he never acquired much influence with the frontier farmers.

In the new district, cattle breeding was almost the only pursuit of the Europeans. Until building sites were given out in the village of Graaff-Reinet, there was not a rood of ground held under any other tenure than that of yearly lease. Once in a twelvemonth each family who could do so sent a waggon laden with butter and soap to Capetown to procure household requisites; but the people, without feeling it a hardship, managed to live with very few imported articles. From long warfare with savages, their habits of self-reliance were highly developed, and they were exceedingly averse to restraint.

It was intended by the government that the district should be nearly self-supporting, that is, it was to cost the Company very little for defence or maintenance. Funds for local purposes were to be raised, as in Stellenbosch and Swellendam, by a yearly tax of one shilling and four pence for every hundred sheep and one penny for every head of horned cattle, besides special rates when necessary.

The struggle for existence carried on with the Bushmen in the new district was constant, and on neither side was any quarter shown or indeed possible. The reports of murders of Europeans and farm servants, of depredations and reprisals, are wearisome to read, and it would need volumes to repeat them all, without any clearer idea being given of the nature of the warfare than can be conveyed in a few sentences. No European dared venture an hour's ride from his homestead without arms in his hand. From four farms adjoining the drostdy the cattle were swept off within a few weeks after the arrival of the landdrost. The Hottentots suffered even more

severely than the Europeans, whole clans being ruined, and numerous individuals being tortured to death by Bushmen. On the other hand, commandos of Europeans and Hottentots were almost constantly engaged hunting the marauders in the mountains, and shooting down all who would not surrender. The government provided ammunition, but nothing else. Captive women and children were distributed among the farmers in the vain hope of compelling them to live by industry, but they invariably made their escape after a short detention, and returned to their predatory habits. This was the normal condition of things throughout the district of Graaff-Reinet and along the northern border of the district of Stelienbosch.

Mr. Woeke was instructed by the council to visit the principal Xosa chiefs in the neighbourhood of the colony, to assure them of the friendship of the government, and to make them presents of brass wire, beads, and other articles of small value which they were known to prize highly. He was ordered to take great care that the Fish river was observed as the boundary, and that no Europeans crossed it or molested the Xosas in any way. The bartering of cattle by the colonists was strictly forbidden.

The condition of the Xosa tribe at this time was such that it was difficult to make any satisfactory arrangements. Since the first Kaffir war, the chief Rarabe had been killed in an engagement with a Tembu army. His great son, Umlawu by name, died before him, and left as heir a lad of tender years. Upon Rarabe's death, his councillors selected his son Ndlambe as regent during the minority of Gaika, heir of Umlawu. This was in accordance with custom, and there was no other person who could be appointed; but the clans that had crossed the Kei before Rarabe maintained that with his death their vassalage ceased, except to Gcaleka, the paramount head of the whole tribe. There was thus a great deal of jealousy and discontent among the chiefs.

Mr. Woeke had a meeting with Ndlambe, who expressed himself desirous of living in peace and friendship with the white people, and presents were exchanged between them. The landdrost reported, however, that a rupture between the two races could easily take place. There were Xosas in service with farmers all over the country, even to within two days' journey of the village of Swellendam, and the colonists were unwilling to part with them. A single case of ill treatment might at any moment bring on hostilities. Not a few lawless individuals also were engaged in the forbidden cattle trade, and as they were not accustomed to restraint, mere placats had no terrors for them. With fifty or sixty soldiers stationed in posts along the Fish river, it would be possible to maintain order; but without physical force to support the law, the irregularities complained of would continue.

The condition of suspense described by the landdrost lasted until March 1789, when a large body of Xosas, headed by the chiefs Langa, Cungwa, and others of less note, suddenly crossed the Fish river, and spread over the Zuurveld. The farmers fled before the invaders, but were unable to save the whole of their cattle. The landdrost immediately instructed the burgher captain Daniel Willem Kuhne to take measures for the defence of the district, and despatched an express to Capetown with a report that war was unavoidable and a request that the council would send a hundred soldiers to his assistance.

Mr. Woeke's letter reached Capetown on the 20th of March. The council at once met, and came to a decision that war with the Xosas must be avoided at any price. The landdrost was censured for giving instructions to call out a commando for defence, as a collision might be the result. The secretary of the district—Jan Jacob Wagener by name—had tendered his resignation some time previously, and the council now appointed a clerk named Honoratus Christiaan Maynier to succeed him. Both of these men were deeply read in the works of the French

philosophers of the day, and, in defiance of what observation should have taught them, professed to believe that simplicity and innocence are virtues of barbarian life. Mr. Maynier further was especially careful to keep in the good graces of his superiors for the time being, so that he could be depended upon to carry out the views of the government. The council appointed the landdrost with the new and retiring secretaries a commission to arrange matters with the Xosas who had overrun the Zuurveld, and they were plainly instructed to buy the enemy off with goods supplied to them for the purpose.

In the mean time Captain Kuhne had raised a commando, which was no sooner in the field than the invaders, without waiting to be attacked, fell back to the Fish river, which they found in flood, so that they were unable to cross. They were lying on the bank, and the burgher commando was approaching, when the instructions of the council were received by the landdrost. He put on record his opinion that a mistake fatal to the future tranquillity of the country was being made, and forwarded to the council a letter to that effect; but he carried out his orders with as much zeal as if they had been in accordance with his own views. The commando was at once discharged. Not a shot had been fired in retaliation for the losses sustained by the invasion, nor a single head of cattle recovered, so the burghers were indignant and almost mutinous when they were required to disband.

As soon as the new secretary Maynier arrived at Graaff-Reinet with the goods provided by the government, the members of the commission made ready to visit the Zuurveld and seek an interview with the chiefs. On the 7th of June they left the village, accompanied by the heemraden Josua Joubert and Jacobus Gustaf Triegard, the militia captains Jan du Plessis and Andries Burger, the militia adjutant Barend Lindeque, and the burghers Pieter Lindeque and Roelof Kampher, all men well known



for their friendly disposition towards the Xosas in former years. Upon arriving at the Kowie river, they found the stream swollen by heavy rains which had recently fallen, so they encamped on its bank, and sent some Hottentots to request the Gunukwebe chief Tshaka to pay them a visit.

On the 21st of June the Hottentots returned with several petty Xosa captains, who informed the landdrost that Tshaka and his son Cungwa were unable to travel, on account of sickness in their families; but they had been sent to hear what the white men had to say. With this characteristic Bantu address, they presented two oxen in the name of the chief Tshaka. The landdrost asked why they had invaded the colony. They replied that they did not regard their action as an invasion, because they considered the country between the Fish river and the Kowie their own, as they had purchased it some years before from a Hottentot named Ruiter.

The landdrost asked them if they were not aware that after the war of 1781 the Amambala chief Langa, the Imidange chief Mahuta, the Amantinde chief Cika, and the Amagwali chief Koba—the same people who were now with the Gunukwebe clan in the colony—had consented to the Fish river being the boundary between the two races. They did not deny that it was so, but said they were willing to pay as much tribute to the government for the district between the Fish river and the Kowie as the farmers had paid rent. And in language that bore but one meaning they declined to give up possession of it. The commission sent large presents of copper plates, brass wire, knives, etc., to the chiefs, but could not induce them to retire to their own country.

Finding their efforts useless, Messrs. Woeke and Maynier with the burghers returned to Graaff-Reinet, leaving Mr. Wagener to arrange matters as best he could. Just at this time a rumour reached the Xosas that the farmers

away towards Swellendam were going into lager, and remembering the prelude to Van Jaarsveld's campaign of 1781, they were seized with a sudden panic. Not only did they retire in haste beyond the Fish river, but many of them fled far beyond it, and concealed themselves in the thickets of the Amatola mountains.

This was the condition of things when Mr. Wagener, attended by an escort of twelve armed men, on the 18th of July met the chief Cungwa and a party of Xosas at a ford of the Fish river. Cungwa pressed his claim to the ground as far as the Kowie, basing his pretensions upon its purchase from the Hottentot captain Ruiter, who was little better than a freebooter, and whose only right to sell was derived from a brief occupation. Mr. Wagener declined to admit that Ruiter's sale was binding upon the Europeans, but to remove the grievance, he offered to refund to the Xosas as much as they had paid for the district. Cungwa would not agree to this proposal. Mr. Wagener then consented to the return of the Xosas and to their occupation of the land between the Fish river and the Kowie during the pleasure of the government, without prejudice to the ownership of the Europeans. With his report to this effect to the board of landdrost and heemraden of Graaff-Reinet on the 3rd of August 1789, ends the official account of the second Kaffir invasion of the colony and of its disastrous consequences to the farmers.

In documents issued by the government the arrangement made by Mr. Wagener was henceforth termed a restoration of peace and quietness; but the burghers of Graaff-Reinet chose to call it by a very different name. Almost any other people in the world would have abandoned a district exposed to such ruinous losses as those sustained by the hardy and persevering frontier colonists at this period. But they were determined to hold their own. In the neighbourhood of the Xosas they guarded their herds with arms in their hands, while along the

great mountain range they were continually struggling with the Bushmen.

The wild, free, healthy life which they led had many charms for people of adventurous disposition, and several travellers contrasted it favourably with the dull routine of the farmers' existence in European countries. Comfortable and well-furnished houses were not to be found on the frontier, for no one cared to build or to buy what might be destroyed the next day; but there was no lack of food or of other first necessaries of life.

The burghers were constantly complaining that they received from the Company nothing in return for the rents which they paid and the tithes of such produce as they accounted for. They had another grievance in the paper money. The butchers at the Cape were in the habit of sending out agents to purchase slaughter cattle, and these had always given in payment notes of hand of their employers. The farmers who now took these notes to Capetown received only paper money, which was by law a legal tender. In the interior the paper was almost worthless, for, in addition to its not being redeemable at pleasure, so many forged notes were in existence that people were afraid of it.

After 1789 there was very little respect paid to the government authorities in the district of Graaff-Reinet. Mr. Woeke became addicted to drunkenness, and allowed a violent temper to become his master. On several occasions he poured torrents of abuse upon the heemraden and militia officers, which they were not slow to resent. He and the secretary Maynier were also continually quarrelling, and the latter, being a favourite with the government, did not scruple to irritate his superior officer. The condition of the district was thus very little removed from anarchy.

In the district of Swellendam matters were almost as bad. Many of the farmers had fallen in arrear with their land rents, which, in fact, some of them took little trouble

to pay, though the government was willing to receive cattle instead of money. The landdrost Onkruydt, after getting the district accounts into inextricable confusion and allowing the public buildings to fall into ruin, resigned and returned to the Netherlands, when the secretary of Stellenbosch and Drakenstein—Anthony Alexander Faure—was appointed to succeed him, 21st of April 1789. Mr. Faure did his utmost to restore order in his office, but was unable to do so. The people of this district were, however, comparatively free from robberies by Bushmen and Xosas, and were therefore in more comfortable circumstances than their friends on the border.

The district of Stellenbosch was more populous than either of the others. Along its northern border, warfare with Bushmen was constant, and the colonists were in the same condition as those of Graaff-Reinet. But in the long-settled parts of the district the people were living in comfort and ease. Many of the substantial dwelling houses erected before and during this period remained until our own times, as did also the oaks and other trees with which the homesteads were beautified. The life led by the owners of the largest of these establishments was that of country gentlemen all over the civilised world, a healthy, enjoyable, useful life. The rough labour of the farms was performed by African slaves under direction of European overseers; the mechanical work, such as that of the carpenter, mason, and cooper, was chiefly executed by natives of the Indian islands, either free or slave. In August 1785, upon the death of Mr. Van Ryneveld, Hendrik Lodewyk Bletterman was appointed landdrost of the district.

Capetown at this period was a very different place from what it had been in earlier times. With the arrival of the French troops in 1781 an expensive fashion of living had set in, and every one was now striving to become possessed of a handsome house filled with costly furniture and a retinue of useless slaves. All kinds of

European wares were introduced in Danish ships, and were sold at enormous profits. House property, slaves, and horses had within sixteen years increased in price from fifty to a hundred per cent. The directors at Amsterdam became alarmed when they ascertained what large amounts were due in Holland for house furniture alone purchased on credit, and complained that Capetown was becoming known to travellers as 'Little Paris.' Money seemed plentiful, and every one forgot that the apparent prosperity was based upon the insecure foundation of military expenditure.

The governor, Colonel Van de Graaff, lived in the most extravagant manner at the expense of the Company. The stables, which in Van Plettenberg's time contained sixty-six horses, were now provided with double that number; and carriages, from a state coach and a travelling waggon to a light two-wheeled fly, were multiplied to an unreasonable number. The governor's son, Captain Sebastiaan Willem van de Graaff, was appointed master of the stables, and was left to do almost as he pleased. This establishment was supposed to be kept up for general purposes, but was in reality maintained for the almost exclusive use of the governor's family, friends, and dependents. Everything else was in the same style, reckless waste of the Company's effects being entirely disregarded.

The public expenditure or the money paid out of the Company's chest for all purposes at the Cape now reached a sum of rather over 120,000*l.* a year.

The revenue had gone on steadily increasing from 17,274*l.* in 1781 to 28,912*l.* in 1791, the increase being due chiefly to the larger sums paid for the right to sell wines and spirits and to a different manner of collecting the tithes of grain. In former years the farmers were required to make statements as to the quantity of grain gathered by them, and upon these statements the tithes were charged. The standard of truth with regard to such returns was very low, just as it is to-day in the

matter of returns for municipal taxation. For instance, there were years when the quantity of wheat exported was considerably in excess of the quantity grown according to the census rolls. But recently a system had been introduced of collecting actual tithes either in money or in kind upon all grain passing the barrier into town, and it was found to give a much larger revenue to government, although the whole quantity consumed in the country districts became exempt from taxation. The total revenue received from the 1st of July 1781 to the 1st of July 1791 was 221,075*l.*, or at the rate of 22,107*l.* 10*s.* yearly. It was made up of the following items:

Licenses to sell wines and spirits, sold yearly by public auction, and the export duty on sales of wines and spirits to foreigners, also farmed out . . . . .	£105,227
<i>l.</i> 16 <i>s.</i> each on ordinary cattle farms . . . . .	42,784
<i>l.</i> 12 <i>s.</i> on each legger of wine brought to town . . . . .	26,255
Transfer dues on sales of land, at 10 per cent on the purchase amount when the property had been held for less than 3 years, 5 per cent when it had been held from 3 to 10 years, and 2½ per cent when it had been held over 10 years; also since July 1790 2½ per cent on sales of improvements on leaseholds . . . . .	21,835
Stamps . . . . .	12,521
Tithes of grain . . . . .	9,519
Rent of <i>l.</i> 16 <i>s.</i> each on cattle farms held in connection with freeholds under Van Imhoff's tenure . . . . .	1,814
Freight and insurance from Mossel Bay . . . . .	855
Rent of garden plots at 2 <i>s.</i> a morgen . . . . .	265
Total revenue during ten years . . . . .	£221,075

The profits on the sale of goods out of the Company's stores were on an average about 6.200*l.* There was thus a deficiency to be made good of nearly 92,000*l.* a year, and the Company was at this time almost hopelessly insolvent. Its debt in 1785 was nearly seven million pounds sterling, and the states provincial of Holland and Zeeland were obliged to come to its rescue, or it would have sunk under the burden. These provinces became security for

heavy loans, besides raising by a special tax a sum of about two and a half millions sterling, which money was lent upon low interest to the Company, in order that it might have a chance of recovering itself. Its condition was commonly attributed to losses during the war with England, but there were many men in the Netherlands as well as in the Indies who knew that the corruption of its own officers had quite as much to do with its decline.

From sheer inability to raise more money, in 1790 the Company was obliged to reduce its expenditure greatly. On the 10th of October of that year the directors issued orders that the regiment of Wurtemberg was to be sent to Java immediately, and that all work upon fortifications was to be stopped. They admitted that the remaining troops were insufficient for the defence of the Cape in the event of war, but they were helpless in the matter. A few days later they gave instructions that the military outposts in the country districts should be abandoned and the stations be sold, that the country seat used by the governor at Newlands should be sold, that their slaves should be reduced in number to four hundred and fifty, that all the mechanics and sailors who could be spared should be sent to Batavia, and that the horses and vehicles of all kinds in their stables should at once be disposed of and the proceeds be paid into the treasury.

The governor had never given them satisfaction. They complained that he kept them in ignorance of everything that it was important they should know, while forwarding despatches covering hundreds of pages of foolscap and containing nothing that could not be told in a few sentences. This complaint was thoroughly well founded. After the governor's departure, the council informed the directors that he had kept the whole staff of clerks in the secretary's office engaged in writing and copying these worse than useless letters. They were also greatly displeased with his extravagance, though they were still ignorant of the full cost of his administration. His quarrel-

some disposition was another objectionable feature, and his arbitrary conduct in issuing orders and incurring expense without consulting the council was strongly disapproved of.

And certainly the directors had cause to complain, for the government of the colony had never before sunk so low in the estimation of those who came in contact with it. In August 1786 Mr. Hacker had retired at his own request, and had been succeeded as *secunde* by Johan Isaac Rhenius, a member of an old South African family, but whose life had been passed chiefly in the Company's service in India. The fiscal Serrurier had died in May 1785, and in February 1789 the baron Jan Nicolaas van Lynden arrived from the Netherlands and assumed the duty. Between these officers quarrels were continuous. To the colonists the government appeared corrupt almost beyond power of expression, and the bickerings of the principal officers called forth contempt as well as hatred. During the debates in the council, violent scenes often took place. On one occasion the governor in a passion drew his sword and would have wounded the dispenser Le Sueur, if the latter had not warded off the blow with his cane. The proceedings, as recorded, contain protests and counter protests in great profusion.

Out of the council, these wretched disputes affected all classes of the community, and discord prevailed everywhere. Whole reams of paper are filled with records of petty quarrels of no interest to any one now. A single instance of the depth to which the representative of the Company descended will be sufficient as an illustration. In a sermon upon Jezebel the reverend Mr. Serrurier gave offence to the governor, who maintained that his lady was pointedly alluded to. Shortly afterwards a committee of the high court of justice was appointed to name the new streets and squares of the town, when Berg street—now St. George's—upon which the parsonage fronted, was changed to Venus street, and the signboard



was nailed above the clergyman's door. Mr. Serrurier protested, but without avail, and it was only after the governor left the colony that the old name of Berg street was restored.

The directors were desirous of dismissing the governor, but the stadtholder, with whom he was a favourite, would not consent, and at that time the stadtholder's power as governor-general of the East India Company was greater than it had ever been before, owing to the political revolution which had recently taken place in the Netherlands. The inhabitants of that country were divided into two parties, one of which was in favour of democratic government and alliance with France, the other in favour of the government of the stadtholder and alliance with England. The first of these was supreme in 1785, and in November of that year a treaty of close alliance with France was concluded. The arrest of the princess of Orange, who was a sister of the king of Prussia, on her attempting to enter the Hague in June 1787, brought into the country a Prussian army, which was welcomed by the conservative faction, and the government of the stadtholder was restored. In April 1788 a treaty of mutual defence was entered into between the government of England and the states-general, and in the same year a triple alliance was concluded between Great Britain, Prussia, and the Netherlands.

The stadtholder, as governor-general of the East India Company, would only agree to the recall of Van de Graaff under pretence of his being required at home to give information upon the colony. To this effect a despatch, written by the directors on the 14th of October 1790, arrived here on the 10th of the following February, in which the governor was instructed to leave for Europe within three months after its receipt, and to transfer the administration during his absence to the *secunde Rhenius*. The three months expired, and the governor was still in Capetown. The *secunde* and his party in the council

protested against this disobedience of the orders of the directors and the detention of a first-class Indiaman in Table Bay during the winter season; but the governor took his own time. When he was ready, on the 24th of June 1791, he issued instructions to Mr. Rhenius how to act during his absence, and embarked in the *Beverwyk*.

Colonel Van de Graaff returned to Holland, where he retained the title of governor of the Cape Colony and received his salary as such, although early in 1793 he resumed his duty in the national army. In 1794 he was promoted to the rank of major-general, and appointed director of fortifications from the Waal to the Zuiderzee, when he resigned his situation in the Company's service. The revolution a few months later deprived him of employment, on account of his adherence to the stadtholder's cause, and he retired to Germany, where he died in 1812.

The fiscal Van Lynden returned to Europe in the same ship with the governor, without leave from either the directors or the Cape council. On his arrival in the Netherlands, he stated that he dared not remain in South Africa after Van de Graaff's departure, as there would certainly be an insurrection, when his life—or his limbs at least—would be in danger. He went on board the *Beverwyk* during the night, leaving his wife at the Cape. The governor's son—Captain Sebastiaan Willem van de Graaff—was married to his daughter, and this family connection enabled him to act in a most despotic manner. On one occasion a white man was put to torture, who, to be relieved of pain, confessed himself guilty of a crime of which he was afterwards proved to be innocent, but for which he suffered punishment. In October 1789 the directors issued instructions that a duty of five per cent upon the value of all articles imported or exported, except by themselves, should be levied for the benefit of the Company; but these instructions were not carried out, be-

cause the fiscal had previously imposed the same charges for his own benefit, and continued to collect and keep the money, under the plea that it was a legitimate perquisite of his office.

Upon Mr. Van Lynden's desertion of his post, the council appointed Mr. Jacob Pieter de Nys to act as fiscal until the pleasure of the directors could be made known.

The instructions concerning the breaking up of the military posts in the interior were carried out. The horses and all the varied contents of the Company's stables in Capetown were disposed of by public auction to the highest bidder. The country seat at Newlands, which had been the favourite residence of Father Tulbagh and had been used by both the succeeding governors, was purchased by Mr. Hendrik Vos for 4,400*l*. The country seat of Rustenburg, at Rondebosch, was retained. It had been occasionally used by the secunde in Tulbagh's time, and constantly ever since; but two-thirds of the wine made from its vineyards had been claimed by the governors as a perquisite, the remaining third being left to the secunde. From its extensive gardens, cultivated by the Company's slaves, both the governor and the secunde had drawn all the vegetables needed in their establishments, after which whatever was left was sent to the hospital. The estates Groenekloof, Ziekenhuis, and some smaller ones could not be sold, because no one was desirous of purchasing them.

When the work on the fortifications was stopped, the enlargements of the battery Chavonnes, designed by Governor Van de Graaff, were not quite completed. A battery which he had planned between the castle and the Devil's peak, and which had been named the Coehoorn, was only a little advanced beyond the foundations. The battery Gordon, built in 1781-2 at the upper end of the line of earthworks between Fort Knokke and the Devil's peak, was greatly out of repair. The remaining fortifications

in Table Valley were in good order. The new hospital was not yet finished, though it had cost the Company nearly 52,000*l.*, exclusive of slave labour.

The census returns of 1791 show the population of the colony as consisting of three thousand six hundred and thirteen European burghers, with two thousand four hundred and sixty married women, and six thousand nine hundred and fifty-five children; thirty-nine European men servants; four hundred and fifty-six European men—exclusive of soldiers—in the Company's service, with two hundred and ninety-one married women, and seven hundred and sixty children; and eleven thousand and twenty-six men slaves, three thousand six hundred and eighty-seven women slaves, and two thousand six hundred and eighty-three slave children, belonging to the Company and to private individuals. No mention is made of free blacks or of Hottentots in the returns.

Another great change was notified by the directors in March 1791. They had abandoned the exportation of all European wares on their own account, except to China and Japan, and had thrown that trade open to private individuals upon payment of customs duties. Foreigners, however, were not to be allowed to take part in it. From the Cape, wine could be exported by private individuals, and in February 1791 permission to send a cargo of wheat to Europe was accorded by the council to the burgher Tieleman Roos, of Drakenstein.

For several years there had been an impression among certain burghers that gold was to be found in large quantities in the desert region north of the Orange river and bordering on the Atlantic. It was currently reported and believed that the English traveller Paterson had discovered rich ore there, though he had not made his discovery known. Mr. Sebastiaan Valentyn van Reenen, who accompanied Lieutenant Paterson on one of his excursions, had really become possessed of a piece of ore or rock from which a chemist extracted some grains of

gold, though the place where the substance had been found was unknown.

Fired with the idea of making a discovery that would enrich himself and benefit his native country, Mr. Willem van Reenen, of the farm Zeekoevlei, on the Elephant river, with the permission of the council fitted out an exploring expedition at his own expense, and on the 17th of September 1791 set out for the north. He had with him as companions Messrs. Pieter Brand, Adriaan Louw, Bar-end Freyn, and Frederik Wysman, besides several half-breeds and a large party of Hottentots.

On the 30th of October he crossed the Great river, and on the 18th of November rested at the farthest point reached by Captain Hop's expedition in 1761. The country was parched by heat and drought, Bushmen and lions were very troublesome, and the oxen were beginning to die; but Van Reenen and his companions still pushed on. On the 23rd of January 1792 they reached a mountain, where was a spring of very hot water, from which the flow was so great that several morgen of ground might be irrigated. Copper ore was found there.

During the night after their arrival they were attacked by a party of Namaquas, who killed two of their Hottentots and wounded a slave; but next morning the chief of the attacking party sent to say that the assault had been made by mistake, and presented three oxen and four sheep as a peace offering. The name of the chief is not given, but his people are called the Godousies. It is not possible to connect that title with any clan now living in the country. The mountain had until recently been in possession of the Ovaherero or Damaras, but the Namaquas were then masters of it. Mr. Van Reenen named it Mount Rhenius. At this place a camp was formed, while the country around was explored. In the diary of the expedition there are no indications by which the locality can be identified, except those here given; but from an observation in another document,

it is found to have been within easy reach of Walfish Bay.

Pieter Brand with a party of Hottentots pushed on fifteen days' journey farther, and made himself well acquainted with the condition of the Damaras, who belong to the Bantu family, and of the Namaquas, who are Hottentots. The Damaras had been conquered by the Namaquas, and had been deprived of their horned cattle, goats, and sheep. They informed Mr. Brand that he would yet have to travel nine days before he would find Damaras in possession of cattle. They had been able to hold their own, they said, until the Namaquas obtained iron in large quantities from the south, when they had been subjugated. Copper rings of their own manufacture were plentiful with them.

Mr. Brand also met with black people living like Bushmen on nothing but game and roots, but speaking a dialect of the Hottentot language. This is the earliest notice of the people now commonly called Berg Damaras, whose condition is a mystery to travellers. No subsequent inquirer has learnt more than Pieter Brand put on record: that they are Bantu by blood, Hottentots by language, and Bushmen by habit. On the 14th of March the party moved from Mount Rhenius to a place close by, which they named Modderfontein. Here they remained until the 23rd of April. There was abundance of game in the neighbourhood, and they had plenty of food. Of rhinoceroses alone they killed sixty-five, and of giraffes six. Having laden the waggons with ore which they believed contained gold, but which on their arrival at the Cape was proved to be copper, they turned homeward. On the way they visited a clan of Namaquas called in the diary the Keykous, who can be identified with the people now known as the red nation. The name of the chief is given by Mr. Van Reenen as Nonbelo, but the colonial Hottentots called him Roode Mos. He was very friendly, bringing four oxen as a present, and offering to

assist the Europeans to punish the Godousies for attacking the party on its arrival at Mount Rhenius. The offer was declined. On the 20th of June 1792 the expedition reached Mr. Van Reenen's farm Zeekoevlei, having been absent nine months, and having lost by drought and Bushmen one hundred and forty oxen.

From these travellers was received the first authentic account of the condition of the Damara clans, and of the feud between them and the Namaquas, a feud which has continued with scarcely an intermission down to our own day.

During the five years 1785-9 the average number of ships that put into Table Bay was one hundred and thirty-nine, and that put into Simon's Bay twenty-five. Of the whole number, three hundred and thirty-four were Dutch, two hundred and twelve French, eighty-four English, seventy Danish, sixty-two American, twenty-nine Portuguese, ten Austrian, eight Spanish, seven Swedish, four Prussian, and one was Italian. After 1789 it is impossible to give statistics of shipping, as several of the journals and outgoing despatch books are missing from the archives.

The following vessels were wrecked on our coast during these years :

In the night between the 3rd and 4th of May 1785 the Company's homeward bound ship *Brederode* struck on a reef off Cape Agulhas, and went to pieces. Most of the crew got away in boats, but twelve lives were lost. None of her cargo was saved.

On the 3rd of May 1786 the wreck of a small French schooner, with a cargo of wine from Bordeaux, was found on the coast a little to the eastward of Cape Hangklip. Two dead bodies were found close by, but no further particulars could be ascertained.

In the evening of the 11th of May 1786 the Dutch national frigate *Holland*, one of a fleet of ships of war bound to Java, when entering False Bay struck on a reef and became a total wreck. Eight lives were lost.

On the 19th of August 1786 the wreck of a French brig named the *Rozette* was found close to Cape Point, and it was ascertained that she was from Bordeaux bound to Mauritius. There was no living person on board. Some days later six seamen were found under suspicious circumstances at the Cape, and were arrested, when it was discovered that they had murdered the officers and other sailors of the *Rozette*, and had then run the vessel ashore. They were tried and executed for the crime.

On the 7th of October 1786 the Company's schooner *Catwyk aan Rhyn* was driven ashore in Simon's Bay in a violent gale, and became a wreck, but no lives were lost.

In the night between the 16th and 17th of May 1788 the Company's ship *Avenhoorn* was driven from her anchors in Table Bay by a gale from the north-west, and was lost. She was about to proceed to Mossel Bay to take in wheat for Batavia, and had no cargo on board. All hands were saved.

In August 1788 the Company's ship *Maria*, homeward bound from Ceylon, was met off Plettenberg's Bay by the Cape packet *Meermin*, and found to be in a condition of distress. Her crew had been attacked by scurvy, and only the skipper and four men were able to walk. By the help of the *Meermin's* crew, the *Maria* was taken into Plettenberg's Bay, where she was brought to anchor; but a few days later in a gale from the south-east she was driven ashore and became a total wreck. No lives were lost.

In the night between the 16th and 17th of October 1788 the French frigate *Penelope*, when trying to enter Simon's Bay, ran ashore on Muizenburg beach and went to pieces. There were four hundred and thirty men on board, most of whom got safely to land.

On the 16th of May 1789 the Dutch ship *Drietal Handelslaars*, homeward bound from Ceylon under charter by the Company, was driven from her anchors off Zwartklip



in False Bay, and went to pieces on the rocks. No lives were lost.

On the 12th of April 1790 a fleet of ships—mostly under foreign flags—was at anchor in Table Bay. The weather was stormy, with the wind from the north-north-west, accompanied by heavy showers of rain. In the morning a French ship parted her cables and went ashore near the mouth of Salt River, where she was joined shortly afterwards by the Genoese barque *Maria*. In the afternoon a French brigantine, an American barque, an English whaling ship, the Danish Company's fine ship *Erfprins van Augustenburgh*, and the Cape packet *Helena Louisa* went ashore. Towards evening the wind abated, or the number of wrecks would have increased, as other vessels had parted one of their cables. No lives were lost on this occasion. The *Helena Louisa* was got afloat again, and her damages were repaired.

Owing to this disaster, in January 1794 the directors issued orders that their ships were to make use of Simon's Bay from the 10th of April to the 1st of October, instead of from the 15th of May to the 15th of August, as previously.

After this date an account of the wrecks which took place on the South African coast cannot be given, because the journals and letter books have been lost from the archives of the Cape and of the Netherlands. Except the following, however, there were no very serious disasters between 1790 and 1796, or traces would be found in other documents. On the 27th of December 1794 the Portuguese ship *S. José*, with nearly five hundred slaves from Mozambique, ran ashore at Camp's Bay and was lost, when two hundred of the slaves were drowned.

In November 1787 an English fleet, to which considerable interest attaches, put into Table Bay for supplies. It was the fleet that conveyed the first convicts, male and female, to Botany Bay, to found the colony of New South Wales.

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In November 1789 the British transport *Guardian*, under command of Lieutenant Edward Riou, put into Table Bay, and took on board large supplies of grain and live stock, intended for the use of the settlement at Botany Bay. On the 24th of December, when about twelve hundred miles from the Cape of Good Hope, the *Guardian* struck upon an iceberg, and was so much injured that next day it was feared she would sink. Lieutenant Riou would not leave the ship himself, but he ordered the four boats to be got out, and with his approval as many of the crew as they could contain embarked in them and set sail for the African coast. The launch fell in with a French ship on the 4th of January 1790, and her crew of fifteen were taken on board and brought to the Cape. Those in the other boats must have perished. Contrary to expectation, the *Guardian*, though waterlogged, did not go down, and several days after the disaster a Dutch vessel homeward bound from Batavia fell in with her. Assistance in men and materials was rendered, and she was brought back to Table Bay, the Dutch vessel keeping by her until she was safe in port.

There was at this time a strong desire expressed by the leading colonists for better means of educating their children. More than half a century earlier there had been a high school in Capetown; but it was not sufficiently supported, and had therefore been discontinued. All who could afford it employed private tutors, but in the country districts these teachers were usually men of scanty education and often of low moral character. In and near the town a better class of persons could be obtained, and a few of the wealthiest colonists sent their sons to Europe to complete their studies. In 1791 a movement was commenced for the establishment of a good school at each church and seat of magistracy in the country, and of a high school in Capetown, in which the Latin and French languages should be taught. A com-

mittee was appointed, and after long discussion a plan was prepared, which was submitted to the council and approved of in March 1792. It depended chiefly upon voluntary subscriptions to commence with, and payment of school fees thereafter. A sum of money was collected for the Latin school in Capetown, and a building in Graaffe—now Grave—street was purchased from the chevalier François Duminy for 1,000*l.* In September 1793 a qualified man named Cornelis Josias van Baak was engaged as preceptor, and the institution was opened; but the course of political events shortly afterwards caused it to be closed, and with that the whole plan fell through for a time. Ten years later there was an attempt to reopen it, but it again failed. The money subscribed was safely invested, however, and in 1837 was transferred to the present South African college.

In consequence of the helplessness to which the East India Company was now reduced, the states-general appointed a commission of four members to examine minutely into its affairs and to check further abuses. These gentlemen—the baron Van der Does, the lord of Marquette, Mr. P. H. van de Waal, and Mr. H. van Straalen—sent in preliminary reports in February and July 1791, one result of which was that a board with very great powers was constituted to examine into abuses in India and rectify them.

The individuals selected to form this board were Mr. Sebastiaan Cornelis Nederburgh, chief advocate of the East India Company, Captain Simon Hendrik Frykenius, of the national navy, Mr. Willem Arnold Alting, governor-general, and Mr. Hendrik van Stokkum, director-general of Netherlands India. On the 19th of August 1791 a commission was issued by the stadtholder and the directors, empowering the members of this board, who could act separately anywhere but at Batavia, to investigate all matters connected with the Company's affairs, to bring to light abuses and malpractices, to make neces-

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sary reforms, to dismiss corrupt officials of every grade and either send them to Holland or cause them to be tried by a court of justice, to fill all vacant offices with trustworthy men, and generally to do as they should judge best, for which purpose the same power was given to them as was held by those who signed the document.

It is not necessary to enter into the instructions given to the board regarding the dependencies in India, where fraudulent practices throughout the administration, carelessness for the Company's interests, and insubordination among all classes of officials, were pointed out as the chief evils to be checked. Only two members could visit the Cape, and to them special instructions were given by the stadtholder and the directors, acting with the concurrence of the commission appointed by the states-general.

Mesars. Nederburgh and Frykenius were directed to see that the stoppage of public works resolved upon in the previous year was carried into effect. They were to establish the administration in the simplest and least expensive manner, and endeavour to increase the revenue. They could grant the colonists liberty to carry on a trade in slaves with Madagascar and the east coast of Africa, to establish whale fisheries, and to convey farm produce to any of the Dutch possessions in India and dispose of it there to the best account, provided that the vessels employed were owned in the colony or the Netherlands, were manned by crews consisting of at least half Cape colonists, and did not go beyond prescribed limits. They could allow private individuals to export wheat from Mossel Bay and timber from Plettenberg's Bay. They were to impose import and export duties, and farm them out to the highest bidder. They were to investigate the causes of the continued dissatisfaction of the colonists, to rectify abuses, to settle complaints, and to take with them to Batavia a full statement of such matters as they could not summarily dispose of, in order that, conjointly

with the other members of the board, they could come to a decision there and afterwards make it known at the Cape.

Messrs. Nederburgh and Frykenius embarked in the national ship of war *Amazon*, which cast anchor in Simon's Bay on the 18th of June 1792. On the 23rd there was a special meeting of the council at two o'clock in the afternoon, when they were present and delivered an address; but they were not formally installed until the 3rd of July, when with as much state as was possible they assumed supreme control of the administration.

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## CHAPTER XXI.

SEBASTIAAN CORNELIS NEDERBURGH AND SIMON HENDRIK  
FRYKENTIUS, COMMISSIONERS-GENERAL, 3RD JULY 1792  
TO 2ND SEPTEMBER 1793.

THE commissioners were not many hours in the colony before they became aware that their task in South Africa would not be an easy one. They had been instructed to increase the revenue, and the first thing they heard upon reaching Simon's Bay was that the council had been obliged by the attitude of the burghers to withdraw a proclamation imposing a succession duty, or tax upon inheritances, which the directors had ordered to be levied. On the 25th of June the burgher councillors—Messrs. J. Smuts, G. H. Meyer, H. J. de Wet, A. Fleck, H. A. Truter, and H. P. Warnecke—requested an interview for the purpose of presenting a memorial on the condition of the country, which they desired to deliver in the name and on behalf of the whole body of colonists. The commissioners declined to receive them as representatives of the people, and asserted that they would only recognise the legally constituted committee of the high court of justice, which consisted of three servants of the Company and three burghers. They offered, however, to listen to the complaints contained in the memorial, if the councillors would appear as private individuals. Two days in every week, they stated, would be set aside purposely to hear complaints and to investigate grievances.

The burgher councillors withdrew dissatisfied. They maintained that from the earliest days of the colony to the recent establishment of the committee of the high

court of justice, their predecessors in office had been regarded as representatives of the burgher population, and they were determined to make a resolute stand for the maintenance of the privilege. Immediately, public meetings began to be held all over the country, and addresses were signed, which were forwarded to them for presentation to the commissioners. In these addresses the principle was kept in view that the colonists could not in justice be required to assist the Company out of its difficulties, as they had in no way contributed to its losses, and that as the expenditure for purely colonial purposes was less than the revenue, the taxes should be reduced, instead of being increased. The farmers desired that the tithes should be abolished, and a tax substituted of five per cent upon the value of produce sold. The commissioners learned that the supply of wheat in Capetown was only sufficient for eighteen days' consumption, and that the country people would not bring in more until their grievances were heard.

On the 9th of July the burgher councillors presented themselves again with numerous memorials, and were again informed that they could not be recognised as representatives of the people. But it soon became evident to the commissioners that on this point concession must be made. Much as the people talked about taxation, they talked more about their rights; and this matter of being represented by burghers alone, instead of by a mixed body of Company's servants and burghers, was the right that just then they made most of. The commissioners therefore at length gave way, and while still retaining the committee of the high court of justice for the management of municipal affairs, consented to receive the six burgher councillors as representatives or advocates of the colonists.

Messrs. Nederburgh and Frykenius now issued addresses appealing to the people to aid the government in its distress and to desist from further opposition. They

exhorted the citizens of the town to return to the simple style of living of their forefathers, as by so doing large incomes would not be needed. That was the course the Company had determined to adopt, they stated, and it was the only practicable means of overcoming the difficulties under which all were labouring. These moral injunctions had little or no effect, though the commissioners flattered themselves that a good impression had been made by them. The people denied that they were disloyal to the states-general, and maintained that their opposition was confined to the corrupt administration of the East India Company. But the East India Company is the machinery provided by the states-general for your government, said the commissioners, and they thought that by this assertion all objections ought to be removed.

After a rigid examination of the records and practices of each department, Messrs. Nederburgh and Frykenius came to the conclusion that it would be possible to reduce the expenditure at the Cape to about 66,000*l.* a year. They struck off nearly all the perquisites of the officers of government, and allowed them small, but suitable, salaries instead. The officers were permitted, however, to retain the fees which they derived from various sources. The Company's gardens in Capetown and the country seat of Rustenburg, used by the secunde, were leased by public tender, and a great number and variety of other charges upon the Company were summarily cut off.

To increase the revenue they imposed the following taxes :

(a) A duty of 2*l.* upon every slave imported, and of five per cent upon the value of all articles imported or exported, except by the Company.

(b) An increase of transfer dues on sales of land held over ten years, from two and a half to four per cent.

(c) A charge upon carriages and vehicles kept for pleasure, varying from 12*s.* to 2*l.* a year, according to the class.



(d) A charge of 2*l.* on every vessel not belonging to the Company anchoring in either of the bays.

(e) The farming out of the salt pans.

(f) A duty of 12*s.* on each legger of brandy brought to town, similar to the former duty on wine.

(g) A charge of five per cent upon the effects of all persons above the rank of junior merchants leaving the colony, unless they returned within three years.

(h) Auction duty. It had long been a perquisite of the secretary to the council in Capetown and of the landdrosts in the country districts to act as auctioneers. On the amount realised by landed property two and a half per cent, and on that realised by movable goods five per cent, was paid to them by the seller. The auctioneers were now required to deliver to the government eleven-sixteenths of these fees, the remaining five-sixteenths they could retain for themselves.

(i) An increase of the stamp duty. Under this heading among other items accounts for goods sold at public auction were required to bear stamps ranging from 6*d.* to 2*l.* according to the amount of the purchase. The auctioneers were required to make oath to the accuracy of the accounts as copied from the *vendu* rolls, and the stamps were to be paid for by the purchasers. None but accounts under the value of 1*l.* 4*s.* were exempt.

The last-named was a most unpopular tax. From the earliest times goods of all kinds were constantly being disposed of by auction in the town, and periodical sales were held in the several country districts. Every three months, upon the celebration of the communion, the farmers were in the habit of attending the different churches. Many of them travelled seven or eight days for that purpose, and usually arranged to remain at the church place from the Thursday or Friday preceding to the Tuesday following. Those who had goods or cattle to dispose of took advantage of these opportunities, and it seldom happened that auction sales were not held. The

clergy set their faces against the practice, but the circumstances of the country were such that the sales went on in spite of their denunciations. A tax upon auctions was therefore a tax that affected the pockets of every one.

The burgher councillors, after using all the arguments they could command, protested against the requirement of stamps on bills of purchases at auction, but to no purpose. The heemraden of Stellenbosch and Drakenstein, attended by between three and four hundred farmers of that district, came to town, and remonstrated against it, but also to no effect. Then at public meetings it was resolved to purchase nothing at auctions until the obnoxious tax was withdrawn. The commissioners went to Stellenbosch, where the opposition was strongest, and endeavoured to appease the people; but though they were listened to patiently and treated with the greatest respect, they were unsuccessful. During the month of May 1793 not a single sale by auction took place in the colony, the few who were disposed to purchase being intimidated by the attitude of the great majority of the burghers.

The commissioners informed the directors, however, that it was only a question of time, as without such sales the business of the colony would cease, so that sooner or later the people would be obliged to submit. And it happened as they foresaw. A sale by auction was announced to take place at the Paarl, and Mr. Willem Stephanus van Ryneveld, secretary of the high court of justice, was sent to try to induce people to bid. For some time the auctioneer could get no offer for anything. But at length an old woman was persuaded by Mr. Van Ryneveld to make a trifling bid for a slave, and this being accepted and the slave pronounced sold, others could not resist the temptation to try to make like bargains. The bidding soon became spirited, and the sale was successful. In Capetown the people held out a little longer, but were at length compelled to submit.

The several measures adopted to increase the revenue

and reduce the expenditure were productive of the following results, as shown by the Company's books for the three years preceding the 31st of August 1794, the latest date to which the accounts were audited. The total expenditure at the Cape during those three years was 203,070*l.*, or on an average 67,690*l.* a year. The total revenue was 91,752*l.*, or on an average 30,584*l.* a year. And the amount derived from selling and leasing property belonging to the Company, including profit on East Indian produce, was 30,796*l.*, or 10,265*l.* a year. Thus the yearly outlay was reduced to within 27,000*l.* of the income, instead of 92,000*l.* as previously.

The commissioners claimed that the benefits which they conferred upon the colonists greatly outweighed the burdens imposed by the increased taxation.

In the first place, they raised the price paid by the Company for wheat to 11*s.* 4*d.* a muid, from which, however, the tithe—either in money or in kind—was to be deducted. At this price, the Company was to retain the right of demanding as much wheat as it needed. The farmers, after paying the tithe, could dispose of the surplus as they pleased, or could export it to India or the Netherlands, provided it was sent in Dutch ships.

For several years the coast of South Africa had been frequented by English and American whalers, to such an extent that over twenty were once engaged in St. Helena Bay alone, and in 1788 no fewer than thirty-six English and six American ships obtained full cargoes of oil. These strangers even carried on their occupation in Table Bay, and on one occasion a whale was towed to land close to the castle with an English flag flying from a staff stuck in its back, while the colonists were prohibited from engaging in the pursuit. The reasons for such prohibition are not given in the Company's records, but a Dutch writer of the time—A. E. van Braam Houckgeest,—who was a keen observer and a competent witness, states that the directors, who had Estienne Barbier's revolt in 1739

in their memory, feared that if the burghers were not kept in the strictest restraint they would declare themselves independent. In September 1792 the commissioners threw this industry open to the colonists, on condition that the vessels employed should be built and equipped in the Netherlands, that ships engaged to take oil to Europe should be chartered through the agency of the Company, and that the oil should be sent only to the Netherlands. Whale fishing by means of open boats was restricted to Table and False bays, in order that no establishments requiring protection might be formed at other places.

Next, in November 1792 liberty was given to the colonists to send the produce of the country to any part of Netherlands India for sale, provided the ships employed were built in Holland; but return cargoes could only be purchased from the Company. The ports of Table Bay, Mossel Bay, and Plettenberg's Bay were declared open for this trade. The ships engaged were not to go beyond certain limits, which were laid down. A trade in slaves with Madagascar and the east coast of Africa was also permitted.

At the same time the commissioners strictly prohibited the importation of any goods in foreign vessels. Trade with strangers was restricted to the sale of provisions for money, unless special permission was first obtained from the government.

The privileges, as the commissioners termed them, gave little satisfaction to the colonists. The prohibition of trade with foreigners, they protested, would ruin them. For more than a century the Cape had been a place where persons coming from Europe could buy Indian wares, and those from India European wares, a large proportion of which was obtained from foreigners. The trade was illegal, but was nevertheless conducted openly. Nearly the whole of the gold and silver in the colony was derived from the English, French, and Danes who

visited the ports. The Indian trade, fenced in by such restrictions as those imposed by the commissioners, would be of no benefit. The liberty to establish whale fisheries would be of advantage to a few persons, but could be of little aid to the colony at large.

Distress, consequent upon the reduction of the garrison and an almost total cessation of trade, was at this time general. Men were unable to pay debts less than one-tenth of the nominal value of fixed property in their possession, and judgments of court in some cases could not be satisfied, as purchasers were not to be found for land at any price. To relieve this distress, and at the same time to increase the revenue, in March 1793 the commissioners established a loan bank. A quantity of paper was stamped to represent different sums, was declared a legal tender, and was issued through this bank to applicants offering sufficient security for the loan. In the town an advance was made to the amount of one-half the value of the property mortgaged, and in the country to the amount of two-thirds; but as additional security two persons of means were required to pledge themselves for the repayment of the loan. This issue of paper, or cartoon money as it was called, amounted to 135,473*l.*, upon which interest at the rate of five per cent was payable by the borrowers yearly. By this means relief from pressure of debt was obtained by many landed proprietors; but the effect of issuing such a quantity of inconvertible cartoon money was greatly to increase the general distress.

The belief in the existence of gold in Great Namaqualand had not yet died out. Mr. Sebastiaan Valentyn van Reenen, who was a man of means and an enthusiast in this matter, addressed the commissioners on the subject, and an arrangement for another exploring expedition was made. The commissioners, on behalf of the Company, intended to take formal possession of various bays on the coast of Namaqualand that were likely to be frequented

by whalers, and it was therefore planned that the packet *Meermin* should be sent northward for that purpose, that Mr. Van Reenen with his party should have a passage in her to a bay where a train of waggons which he was to send overland should meet him, and that Chevalier Duminy should render all possible assistance.

When the expedition under Willem van Reenen was in Namaqualand, one of the party—Barend Freyn—had heard of a Hottentot chief named Ynemand, who was said to reside at a bay about twelve or fourteen days' journey north of the mouth of the Great river, and who was reported to be friendly to strangers and to know where the gold mines were situated. Mr. Sebastiaan van Reenen now engaged Barend Freyn to proceed with a train of waggons to the kraal of Ynemand, and make the acquaintance of that chief. He undertook to be there not later than the 1st of January 1793, and to wait until the arrival of Mr. Van Reenen.

On the 3rd of January 1793 the *Meermin* sailed from Table Bay. She had as passengers the brothers Sebastiaan Valentyn and Dirk Gysbert van Reenen, Pieter Pienaar, a European servant, eight Hottentots, and two slaves. Five days after sailing she reached an island close to the coast in latitude  $27^{\circ}$  S., where some Englishmen and Americans were found killing seals for their oil and skins. Pienaar went ashore on the mainland, and came across some Hottentots, but could obtain no intelligence concerning Freyn and the waggons. The only white man that the Hottentots knew of as being in the country was one Gideon Visagie, who led a wandering life among the savages. Some stone beacons had been brought from Capetown, with the arms of the States engraved on one side and the monogram of the East India Company on the other. On the 12th of January one of these was taken ashore on the island, and erected at a spot which was set down in the diary as latitude  $27^{\circ}$  S., longitude  $32^{\circ} 45'$  east of Teneriffe. The seal-

hunters called the place Thomson's Island, but in South Africa it has been known ever since this date as Possession. The sheet of water between it and the mainland was named by Chevalier Duminy Elizabeth Bay. A chart was made, which is now in the archives of the colony.

On the 13th the *Meermin* sailed. She cast anchor next in latitude  $26^{\circ} 21' S.$ , and parties went ashore and explored the country around Angra Pequena, without finding any trace of Ynemand or Barend Freyn. On the 20th possession was formally taken, and a beacon was erected at a point marked in the chart—which is now in the colonial archives—as latitude  $26^{\circ} 30' 26'' S.$ , longitude  $15^{\circ} 57' 9''$  east of London. The longitude is incorrect, as in nearly all the calculations of that time. The variation of the compass is set down as  $23^{\circ} 31' W.$  The island now called Halifax was named by Chevalier Duminy Meermin Island, the sheet of water between it and Pedestal Point he named Daniel's Bay, the recess between Pedestal Point and the point farther eastward on which he erected his beacon he named Rhenius Bay, and Angra Pequena itself he renamed Beschermmer Haven.

Sailing again, on the 23rd of January the *Meermin* cast anchor in Walvisch or Whale Bay, latitude as given  $22^{\circ} 56' S.$  Chevalier Duminy had been there two years before, when he had seen about a hundred head of horned cattle in possession of a kraal of Hottentots. On the 25th the brothers Van Reenen went ashore and found the Hottentots, who appeared highly delighted at the sight of strangers. Presents were made to them, and two cows, a calf, five sheep, and some copper ornaments were obtained in barter. These Hottentots knew of Captain Ynemand, and pointed to the south-east as the direction in which he lived. They declined, however, to furnish guides, though tempting offers were made. They stated that the copper mine, from which they procured

the metal which they had in abundance, was not very far away. After a short acquaintance, they were found to be persistent beggars and inveterate thieves.

On the 29th of January Pieter Pienaar and the Hottentots brought from Capetown left to explore the country to the eastward. They returned on the 20th of February, when Pienaar reported that the day after leaving he met two Damaras who acted as guides, and conducted him for twelve days up the valley of a river. Beyond this valley on each side the country was burnt up, as he was informed no rain whatever had fallen for five years. In the valley he found fine large trees growing, and in some places rich grass on flats three quarters of an hour's walk from one side to the other. Water was obtained by digging in places known to the natives, though none was flowing above the surface. He passed five Damara kraals in the valley, and procured some copper from the people residing in them. They informed him that there were no clans with cattle to the north, but many to the south and south-east. They knew of Willem van Reenen's expedition; but could give no information about the captain Ynemand or any other metal than copper. Game was very abundant in the valley. Pienaar saw elephants, rhinoceroses, gemsboks, buffaloes, gnus, springboks, and lions. With some of the savages, the men were fat and strong, owing to their being able to get game, but the women and children were wretchedly thin and seemingly starving. They offered to sell some children, and Pienaar bought two about eight or nine years of age, little better than skeletons.

It was now evident that Freyn was not in Namaqualand, and Mr. Van Reenen came to the conclusion that he had been prevented by the drought from penetrating the country, which was afterwards found to be correct. No information whatever concerning gold was to be obtained, nor was it possible to reach Ynemand wherever



he might be. Further exploration was therefore reluctantly abandoned.

On the 26th of February a beacon was erected by Chevalier Duminy as a mark of possession, but the old name of Walvisch—or as now written Walfish—Bay was not changed. On the 3rd of March the *Meermin* sailed, and on the 10th of April cast anchor again in Table Bay.

Owing to advantages gained by the Bushmen in the war along the interior mountain range, and the abandonment of about a hundred farms by the colonists, the government directed the landdrosts of Graaff-Reinet, Swellendam, and Stellenbosch, with the heemraden of those districts, to hold a combined meeting in Capetown on the 1st of July 1792, under the presidency of Colonel Gordon, for the purpose of arranging a plan of military operations. On the day appointed, Mr. Woeke did not appear, so on the 2nd of July the council suspended him from duty, and called upon him to answer for his conduct. A military officer—Captain Bernard Cornelis van Baalen—was directed to proceed to Graaff-Reinet as soon as arrangements could be made, and to act there as landdrost until further orders. The old secretary Wagener and Mr. Jan Gysbert van Reenen, the latter of whom was a man of experience in frontier matters, were requested to aid the combined landdrosts and heemraden with their advice.

On the 13th of July Colonel Gordon laid before the council of policy the report that had been agreed upon. It recommended that a commando of at least a hundred burghers should be called out in the district of Swellendam, and another of equal strength in the district of Stellenbosch and Drakenstein, that these commandos should be provided for a campaign of three months, and should meet at the farm of Jan Adam Raubenheimer at the Zwartberg, on the 31st of August. Mr. Jan Pieter van der Walt, of the Cold Bokkeveld, was named as a competent man for the chief command, and his brother

—Tjaart van der Walt—as the person best qualified for the second place. It was proposed that Captain Van Baalen, when on his way to Graaff-Reinet, should call upon Mr. J. P. van der Walt, and arrange a plan of action; that he should then assemble as many of his burghers as could be got together, and act in concert with the other forces in the field.

The council adopted the report, and issued the necessary instructions to have it carried into effect. The usual injunctions to act with humanity were added, and as an inducement to the burghers to take prisoners rather than shoot their opponents, a reward of 3*l.* was offered for every individual of Bushman race, big or little, male or female, delivered at the Cape. The council determined that such prisoners should be sent to Robben Island as convicts for life.

Before these arrangements could be carried into effect, a robbery of unusual magnitude took place, followed by punishment of terrible severity. On the 11th of June two hordes of Bushmen, under leaders to whom the colonists had given the names Flamink and Couragie, attacked at Leeuw River the drovers in charge of some cattle belonging to the contractor for the supply of meat to the Company, killed a European, wounded a slave, and captured eleven thousand slaughter sheep and two hundred and fifty-six oxen. The burgher lieutenant Nicolaas Smit, of Graaff-Reinet, assisted by Tjaart van der Walt and Philip Botha, got together thirty-three burghers of Swellendam, and followed up the robbers. On the 24th of July this commando fell in with Flamink's horde, and shot about three hundred individuals of all ages, including the leader. Fifteen children were taken alive, and eight hundred and sixty sheep, fifty-three oxen, four horses, and eight muskets were recovered.

On the 1st of September the commandant-general Van der Walt left Raubenheimer's farm with a force of sixty Europeans and forty half-breeds to search for Couragie's

horde. The country about the source of the Zak river was scoured, and over two hundred Bushmen were killed. Seven hundred and twenty-five sheep and fifteen oxen were recovered. On the 24th of November the Europeans and half-breeds, divided into three parties, went out again from the camp; but did not succeed in falling in with the marauders.

The burghers of Graaff-Reinet took no part in these operations. Captain Van Baalen did not arrive at the drostdy until the 12th of September, when he found that the secretary Maynier had issued notices to the farmers to assemble on the 24th, too late to act in concert with the other forces.

The Europeans had an active ally in the Namaqua captain Afrikaner, a man whose name in later years was made famous by missionary journals. Afrikaner with his clan scoured the country farther down the Zak river while Commandant Van der Walt was engaged at its sources, killed one hundred and thirteen Bushmen, and took twenty prisoners. He then applied to the landdrost of Stellenbosch for a supply of ammunition to enable him to proceed with the work of clearing the country of robbers. The landdrost forwarded the application to government, and on the 20th of November the council resolved to comply with the request. A farmer named Pienaar, who lived on the border, was known to have a large stock of powder and lead on hand, so the landdrost was instructed to procure advances from him, which the council would gladly repay. Afrikaner was also informed that the government was very well satisfied with his conduct.

The Namaqua captain did not use the ammunition for the purpose for which it was granted. There was a band of half-breed and Hottentot marauders living on the northern bank of the Great river, under the leadership of a European renegade. With this band his clan had a feud, and an opportunity so favourable for an attack

was not allowed to pass by. The result was several killed and wounded on both sides, the loss by Afrikaner of the staff of office supplied by the government, and his driving his opponents from the field of action and making prize of six of their guns. With the spoil he proceeded to Capetown, where on the 7th of August 1793 he delivered the guns to the government, and obtained another staff of office.

Towards the close of 1792 the commandos operating against the Bushmen were disbanded, and the burghers of Stellenbosch and Swellendam returned to their homes. Two farms in the Nieuwveld were given free of rent to Mr. J. P. van der Walt, on condition of his occupying them; and power was conferred upon him to call out commandos whenever he might find it necessary, without previous reference to any of the landdrosts.

Immediately after the suspension of Landdrost Woeke, of Graaff-Reinet, complaints of his domineering conduct were made by the secretary Maynier, the sick-comforter De Vries, the former heemraad Van Jaarsveld, and others, all of which he was called upon to reply to. Instead of defending himself, he accused his opponents of various kinds of improper conduct, so that between the two sets of papers and those which followed, whatever evil deeds had been committed in the district were brought to light. Acts of violence were very rare, considering the condition in which the people were living. One monstrous deed, of which the tradition was long preserved by the Imidange clan, was brought home to Adriaan van Jaarsveld. In the campaign of 1781 he had caused a volley to be fired into a party of Xosas who were scrambling for bits of tobacco he had thrown to them. The atrocity of the act was pointed out, as it was done in cold blood, and could not be considered proper in war, although the commandant had previously given notice to the Xosas that they would be shot if they did not cross the Fish river.

With regard to his not attending the combined meet-

ing of landdrosts and heemraden in Capetown, Mr. Woeke gave a satisfactory explanation. Communications between the seat of government and the drostdy of Graaff-Reinet were frequently from three to four months in passing. On this occasion he only received the order on the 20th of June, and it was therefore impossible to obey it. The commissioners-general, however, considering that he had not refuted the charges against him and that he had certainly lost the confidence of the people of the district, dismissed him from the Company's service, and provisionally appointed the secretary Maynier landdrost in his stead.

It was one of the most injudicious appointments ever made in South Africa, for no one could have been more out of sympathy with the colonists than Maynier was. It seems almost impossible that any man living on the frontier of the Cape Colony could really have held the views concerning the simplicity and honesty of barbarians enunciated by the French philosophers whose influence was then at its greatest height, yet he seems to have been sincere in professing them. His chief virtue was industry, and he possessed in perfection that kind of ability which enabled him to ascertain exactly what his superiors desired and to win their favour and confidence. He was a near relative of the secunde Rhenius, but he did not owe his appointment to the influence of that officer so much as to his own address. The frank, outspoken, generous, though rough colonists of the frontier were no match in argument with him, they felt their helplessness against his representations, and detested him accordingly. At the very first meeting of the court under his presidency, 6th of May 1793, the majority of the district officers expressed their dissatisfaction, and were with difficulty induced not to resign their appointments.

It was a trying period on the frontier. A long and intensely severe drought had prevented the cultivation of the ground, all the reserve grain had been consumed by

the Xosas, and those in the Zuurveld had lost most of their cattle. The regent Ndlambe was at war with the chiefs on the western side of the Fish river, and three white men—Coenraad du Buis, Christoffel Botha, and Coenraad Bezuidenhout—were taking part in the strife, nominally in his favour, really for the sake of spoil. The old chief Langa had been made prisoner, and was detained at Ndlambe's kraal. Coenraad du Buis had not scrupled to take a girl just married to the captive chief, and keep her as his concubine, thus exasperating the Amambala clan. Far and wide within the colony the Xosas were stealing the farmers' cattle, and parties of them even sent word to the drostdy that they would continue to do so until the three white men with Ndlambe ceased to molest them.

When intelligence of Maynier's appointment was received in the district, some of the farmers, in utter despair, took the law into their own hands. Several large cattle robberies had just taken place, so the burgher Barend Lindeque raised a commando without reference to the landdrost, got assistance from Ndlambe, and on the 18th of May surrounded a kraal and took eight hundred head of cattle from it by way of reprisal. Half of this spoil was sent to Ndlambe, the remainder was distributed among the farmers from whom the cattle had been stolen.

A few days after this occurrence a great horde of Xosas crossed the Fish river to the assistance of those on the western side, and an attack was made upon the colonists. There were one hundred and twenty farms occupied between the rivers Kowie and Zwartkops, and one hundred and sixteen of these were laid waste. The Europeans and Hottentots fled westward for their lives. Some parties were overtaken, when the men were tortured in a shocking manner and then murdered, but the women and children were permitted to proceed. Pieter Vivier, Jan Grobbelaar, Frederik Jordaan, Juriaan Potgieter, and

Stephanus Cloete were thus murdered, and Frederik Buys was left in such a condition that he died some time afterwards of his wounds. A lad about sixteen years of age, named Stroebel, was taken away, and his fate could never be ascertained. About forty Hottentots also were overtaken and put to death. According to returns afterwards sent in, sixty-five thousand three hundred and twenty-seven head of horned cattle, eleven thousand sheep, and two hundred horses were swept off in this raid.

Upon a report of the outbreak reaching Swellendam, the burgher lieutenant Pieter Hendrik Ferreira, with twenty-six white men and fourteen Hottentots, set out with the utmost speed to the assistance of the fugitives, and on the 22nd of June met some fifty families at the Zwartkops. It was at once arranged to make use of that river as a line of defence, and to guard it until relief could reach them. It was estimated that there were six thousand Xosa warriors in the field, so that offensive operations were not to be thought of.

On the 18th of June Mr. Maynier, accompanied by the secretary Stanhoffius and the heemraden Stephanus Naude and Hendrik Meintjes van den Berg, left Graaff-Reinet to try to restore concord by means of presents to the chiefs. He first opened up communication with Ndlambe, and arranged with him that the Xosas in the colony might return unmolested to their own side of the Fish river. Most of them had in fact already done so, with the object of placing their spoil in safety. Many of Ndlambe's own followers had taken part in the raid, and the colonists were convinced that a reconciliation of the clans had taken place and that all were united against them.

Mr. Maynier, who professed to believe that the Xosas were incapable of acting with duplicity, next sent a Hottentot named Willem Hasebek to the chiefs who had led the raiders, to propose peace on condition of their

restoring the captured cattle and respecting the Fish river as the boundary. They replied, agreeing to the boundary of the Fish river, but declining to give up the cattle. Mr. Maynier then returned to Graaff-Reinet, where tidings reached him that large numbers of Xosas were again on the colonial side of the river, that they were plundering farms in distant parts of the district, and that on the 30th of July a son of Theunis Botha and a Hottentot had been murdered.

Meantime the government had sent instructions to the landdrost of Swellendam to call out a strong commando and proceed to the devastated district. He was to compel the Xosas to cross the Fish river and to restore the captured cattle or make compensation; but was not to inflict further punishment, and upon these conditions being complied with, he was to make peace. The military ensign Hans Abue was sent to the frontier to aid the landdrost with his advice.

When this intelligence reached Graaff-Reinet, Mr. Maynier, fancying that a slight had been put upon him, resolved to take the field at once. He called out the burghers, and convened a meeting of the heemraden and militia officers on the 19th of August. The distrust felt towards him was, however, so general that no one would consent to act as commandant under his direction. There were only two heemraden—S. Naude and H. M. van den Berg—to say a word in his favour, and the result of the meeting was therefore that the landdrost took command himself, and appointed these two his assistants. On the 27th of August he left Graaff-Reinet, at the head of one hundred and seventeen mounted burghers.

On the 8th of September the Swellendam commando commenced its march. It consisted of about four hundred burghers—including many fugitives from the Zuurveld—and one hundred Hottentots, under the militia captain Laurens de Jager, accompanied by the landdrost Faure. At the devastated farm of Cornelis van Rooyen,



not far from the site of the present city of Grahamstown, this commando joined the one under Maynier.

A strong party of the Graaff-Reinet burghers, having as spokesmen Carel Jan Triegard, Jan Botha, and Cornelis Faber, now agitated for the appointment of De Jager as commandant-general. Mr. Maynier and his two partisans objected, and as he quoted law which could not be disputed, his opponents were obliged to give way. It was then resolved that as the Xosas had again gone over to the eastern side of the Fish river, a large division of the force, under command of Maynier, should follow them up, while the remaining division, under De Jager and Faure, should guard the camp on the colonial side.

On the 14th of September Maynier with a small flying column appeared at the Koonap, near its junction with the Fish, where the captain Cika of the Amantinde clan was lurking, and recovered about thirteen hundred head of cattle. On the 26th of the same month he made another quick march to the same place, but on this occasion only obtained two hundred cattle. The Xosas lost some ten men killed and wounded by these two expeditions.

The column next took another direction, and crossed the Fish river at a place where a Hottentot captain named Trompetter formerly had a kraal, from which circumstance the ford was known as Trompetter's drift. On the 1st and 2nd of October about two thousand five hundred head of cattle were recovered, but very few Xosas were killed. A certain petty captain, called Hans by the colonists, now joined the commando with several followers. This man was the head of a few families of the old Gonaqua tribe which had mixed but little with the Xosas, and he was almost a pure Hottentot in appearance. Cungwa, the principal chief of the clan, was one of the most active enemies of the colonists; but Hans professed to be friendly. Every day his following increased in number, and some of them, being quite black, stated that

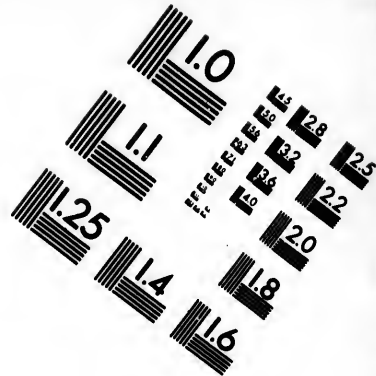
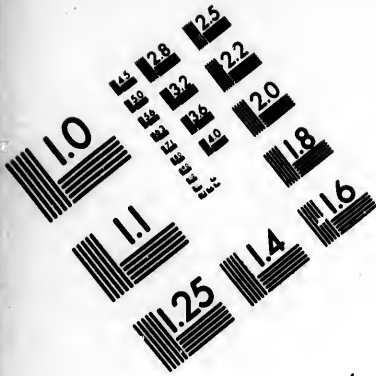
they were adherents of Ndlambe. From the time of their arrival no cattle could be found, and the burghers, who observed that these strangers always made large fires at night, became suspicious of them and desired leave to drive them away. Mr. \_\_\_\_\_ would not consent to this, and professed to believe that Hans and his followers were truthful and harmless.

Eight or ten days were occupied in searching for a ford in the upper waters of the Keiskama, and as one could not be found, the column marched to the mouth of that river and waded across the bar. Most of the farmers' cattle had in the mean time been driven far beyond reach, and had been placed in care of Kawuta, the head of the Gcaleka branch and paramount chief of the whole Xosa tribe. The warriors of the hostile clans had doubled upon the commando, had crossed the Fish river between Trompetter's drift and the sea, and were again in occupation of the Zuurveld. Hans and his party being left behind in the rapid march of the burgher horsemen, on the 14th of October the commando was able to surprise a strong body of the enemy on the Buffalo river, when in a hot skirmish about forty Xosas were killed and seven thousand head of cattle were captured. One hundred and twenty women and children and a couple of men were made prisoners.

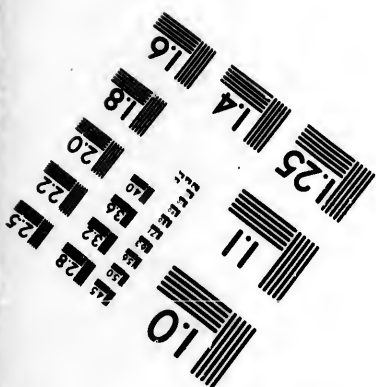
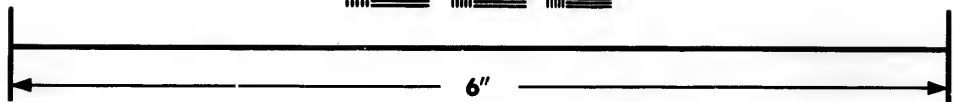
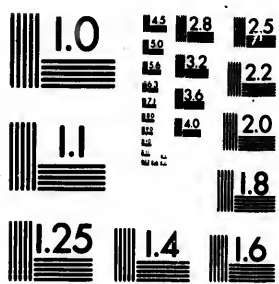
A dreadful crime was perpetrated after the action was over. One of the women and the adult male prisoners were shot in cold blood by relatives of some of those burghers who had been murdered in the Zuurveld. The ferocious deed was spoken of with horror by one of those present who placed the circumstance on record, but no punishment was inflicted upon the perpetrators. It is not referred to in Maynier's despatches. After a very short detention, all the other prisoners were released unharmed.

As the horses were worn out and there was no grass in the parched-up country, the commando was now obliged to fall back. On reaching the Keiskama a





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friendly visit was paid to Ndlambe, who repeated the promises he had made before, and accepted such presents as were offered to him. He accounted for the cattle with colonial marks seen in his possession by the assurance that they had been taken by his followers from the clans at war with the colonists, who were his enemies also; and he promised Mr. Maynier to restore them to the white people if time were allowed him to collect them together. The landdrost considered this very satisfactory, and parted with Ndlambe on the best of terms.

In the march from the Keiskama, many of the cattle taken on the Buffalo had to be abandoned, and upon approaching the Fish river the scouts reported that the ford was occupied by a strong body of Xosas. By means of some Hottentots, communication was opened with the Swellendam commando, then in camp on the farm of Lucas Meyer three hours' march from the river, the site of the present city of Grahamstown. A relief party was sent out, when the Xosas retired from the ford, and the Graaff-Reinet burghers crossed without molestation.

An attempt was now made to drive the enemy out of the Zuurveld. The Xosas were too wary to risk an encounter in the open field, and did not even make a stand in natural strongholds. The few who were encountered by chance professed to be friendly, and, upon a mere promise to go across the Fish river, were left unmolested by order of Maynier. After two or three weeks' marching backward and forward from one forest to another, only to learn that each place was occupied again as soon as they left it, the burghers found themselves with horses and oxen quite worn out, very little food of any kind to be had, and no prospect of better fortune in the future. They had recovered a few cattle, all with colonial brands, and in a couple of slight skirmishes had taken prisoners sixty women and children and four Hottentots who had joined the enemy. That was all that had been done.

It was evident to every one that there were only two methods of bringing the war to a close. One was the plan adopted by Adriaan van Jaarsveld twelve years before: no quarter, let every man of the invaders leave the colony or be shot. The other was for the Europeans to submit to the best terms obtainable. The war council, consisting of the landdrosts Maynier and Faure, the military ensign Hans Abue, the Graaff-Reinet burgher officers Stephanus Naude and Hendrik Meintjes van den Berg, and the Swellendam burgher officers Laurens de Jager and Hillegard Mulder, took the latter course.

The women and children who had been made prisoners were released and sent with presents to invite the hostile chiefs to a conference. After six days' absence, some of the women returned with a message that the chiefs were willing to make peace, but were afraid to visit the camp—then at Assagai Bush—and therefore requested the landdrosts to meet them at a place five hours' journey distant. The landdrosts went unarmed to the spot indicated, and had a conference with two sons of Langa, one of whom—Tuli by name—returned with them to the camp. The chiefs stated their willingness to desist from hostilities, but protested that they were unable to restore the cattle taken from the colonists. All had been killed and eaten, they declared; and such of their own cattle as had not been seized by Ndlambe had perished in the drought.

While Tuli was in the camp, word was brought that the burgher Hendrik van Rensburg had raised a separate commando, and was preparing to attack some of the clans. The landdrosts hastened to meet him, and persuaded him to desist. They then had a meeting with the chiefs of the Amambala, Amagwali, Imidange, and Amantinde clans, when it was agreed that there should be peace. The chiefs promised to surrender any horses and horned cattle that were still alive, as also several Hottentots who had aided them.

With these terms the members of the war council expressed themselves obliged to be content, as no better conditions were obtainable. In their report, they state that in their opinion it was quite enough to have the Bushmen to contend with, and that any terms of peace with the Xosas were therefore preferable to continuing the war. But the great majority of the burghers were of a very different mind, and were indignant at what was taking place. They wanted some one in command in whom they could have confidence, and the war to be prosecuted until the colony was cleared of invaders. They also scouted the assertion of Maynier that Ndlambe's friendship could be relied upon, and insisted that his people had taken part in the raid into the colony and that he was harbouring their cattle. They dispersed in a spirit which needed very little provocation to induce an open revolt against the East India Company and its officers.

On the 27th of November 1793 the burghers left Assagai Bush, those who had homes to return to them, the others to form new homes where best they could. Just before the landdrost Maynier's departure, messengers from the Gunukwebe chief Cungwa arrived to propose that his clan should be included in the peace. Cungwa was then occupying the banks of the Bushman's river. The landdrost went to see him, and made the same terms as with the others.

The arrangement gave to the Xosas all the fruits of victory. And so far was it from putting an end to hostilities by them, that the burgher Abel Erasmus was murdered near the Zwartkops river and all his cattle were carried off before the Swellendam commando reached home. The forces were hardly disbanded when a farmer named Strydom was murdered, another named Schoeman was badly wounded, and even a white woman was murdered by Xosas a considerable distance from the Zuurveld.

Upon receiving presents to a much greater value,



Ndlambe sent in some four hundred head of cattle, and about twelve thousand five hundred had been recovered since the beginning of the war. Many of these had been slaughtered for the use of the commandos, some had been abandoned in Kaffirland, and others had died, so that only four thousand head remained. These were divided, in proportion to their losses, among the farmers who had been obliged to retire from the Zuurveld.

The landdrost Maynier was afterwards instructed by the government to investigate the causes of the war. In his report he expressed an opinion that the farmers had been sufficiently remunerated for their losses. He pointed out that the individuals who claimed to have had sixty-five thousand three hundred and twenty-seven head of horned cattle taken from them had returned their stock for taxation purposes just before the outbreak at eight thousand and four head. As has been stated already, the standard of truth with regard to returns for taxation purposes was in general very low indeed; but the discrepancy here shown was not entirely due to that cause. At the birth of a child it was customary with the farmers to mark a certain number of heifers as its property, and the increase of these belonged to the child, so that when grown up a son or a daughter might have something to commence the world with. Such cattle were by a kind of tacit understanding exempted from the tax of a penny a year on each head levied for district purposes. Still, the discrepancy really exhibits the proneness of the people to escape taxation at the cost of truth.

The report of Mr. Maynier, which was evidently prepared to meet the views of the government, attributed the origin of the war chiefly to the outrageous conduct of Coenraad du Buis and the commando of Barend Lindeque, but gave as secondary causes the occupation of ground east of the Fish river by twenty-eight families of colonists, wrongs to which the Xosas had been subjected by cattle barterers, cruelties practised towards Xosas in

service with farmers, and the conduct of a Hottentot to whom the late landdrost Woeke had given a gun. The Bantu are described in it as a quiet and peaceably-disposed people. This report, which exhibits in every paragraph a strong desire to put the Xosa case in the best light and to throw as much blame as possible on the burghers, entirely ignores the chief cause of the war as shown in subsequent struggles between the two races. Outrages perpetrated by farmers are brought to light, but nothing is said of offences against them. In addition to those already mentioned, this paper records an act of violence committed by Frederik Jordaan, one of those overtaken and murdered in the raid. He had knocked some teeth out of a Xosa servant with a bullet mould. Read to-day, the report has the opposite effect from what the writer intended to produce. Any impartial person, observing the spirit that pervades it, will be surprised at the small amount of crime that existed, considering the circumstances under which the people lived.

An order was now issued by the landdrost, and confirmed by the government, that three or four families should always live close together, for mutual protection. In point of fact, such an order was superfluous, for there was no other way of existing in the greater part of the district of Graaff-Reinet than by combining in lagers. Proclamations were renewed, forbidding Europeans under very severe penalties from crossing the Fish river or carrying on cattle barter or intercourse of any kind with the Xosas. The landdrost was instructed to conciliate those in the Zuurveld with presents, and to induce them in a friendly manner to return to their own country. The burghers who were foremost in advocating a renewal of the war were threatened with dire punishment, and Coenraad du Buis was summoned to Capetown to answer to the crimes laid to his charge. He declined to obey the order, and it was not possible to have him arrested.

The conduct of Mr. Maynier during these transactions

was so much in accordance with the views of the government that in March 1794 he was confirmed in the appointment of landdrost.

In August 1793, while the greater part of the colony was in a disturbed condition, the people of Swellendam became apprehensive of an attempt by the Hottentots either to murder them or to drive them out of the country. In October 1788 a Hottentot captain named Kees had drawn suspicion upon himself by unfriendly and insolent demeanour, and at this time there was strong circumstantial evidence of his implication in the murder of two burghers named Labuschagne and Van Wyk and the wife of a third named Jan Oosthuizen. These murders had taken place under circumstances of peculiar atrocity, and as the perpetrators had not been discovered, the people of the district were in a state of great alarm. Kees and the principal men of his clan were arrested and sent to Capetown. Kees's son Klaas admitted that there was a design to rise against the Europeans, but no other direct evidence could be obtained. After a time most of the Hottentots were set at liberty, but Kees and a few others were kept in permanent confinement as political prisoners.

It is a relief to turn from these scenes of contention and disorder, to notice the efforts that were made at this time by several colonists to improve the domestic animals of the country. In 1792 Mr. Jan Frederik Kirsten imported from England eight horses and three bulls for breeding purposes. So little encouragement did the government give to the enterprise that he was obliged to pay a duty of five per cent upon their value. In the same year Mr. Jacobus Arnoldus Kirsten imported five horses from Boston. Some skippers of American vessels, finding others disposed to imitate the Kirstens, made arrangements to bring over cattle of good quality, and in 1793 quite a number of horses, mares, bulls, and cows arrived from the New England States.

An association, of which Mr. Sebastiaan Valentyn van Reenen was principal director, made an effort to introduce merino sheep for the purpose of producing wool that would be saleable in Europe. Some of the common sheep showed traces of being descended in part from European animals introduced in the early years of the settlement, but their fleeces resembled hair rather than wool. The association tried first to obtain Dassen Island as a run where stock could be kept pure, but the government being unwilling to allow them the use of the island, in 1793 they imported a few Spanish rams, which were placed with selected ewes at Groenekloof. Six hundred half-breed lambs were cast. Mr. Jan Gysbert van Reenen removed his share, two hundred in number, to the Hantam, where they were found to thrive remarkably well. Some other flocks also did well, and though the experiment failed from causes hereafter to be related, it was proved that wool of fair quality could easily be produced.

A ton of hair of the common sheep was sent by Mr. Abraham de Smidt to Holland, to ascertain whether it was of any value there, when it was proved not to be worth the cost of transport.

Since the return to Europe of George Schmit, the Moravian Society had frequently requested the assembly of seventeen to permit missionaries to be sent to the Hottentots, but hitherto without success. At this time the required leave was granted. In a despatch, dated 22nd of December 1791, the directors informed the Cape government that they had given the United Brethren permission to send to South Africa two or three missionaries who could administer the sacraments to any converts they might make, the only restriction being that they were not to occupy ground where Christian churches were already established. The government was instructed to give them such assistance as they might need.

In November 1792 three missionaries—by name Heinrich Marsveld, Daniel Schwinn, and Johan Christiaan

Keuhnel—arrived from Holland in the *Duifje*. After looking about for a suitable site for a station, they selected Baviaans' Kloof, where George Schmit had laboured, and on the 18th of December the council, on their application, granted them the use of as much land there as they might require. Mr. Marthinus Theunissen, superintendent of a cattle station that had not yet been sold, was directed to provide transport for their effects, and to see that they obtained whatever they needed on the way.

The remnants of the Chainouqua and Hessequa tribes of former days were still residing in the same parts of the country that their ancestors had occupied. They were free to roam over any land not given out as farms, and to settle wherever they chose. But nearly the whole of them were in service with colonists, and were in impoverished circumstances. Many farmers encouraged five or six families to live on their ground, in order to procure cattle herds and labourers at harvest time. To such tenants the farmer stood in the relationship of a kind of chief, and under circumstances like these the Hottentots in general passed an indolent but entirely dependent existence. Their old tribal names were quite lost beyond their own society, but among themselves the ancient distinctions were still preserved, and as late as 1815 there was a petty jealousy between the remnants of the Hessequas and the Chainouquas. It was with these people, who all spoke the Dutch language, and who were acquainted with the manner of living of Europeans, that the Moravians began to labour.

Upon the arrival of the missionaries, they found an aged Hottentot woman who had been baptized by Schmit, and who still preserved a New Testament which he had given to her. Under an old pear tree, planted by Schmit, they commenced to hold religious services, and soon succeeded in drawing a considerable number of Hottentots together. They laid out gardens, and gave one to each family to be retained during good behaviour. In this

manner a village soon grew up. A large extent of ground was brought under cultivation by the personal labour of the missionaries, with such assistance as they could obtain from those who gathered around them. It was not long before a mill for grinding corn was built, and that was followed by the establishment of a small factory for making knives. A school for children was opened at once, and at stated hours that would interfere least with field labour the adults were collected together for instruction and prayer. The advantage of industry and cleanliness was impressed upon the pupils, not only by precept, but by example and the rules of the institution.

Baviaans' Kloof henceforth became the home of a number of Hottentot families, some members of which were soldiers in the pandour corps and others in service with colonists. There these people were looked after by the missionaries with the greatest care, and whatever was possible was done for their improvement.

Everything went on well until the first baptisms took place, when a little jealousy was exhibited by some members of the consistory of Stellenbosch, who came to the council of policy with a request that the Moravians might either be required to remove from their parish, or to cease from administering the sacraments and so setting up a rival congregation. The request, however, was very mildly urged, and two members of the consistory itself—the elder Jan Groenewald and the deacon J. Detsch—protested against it on the grounds that the missionaries were far enough away from the place of worship of the Dutch reformed congregation, that they were quiet inoffensive men who were opposed to making proselytes from other Christian societies, and that if they were to be sent out of parishes of the established church they would be obliged to go beyond the colony. The proceedings of the consistory show that the spirit of toleration had made a great advance during recent years. The government re-

plied that the request could not be acceded to, and the trifling attempt at opposition then ceased.

The missionaries themselves were men of good common sense as well as of great zeal, and from the first commanded the respect of the farmers in their neighbourhood. Political partisanship was studiously avoided, and social equality between European colonists and individuals just emerging from barbarism was not taught. The converts were regarded as children, requiring to be kept constantly under tutelage and moderate restraint. Thus these excellent men with the assistants who soon arrived and their devoted wives firmly laid the foundation of mission work by the Moravian Society, which has been of incalculable benefit to the coloured inhabitants of the colony.

To preserve order in Capetown, the commissioners general introduced a new system of police. In December 1792 the town was divided into twenty-three wards, and the gardens at the foot of Table Mountain into two, in each of which two burghers of respectability were selected to act as wardmasters. Their duties were to prevent nuisances of all kinds, to enforce cleanliness in the streets and public places, to give directions in case of fire, and generally to maintain order. All persons moving their residence from or into any ward were required to report to the wardmasters, and the arrival and departure of foreigners or strangers were to be reported to them by the lodging-house keepers. They were required to have their names and the word 'wykmeester' posted up in large letters in front of their houses. Instead of a salary, they were exempted from the payment of rates and taxes levied for local purposes. They were subject to the directions of the committee of the high court of justice, to whom they were bound to send in periodical returns upon the state of the town. Every year half of the number were to be relieved of duty, and successors were to be appointed by the council of policy from a list of twice as

many names submitted by the whole body of wardmasters and approved by the committee of the high court of justice.

In the staff of the public departments the commissioners-general made several changes. The appointment of the acting fiscal independent, Jacob Pieter de Nys, was confirmed, and he took his seat in the council of policy. He was the last who held that office, for upon his death in December 1793 the system was altered, and the great powers and privileges possessed by the fiscals independent were abrogated. Willem Stephanus van Ryneveld, who had been secretary of the high court of justice since April 1788, was then appointed with the title of fiscal only, and was made subject to the government just as much as the cashier or the issuer of stores, a seat in the council being given to him much lower down the table. Egbertus Bergh, secretary of the council of policy since August 1791, was promoted to be cashier, and a voice in the debates was given to him, but without the right of voting, as he was not a member of the established church. George Frederik Goetz was appointed his successor as secretary. Christoffel Brand, the resident at Simonstown, had a seat in the council given to him whenever he might be at the castle. Jan Arnold Voltelen was appointed head of the naval establishment, without a seat in the council. Major De Lille was promoted to the rank of lieutenant-colonel.

There had not been many changes in the staff of clergymen during recent years.

In May 1785 the reverend Meent Borchers, who had shortly before arrived from Holland, was appointed third clergyman of the Cape. In September of the following year the reverend Helperus Ritzema van Lier arrived from Holland, when Mr. Borchers, at his own request, was transferred to the vacant church of Stellenbosch, and Mr. Van Lier succeeded him as third minister of the Cape. In July 1792 this clergyman's health broke down,



so the commissioners-general permitted him to retire on a pension. The situation remained vacant until May 1794, when the reverend Mr. Kuys was removed from Waveren to fill it.

In March 1794 the reverend Michiel Christiaan Vos, a colonist by birth, arrived from Holland, where he had been officiating for some time, and in May was stationed at Waveren, in order to relieve Mr. Kuys.

In April 1786 the reverend Petrus van der Spuy, junior, who had completed his studies in the Netherlands, returned to South Africa, and was appointed to the vacant church of Zwartland.

There had been a little friction between the Dutch reformed and Lutheran consistories at the Cape on the subject of baptism of children whose parents did not both belong to the same church. The directors settled the matter to the satisfaction of all but a few who held extreme opinions, by issuing instructions that boys should be baptized in the church to which their father belonged, and girls in the church to which their mother belonged, all persons to be free at eighteen years of age to leave one communion and join the other, if they wished to do so.

In Europe the most important occurrences since the fall of the Roman empire were taking place at this time, and the attention of the South African colonists was of necessity drawn towards them, as this country could hardly fail to be affected in one way or other. The French monarchy had disappeared, and in its place was a republic instinct with energy and enthusiasm. In the Netherlands the antagonism between the democratic and conservative parties continued. The former leaned towards France, the latter towards England, with which kingdom the stadtholder had been in close alliance since 1788. Events had for some time been tending towards a rupture, when on the 1st of February 1793 the Convention issued from Paris a declaration of war with Great

Britain and the government of the stadtholder. A French army under General Dumouriez immediately advanced to the Dutch frontier, and a considerable English force, under command of the duke of York, was sent to assist in the defence of the Netherlands.

From this date the ocean commerce past the Cape was greatly diminished. There are no shipping returns in our archives for the years between 1789 and 1796, except for 1794, in which year the number of vessels that put into South African ports was thirty-seven under the Dutch flag, eighteen English, twelve American, eleven Danish, five Italian, and three Portuguese, only eighty-six in all; but the constant complaints concerning the stagnation of trade, the absence of gold and silver money, and the want of merchandise, show how severely the colonists suffered.

Upon tidings of the commencement of war reaching the Cape, the commissioners-general were at a loss to know what to do for the defence of the colony. No regular troops could be expected to strengthen the garrison. They formed all the clerks and junior officers in the Company's service into a military company, which they termed the pennist corps, and appointed the member of council Willem Ferdinand van Reede van Oudtshoorn its commandant. Further, they raised a company of half-breeds and Hottentots, put them in uniform, and set them to learn to be soldiers. This corps was termed the pandours. No other means of strengthening the colony could be devised.

Messrs. Nederburgh and Frykenius now prepared to proceed to Java, the only duty left being to appoint some one to carry on the administration. Colonel Van de Graaff still retained the title of governor of the Cape Colony, but they were aware that he would never return from Europe. Of the *secunde Rhenius* they had not formed a high opinion. While they were looking about for a competent person, an old servant of the Company,

Abraham Josias Sluysken by name, arrived at the Cape on his way to Europe from Surat, where he had for some years been employed as director of trade. He had resided here once before for a few months, when in 1765 he was taken ill and detained on the way to India. He was now returning home with a view of retirement when, in accordance with a rule of the service, he stopped at the Cape until his accounts could be audited, and while here made the acquaintance of Messrs. Nederburgh and Frykenius. They proposed to confer upon him the same power that they held themselves, and after a little persuasion he consented to undertake the duty of commissioner-general. He had thus more authority than a governor, for he could act in any matter without consulting the council, if he chose to do so. No salary was agreed upon. It was arranged that he should draw at the rate of 240*l.* a month, and leave further remuneration to be settled by the directors. As far as state was concerned he was in a worse position than any head of the government since the time of the early commanders. Retrenchment had left no carriages or horses for his use, and he had no other residence than the house in Capetown. His wife and family went on to Holland, as he did not anticipate a lengthy residence in South Africa, and wished them to get settled.

Mr. Sluysken had no experience in military matters, his chief qualification being that he possessed a good knowledge of the manner of transacting business. In demeanour he was grave, and no barbarian was ever gifted in a higher degree with the power of concealing emotion of any kind. Under all circumstances he was calm and self-possessed. So great was his assurance that he could represent himself to either of the political parties in the fatherland as a devoted adherent, and be received as such by each. It is only by clearly analysing his conduct that his real attachment to the Orange faction can be ascertained, for his professions at different

periods and to different audiences are all at variance with each other. Such was the man whose fate it was to preside over the destinies of the colony at the most critical time of its existence. He was raised to the dignity of ordinary councillor of Netherlands India, and on the 2nd of September 1793 was formally installed as commissioner-general and head of the Cape government. Immediately after the ceremony Messrs. Nederburgh and Frykenius embarked for Batavia, having spent much more time here than was anticipated when they left the Netherlands.

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## CHAPTER XXII.

ABRAHAM JOSIAS SLUYSKEN, COMMISSIONER-GENERAL, FROM  
2ND SEPTEMBER 1793 TO 16TH SEPTEMBER 1795.

MR. SLUYSKEN took over the government of the Cape Colony under circumstances of great difficulty. The credit of the East India Company was exhausted, and its debt was ten million pounds sterling. In February 1794 it was obliged to declare itself unable to meet the interest on its loans. To maintain a garrison capable of defending the country in case of attack was beyond its power.

In the colony gold and silver coin had disappeared, and in its stead was a quantity of cartoon money resting on no other security than the ability of the Company to redeem it at some future time. Under these circumstances, internal trade, except by means of barter, had almost ceased. Debts could be paid in paper, for it was a legal tender, and therefore no one cared to give credit. The prohibition of trade with foreigners had created such distress that its enforcement had been suspended for three years; but now very few foreigners called. The little merchandise in the country was sold at such excessively dear rates that individuals of moderate means were obliged to dispense with many of the ordinary comforts of life. Fortunately, the seasons from 1786 to 1796 were good, and there was no scarcity of food in the country; but there was hardly any market for the surplus, except such as was furnished by the agent of the English East India Company for the supply of St. Helena and, before the outbreak of hostilities, by the agent of the French governments at Mauritius and Bourbon. Nothing worth speak-

ing of could be exported to Europe, and the government had a difficulty in sending to India the wheat, wine, butter, and tallow that could be made use of there. The colonists had not yet been able to organise a foreign trade on their own account.

Along the whole northern border the struggle with the Bushmen was constant. On the eastern frontier war with the Xosas was being carried on, with no other assistance from the government than a scanty supply of ammunition. The great majority of the people were incensed with the Company, and, without thoroughly comprehending the question, were freely discussing the rights of man, as proclaimed by the French revolutionists. When they were informed that Messrs. Nederburgh and Frykenius had left South Africa without granting them any representative rights in the government, and that Mr. Sluysken had been placed with extraordinary powers at the head of affairs, several of them—among whom were Willem de Klerk, Frans Kruger, and Marthinus Prinsloo—openly refused to take the oath of fidelity. They were prepared to swear allegiance to the states-general of the Netherlands, they said, and to keep their oath; but the East India Company and its officials they would no longer obey. The government threatened them with punishment, but was unable to put its threats into execution.

Mr. Sluysken's chief attention was directed towards means of defence against the French, who, he was aware, were well acquainted with most of the existing fortifications and with every inch of ground in the Cape peninsula, as they had made an accurate survey when their troops were here from 1781 to 1784. He caused two small forts to be built in Simonstown, chiefly by means of convict and slave labour. The cost was thus trifling, for it was estimated that a slave was maintained for 4*l.* 14*s.* 9*d.* a year. The forts were completed in March 1794, when cannon were mounted on them, and they re-

ceived the names Boetselaar and Zoutman. In May a garrison of one hundred and thirty men was stationed in Simonstown.

Three forts were also built at Hout Bay, so that if necessary ships might be sent there for security. They were named Sluysken, Gordon, and Little Gibraltar. The two first-named had cannon mounted upon them, but as there was no more artillery to spare, Little Gibraltar was left to be armed with the guns of any ships that might take shelter in the bay. A good deal of dependence was placed upon red hot shot, and appliances for heating cannon balls were attached to all the batteries.

In March 1795 a company of Stellenbosch burghers was required to repair to Capetown to strengthen the garrison, and was kept at the castle until the 15th of May, when it was supposed that an enemy would not care to enter Table Bay.

During 1794 the complaints of the burghers of Graaff-Reinet were unceasing with regard to the paper money, the stagnation of trade, the heavy taxes, the conduct of the landdrost, their being left without assistance to defend themselves against Xosas and Bushmen, the conditions of the arrangement with the Xosas which the government termed peace, and a few other matters of less importance, such as being obliged to pay a toll for a pontoon on the Breede river whether they used it or not, and the necessity of every one about to be married appearing before the matrimonial court in Capetown. The landdrost took no notice of their complaints, and while the colonists were being plundered and harassed by the Xosas in the Zuurveld, in his reports represented everything as in a peaceable and orderly condition. The burghers then sent a deputation to Capetown, provided with an enormous mass of evidence to show the incorrectness of Mr. Maynier's representations, and to request that he might be recalled and a man in whom they could have more confidence be appointed in his stead; but Commissioner

Sluysken would not even investigate the matter. By this treatment the patience of the colonists was at length exhausted.

On the 4th of February 1795 a party of forty burghers assembled at the village of Graaff-Reinet, under the leadership of Adriaan van Jaarsveld and Jan Carel Triegard, who demanded an interview with the landdrost. They postponed pushing matters to an extremity, however, until the 6th, when the heemraden assembled. An altercation then took place, in which Marthinus Prinsloo, Jan Durand, and Pieter Joubert were the chief speakers on the side of the burghers. They required that the landdrost should leave the district. He endeavoured to remonstrate with them, but to no effect, and he was obliged to proceed to Capetown. Further, they expelled from office the lieutenant of militia Cornelis Coetsee and the heemraden Stephanus Naude and Hendrik Meintjes van den Berg, on account of those persons being partisans of Maynier; but they made no changes in the form of government of the district. As the Company's officers wore orange cockades, the burghers displayed the tricolour, and called themselves 'Nationals.' They declared that their opposition was not to the states-general, but to the corrupt servants of the East India Company.

The landdrost Maynier was charged with another offence, not yet mentioned. His opponents accused him of sheltering runaway servants and criminals to such an extent that at this time he had more than one hundred and twenty Hottentots in his private employment, cultivating his land. Many of these Hottentots, they asserted, were guilty of such serious crimes as housebreaking and robbery; but they could not be brought to justice, owing to the landdrost refusing to receive complaints against them as soon as they entered his service.

Mr. Sluysken then sent a commission consisting of Mr. Olof Godlieb de Wet, president of the high court of justice, and Captain Von Hugel, officer in charge of a

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depôt for recruits for the Wurtemberg regiment, with Mr. Jan Andries Truter, secretary of the high court of justice, as secretary, to try to pacify the burghers. On the 30th of April the commission met the leaders of the 'Nationals' at Graaff-Reinet, and after a short discussion, agreed to relieve the district of Mr. Maynier. Mr. Lambert Philip van der Poel, previously a clerk in Capetown, was installed provisionally as landdrost, with Mr. Hendrik Roselt as secretary. The commission was then requested by the burghers to make a tour along the frontier, and especially along the border of the Zuurveld, in order that an accurate report of the condition of the district might be made to government. But neither Mr. De Wet nor Captain Von Hugel would do this, though they were willing to receive evidence at the drostdy. What the burghers desired was that with their own eyes the members of the commission should see that the Zuurveld was actually in the occupation of the Xosas, and that a large portion of the remainder of the district had been devastated; but that was just what the government, whose servants they were, did not want to know or believe. The matter was frequently discussed during the next six weeks, till at length, finding that their wishes would not be complied with, on the 14th of June an armed party compelled the members of the commission to leave the district.

On the 6th of July a meeting of the acting and retired heemraden was held, when six representatives—Marthinus Prinsloo, Barend Bester, Christiaan Botha, Christiaan Lotter, Hendrik Klopper, and Andries Krugel,—elected by the people, took their seats at a separate table. The different officials were asked whether they were willing to continue their duties under a burgher administration. The provisional landdrost Van der Poel replied that he was, but he desired leave to visit Capetown. Thereupon he was appointed landdrost, and leave of absence was granted to him, Mr. Jan Booysen being

chosen to act until his return. The secretary Roselt declared himself unwilling, on account of his oath of allegiance to the Company. He was dismissed, and another was appointed. The clergyman Von Manger consented to acknowledge the new authorities, and to unite in marriage any persons approved by them, without reference to the matrimonial court in Capetown. After this, the obnoxious stamp duty on auction sale accounts was declared abolished.

As Mr. Van der Poel was not permitted by Commissioner Sluysken to return to Graaff-Reinet, on the 27th of August the heemraden and representatives of the people appointed the lieutenant of militia, Carel David Gerotz, provisional landdrost, and confirmed his appointment on the 14th of September. On the 27th of August Adriaan van Jaarsveld was appointed to the highest military office in the district, with the title of president of the council of war.

All these proceedings were reported to Mr. Sluysken and the council of policy, as if they were quite in order, and the letters ended by the representatives of the people trusting that their conduct would meet with approval; but the fact was patent to every one that the district of Graaff-Reinet was lost to the East India Company.

In Swellendam the people acted in a similar manner. Landdrost Faure was not detested by the burghers as Maynier was, and there was no complaint concerning his administration of justice; but he was accused of being a zealous agent of the East India Company, and of having permitted himself to be guided by Maynier in the Kaffir war of 1793. One offence only was brought home to him. Before the cattle recovered from the Xosas were divided, the militia officers proposed to present him with twelve oxen, and he accepted the present. His friends subsequently declared that the officers were instigated by Maynier, whose object was to have it in his power to get his fellow landdrost into trouble whenever he chose;

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and this is possible. At any rate, Mr. Faure took the cattle, and was now charged by the burghers with corruption for having done so.

On the 17th of June 1795 the court of landdrost and heemraden was in session at Swellendam, when a party of nine armed burghers, whose spokesman was Paul Fouche, interrupted the proceedings, and commanded the members not to leave the drostdy. There was a difference of opinion among the inhabitants of the district, a considerable number being still averse to revolutionary measures, but others had combined with the Nationals of Graaff-Reinet, and had elected a burgher named Pieter Jacobus Delport as their commandant. This party had determined to expel the officers of the East India Company, for which purpose they had come to the drostdy. In the afternoon a second message was sent to the board: that it was not convenient for the burghers to make known their desires that day, but they would do so on the following morning, and in the mean time no one must leave the place.

On the 18th the landdrost Faure and the heemraden Laurens de Jager, Pieter Pienaar, Hermanus Steyn, Hillegard Mulder, and Pieter du Pré assembled in the courtroom again. A large number of burghers had collected in front of the drostdy. These sent a deputation of four persons—Esaias Meyer, Jacobus Steyn, G. F. Rautenbach, and J. J. Botha—to communicate their orders to the board. The landdrost, secretary, and messenger of the court were commanded to resign their offices and to give over the drostdy, the secretary's house, and all the documents and funds belonging to the district, to Mr. Hermanus Steyn. The heemraad Laurens de Jager, who maintained that he was bound to the Company by his oath of office, was also dismissed. Hermanus Steyn was appointed landdrost, and a representative body, termed a National Assembly, was established. Thus a majority of the inhabitants of the district of Swellendam had thrown off the rule of the East India Company.

In Stellenbosch and in Capetown itself there were many who sympathised with these movements, and a very large proportion of the burghers in these places were only waiting for a favourable opportunity to free themselves from the Company's domination.

The troops in the colony consisted of a regiment of infantry mustering twenty-five officers and five hundred and forty-six rank and file, a corps of artillery mustering twenty-seven officers and four hundred and three rank and file, fifty-seven men belonging to the depôts of the regiments Meuron and Wurtemberg, and a corps of pandours two hundred and ten strong. The head of the whole military force was Colonel Robert Jacob Gordon. The infantry regiment was termed the national battalion, though it was composed of soldiers from nearly every country in the north of Europe, and there was hardly a Netherlander in it. It was commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel De Lille. All its officers were staunch adherents of the Orange party, and the rank and file were adherents of the party or nation who paid best. The artillery was in every respect superior. The men were Netherlanders with a small mixture of French and Germans, and were attached to the mother country. If not the whole, at least a large majority of this corps favoured the republican cause in Europe, and would have preferred to fight with the French rather than the English as allies.

With so many elements of weakness, the colony invited invasion. The English government was apprehensive of its falling into the possession of the French, by which the sea route to India would be endangered; and on the 2nd of February 1793, as soon as hostilities with France were certain, opened negotiations with the Dutch authorities concerning an increase of the garrison by forwarding British troops from St. Helena. The directors of the East India Company and the states-general were desirous of aid in the form of ships of war to guard the Cape peninsula, but if that could not be given they were

prepared to accept with thankfulness the offer of troops. Correspondence on the subject was carried on until the end of May, when other matters took its place.

The government of the stadtholder was paralysed by the dissensions of the people, and was making the most urgent appeals to Great Britain for more liberal assistance in soldiers and money. The English authorities were complaining bitterly that upon their troops the defence of the Netherlands was mainly resting, and that the stadtholder and the states-general were not exerting themselves to raise money and men as they ought to do.

As time went on this controversy deepened. The British ministers refused to see how helpless the Dutch government really was, and even after Pichegru had replaced Dumouriez in the command of the French army of invasion, when one Dutch fortress after another was falling, when the states-provincial of Friesland were threatening to make peace with France on their own account if the states-general would not, and when it was almost impossible to get even hospital accommodation in Dutch towns for wounded British soldiers, on account of the strong antipathy of the patriot party to the English alliance, they still clung to the delusion that it was apathy, more than weakness, which prevented the stadtholder from putting a large and well-equipped force in the field.

In consequence of this belief they represented that the various services of a pressing and important nature in which the British forces were employed would not admit of their taking upon themselves the additional burden of defending the Cape Colony, and they suggested that the Dutch government should furnish a body of five hundred to a thousand men for the purpose, which the English East India Company would transport free of charge. But this was utterly impossible, and the negotiations then fell through.

An intimation that the Dutch people might soon

change sides in the war was made to Commissioner Sluysken in a letter dated the 10th of October 1794, and signed by P. J. Guepin, chief advocate of the East India Company, with the knowledge and approbation of the directors. It was thus informally written that the stadtholder might know nothing about it. Mr. Guepin stated that matters were in a doubtful condition; the French armies were approaching, and had already occupied part of the country; it would therefore be necessary to keep careful watch, so as not to be surprised by any European enemy whatever. This letter was received at the Cape on the 7th of February 1795.

Except a rumour of the fall of Nymegen on the 8th of November, brought by a Swedish ship, nothing more was known of the course of events in the Netherlands until the 12th of April 1795, when the national frigate *Medenblik* arrived with two chartered ships in convoy. She had left Texel on the 22nd of December, and Captain Dekker, who commanded her, reported that a French army under General Pichegru was then besieging Breda and threatening to cross the Maas. The *Medenblik* brought no letters or despatches.

There were nine homeward bound ships at anchor in Table Bay, and as more were expected it was considered advisable to detain them that all might sail together. They were therefore sent to Simon's Bay, where they were soon afterwards joined by seven others. The cargoes of the whole were valued at 835,000*l.* On the 19th of May they sailed under protection of the frigate *Scipio* and the brig of war *Comeet*, two vessels which had been waiting here six months for that purpose. Just after leaving Simon's Bay they scattered, and eight of them were picked up by hostile cruisers lying in wait off the island of St. Helena.

After the arrival of the *Medenblik* no intelligence from Europe was received until the 11th of June 1795, when a report reached the castle from the resident at Simons-

town that at noon several ships of unknown nationality were beating into False Bay. Three hours later this report was followed by one from Muizenburg that the ships had cast anchor, and at ten in the evening a note was received from Simonstown stating that Captain Dekker of the *Medenblik* had sent a boat with a lieutenant to one of the strangers to ascertain particulars, that the lieutenant was to have waved a flag if they were friendly, but that no such signal had been made, and the boat had not yet returned.

The commissioner hereupon called the council of policy together, and at half past ten as many of the members as were in Capetown met in the castle. There were present, beside Mr. Sluysken, the secunde Johan Isaac Rhenius, Colonel Gordon, and Messrs. Jacobus Johannes le Sueur, Willem Ferdinand van Reede van Oudtshoorn, and Willem Stephanus van Ryneveld. They resolved unanimously to cause the signals of alarm to be made, summoning the burghers of the country districts to hasten to Capetown. Lieutenant-Colonel De Lille was directed immediately to proceed to Simonstown with two hundred infantry and one hundred gunners, to strengthen the garrison there, which consisted of only one hundred and fifty men all told. The troops left within an hour, and reached their destination before the following noon.

The council broke up a little after midnight, but the members remained at the castle, and at half past two in the morning of the 12th the commissioner called them together again. He had just received a letter from Mr. Brand, the resident at Simonstown, informing him that Captain Dekker's boat had returned, bringing a gentleman named Ross with letters from the English admiral Sir George Keith Elphinstone and Major-General James Henry Craig for the head of the government. Mr. Brand had supplied Mr. Ross with a horse and a guide, and he had arrived at the castle. The letters delivered by him were three complimentary notes from the directors of the

English East India Company to Commissioner Sluysken, and an invitation from Admiral Elphinstone to Commissioner Sluysken and Colonel Gordon to visit his ship for the purpose of receiving important information as well as a missive from the stadtholder. Mr. Ross, who was conversant with the Dutch language, was secretary to Major-General Craig. He evaded all questions concerning the state of affairs in Europe or the destination of the fleet.

Lieutenant Van Vegezak, of the *Medenblik*, who had been on board the English admiral's ship, arrived at the castle while the council was still sitting. He stated that he had not been able to obtain any other information than that the fleet consisted of three ships of seventy-four guns, named the *Monarch*, *Arrogant*, and *Victorious*, three of sixty-four guns, named the *America*, *Ruby*, and *Stately*, a frigate of twenty-four guns named the *Sphinx*, and two sloops of war, the *Echo* and *Rattlesnake*, respectively of eighteen and sixteen guns. The admiral commanding was Sir George Keith Elphinstone, and there were troops on board, how many he could not ascertain, under command of Major-General James Henry Craig.

The expedition was sent from England as soon as possible after the overthrow of the stadtholder's government, when the British ministers at once realised that they must depend upon the exertions of their own country alone to keep the French out of India. The fleet had made a rapid passage.

One division, under Commodore Blankett, sailed from Spithead on the 13th of March, and the other, under Admiral Elphinstone, followed on the 3rd of April. The two squadrons united off the Cape on the 10th of June.

In reply to the letter of Admiral Elphinstone and General Craig, the council informed them that it was not possible for either Commissioner Sluysken or Colonel Gordon to leave Capetown, and invited them to send a trustworthy officer with the information and despatches. The resident at Simonstown was instructed to permit the



English fleet to take in provisions, but not to allow armed men to land.

There was at Muizenburg a signal station, with a couple of mortars in position to command the road from Simonstown, but no fort. Before daylight the militia captain Pieter de Waal with eighty-four Cape burghers, and thirty gunners with three small field-pieces, were on their way to occupy that post.

The defensive works of Simon's Bay consisted of the batteries Boetselaar and Zoutman, the former provided with six and the latter with four small cannon. They were incapable of offering effectual resistance to a force such as that under the English admiral. On the 13th of June instructions were sent to Lieutenant-Colonel De Lille to leave a small garrison in each of them, and to strengthen the post at Muizenburg with two hundred infantry and one hundred and forty artillerymen.

In the afternoon of the following day there arrived at the castle Lieutenant-Colonel Mackenzie of the second battalion of the seventy-eighth regiment, Captain Hardy, of the *Echo* sloop of war, and Mr. Ross, secretary to General Craig, who handed to Commissioner Sluysken a mandate from the prince of Orange, dated at Kew on the 7th of February 1795, ordering him to admit the troops of the king of England into the forts and elsewhere in the colony, also to admit British ships of war into the ports, and to consider such troops and ships of war as the forces of a friendly power sent to protect the colony against the French. They also delivered to the commissioner a letter from Admiral Elphinstone and General Craig, in which an account of the condition of the Netherlands was given. The winter in Europe had been an excessively severe one, he was informed, and towards the close of January the rivers were frozen so hard that the French armies crossed into Utrecht and Gelderland, compelling the English forces to retire into Germany and the Dutch forces to surrender. In a few days the whole

country fell into possession of the French without any terms of capitulation, and the stadtholder was obliged to make his escape in a fishing boat, which conveyed him from Scheveningen to England. Great Britain and her allies were, however, raising large armies, and they were confident of being able to drive out the French in the next campaign.

The statements made in this letter fell short of giving complete particulars, and, throughout the negotiations which followed, the officials and inhabitants of the colony were studiously kept in ignorance that the democratic party in the Netherlands had given the French an enthusiastic welcome, that the national government had been remodelled, and that the states-general had abolished the stadtholderate. No newspapers were supplied, though asked for. The view which the British officers tried to impress was that the Netherlands had been conquered and were being subjected to very rigorous treatment by the French. They did not wish it to be known that a national government was still in existence, and that the majority of the people regarded the French as friends.

The council took the mandate of the prince of Orange and the letter of the English officers into careful consideration. Even if written in the Netherlands, the mandate would not have been officially of any force, as it was signed by the prince of Orange alone; but having been written in a foreign country by a fugitive prince, it could not be held to have any weight whatever. Every member of the council sympathised strongly with the Orange faction, but there was no evading the fact that their allegiance was due to the mother country, and not to a party. Any day intelligence might arrive from the Netherlands, and it was therefore important to gain as much time as possible. With this object in view, the council wrote to Admiral Elphinstone that the fleet would be supplied with provisions, and requested that only small parties of unarmed men might be sent on shore. They

were grateful, they said, to the British government for the evidence of its friendship, and in case the colony should be attacked by the French they would ask the British officers in the fleet for assistance, though they were in the fortunate position of being able to resist a hostile power. They desired to be informed what number of troops could be furnished to aid them, if necessary.

An answer was sent that General Craig would proceed to Capetown and give them further information. In the mean time the burgher forces were beginning to arrive from Stellenbosch, and on the 15th of June two hundred horsemen were sent to strengthen the post at Muizenburg.

On the 18th of June General Craig, attended by three officers and his secretary, arrived in Capetown and had an interview with the commissioner. On the following day the council of policy met, when the general communicated to the members the object of his mission and the manner in which he had been instructed to carry it out. The fleet and troops, he stated, had been sent by his Britannic Majesty to protect the colony until the restoration of the ancient form of government in the Netherlands, when it would be in his Majesty's power to restore it to its proper owner. No alterations would be made in the laws or the customs of the country without the expressed desire of the inhabitants, nor would any additional taxation be imposed. The people would be required to defray the cost of their government as it then existed, but nothing more. They would be at liberty to trade with England and the English possessions in India. The troops would be paid by England, and would be required to take an oath of allegiance to his Britannic Majesty for the time that he should be in possession of the colony. The civil servants would retain their offices until his Majesty's pleasure should be known.

The council replied in writing, declining to entertain the proposal, and informing the general that they were

determined to protect the colony with their own forces against any power that should attack them.

Admiral Elphinstone and General Craig, upon the return of the latter to Simon's Bay, issued a proclamation in which the government and inhabitants were invited and required to place themselves under his Britannic Majesty's protection, as the French would undoubtedly endeavour to obtain possession of the dependencies of the Netherlands.

Three days later the English officers issued an address, in which the offer of protection under the conditions named by General Craig was repeated, and a committee of the inhabitants was invited to come to Simonstown to confer with them. The address was issued in the Dutch and German languages, and a good many copies were distributed. It put before the colonists the alternative of a French or an English occupation. The former was pictured as a government on jacobin principles, with the tree of liberty and the guillotine, freedom of the slaves accompanied by such horrors as those which had laid waste the rich and beautiful islands of St. Domingo and Guadeloupe, total cessation of intercourse with Europe, annihilation of commerce, and absence of money and the necessaries of life. The latter as protection by the only power in Europe able to assure safety of person and property under the existing laws or others that the inhabitants might desire, free sale of all productions of the country at the best prices obtainable, release from imposts intended for the exclusive benefit of the Dutch East India Company, commerce by sea or land from one part of the colony to another, and better pay for such soldiers as might choose to enter the English service.

In consequence of this proceeding, the council notified a desire to be excused from further communications; still the correspondence was continued. On the 26th the admiral and general wrote a long letter, the keynote of which was that the Netherlands had been absorbed by

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France, and as the Cape Colony if left to itself would be absorbed also, his Britannic Majesty could not allow it to fall into the hands of his enemies. The council replied that there was a great difference between offering assistance against an invader and requiring them to surrender the colony to the British government.

At this stage the further supply of provisions to the fleet was prohibited. The post at Muizenburg was strengthened by another detachment of burgher horsemen, and by the pandours under Commandant Jan Gerhard Cloete. The troops that had garrisoned the battery Boetselaar were also removed to Muizenburg, only one man being left behind to spike the guns in case the English should land.

As soon as the design of the British officers was known, those burghers of the Cape and Stellenbosch who had hitherto been refractory ceased opposing the government, and declared themselves ready to assist in the defence of the colony to the utmost of their power. When the commissioner announced that the country would not be surrendered, he was met with loud huzzas in the streets, and was hailed as Father Sluysken. The great majority of the colonists, being attached to the republican party in Europe, were ready to welcome the French, if they could not be left to themselves. They reminded each other how English visitors had for years been insulting them by boastfully predicting that the colony would one day be subject to Great Britain, and now an attempt was being made under the name of friendship to turn that prediction into reality. English arrogance was spoken and written of as if it was the most prominent feature of the English character.

On the other hand, the high officials, though professing that it was their duty to defend the colony, were at heart lukewarm in the matter. Colonel Gordon stated that he was prepared to admit the English troops if the jacobins should threaten an attack. He was even dis-

posed to admit them under existing circumstances if they would declare that they would hold the country entirely for the prince of Orange, but he said he would resist them to the last drop of his blood if their object was to obtain possession for Great Britain. He could not be quite certain on this point, though the English officers asserted in the plainest language that the colony would be restored to the Netherlands as soon as the government of the stadtholder was re-established. They believed when they arrived that he would at once join them, probably reckoning upon his being partly of Scotch descent<sup>1</sup> as well as wholly of Orange proclivities. As it was, he did not throw his energy into resisting them, neither did Commissioner Sluysken, upon whom the chief responsibility rested, and who had complete control over the council. Most of the officials of lower grade and a few of the burghers of the town were willing to welcome the English troops, and went about singing Orange songs,<sup>2</sup> believing that the object of the British government really was to hold the country in trust for the fugitive stadtholder.

On the 21st of June the *Medenblik* sailed for Batavia, but unaccompanied by the two ships which had come from Europe under her protection. Captain Dekker was desirous of conveying intelligence to the Indian authorities of events in the Netherlands and at the Cape. The British admiral, who wished to avoid actual hostilities, if that was possible, made no objection to his leaving,

<sup>1</sup>He was born at Doesburg on the Eyssel. His father was a Scotch officer in the Dutch service, but his mother was a Dutch woman. He was trained in a Scotch regiment in the service of the States, and spoke and wrote the English language almost as fluently as the Dutch.

<sup>2</sup>These songs irritated the other faction exceedingly. Only part of one of them has been preserved, and it consists of wretched doggerel, with the refrain

‘Speeld op bas, viool, en snaren,  
‘K wil ‘t Oranjehuis bewaren.’

but required him to promise on his word of honour not to put into any French port on the passage.

The offer of being taken into the British service with an increase of pay, made to soldiers who were chiefly foreign mercenaries and who had long received nothing but cartoon money, was sufficient to induce some of those of the so-called national battalion at Muizenburg to desert. In less than a fortnight twenty-three of them changed sides, and desertions continued to be common until a few weeks later when two who were caught by a burgher patrol were tried and punished with death.<sup>1</sup> Not a single artilleryman abandoned his colours.

The militia at Muizenburg were living in great discomfort. The soldiers were provided with tents, but there were very few to spare for the burghers, who had to make shelters of bushes and reeds. It was the winter season, and although during June and July the weather was unusually mild and very little rain fell, sleeping in the open air was unpleasant. The burghers were relieved every third day by fresh detachments from the town, so that they were able to keep their horses in good condition. Each man received daily eight shillings in cartoon money, with which to provide for himself and his horse.

The two chartered ships which had come from Europe under protection of the *Medenblik* were still lying in Simon's Bay, and on the 24th of June a homeward bound ship from Batavia came to anchor there also. Commissioner Sluysken sent their skippers instructions to proceed to Table Bay, but Admiral Elphinstone prohibited their sailing. On the 28th of June two small vessels under the American flag arrived in Simon's Bay. One—the *Columbia*—was from Amsterdam, where she had been chartered to convey despatches to the Cape and Batavia. She was at once placed under guard by the English admiral, and her mails were taken possession of. Instruc-

<sup>1</sup> The British admiral wrote of this circumstance that two of his men had been arrested and shot, and described the act as one of hostility.

tions were issued that no newspapers should be allowed to reach the shore; but one escaped the vigilance of the sentries, and came into possession of a Cape burgher. It contained a notice by the states-general, dated the 4th of March 1795, absolving all persons in the Netherlands and in the Dutch colonies from the oath of allegiance to the prince of Orange. The letters were examined by British officers, and portions of many of them, as also some annexures to despatches, were detained. The residue of the correspondence was then sent by the admiral to Capetown for delivery. But from the notice in the newspaper and the letters to private individuals, mutilated as they were, it was ascertained that the French were treating with the Netherlands as an independent republic, that the stadtholderate had been abolished by the national will, and that the French were regarded as friends.

With this knowledge, the commissioner and the council asserted that it was simple duty to do their utmost to prevent the English from obtaining possession of the colony. There was a possibility that the fleet might be forced to sail if no provisions could be obtained. There was further a possibility of aid reaching them from Europe if they could hold out long enough. Perhaps too, as Mr. Sluysken afterwards pleaded, though there is nothing on record at the time to show that such a motive was then in the mind of any one, the disadvantage to the mother country of a voluntary surrender of the colony had something to do with their decision. If they held out and were overpowered, it was unquestionable that the Netherlands would have a much better claim to the restoration of the country when peace should be made, than if they placed themselves without a struggle under the protection of Great Britain. With these objects in view, and perhaps, as the burghers afterwards declared must be the case, because there was nothing to lose in opposing the English provided they did not altogether repel them, and there might be a



strong combined French and Dutch fleet on the way out, in which case their heads would be in danger if they made no show of resistance, on the 29th of June the commissioner and the chief of the army, with the concurrence of the remaining members of the council, issued orders for the abandonment of Simonstown. That night all the provisions in the place were destroyed, the guns in the batteries Boetselaar and Zoutman were spiked, all the ammunition that could not be carried away was thrown into the sea, and the troops and most of the inhabitants retired, leaving behind only the assistant resident—Mr. Jan Hendrik Brand—with two slaves to serve him, and the widows Auret and Aspeling with their households. Mrs. Auret left a few weeks later, but Mrs. Aspeling preferred to remain and take care of her property. The troops joined the other forces at Muizenburg.

Two English men-of-war were blockading Table Bay, where the Company's packet brig *Star* was at anchor. The council therefore chartered from Messrs. Van Reenen a cutter of theirs which was at anchor in Saldanha Bay, and sent her to Batavia with despatches. She sailed at midnight on the 14th of July.

When the signals calling the burghers to the Cape were first made, only seventy men belonging to the district of Swellendam responded to them. The Nationals declined to obey. On the 22nd of June Commissioner Sluysken wrote urging them to do their duty, and on the following day Messrs. A. Horak and N. Linde addressed a strong appeal to them. Still they made no response. On the 7th of July the burgher councillors requested Commissioner Sluysken and the council of policy to offer them an amnesty for the past and reasonable redress of grievances as soon as possible, if they would assist in the defence of the country. This request was complied with, but the offer was not at first well received, as they wished the term 'reasonable redress of grievances' to be clearly defined.

At the instance of a considerable number of burghers, on the 16th of July the five individuals who called themselves the national assembly—Hermanus Steyn, Anthonie van Vollenhoven, Ernst du Toit, Pieter Jacobus Delpont, and Louis Almoro Pisani—met in session, and framed an answer. In language which is only intelligible to those who are acquainted with the circumstances of the country at the time, they stated that they were resolved to shed the last drop of their blood, if necessary, in defence of freedom; but they were willing to treat with the commissioner and to render assistance if he would guarantee to them exemption from the payment of direct taxes, free trade, the withdrawal of the cartoon money, permission to retain in perpetual slavery all Bushmen made prisoners by commandos or individuals, and several other favours of less importance.<sup>1</sup>

The letter was hardly despatched, however, when many of them became suddenly conscious that their claims would certainly be ignored if the English got possession of the country. They therefore resolved, while maintaining their right to self-government to a very large extent, to aid in the defence; and one hundred and sixty-eight mounted men, under Commandant Delpont, left for Capetown. Upon arriving at the farm of the widow Morkel in Hottentots-Holland, they sent to ask assurance of safety. Messrs. A. Horak and G. H. Meyer were instructed by Commissioner Sluysken to convey this to them, and on the 26th of July they arrived at the castle. The Swellendam burghers were then formed into three companies, one of ninety-six men under Captain J. J. Botha, one of eighty men under Captain H. Mulder, and one of sixty-two men under Captain L. de Jager.

<sup>1</sup>This document is printed in Mr. Sluysken's *Verbaal*, and by the insertion of a comma where none should be it is made to show that the slavery of Hottentots also was demanded. This was not the case. The Bushmen were commonly called in the colony Bushmen-Hottentots, and the words should have been printed in this form, not 'Bushmen, Hottentots,' etc.

After Delpport left, some forty or forty-five individuals, chiefly discharged soldiers and persons of little standing, elected Pisani to be their commandant, and threatened to confiscate the property of those who were aiding the Company. Pisani was an Italian who arrived in this country as a soldier. After a while he deserted and wandered over the colony, but returned to his regiment on a promise of pardon. When the garrison was reduced he obtained leave to seek service among the farmers, and finally, in 1792, was discharged and became a burgher. He was married to a daughter of the farmer Jan Crafford, and had three children. Under this man's leadership, the extreme section of the Nationals marched towards the Cape, and on the 10th of August reached Waveren. From this place, Pisani wrote to Commissioner Sluysken, demanding a reply to the letter from the national assembly, and threatening hostilities if a favourable answer were not forwarded within twenty-four hours. The commissioner at once set a price of 200*l.* upon his head, dead or alive. Some of his former associates joined an expedition against him, and on the 13th of August he and two other discharged soldiers were arrested at the house of Marthinus Roux at the Tigerberg. Pisani was committed to prison, from which he only emerged some months later to go into banishment from the colony for life.

From the district of Stellenbosch and Drakenstein six hundred and fifty-eight mounted burghers had arrived. They were in five companies, under the captains Loubser, Myburgh, Van der Byl, Hoffman, and Cloete. The Cape district furnished two hundred and forty-four mounted burghers, formed into two companies under the captains De Waal and Goosen. Thus there were altogether in the field eleven hundred and forty burgher horsemen. About two hundred were constantly at Muizenburg, the others were stationed in Capetown, with pickets along the road to the camp.

On the 9th of July Admiral Elphinstone took possession of the three Dutch ships in Simon's Bay, stating that he did so to prevent their destruction by their crews. One of them, the *Willemstad en Boetselaar*, a new and well-found ship of a thousand tons burden and carrying twenty-six guns, two months later was renamed the *Princess*, and became a British cruiser. On the 14th four hundred and fifty men of the second battalion of the seventy-eighth regiment were landed and occupied Simonstown, where a week later they were joined by four hundred marines.

With most people these would certainly be considered acts of war, yet neither the English commanders nor Commissioner Sluysken chose to regard them as such. The commissioner issued orders that no attack was to be made upon the English patrols, nor anything done to provoke them to retaliate or give them an opportunity to throw the blame upon the Dutch of commencing hostilities. On the 3rd of August a burgher officer named Jacobus van Reenen with a party of pandours proceeded along the hills above Simonstown to make observations, and fired towards an English picket, when one man was slightly wounded. For this he was reprimanded, because in the commissioner's opinion the English might construe it into an act of war. And in General Craig's despatches it is described as the commencement of hostilities.

Boats from the English ships were allowed to come unmolested and take soundings in front of the camp at Muizenburg. A strong battery had been erected to command the road from Simonstown, but there were no defences on the side of the sea. The burgher and artillery officers desired that earthworks should be thrown up to protect the camp from the guns of ships, but the commissioner and Colonel Gordon decided that it would be unnecessary labour, as in their opinion no ships could get close enough to the shore to do any damage. And when at last leave was obtained to place two twenty-four poun-

ders in position to face the sea, no platforms were made for them to rest on, so that they were practically of little use.

The soldiers at Muizenburg had no lack of provisions. There was a year's supply of grain and wine in the magazines at Capetown, and food in abundance was forwarded without difficulty. So much wine and brandy, indeed, was sent, that there was sufficient for a month's consumption in advance.

The British officers now resolved to take possession of that post, in order to open communication with the country once more, as they were completely isolated at Simons-town. The admiral was anxious to proceed to India and secure Trincomalee before the change of the monsoon, and he was therefore averse to longer delay in South Africa, though his instructions required him to avoid hostilities if possible. The position of matters appeared to him and General Craig not unfavourable for an advance.

From two officers of the English East India Company who had been sometime resident in Capetown they had obtained information concerning the disturbances in the interior of the colony and the dissensions among the burghers generally. They were confident that the national battalion would not oppose them, and they had even strong hope of being joined by that regiment as soon as the first shot was fired.

On the other hand, they could not bring a force of more than sixteen hundred men into action, and they had not a single field gun. They had sent the *Sphinx* to St. Helena to request Lieutenant-Colonel Robert Brooke, who was then governor of that island, to forward to them all the troops and artillery he could spare, together with a supply of silver money, but had as yet received no other assistance than 5,000*l.* in coin brought by the *Orpheus* Indiaman, which arrived on the 5th of August. The great majority of the colonists were opposed to them, and any force they could send beyond reach of their ships'

guns could therefore easily be destroyed if a French squadron should appear in Table Bay.

Taking all these circumstances into consideration, the British commanders decided to attempt to get possession of Muizenburg, and from that position to renew negotiations with the Cape government, but not to proceed farther until the arrival of Major-General Alured Clarke, who was on his way from England with strong reinforcements.

On the morning of the 7th of August there were at the Muizenburg camp two hundred men of the national battalion, one hundred and twenty artillerymen, two hundred burgher cavalry, and one hundred and fifty pandours. There was also a small guard at Kalk Bay. About an hour after noon another hundred burgher horsemen arrived as a relief. Just as they reached the camp it was observed that some of the English ships were under sail, but no particular regard was at first paid to their movements, as for several days previously Admiral Elphinstone had caused vessels to cruise round the bay.

In a very few minutes, however, it became evident that the British forces were about to make an attack. For this purpose a column had been formed of soldiers of the second battalion of the seventy-eighth regiment, marines, and sailors, in all sixteen hundred men. Major-General Craig was in command, and under him the naval brigades were led by Captains Spranger and Hardy of the *Rattlesnake* and *Echo*, sloops of war. The admiral had converted a little vessel into a gunboat, which he named the *Squib*, and mounted two cannons—one nine and one eighteen pounder—on her deck. The ships' launches were also armed with light guns, and with the *Squib* were directed to row along the shore about five hundred yards in advance of the column, in order to keep the road open. The sea in False Bay was smooth, but a gentle breeze was blowing from the north-west, sufficient to keep a ship in motion. The *America*, *Stately*, *Echo*, and *Rattlesnake*,

under command of Commodore Blankett, set their sails and stood over to the Muizenburg beach.<sup>1</sup>

Along the margin of False Bay, from Kalk Bay to Muizenburg, a steep mountain rises only a few paces from the water's edge. On the narrow strip of comparatively level ground was the road, then as to-day the only passage by which troops could march from Simonstown to Capetown. At Muizenburg the mountain terminates abruptly, and is succeeded by the sandy plain called the Cape flats, extending from False Bay to Table Bay and forming the isthmus that connects the Cape peninsula with the African continent. On these flats, close to the end of the mountain, is a large sheet of shallow water called Sandvlei, with a brook, which flows only after rain and is known as Keyser's river, emptying into it on the northern side. The Dutch camp was at the foot of the mountain facing False Bay, and eleven pieces of artillery commanded the road.

The English ships fired a few guns at the outpost at Kalk Bay, which caused the picket there to retire over the mountain. Sailing on until abreast of Muizenburg, they anchored and then opened their broadsides upon the camp; but the first shot was hardly fired when De Lille with the infantry of the national battalion abandoned the post. The main body, led by the colonel, fled hastily through Sandvlei. One company of fifty men, under Captain Warnecke, retired in better order and more slowly along the base of the Steenberg.

Some of the artillerymen followed, leaving a company under Lieutenant Marnitz to work the two twenty-four

<sup>1</sup>In the public record office in London there is a document recounting his services drawn up by Sir George Elphinstone (then Lord Keith) some years later, in which it is stated that on the 7th of August with the *America*, *Stately*, *Echo*, *Prince of Wales* armed transport, and two gunboats he cannonaded Muizenburg and lost several men. The only way of accounting for the error—for such it certainly is—is by supposing that the statement was drawn up from a defective memory.

pounders. With these the English fire was answered, but without much effect. The *America* had two men killed and four wounded, and one of her guns was disabled by Lieutenant Marnitz's fire. The *Stately* had one man wounded. A few balls passed quite through both these ships, but only injured them to a trifling extent. The range of the English guns was so high that the shot passed over the camp and struck the mountain above. The Dutch guns, resting on loose soil, required to be got into position after every discharge, and Lieutenant Marnitz was soon convinced that the camp could not be held. He therefore spiked the two cannon, and retired as the English column, which had marched from Simons-town, but was without artillery, came charging along the road. Nothing was taken from the camp by the retreating troops but five small field-pieces.

It is no stigma upon the burgher cavalry and the pandours that they were swept round the mountain in confusion by the fire from the ships, and did not wait to meet the advancing column. The English followed with cheers; but at the first point out of range of the ships' guns, the artillerymen and burghers made a stand. From this they were driven by a charge of two companies of the seventy-eighth under Major Moneyppenny. Behind the mountain, however, they again turned upon their pursuers. Captain Kemper, who was retreating with some artillerymen on the other side of Sandvlei, seeing this, brought a gun to bear upon the English with such effect that they fell back to Muizenburg. The casualties were one English officer, one burgher, two Dutch artillerymen, and one pandour wounded.

De Lille with the infantry could easily have made a stand behind Sandvlei, at the mouth of the brook, as at that point his front would have been protected and the field-pieces which he had with him would have commanded the road where it leaves the beach at Muizenburg and turns off nearly at a right angle into the sandy



plain. Instead of doing so, he continued his flight in the greatest confusion to Lochner's farm at Diep River, some half mile or thereabouts on the western side of the present main road, and between the Eaton convalescent home and Constantia. The colonel arrived there without knowing what had become of the artillerymen and the burghers.

As soon as the signal was made that the English were advancing, five companies of burgher horsemen hastened from Capetown towards Muizenburg; but on the way they met the fugitives, and learned that the camp was lost with everything in it. They remained on the flats that night, scattered about in parties of ten and twenty.

Next morning De Lille with some of the infantry returned to the head of Sandvlei, but fled precipitately upon a column of English seamen and marines advancing to attack him, though they had to wade through the vlei with the water in some places above their waists. The English pursued until they were surprised by finding a party of burghers and pandours emerging from behind some sandhills on their flank. They in their turn then fled, thinking they were being drawn into a trap, and were followed by the burghers and pandours until these were checked by the fire of the cannon which had been abandoned and spiked by Lieutenant Marnitz on the previous day, but which General Craig had caused to be drilled and placed in position at the end of the mountain. In the pursuit of the English De Lille gave no assistance whatever, but, on the contrary, while they were running towards Muizenburg he was running in the opposite direction. That evening he formed a camp at or very near the site of the present military buildings at Wynberg, about a mile from the farm where he had passed the previous night.

The burgher officers Botha, Loubser, De Waal, Van der Byl, Goosen, Hoffman, and Mulder now drew up a

document in which Lieutenant-Colonel De Lille was charged with treason, and forwarded it to the commissioner. He was thereupon sent to the castle under arrest, and on the 10th of August Captain Van Baalen was placed in command of the camp at Wynberg. De Lille's conduct was investigated by the fiscal, and he was acquitted of treason. The popular fury against him was, however, so great, that he was kept in confinement to ensure his safety. There is certainly no proof that he deliberately entered into an agreement with the British officers to betray his trust,<sup>1</sup> still his conduct cannot be attributed to either imbecility or cowardice. He was a devoted adherent of the Orange party, and regarded the English as supporters of the Orange cause, so would not fight against them. Successful resistance, in his opinion, would have been equivalent to giving up the country to the Nationals, whom he hated. At the earliest opportunity he entered the British service, on the 27th of October was appointed barrack master in Capetown, and thereafter was in the habit of wearing the Orange cockade, professing devotion to the English, and in his revels venting abhorrence of the jacobins, whether in France, or the Netherlands, or South Africa.

On the 9th of August the transport *Arniston* arrived in Simon's Bay from St. Helena, with three hundred and ninety-eight soldiers in the service of the English East India Company, nine pieces of field artillery, a quantity of ammunition, and a considerable sum of silver money, forwarded by Governor Brooke.

<sup>1</sup> There is a strong probability, however, that he assured the British officers shortly after their arrival that he would assist them. Apart from the confidence which they had all along that his regiment would not oppose them, Admiral Elphinstone, writing to the secretary of state for war on the 17th of June, said: 'I went on shore . . . I met there a gentleman with an unequivocal message from one of Rank among the Troops respecting himself and a number of men.' There was no officer of rank at that time in the neighbourhood except De Lille.

Three days later Admiral Elphinstone and General Craig wrote again to Commissioner Sluysken, the council, and the inhabitants. They announced that they had received some reinforcements, and expected immediately three thousand more soldiers. They had left England hastily in order to reach the Cape before the French, and only brought with them such land forces as could be accommodated in the men-of-war. But when they sailed, a number of Indiamen were being made ready to bring out troops, and these were now due. They repeated the offer to take the Cape under British protection upon the same terms as those announced ever since their arrival, and they added that their people were becoming exasperated and it might be impossible to restrain their fury if resistance were made much longer.

The commissioner laid this letter before the council of policy, the burgher councillors, and the burgher militia, with a request for an expression of opinion. In the council of policy, Messrs. Sluysken, Rhenius, Gordon, De Wet, Brand, Van Ryneveld, and Bergh voted not to give up the colony while resistance could be offered. Mr. Le Sueur differed, as he saw no possibility of successful resistance against so powerful an enemy. Mr. Van Reede van Oudtshoorn was absent.

The burgher councillors—Messrs. J. Smuts, G. H. Meyer, H. J. de Wet, A. Fleck, H. A. Truter, and H. P. Warnecke—unanimously adopted a resolution that the colony ought to be defended to the very last. The burghers were assembled, and the letter was read to them. They were of the same opinion as the councillors, and the militia officers without an exception signed a document to that effect.

On the 18th of August the commissioner communicated to the British officers the resolution of the people, and announced that the colony would still be defended.

But in spite of these brave words, even if all who used them were in earnest, which is doubtful, the means

of resistance were daily becoming less. There were rumours that the Bushmen in the interior were particularly troublesome, and that the Hottentots in the district of Swellendam and the slaves in Stellenbosch and Drakenstein meditated insurrection. Whether these rumours were true or false, many burghers returned home to protect their families. Feelings of patriotism, however strong, were too weak to keep a body of militia together under such circumstances. From eleven hundred and forty men, which the burgher cavalry numbered during July and the first fortnight in August, they fell off to about nine hundred at the beginning of September. The burgher infantry, three hundred and fifty strong, which was composed of residents of the town, remained intact. The government endeavoured to enlist more pandours, and a commission was sent to the country districts to obtain half-breeds and Hottentots for the purpose, but met with no success.

On the morning of the 1st of September the burghers, aided by some of the pandours, attempted to get possession of the English outposts on the Steenberg; but not being supported by the regular troops, nor being allowed the use of the field-pieces which they needed, they were unsuccessful. Among those severely wounded on the English side on this occasion were Major Moneyppenny of the seventy-eighth and Captain Dentaffe of the St. Helena regiment. The total loss of the English forces since the arrival of the fleet was brought up to five rank and file killed and four officers and thirty-nine rank and file wounded.

On the same day a mutiny broke out in the pandour corps. Commandant Cloete was ill, and the men had little regard for the other officers. One hundred and seventy of them marched with their arms to the castle, declaring they would fight no longer. They complained that some of their families had been ill treated by colonists during their absence, that their pay was inadequate,

that they were subject to abusive remarks, that 40*l.* which had been promised to them as a reward for good conduct had not yet been distributed, and that their rations of spirits were insufficient. Commissioner Sluysken did what he could to pacify them. He promised to raise their pay from eight to twelve shillings a month, to see that they and their families were well treated, and to allow them an increase of spirits and wine. He succeeded in inducing them to return to the camp, but they went back sullen and obstinate, and were thereafter of very little service.

An attack by night upon the English camp at Muizenburg was planned, and was about to be attempted when on the 4th of September the Indiamen *Northumberland*, *Prince William Henry*, *Exeter*, *Worcester*, *Osterly*, *Kent*, *Brunswick*, *Bombay Castle*, *Earl Cornwallis*, *Earl Howe*, *Deptford*, *General Coote*, and *Warren Hastings*, with the armed transport *Prince of Wales* entered Simon's Bay. They had on board the second battalion of the eighty-fourth, the ninety-fifth, and the ninety-eighth regiments of the line, with a strong body of engineers and artillerymen, in all three thousand troops, under command of General Alured Clarke. Many of the burgher cavalry now gave up all hope, and left for their homes, so that ten days later there were only five hundred and twenty-one men of this force in the field.

On the 9th of September Admiral Elphinstone and Generals Clarke and Craig issued another address, inviting the inhabitants to submit to the protection of the overwhelming force that must otherwise take possession of the country by violent means. Commissioner Sluysken replied, as before, that his oath required him to defend the colony for its lawful owners.

At nine o'clock in the morning of the 14th of September an English force, between four and five thousand strong, in two columns, marched from Muizenburg towards Capetown. As soon as the signals were made, all

the burgher cavalry, with the exception of one company, were sent to assist the regular troops. Some joined the camp at Wynberg, others attempted to harass the columns on the march, in which they succeeded so far as to kill one sailor and wound seventeen soldiers. In this service a party of the Swellendam Nationals, under Daniel du Plessis, particularly distinguished themselves. They so won the respect of General Clarke that after the final surrender he invited Du Plessis to dine with him, and highly complimented the sturdy burgher. But the force to which they were opposed was too strong to be checked by any efforts that they could make.

Van Baalen—now promoted by Commissioner Sluysken to the rank of major,—who was in command of the camp at Wynberg, arranged to meet the shock of battle by drawing up his forces in a faulty manner and placing his cannon in such a position that they were practically useless. Some artillery and burgher officers remonstrated, but to no purpose, for as soon as the English were within range, he retreated with the greater part of the national battalion. The burghers cried out that they were being betrayed and sold. It was a scene of confusion. One company of infantry and most of the artillerymen made a stand for a few minutes, and then fell back towards Capetown, abandoning the camp with everything in it. One burgher and one soldier were killed, and another soldier was wounded. The burgher cavalry, strongly impressed with the idea that Commissioner Sluysken and Colonel Gordon, as well as the officers of the national battalion, were traitors at heart, and considering that if they crossed the lines they would be in a trap and must become prisoners of war, dispersed and returned to their homes.

While this was taking place, a squadron of three British men-of-war and an Indiaman was threatening Capetown from the side of Table Bay, but did not come within gunshot.

At six o'clock in the evening of the 14th of September the council of policy met. All the members except Colonel Gordon were present. The position was as follows. A British army, over four thousand strong and in thorough discipline, was in bivouac at Newlands. The force which still nominally remained at the disposal of the government was composed of five hundred and forty-two men of the national battalion, four hundred and three artillerymen, fifty-seven men of the depôts of the regiments Meuron and Wurtemberg, seventy-one convalescent sailors, three hundred and fifty burgher infantry, ninety-five burgher cavalry, a corps of one hundred and twenty-five pennists, a corps of forty-two Malays, and a few seamen belonging to the ship *Castor* and brig *Star*, altogether about one thousand seven hundred and twenty men. Nearly half of these had retreated during the day from the camp at Wynberg, and at dusk were reported to be at Drie Kopjes—now Mowbray. The remainder were distributed among the fortifications in Hout Bay, Camp's Bay, and Table Valley. Even supposing them all thoroughly loyal and determined to fight to the last, they could not have held their own for any length of time; but they were without a leader in whom they could have confidence, and a very large proportion of those who were disciplined were not disposed to meet the English in battle.

Under these circumstances further defence seemed impossible; but one member of the council—Mr. Van Reede van Oudtshoorn—still objected to voluntary surrender. He was commandant of the pennists. In that capacity he offered with his corps to be employed in the hottest part of a final battle, and declared that with his consent the colony would never be given up. The remaining members were unanimous that, to save the town from being taken by storm, they ought to capitulate on the best terms obtainable. With this view a messenger with a flag of truce was sent to the English bivouac at New-

lands, with letters to the generals and admiral requesting a suspension of hostilities for forty-eight hours, in order to arrange terms. At midnight General Clarke consented to an armistice for twenty-four hours.

In the morning of the 15th Messrs. J. J. le Sueur and W. S. van Ryneveld were sent with the conditions proposed by the council to confer with General Craig, who had come for that purpose to Rustenburg, the garden and country seat of the early Dutch governors at Rondebosch, then occupied by Mr. Gerhard Munnik. Some of the articles proposed were agreed to, others were modified, and only one was rejected. This one related to five deserters from the English forces who had joined the Dutch, and for whose safety a promise of pardon was desired. The rejection of this article caused some delay, as Commissioner Sluysken, on being referred to, declined to consent to the capitulation without it. General Craig then, while still refusing to have an article promising pardon inserted in the terms of surrender, gave his word that no notice would be taken of the deserters. The commissioner and council, late in the night of Tuesday the 15th of September 1795, agreed to the terms as modified by General Craig, and signed them. Early in the morning of the 16th the arrangements for the capitulation were completed by the document being signed by General Clarke and Admiral Elphinstone at Rustenburg. At eleven o'clock the council closed its last session by ordering the publication of the articles and official notification of what had occurred to be given to the heads of departments and officers in the country districts.

The terms provided for the surrender of the Dutch troops as prisoners of war, but the officers were to be at liberty either to remain in Capetown or to return to Europe, upon giving their word of honour not to serve against England during the continuance of hostilities. The colonists were to retain all their privileges, including the existing form of religion. No new taxes were to be levied,



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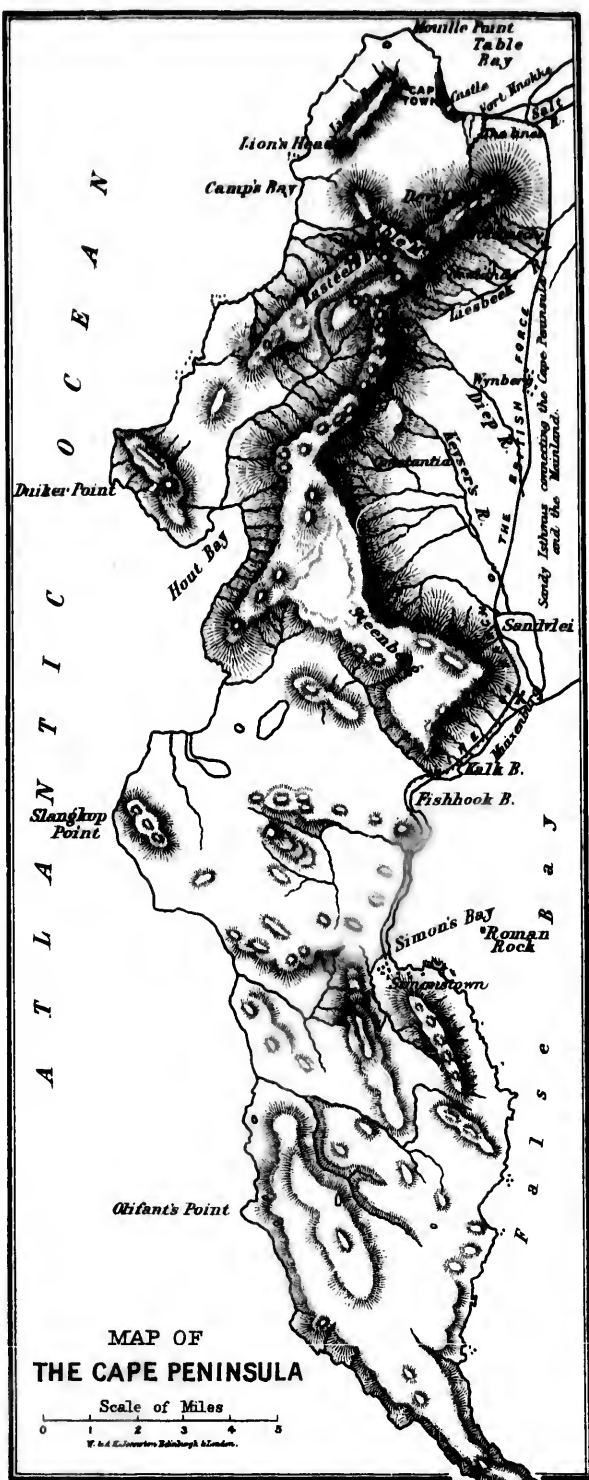
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MAP V.

The red line on this map shows the line of march of the English troops from Simonstown to Capetown in August and September 1795. The cross X denotes the position of the Dutch camp at Muizenburg, from which Lieutenant-Colonel De Lille withdrew on the approach of General Craig on the 7th of August.

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but, in consideration of the decay of the colony, the old imposts were to be reduced as much as possible. Everything belonging to the East India Company was to be handed over to the English officers, but all other property was to be respected. The lands and houses belonging to the East India Company were to be held in pledge for the redemption of that portion of the paper money which was not secured by mortgages on private property.

At three o'clock in the afternoon of Wednesday the 16th of September 1795, twelve hundred British infantry and two hundred artillerymen under General Craig arrived at the castle and drew up on the open ground in front. The Dutch troops marched out with colours flying and drums beating, passed by the English, and laid down their arms, surrendering as prisoners of war. Some of them were in a state of great excitement, and were uttering imprecations upon Commissioner Sluysken and Colonel Gordon for having brought disgrace upon them. One soldier even went so far as to attempt to assault the colonel. It is asserted by Lieutenant Marnitz, in his relation of these events, that the only occasion after the arrival of the English on which the head of the military drew his sword was when he gave the order for the troops he had commanded to lay down their arms.

In the evening General Clarke arrived with two thousand infantry and a train of artillery. The naval brigades and marines were sent back to Simonstown from Newlands. Unfortunately for the good reputation of the British forces, against whom no charge of breach of discipline or interference with private property had yet been made, some of the marines and blue-jackets on their return march broke loose from control, and pillaged the farm-houses. One party visited Great Constantia, then, and for sixteen years previously, the property of Mr. Hendrik Cloete, who was noted for his hospitality to strangers of all nations. They destroyed a great deal of the furniture, broke open the cellar, and knocked in the heads of

a number of kegs of wine. Their propensity to do mischief was only checked by the wine taking effect on them. This was the only kind of violence, however, perpetrated by any men in the British uniform, and even this was limited to a few farms.

Two homeward bound Dutch Indiamen—the *Vertrouwen* and the *Louisa Antonia*—had recently arrived in Simon's Bay, and the Company's ship *Castor* and the Cape packet *Star* were lying at anchor in Table Bay. The British admiral made prizes of them all. The old Cape packet *Meermin*, of which Skipper Gerrit Ewoud Overbeek had taken command upon the retirement of the chevalier Duminy, had been chartered by some colonists, and had left for Holland with a cargo of Cape produce before the arrival of the British expedition.

On the 18th an American vessel from Bordeaux reached Table Bay, bringing intelligence that a close treaty of alliance between the republics of France and the Netherlands, in which war with Great Britain was one of the specified objects, had been concluded in the preceding month of May.

Dutch writers, when relating the surrender of the colony, have usually charged Commissioner Sluysken and Colonel Gordon with imbecility or with downright treason. The secret debates and resolutions of the council and the correspondence of the commissioner are now open for public inspection, and as far as language goes they disprove the charge of treason. But the language and the acts of these high officials did not correspond. There was only one way in which a real earnest defence of the colony could have been made, and that was by co-operating heart and soul with the democratic party, which neither the commissioner nor the colonel had any inclination to do. No opposition surely was ever so strong in words, so weak in deeds, as that which ended in the capitulation of the Cape Colony to the English troops. Commissioner Sluysken and Colonel Gordon had constantly before their

minds another, and to them a more distasteful capitulation: the surrender of the settlement to the National party. By prolonging a nominal defence they could gain time, and something might happen in Europe to put another complexion on affairs. This is the only reasonable explanation of their conduct.

Mr. Sluysken left for Europe on the 12th of November in the cartel ship *Loyalist*, after the transfer of the effects of the East India Company was completed. He was accompanied by the military officers Von Hugel, Kunz, Le Sueur, Cloete, Wynrich, and Walburg, his private secretary Mr. Faay, Dr. Van Rees, four servants, and two hundred and ten soldiers of the artillery corps. The *Loyalist* touched at St. Helena on the passage. Off the English coast she encountered a gale, in which she sprung a leak and damaged her rudder, but on the 16th of January 1796 she reached Portsmouth without further disaster. There the soldiers were confined until they could be exchanged for English prisoners, and on the 1st of April Mr. Sluysken and the officers, with their servants, were placed on board the cutter *Goodwood*, which sailed on the 14th and reached Hellevoetsluys on the 16th of the same month.

Three days later—19th of April 1796—the commissioner-general appeared before the National Assembly at the Hague and asked for an investigation into his conduct, at the same time delivering a written statement of the occurrences which ended with the surrender of the colony to the English. He made out that for three months and a half he had defended the Cape against a force of five thousand five hundred soldiers and twenty-three ships of war, and that to the misconduct and lack of courage of the burghers his ultimate failure was chiefly due. The matter was referred by the National Assembly to a committee termed the Commission for Foreign Affairs, to make the necessary investigation and to prepare a report.

Shortly afterwards a document drawn up by an engineer officer named Thibault, who remained in Cape-town, was received at the Hague, and in it Mr. Sluysken's conduct was exhibited in the most unfavourable light. The consideration of the contents of this paper caused some delay, so that the Commission for Foreign Affairs was unable to deliver its report before the 21st of October. The members were of opinion that with the slender means of defence at his command the commissioner-general had done all that was possible against the overwhelming force opposed to him, and they made a strong point of his holding out so long in order that the advantage of compulsory capitulation, rather than submission without a struggle, should not be lost when terms of peace came to be considered.

In consequence of this report, on the 2nd of December 1796 the National Assembly decreed that Mr. Sluysken had performed his duty correctly and that he deserved well of the fatherland.

Of the members of the council of policy at the Cape, the secunde, the fiscal, and the resident at Simonstown had no scruple in at once accepting office under the British authorities. Three hundred and ninety-one men—mostly Germans—of the national battalion were induced by a bounty of five guineas to take service with the English. Thirty of them were sent to St. Helena, and the others to Madras and Bengal. Colonel Gordon was intensely disappointed on finding that the government was to be carried on in the name of the king of Great Britain and Ireland, without referring to the prince of Orange in any way in public documents. He died by his own hand during the night of the 5th of October, unable, his enemies declared, to bear the censure of his own conscience and the reproaches with which he was continually assailed.



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## CHAPTER XXIII.

### CONDITION OF THE EUROPEANS IN THE CAPE COLONY AT THE TIME OF THE ENGLISH CONQUEST.

THE vast extent of territory between the Fish river on the east, the Atlantic ocean on the west, the great plain bordering the Orange river on the north, and the Indian ocean on the south, under the dominion of Europeans at the time of the fall of the Dutch East India Company, was very unequally occupied. The Karoo, which forms such a large proportion of it, was not then permanently inhabited, except in a few isolated localities where there was a constant supply of water. Graziers roamed over it with their flocks and herds in the rainy season, but as soon as the flowers and plants began to disappear with the heat of the sun they moved away to pastures of grass north, south, and east. They had not yet learned that sheep could thrive all the year through on the withered and stunted bushes, which strike their roots so deep that they contain a little moisture even after the longest drought. The majority of the European inhabitants were resident within seventy miles of Capetown; beyond an arc with that radius only the choicest parts of the country were occupied as cattle runs, none of which were less than nine square miles in size, while most of them were very much larger.

A considerable number of the men whose names appeared in the census returns were not colonists by birth, for at no period since the formation of the settlement had so many strangers yearly made their homes in South Africa as during the two decades after 1775. A list of the

principal individuals among them will show this, and will complete the roll of prominent colonists before the close of the eighteenth century.

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| Nicolaas Acker, before 1787,                | Siebert Dormehl, before 1792,            |
| Michiel Joseph Adendorff, before 1787,      | Johan Michiel Dorphling, before 1783,    |
| Jan Daniel Alders, before 1793,             | Roelof van Driel, before 1784,           |
| Robert Nicolaas Aling, 1784,                | François Duminy, before 1777,            |
| Hendrik van As, before 1792,                | Evert van Dyk, before 1792,              |
| Anthonie Asseron, before 1788,              | Carsten Hendrik Dykman, before 1795,     |
| Andreas Willem Beck, before 1779,           | Johan Matthys Ebersohn, before 1789,     |
| Georg Hendrik Behr, before 1788,            | Hendrik Ekermans, before 1795,           |
| Jacobus Johannes van den Berg, before 1776, | Gustaaf Erlank, before 1791,             |
| Jonas van Bergen, before 1777,              | Andries Erwee, before 1795,              |
| Carel Christiaan Bernhardi, 1785,           | Jan Hendrik Esbach, before 1782,         |
| Marthinus Beyleveld, before 1782,           | Johan Georg Everhard, before 1795,       |
| Johan Blatt, before 1786,                   | Johan Heinrich Exter, before 1789,       |
| Zacharias Blomerus, before 1782,            | Coenraad Frederik Eygelaar, before 1795, |
| Caspar Bodenstein, before 1793,             | Johan Hendrik Eyman, before 1776,        |
| Jan Bonthuys, 1776,                         | Georg Ernest Faustman, before 1781,      |
| Meent Borchers, 1785,                       | Jan Frylinck, before 1795,               |
| Hermanus Brinkman, before 1783,             | Willem Garrits, before 1792,             |
| Gerrit Broekhuysen, before 1782,            | Lodewyk Frederik Gebhardt, before 1795,  |
| Johan Ernst Broens, before 1788,            | Justinus van Gennep, 1781,               |
| David Johan Valentyn Buchner, before 1795,  | George Frederik Goets, before 1786,      |
| Christiaan van den Burgh, before 1791,      | Johan Jacobus Graaff, before 1779,       |
| Anthonie Burnet, before 1795,               | Coenraad Adolph Greeve, before 1795,     |
| Gerrit van Coppenhagen, before 1795,        | Edzard Adolph Grimbeek, before 1787,     |
| Sybrand Cornelissen, before 1778,           | Michiel Haan, before 1780,               |
| Kassien Claassen Dekenah, before 1794,      | Leendert Haasbroek, before 1786,         |
| Dirk Hendrik Diets, before 1792,            | Adriaan van Hall, before 1791,           |
| Johan Daniel Disandt, before 1790,          |  |
| Johan Christiaan Disandt, before 1795,      |  |
| Nicolaas Jacob Doman, before 1788,          |  |

- Willem Ludolph van Hardenberg, Georg Coenraad Kuchler, before  
before 1787, 1786,  
Jan Carel de la Harpe, before Johan Christiaan Frederik Kunze,  
1786, before 1778,  
Ferdinand Hartzenberg, before Johannes Abraham Kuys, 1777,  
1777, Philip Kuys, 1777,  
Pieter Heintjes, before 1780, Jacobus Lacock, before 1783,  
Johan Andries Heise, before Jan Hendrik Lange, before 1779,  
1778, Georg Frederik Langejaan, before  
Johan Willem Herold, before 1779, 1776,  
Johan Daniel Hesse, before 1795, Frederik Langerman, before 1785,  
Johan Heyne, before 1793, Izaak Lesar, before 1793,  
Joseph Heyns, before 1782, François de Lettre, before 1784,  
Frans Hillegers, before 1785, Johan Lourens Liebentrau, be-  
Hendrik Hitzeroth, before 1795, fore 1795,  
Jan Hoets, before 1777, Frederik Lodewyk Liesching, be-  
Jan van der Hoeven, before 1795, fore 1795,  
Christiaan Godlob Höhne, before Johan Gebhard Lindenberg, be-  
1790, fore 1795,  
Leveen Godlieb Hubert, before Johan Georg Lingevelder, before  
1795, 1778,  
Hendrik Jankowitz, before 1787, Johan Hendrik Loock, before  
Andries Jansen, before 1782, 1777,  
Johan Godlieb Joon, before 1778, Jan Luyten, before 1782,  
Georg Pieter Kellerman, before Johan Godlieb Mader, before  
1792, 1788,  
Christiaan Kemper, before 1785, Philip Wilhelm Marnitz, before  
Anthonie Keyter, before 1792, 1789,  
Johan Engelhard Kirchhoff, be- Johan Mechau, before 1795,  
fore 1777, Johan Frederik Meeding, before  
Willem Jan Klerk, before 1793, 1781,  
Theunis Kleyn, before 1792, Coenraad Mentzler, before 1788,  
Gerrit Klyn, before 1792, Carel Hendrik Meyer, before  
Johan Knoes, before 1779, 1782,  
Diederik Andreas Kohler, before Frans Meyer, before 1785,  
1794, Hermanus Johannes de Milander,  
Gilles de Korte, 1781, before 1777,  
Johan Philip Krafft, before 1793, Cornelis Mol, before 1782,  
Johan Christiaan Krieck, before Hendrik Lodewyk Momberg, be-  
1787, fore 1779,  
Johan Andries Kritzing, before Andries Momsen, before 1786,  
1787, Johan Georg Muller, before 1784,  
Johannes Christoffel Krog, before Augustus Tiberius Neeser, before  
1794, 1795,  
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- Jan Nefdt, before 1791,  
 Christoffel Hendrik Niehaus, 1777,  
 Johan Christiaan Nielen, before  
 1792,  
 Ludolph Niepoth, before 1795,  
 Manuel Joam d'Oliveira, before  
 1795,  
 Gerhard Olthoff, before 1792,  
 Deetlef Christiaan Olwagen, be-  
 fore 1795,  
 Willem Johan van Oosterzee, be-  
 fore 1789,  
 Gerhard Ewoud Overbeek, 1795,  
 Diederik Pallas, before 1795,  
 Carel Frederik Paret, before 1779,  
 Louis Almoro Pisani, before 1789,  
 Johan David Piton, before 1783,  
 Carel Frederik Pohl, before 1795,  
 Petrus Jacobus Rademan, 1777,  
 Johan Christoffel Rautenbach, be-  
 fore 1791,  
 Johan Reeder, before 1777,  
 Jan Jurgen Regter, before 1782,  
 Jan Frederik Reitz, before 1795,  
 Johan Renke, before 1794,  
 Pieter de la Rey, before 1795,  
 Dirk van Rhyn, before 1792,  
 Johan Hendrik Richter, before  
 1795,  
 Philip Daniel Ricker, before 1778,  
 Johan Hendrik Roselt, before  
 1788,  
 Pierre de Roubaix, before 1795,  
 Samuel Russau, before 1781,  
 Jan Hendrik Rust, 1775,  
 Hendrik Rutgers, before 1790,  
 Jacobus Ruytinga, before 1795,  
 Johan Hendrik Rynhard, before  
 1783,  
 Johan Sandberg, before 1777,  
 Tieleman Johannes van de Sande,  
 before 1793,  
 Barend van de Sande, before  
 1795,
- Herman Adolph Sauerman, before  
 1784,  
 Andries Scheuble, before 1792,  
 Joseph Daniel Schmidt, before  
 1795,  
 Jean Baptiste Schultz, before 1792,  
 Herman Schutte, before 1795,  
 Frederik Sevenster, before 1780,  
 Pieter Siemsen, before 1776,  
 Frederik Sievert, before 1784,  
 Willem Slier, before 1780,  
 Jacobus Marinus Smidt, before  
 1795,  
 Abraham de Smidt, 1781,  
 Carel Lodewyk Smit, before 1782,  
 Frans Jurgen Sommer, before  
 1786,  
 Johan Spammer, before 1789,  
 Frederik Wilhelm Spengler, be-  
 fore 1789,  
 Andries Spolander, before 1795,  
 Remmert Spruyt, before 1790,  
 Hermanus Staal, before 1791,  
 Jan Pieter Stagman, before 1791,  
 Johan Nicolaas Stassen, before  
 1788,  
 Johan Godlieb Stegmann, before  
 1786,  
 Jan Frederik Stemmet, before 1785,  
 Johan Daniel Stephan, before  
 1785,  
 Johan Steyl, before 1779,  
 Johan Salomon Stigling, before  
 1778,  
 Andries Stockenstrom, 1782,  
 Hendrik Stoeder, before 1791,  
 Jacobus Stofberg, before 1783,  
 Johan Michiel Stohrer, before  
 1790,  
 Frederik Wilhelm Storck, before  
 1777,  
 Hendrik Storm, before 1795,  
 Simon Frederik Streicher, before  
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Jan Jacob Swanevelder, before 1781,	Johan Georg Wasserman, before 1776,
Guillam de Swart, before 1794,	Godfried Andries Watermeyer, before 1794,
Jacob Swarts, before 1779,	Johan Valentyn Weeber, before 1782,
Johan George Swarts, before 1782,	Jan Weggen, before 1792,
Carel Frederik Swarts, before 1795,	Godlieb Wilhelm Wehmeyer, before 1791,
Jan Godlieb Theunissen, before 1794,	Johan Godlieb Welgemoed, before 1795,
Louis Michiel Tiibault, before 1786,	Georg Jacob Wiehahn, before 1795,
Johan Andreas Thiele, before 1795,	Johan Frederik Wiesner, before 1779,
Johan Jacobus Thys, before 1795,	Johan George Wismer, before 1781,
George Hendrik Tinner, before 1779,	Michiel Wolff, before 1793,
Arie Lourens Toerien, before 1785,	Lambrecht van der Woord, before 1785,
Pieter Traut, before 1795,	Pieter Woudberg, before 1777,
Jacques Gideon Tredoux, before 1789,	Johan Christiaan Wrensch, before 1793,
Jan Tromp, before 1783,	Carel Philip Zastron, before 1788,
Christiaan Troskie, before 1792,	Roelof Abraham Zeederberg, before 1795,
Samuel Frederik Ungerer, before 1795,	Willem Hendrik Zeele, before 1780,
Cornelis Valckenburg, before 1791,	Jan Frederik Zeyler, before 1794,
Jacobus Vercueil, before 1785,	Hendrik Ziberg, before 1781,
Marinus Vervoort, before 1795,	Jan Jacob Ziegler, before 1779,
Johan Viegenheym, before 1781,	Carel Ewald Ziervogel, before 1780,
Adriaan de Vogel, before 1786,	Paul Lodewyk Zietsman, before 1781,
Johan Christiaan Vogelgezang, before 1793,	Johan Wilhelm Zulch, before 1780.
Jan Arnoud Voltelen, before 1787,	
Jan Baptist de Vos, before 1787,	
Johan Erhard Wagener, before 1783,	

In official documents of all kinds in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries there was a custom of writing after a man's name the place of his birth, but it was not invariably followed. In the church registers of the Cape

Colony the names of fifteen hundred and twenty-six men are found who either brought their wives here with them, or caused their families to follow them from Holland, or who married here and had children. These men were the ancestors of nearly all of the present Dutch speaking Europeans in South Africa, for immigration during the nineteenth century has not added very largely to the number. The birthplaces of thirteen hundred and ninety-one of them are known, and of the remaining hundred and thirty-five have not yet been ascertained.

Seven hundred and forty-five of them were Germans, that is they came from places now included in the German empire,<sup>1</sup> four hundred and thirty-four were Netherlanders, seventy-two were Frenchmen, thirty-four were Swiss, twenty-nine were Danes, twenty-seven were Swedes, twenty-three were Belgians, nine were Norwegians, eight were Russians, three were Englishmen, two were Portuguese, two were Austrians, one was a Pole, one an Italian, and one a Hungarian. Among the hundred and thirty-five whose birthplaces are unknown, there are only three whose names appear to be French or Belgian, but most likely the proportion of Germans and Dutch does not differ widely from that in the other list. These figures do not give a correct impression, however, unless they are carefully analysed, and some peculiar circumstances are considered in connection with them. There was really more French than German blood in the veins of the Cape colonists in 1795, and nearly, if not quite, two-thirds of the whole was Dutch. When arranged in periods of twenty-five years, it is seen that most of the Germans were late arrivals, while nearly all of the French came at an early date.

<sup>1</sup> A large proportion of these, however, were from the border land, and were really of Nether Teuton blood, as well as of the Calvinistic faith, though by birth they were not Dutch subjects.

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	1657 to 1675.	1675 to 1700.	1700 to 1725.	1725 to 1750.	1750 to 1775.	1775 to 1795.
Germans . . .	6	32	83	172	254	198
Netherlanders .	32	48	97	69	82	106
Frenchmen . . .	1	50	10	1	2	8
Swiss . . . . .		1	7	2	9	15
Danes . . . . .	1	1	4	2	13	8
Swedes . . . . .	3		2	3	6	13
Belgians . . . . .	1	1	6	1	5	9
Norwegians . . .			3	3	1	2
Russians . . . . .		1		1	4	2
Englishmen . . .			1	1		1
Portuguese . . .			1			1
Austrians . . . .				1	1	
Pole . . . . .						1
Italian . . . . .						1
Hungarian . . . .						1
Unknown . . . . .	2	20	49	16	23	25
	46	154	263	272	400	391

Most of the French had wives of their own nationality, but there is only one instance on record of a German woman coming to South Africa in the seventeenth century, and not even one in the eighteenth. All the female immigrants, except the Huguenots, were from the Netherlands. Then there is another fact which bears strongly on this matter, which is that the French were much more prolific than the Germans. They came to South Africa in early life, and had never given way to dissipation in any form. Among the Germans were beyond doubt many men of unblemished character, but in general they belonged to the roving class, and did not marry and settle down until the highest vigour of life was gone.

A careful scrutiny of the list of names shows further that in all probability climatic causes tended to favour the French. The proportion of blood in 1795 was prob-

ably a little less than two-thirds Dutch, one-sixth French, and the remainder of German and other nationalities.

This mixture of blood had helped to wean the colonists from attachment to the parent state, but in that respect the condition in which they lived had done much more. There was not a single post office in the country, and the only way of forwarding a letter from Swellendam or Graaff-Reinet to Europe was to send it by some traveller to Capetown and trust to its being taken on by an obliging skipper. Practically therefore an individual living beyond the Cape peninsula was cut off from communication with distant lands, and his children, knowing nothing of relatives abroad, did not concern themselves with the home of their ancestors. To this must be added the fact that many of them could not have written a letter if there had been a post with which to send it away. Thus all their attachment and all their interests were centred in South Africa, and though no one had any deep love for a particular locality, every one of them had a strong affection for the country as a whole. They called themselves Afrikanders, a term in common use at least as early as 1735. When they spoke then of loyalty to the Netherlands and to the states-general, it was simply because they regarded that as their duty, not because they had a strong personal feeling in the matter.

Of the constitution of the Netherlands, of the geographical features of that country, of its size, or of its position relative to other states, the graziers of the interior really knew nothing more than what they learned in conversation from discharged servants of the Company who went to live among them. From these men they obtained wild ideas of liberty, which caused them to profess attachment to the patriot as against the stadtholder's faction, but hardly any among them could correctly explain the difference between the two. In the interior of the Cape Colony there were no schools, nor had there ever



been any, in which history and geography were taught to children. Even when the border of the settlement was at Rondebosch, it was hardly possible to provide young people with anything like a liberal education, and the difficulty was enormously increased when families became scattered over the land beyond the Cape peninsula.

The language used in daily life differed considerably from that of Amsterdam at the close of the eighteenth century. From a common point—the dialect spoken by the mass of the people of North Holland a hundred and fifty years earlier,—there had been divergence on different lines. In Europe education and the diffusion of literature had caused people generally to speak more grammatically, and had fixed the language in a comparatively solid mould. Even yet, however, in some localities the peasantry use expressions which are survivals from a time when schools were attended chiefly by the children of the rich, and nowhere is the ordinary language of conversation identical with that of books. In South Africa the incorporation of a large body of foreigners, the scanty instruction received in book learning, and, above all, the necessity of speaking to slaves and Hottentots in the simplest manner possible, had resulted in great destruction of grammatical forms.

The article and the adjective lost their inflections as thoroughly as in English, and stood in the same form before nouns of all genders, cases, and numbers. Even the pronouns lost some of their inflections. The verb had no longer any changes to mark the persons and numbers, and its tense forms were somewhat reduced. All this took place without the slightest diminution in power of expressing ideas. There is no advantage in a declinable article and adjective, or in a verb that changes its form according to the pronoun that is connected with it. To the educated eye and ear of a European I was, thou was, he was, we was, you was, they was, may be offensive, but the full force of the expression in each case

remains. So aan de man, de vrouw, en de kind is equally as definite as aan den man, de vrouw, en het kind. The use of a double negative, still occasionally employed in parts of the Netherlands, had become common, but that added emphasis to a sentence. Many words were shortened by dropping the final letter or syllable, yet the full meaning remained. Thus far then the progress of the language in a line towards extreme simplicity had not in any way weakened its force.

People, however, living as did the South African colonists of the interior, have only a small range of subjects to think about, and words signifying ideas beyond that range have a tendency to become partly or wholly obsolete, though it does not follow that the meaning of many of them will not even then be apparent to those who hear them in conversation or from books. If a vocabulary had been formed of all the words commonly used by a grazier of Swellendam or Graaff-Reinet in his intercourse with others, it would have been wonderfully small. But if those which he used in his devotions were included, the vocabulary would have been a copious one, for in it would have appeared most of the words found in the Dutch bible. This was the only book that he read, but every day he spelt out one of its chapters, and he knew the meaning of the sentences so well that when he addressed his God in prayer he used them always. The language of the bible, if not more expressive than that which he employed in addressing his family and his servants, was regarded by him as more dignified, and consequently more worthy of being used in divine worship. He was an ultra Protestant, but in this respect he was imitating those of another creed who use one form of speech for ordinary purposes and a more complicated language in devotional exercises. Even with this knowledge of grammatical Dutch, however, most of the uneducated South African colonists were unable to understand fully a commercial newspaper printed in Holland or a book upon an un-

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familiar subject, just as a Catholic peasant who knows the meaning and realises the grandeur of his Latin prayers may yet be unable to comprehend a page of the *Æneid*. Those who resided in and near Capetown, however, must be excepted from these remarks, because they were in contact with the officers of government and strangers.

The South African dialect had not incorporated many words from foreign languages. The Malays, among whom excellent cooks were to be found, gave it a few names of viands unknown in the Netherlands, such as atjang, blatjang, bredi, and sassati. From the corrupt Portuguese which in the seventeenth century was the common medium of intercourse between Europeans of all nationalities and native traders in the eastern seas, a few words, such as tronk instead of *gevangenis*, *dispens* instead of *provisiekamer*,—not more than ten or twelve in all—were taken over. From the Hottentots three or four words, such as *karoo*, *kaross*, and *kerie*, were acquired, though these are only approximate imitations of the sounds as uttered by the natives. The French immigrants modified the character of the colonists to a considerable extent, but with the single exception of the word *bien*, corrupted into *baije*, added nothing to the language. A few sea terms, such as *kombuis* and *kooi*, instead of *keuken* and *bed*, were generally used.

Another cause of difference between the language of the Netherlands and that of South Africa was climatic. In the dry air of the southern land the vocal organs gave clearer sounds, gruffness was lost, and the accent was changed. The distinction was like that in music between bass and tenor.

With all this, education alone was needed to make the colonists familiar with the rich and varied literature of the fatherland. No Afrikander child ever had greater difficulty in learning to read and understand correct Dutch than the child of an English farm labourer would

have in learning to comprehend the language of Bishop Butler or of Darwin. It was not in any sense a foreign language to him, such as English or Italian would be.

The dialect of Dutch, thus formed, had a strong hold upon the affections of the people. It was the tongue that their mothers taught them to speak, its were the words used in courtship by young men and maidens, and its accents were the last heard from relatives and friends they would see no more. A simple, expressive, easily learned dialect, the strangers who came to live among them readily adopted and helped to perpetuate it.

Nowhere else perhaps were women more on an equality with men in all respects than in South Africa. From the most remote times of which anything is known with certainty the females of the Nether Teuton race have enjoyed extensive rights and privileges, and in this country there were special circumstances which tended to increase those rights. The number of men was always greatly in excess of that of women, so that more consideration was shown towards the weaker sex than in countries—such as the fatherland—in which the reverse was the case. Then the women had, and have still, legal rights which those in England do not enjoy.

There were two methods of regulating property as between husband and wife. The first was by an antenuptial contract, or agreement properly drawn up by a notary, signed, and witnessed before the marriage took place, in which separate estates were created, and each had full legal control through life of his or her own. Whatever belonged to a woman while she was single, or whatever she acquired or inherited thereafter, was thus secured to her in perpetuity, and without her consent her husband could not squander it. It was not even subject to seizure for debts contracted by him, but was as absolutely hers as if no marriage existed.

Antenuptial contracts between spouses were, however, rare in the country districts, though not so uncommon in

Capetown. They were favoured by persons engaged in trade and in speculation of any kind, but were not needed by farmers and graziers. When these people married, as in every case where no antenuptial contract was made, a community of property was the effect. Half of what had previously belonged to both, and of all that was thereafter acquired, was the husband's and half the wife's. The regulation of the joint estate was entrusted by the law to the man alone, but custom required that in every transaction of importance he should consult the woman. Neither could make a will affecting the other's half share of the property. At the death of either all debts were paid, and the estate was then divided equally between the survivor and the heirs of the deceased.

There were cases in which this law worked harshly, as, for instance, in the occasional necessity of winding up a flourishing business upon the death of a wife, and its operation tended to disperse the colonists, but it gave to women the protection which was justly their due.

In connection with this matter the law of inheritance must also be described. This was based upon the principle that parents have no right to leave their children unprovided for, and that all children, irrespective of sex or order of birth, have equal claims for maintenance. An individual having five or more children could only dispose by will of half of his or her property, the remainder belonged to the children, and upon the death of the parent was equally divided among them if they were of age, or taken in charge by the orphan chamber for them if they were minors. If no will was made the whole of the property was dealt with in the same manner. A parent with children not exceeding four in number could dispose of two-thirds of his or her property by will in any manner he or she chose.

This, excluding a few exceptions which seldom or never came into operation, was the law of the colony. It left a parent freedom to provide liberally for an infirm

child, or a dependent, or a charity, because he or she could bequeath by will for any specified purpose one-half or two-thirds of his or her property, according to the number of his or her children, but it took away from all the power of completely disinheriting any particular child. The usual custom in the country districts was for the husband and wife to make a joint will, by the terms of which the survivor of the two and the children of the marriage were to divide equally among them the property of the first who should die.

In practice it came to this. A grazier on a leasehold farm or his wife died, leaving say six children. If the children, or any of them, were of age and no will had been made, half the horned cattle, horses, sheep, and goats were at once divided among them, so that each one should receive one-twelfth of the whole, and the surviving spouse, whether man or woman, would retain the other half. If the ordinary will had been made, each child would receive one-fourteenth, and the surviving spouse would retain eight-fourteenths of the whole. And if the deceased had bequeathed all that was in his or her power to alienate to some individual out of the family, that individual would receive one-fourth, each child would receive one-twenty-fourth, and the surviving spouse would retain one-half. In addition to live stock there would be in the estate a house with some furniture, a waggon or two, a couple of firelocks, and various other articles that could not be divided. All these things would be sold by public auction, and the proceeds be distributed in the same proportion. The house and all outbuildings and improvements on the farm were termed the opstal, and were saleable like other property, the lease of the ground being continued by the government to the purchaser of the opstal.

But it might be that the six children were minors. In that case an inventory of everything would be made, and the surviving spouse would be left in full possession

on giving security to the orphan chamber that each child's portion would be paid on that child's attaining full age or marrying, otherwise the orphan chamber would cause the children's portions to be sold at once and invest the proceeds on interest for their benefit. If by will anything was alienated to strangers, which was seldom the case except to adopted children or godchildren, it would be paid out as soon as possible after the inventory was made and the value of the estate was ascertained.

In most cases on the death of either husband or wife a farm changed hands. Of course one of the heirs could purchase the opstal, but any one else could bid for it on equal terms. Thus there was a continual movement of people in those parts of the colony where the land was not held in freehold, and that movement naturally took the form of expansion of the settlement. The government did not favour the successive enlargements of the borders, and on various occasions issued placats requiring the most advanced stragglers to return within the proclaimed boundaries, but all to no effect. As early as 1724 a law was made prohibiting any one from moving out of the district in which he was domiciled without the express permission of either the governor or the landdrost and heemraden, and requiring him even with such permission to pay 10*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.* into the treasury of the district he was leaving. But it was found impossible to enforce such an enactment, and, on the principle that an inoperative law is a dangerous law, in February 1727 it was repealed. The colonists moved on, and the government followed them.

The law of inheritance had a different effect in the neighbourhood of the Cape peninsula, where the land was held in freehold. There the farms were usually divided among the heirs, and though the portions of some—especially of the females—were commonly purchased by the others, the tendency was to reduce the holdings to so small a size that a family could with difficulty main-

tain an existence upon one of them. This result, however, was not fully reached in many instances during the eighteenth century, as in general the surplus population migrated willingly to the frontier.

Many objections might be raised to a law of inheritance like this, which prevented estates, unless entailed, from remaining long in one family, and which had a tendency to create a large body of very poor people; but it certainly was in accordance with the inclinations of the colonists. As long also as land was easily obtainable, and even in the best positions did not command a high price, its disadvantages did not come into prominence.

The pursuits of the people outside of Capetown were almost entirely agricultural or pastoral. There was no mining industry of any kind whatever, for not a single mineral of value had yet been discovered except salt. This was found in depressions of the surface in various parts of the country. In the rainy seasons the pans, as the depressions were called, were filled with water, and when the moisture was evaporated by the sun a quantity of pure fine salt varying in depth from the thickness of a wafer to several inches remained on the ground. It only needed to be collected and taken away, a process which did not require skill, and no one was exclusively employed in the industry. Sometimes a man would load a few waggons with salt at the pans close by Algoa Bay and travel about among the graziers exchanging it for sheep, but in general each one went occasionally and collected as much as was required by his own family and a few friends.

There was abundance of fish of various kinds and of excellent quality in the seas that washed the long coast line west and south, but except in Table Bay and in the winter season in False Bay, the food supplies of the ocean—which contributed so largely to the wealth of the Dutch in Europe—were left practically unused by man. The East India Company did not wish to have people at



other harbours who would require protection, and so fishing was prohibited elsewhere. After 1718 indeed it was permitted in Saldanna Bay, but on condition that one-fifth of all that was dried should be paid as a tax, so that no one cared to make use of the license. Now and then a family might go to the seaside for change of air for a few days, and while encamped on the shore would catch a few fish, but beyond that no attempt was made to secure this wealth except at the Cape peninsula. In Table Bay a great quantity of fish was taken, chiefly by the free Malays, and was sold at a very low rate. The slaves within fifty miles of Capetown were largely fed upon this diet, which was used also almost daily by the European inhabitants, and sometimes a trader would take into the interior a waggon load of dried or smoked snoek—a species of pike,—which he would exchange for sheep at an enormous profit. At Simonstown during the winter season a few fishermen congregated, but as there was no market at that place at other times of the year, they usually removed to Capetown before the end of August.

The only important manufacturing industry in the colony was that of waggons and carts. It is not too much to say that without the South African ox-waggon—a vehicle which combines the greatest strength with the greatest flexibility—the expansion of the settlement beyond the first range of mountains would have been almost impossible. The wood of which the waggons were made was indigenous, and was tougher and harder than the strongest oak. It was carefully seasoned, so that it did not shrink in dry weather. The various parts of the waggon were thickly plated with iron, but in such a manner that when put together the vehicle might almost be termed elastic, so great was its capability of adapting itself to different positions. It was indispensable to a farmer. Covered with a tent fifteen to twenty feet long and three and a half to four feet wide he and his family could live in it, with or without the tent he could trans-

port his effects over a country where bridges and roads were unknown.

Nearly every family made soap and candles for its own use. In the manufacture of the first the ashes of a common shrub were used with animal fat, and for the last either pure tallow, or tallow hardened with a vegetable wax obtainable in many parts of the country. Thrifty housewives often kept themselves supplied with little articles of domestic use by sending blocks of coarse soap of their own making or dipped tallow candles to Capetown for sale. If to these are added common household furniture such as tables and chests, coarse leather, which was tanned by many farmers for their own use, harness for horses, gear for oxen, and homemade ploughs and harrows, the list of articles manufactured in South Africa will be almost, if not quite, exhausted.

The farming utensils would now be considered extremely clumsy, though no one thought them so in those days. The plough had only one handle, but was partly kept steady by two wheels of different sizes in front, the larger of which ran in the furrow previously made. Six or eight oxen were commonly used to draw the plough, and the services of three individuals—ploughman, driver, and leader—were needed to work it. Wheat was tramped from the straw by horses. Within a circular enclosure the ground was levelled and hardened with anthills moistened and beaten down, the sheaves were then spread out, and a troop of horses was driven quickly round upon them by a man standing in the centre with a long whip. More sheaves were thrown in until the horses became tired. The grain was then cleaned by collecting the trampled mass, and throwing it up in the wind.

Like country people all over the civilised world in those days, the farmers and graziers in the interior of the Cape Colony were superstitious. They had no doubt whatever that spirits moved about at night, that certain localities were haunted, and that evil persons were

possessed with devils. They turned to their bibles, and asserted that all this could be proved from the sacred writings. Many of them too believed in magic cures for diseases, though, as they were a highly sensible people, each family took care to have a stock of well known medicines in a tin box called a Huis Apotheek, with the use of which most elderly dames were acquainted. There was very little sickness, however, in proportion to the number of inhabitants, for the simple diet and the pure air were conducive of health. A single qualified medical practitioner was unable to earn a living in a district as large as England.

Outside of Capetown, where the white people—who consisted chiefly of government officials, professional men, traders, and mechanics—lived just as in a European city of the same size, the recreations of the people were few, owing to their isolation. Those who made their living as wheat or wine farmers and had numerous slaves usually had three or four of the blacks taught the use of the violin, most Africans being gifted with an ear for music and easily learning to play by sound. They had thus the means of entertaining visitors with dancing, and of amusing themselves in the same way when so disposed.

The branches of widely extended families were constantly exchanging visits with each other. A farmer would make a waggon ready regularly every year, when half his household or more would leave home and spend some days with each relative, often being absent a month or six weeks. Birthday anniversaries of aged persons were celebrated by the assembling of their descendants and friends, often to the number of eighty or a hundred, at their residence, where a feast was prepared for the occasion. Then as many as possibly could attended the quarterly meetings for the celebration of the sacraments, and usually spent three or four days at the church place. A few wealthy members of the Stellenbosch and Draken-

stein congregations had little houses of a couple of rooms built near the churches for their accommodation on these occasions, the others slept in their waggons and had their meals in the open air, like a picnic party. These different reunions were naturally productive of great pleasure, and tended to cement the friendship and love of those who except at such times seldom saw each other. As far as real happiness was concerned, these South African colonists certainly had their full share.

Naturally the life of the graziers was ruder than that of the more settled corn and wine farmers, though it would be incorrect to attribute this to anything like stupidity on their part, for they were capable, under changed circumstances, of living very differently. Though uneducated in book lore, they belonged to one of the most intellectual races in the world, and if intelligence in every branch of knowledge was not apparent, it was because the faculties were dormant, not because they were altogether wanting. The sons of these men, as time has shown, were capable of being trained to fill any position in society. That was the difference between them and the most cultivated individuals of barbarian descent, with whom prejudiced strangers sometimes compared them unfavourably: there was a latent brain power in the one that—except in rare individual instances—there was not in the other. They were simply Europeans of an advanced type who had adapted themselves to a rough environment.

Their houses were small and sparsely furnished, and very few had many slaves, most of them none whatever. Some were half nomads, and regarded as encumbrances whatever could not readily be conveyed from place to place in a wagon. The Xosas and the Bushmen provided them with sufficient excitement to prevent the monotonous course of their lives from being tedious. The men were fond of hunting, and spent much of their time in the saddle pursuing game. The women were less

active. The mistress of a household issued her instructions to coloured domestics, slave or Hottentot, and distributed the food, but did not do much else. If the weather was chilly or damp she rested her feet on a little perforated box containing a pan filled with live coals, while beside her stood a coffee kettle never empty. In both sexes there was a tendency to become stout after thirty years of age. The climate, or the abundance of food of the most nourishing kind, or the mode of living, or all combined, had tended to make the people in general taller and larger than their ancestors.

The children had few games, but as a rule were strong and healthy, and like their parents enjoyed life.

At early dawn every one rose from rest, and after drinking coffee engaged in devotion. Before sunrise the cattle in the kraals were inspected, and on the corn and wine farms the labour of the day was commenced. A couple of hours later the morning meal was taken. After the midday meal every one retired to a darkened room for an hour or two, especially in the summer, and thus avoided exposure to the sun during the hottest time of the day. This was the custom among all classes, so that in Capetown even the shops were closed from one to three o'clock, while their owners were enjoying a siesta. At sundown the evening meal was partaken of, religious exercises followed, and by nine o'clock every one was in bed.

Travellers complained that the colonists of the interior were so taciturn that they would sit for hours together without uttering a dozen words. The reason was that the subjects upon which the one could converse freely were those of which the others were quite ignorant, for among themselves there was no lack of something to talk about, though they certainly had not the lively wit or the power of chatting continually about nothing of consequence which the residents in many European cities possess. Their occupations, their relatives,

their cattle, the condition of the pasture, the habits of the various kinds of game, the adventures of their parents and themselves were the usual, but not by any means the sole subjects of their conversation. The state of their church and the different sermons they had heard were to them always interesting topics.

And those travellers who ridiculed the colonists of the interior because of their ignorance of what was transpiring in Europe, and their displaying such indifference to anything of that kind as merely to utter an occasional yes or no when an interesting account was being given, would probably have been surprised if an aged grazier had spoken about the lives of any of the old testament heroes or had compared a storm on the lofty inland plains with that grand description of one given in the twenty-ninth psalm. On subjects like these the grazier could talk freely enough, because they came within the range of his experience. He was living under such skies as those under which Abraham lived, his occupation was the same, he understood the imagery of the Hebrew writers more perfectly than any one in Europe could understand it, for it spoke to him of his daily life. He had heard the continuous roll of thunder which was as the voice of the Lord upon many waters, and had seen the affrighted antelopes drop their young as they fled before the storm, when the great trees came down with a crash and the lightning divided like flames of fire. He knew too of skies like brass and of earth like iron, of little clouds seemingly no larger than a man's hand presaging a deluge of rain, and of swarms of locusts before whose track was the garden of the Lord, while behind was a naked desert. When he spoke of these things he could be eloquent enough, but they were not subjects for conversation with casual visitors.

During the eighteenth century the colonists in the interior were unaccustomed to the use of many things that are now regarded by all white people in South Africa as

necessaries of life. It could not be otherwise, for there was not a single drapery, grocery, or hardware store, wholesale or retail, beyond the first range of mountains. The people never visited Capetown when they could avoid it, because they regarded the officials and law agents and traders as always ready to plunder them. There were hundreds of men and women who had only been there once in their lives, when they appeared before the matrimonial court to obtain the necessary license to enter into wedlock, though occasionally they sent a waggon load of butter and tallow and soap, consigned to an agent, who forwarded in return ammunition, coffee, sugar, pieces of calico or prints, and perhaps a dozen yards of cloth or something else that was much needed. Travelling pedlars—commonly known as smouses or cheats—sometimes made their appearance at distant farms, and were usually found at the church places at the quarterly meetings, but the keeping up of a supply of goods from either of these sources was precarious.

Under these circumstances the graziers had learned to provide themselves with many articles, even of clothing, and to dispense with others. Tanned hides of small animals were often used to make trousers, vests of delicate skins were common, and nearly all the shoes worn were of home manufacture. Socks and underclothing for males were frequently discarded. Crockery, so liable to be broken in long land journeys, was seldom over plentiful, and cups and basins were often of necessity largely supplemented by calabashes, which at all times made most useful milk dishes. Fur karosses served instead of woollen blankets, and katels,<sup>1</sup> or wooden frames across which thongs of raw hide were intertwined, took the place of imported bedsteads and couches. Quite as comfortable they were too, if they were less handsome in appearance, and a katel, made to fit inside a waggon, as well as to be used in a house, was certainly vastly more convenient

<sup>1</sup>Pronounced kah-téls.

than an elaborate piece of furniture for the same purpose would have been.

It is unnecessary to enter more deeply into the domestic life of the colonists of South Africa beyond the Cape peninsula, but it should be remembered that the differences in habits between these people and those of a European city were entirely the result of the circumstances under which they were trained. The kind of life led by their ancestors for several generations had made them what they were, the most hardy, self-reliant, and hospitable of all Europeans. In certain respects their veracity was not high, but that was due to the very worst system of taxation that could be devised. They were also disposed to overreach when possible in making bargains, and regarded such a practice as indicating ability rather than dishonesty: how could it have been otherwise with men whose fathers and grandfathers had sold and bought at the East India Company's stores in Capetown? But people more charitable or more ready to aid others in distress never existed. In the eighteenth century there were no benevolent institutions in the country, nor were any needed, for orphans who were poor were always adopted by well-to-do people, who treated them as their own children, and an indigent person advanced in years was never allowed to want food or raiment. If the virtues and the failings of these colonists are balanced against the virtues and the failings of any nation of Europe, they will not suffer by the comparison.

Thus the rule of the Dutch East India Company had brought into existence in South Africa a people to a large extent distinct from all others, with a language, and habits, and ideas of their own. They numbered at this time only about seventeen thousand souls, all told, but the natural increase was very rapid. They were strongly attached to their customs, and knew how to exercise the utmost degree of patience and perseverance in the maintenance of what they held to be their rights.



Their views concerning their rights were not indeed those of the present day, and they submitted without a murmur to acts of the government that would now be deemed intolerable. Take, for instance, the monopoly of the sale of meat in Capetown, which was so rigidly enforced that a resident could not bring in a sheep from a farm of his own in the country and slaughter it for his family's use. He was obliged to sell the sheep to the holder of the monopoly, and buy from that individual what meat he required at a greatly advanced rate. Yet in all the complaints made by the burghers against the government, it did not occur to them to include this as a grievance. It was regarded simply as a legitimate form of taxation.

The condition of the colonists with regard to religion at the time of the English conquest remains to be noticed. There were then eight congregations in the whole country, namely six Dutch reformed, one Lutheran, and one Moravian mission, established in the following order:

Place.	Denomination.	Date of approval of first Elders and Deacons.
Capetown	Dutch reformed,	August 1665.
Stellenbosh,	do.,	20th December 1686.
Drakenste,	do.,	30th December 1691.
Roodezand now Tulbagh,	do.,	8th October 1748.
Zwartland, now Malmesbury,	do.,	8th July 1745.
Capetown,	Lutheran,	18th December 1780.
Graaff-Rein,	Dutch reformed,	13th March 1792.
Genadendal,	Moravian,	Mission to Hottentots commenced in December 1792.

In the Dutch reformed church a new movement was beginning to be felt, caused by the introduction of the ideas known as advanced evangelical. The doctrine preached and professed had indeed always been in theory evangelical, as the clergymen were required once a month to explain and illustrate a portion of the Heidelberg catechism, and that summary of gospel teaching was

committed to memory by every individual before confirmation; but in practice what are now regarded as the fruits of this belief were not apparent during the greater part of the eighteenth century. The clergymen have not left a sufficient number of their discourses on record to enable one to judge of the manner in which they commented upon the catechism, but the line of thought which they followed in other sermons is easily ascertained. It was that admission into the visible church, a profession of belief in the bible, the creed, the catechism, and the articles of Dort, together with upright demeanour as a proof of earnestness, constituted a Christian. They disliked everything emotional. In Capetown they mixed little with the people, and when they made their periodical visitations, the schoolmaster, who was also church clerk, went in advance to give notice of their coming. In the country they were required to make occasional tours among their parishioners, and on these occasions they held services at places arranged beforehand, but the size of the territory over which the people were scattered prevented each farm from being visited more than once in a year even under the most favourable circumstances. A stately demeanour was expected from the clergymen, and, as well as it is now possible to ascertain, was observed except in a few rare instances.

The conversion of the heathen was almost entirely neglected. In this respect much greater efforts were made within the first forty years after the foundation of the colony than during the succeeding hundred. It would be possible to make out a long list of slave children who were baptized and confirmed, but there is hardly a trace of any attempt by the clergy to induce the free blacks or Hottentots to adopt the Christian religion.

The form of service in the churches differed little from that of the present day. An old metrical version of the psalms was used until the 5th of April 177, when the present version was introduced, and there were a few

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hymns or paraphrases of scripture, which, however, were seldom sung in public worship. The evangelical hymns to which many people are now strongly attached only came into use in Holland in 1806, and were not introduced in the church at Capetown until the 9th of January 1814. It was even later when they began to be sung in the country services, for though many of them are of exceeding beauty and are indisputably based upon gospel teaching, their use in public worship was objected to by a considerable section of the people, who feared innovation of any kind and desired to adhere to the psalms only as inspired by God. This was one of the causes of the subsequent division of the church into two sections. Choirs were unknown, and the whole congregation, without rising from their seats, united in the singing, which was accompanied by the music of an organ where there was such an instrument.

The service commenced by the clerk giving out a psalm, and while this was being sung the clergyman in black gown and white bands entered the pulpit. Then followed the reading of the ten commandments, the creed, and portions of the bible. This was followed by another psalm. Before the sermon—which usually occupied an hour and a half or two hours in delivery—there was an extempore prayer, and after it a similar thanksgiving, during which the men stood but the women remained seated. The service closed with the singing of a psalm and the benediction. All was thus orderly; but these services in the grandeur of simplicity, though faultlessly correct in the opinion of the worshippers, were frequently so cold that they created little enthusiasm. Young people especially could not follow the minute subdivisions of a long sermon that had hardly any practical bearing upon their conduct in life.

The churches were in this condition when in September 1786 the reverend Helperus Ritzema van Lier arrived from Holland, and on the 2nd of October became third

clergyman of Capetown. He had hardly entered manhood, but as a boy had been noted for extraordinary diligence in study and for a very retentive memory. Educated at Groningen, he was a master of arts before he was eighteen. He was also a doctor of philosophy and an honorary member of the Academy at Sienna in Tuscany and of the Society of Arts and Science at Batavia. This young man, so highly talented, had entered the church with a full conviction that he was called by God to spread a knowledge of the gospel, and with this view had offered himself to the directors of the East India Company with a recommendation from the classis of Amsterdam. He had thrown himself heart and soul into the ranks of the advanced evangelical party, of which the reverend John Newton, of Olney, was then a leading representative in England. With this clergyman he subsequently entered into correspondence, and six of his letters written in 1789 were translated by the poet Cowper from Latin into English, and published under the title of *Power of Grace, illustrated in Six Letters from a Minister of the Reformed Church to the Rev. John Newton.*

The conversion of the heathen was a subject which occupied a prominent place in the thoughts of Mr. Van Lier, though he was unable to devote himself entirely to that work. There was then no missionary society by which he could be maintained, and he had no means beyond his salary for the support of his family. The directors of the East India Company at this time had some idea of attempting to christianise the native races in their vast possessions. Their plan was to raise a large sum of money by general subscription, to establish a seminary in Holland for the education of missionaries, and to send out men as fast as they could be trained. This project came to nothing, because the Company was hopelessly involved in difficulties, though that was not fully realised by the people at the time. While it appeared to be within the bounds of possibility no one took more

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interest in it than the young clergyman at the Cape. In 1790 he wrote to an uncle in Rotterdam that he believed he would be able to collect in South Africa fifty thousand gulden—nearly 4,200*l.*—towards the capital required.

In the pulpit and out of it he taught that no matter what a man professed to believe, or what his conduct was, he was not a Christian until he felt an entire change in his soul and knew that he was reconciled with God. His preaching was full of earnest appeals to his hearers, and his mode of delivery was such that at times it seemed as if he would spring almost out of the pulpit. Women were often moved to tears, and sometimes fell into hysterics. Some men were attracted, but others were repelled. Outside of the church the clergyman spent much time in going from house to house conversing with the inmates on the state of their souls, holding prayer meetings, and encouraging works of benevolence.

He had not been six years in the colony when he was suddenly struck down by profuse bleeding, and though the physicians concurred in requiring perfect rest, he was again in the pulpit as soon as he had strength to get there. Rapid consumption was now doing its work, his coughing was constant, and at length he fainted while trying to preach and was carried helpless to his home. It was certain then that he would never be able to resume duty, so the commissioners-general Nederburgh and Frykenius placed him on the retired list and granted him a pension. But in his sick room he continued to exhort all who went to visit him, and the rapture with which he met death—on the 21st of March 1793—left a lasting impression on many minds. He was only twenty-eight years of age when he died. His remains were interred at Newlands, where his tomb, kept in repair by the consistory, may still be seen, as he expressed a wish not to be buried within the church, that practice—which continued until 1836—seeming to him to indicate a lack of humility. He left a widow and four children.

Mr. Van Lier was followed in the same line of thought and action by the reverend Michiel Christiaan Vos, a man of incessant energy, though troubled throughout life with a painful skin disease. Mr. Vos was born in Capetown on the 31st of December 1759, and at an early age felt himself impelled to enter the service of the church. Having received as good an education as could then be obtained in South Africa, in 1780 he proceeded to Europe, leaving behind a wife to whom he had not been four months married. In August 1781 he commenced his studies at the university of Utrecht, and in July 1785 became minister of Woudenberg, where his wife rejoined him after an absence of over six years. He was successively minister of Woudenberg, Pynacker, and Woerden, until at length the directors of the East India Company promised him employment in his native country, which he had from the first desired. He therefore returned to Capetown, in March 1794 was appointed to Roodezand, and on the 4th of May was inducted as minister of that congregation. Here his sphere of labour was more limited than that of Mr. Van Lier in Capetown had been, but he spent much time in attempting to christianise the slaves in his neighbourhood, as well as in holding prayer meetings with the Europeans. He soon succeeded in persuading the greater number of his parishioners to adopt his views, and at a little later date the first missionaries ordained in South Africa were ordained in his church.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> It should perhaps be added that this clergyman's disposition prevented him from remaining long in one place. In 1802 he left Roodezand and proceeded to England, where he entered the service of the London missionary society. In 1804 he led a party of six missionaries to India. At Tranquebar, the first place visited, his wife died, leaving no children. He then went to Colombo, and next to Point de Gale, where he married a Dutch lady, the widow of an English officer, who bore him five children. Here difficulties arose between him and other clergymen of the same denomination, owing to their different manner of interpreting their duties, and his position became so unpleasant that he removed to

The introduction of new opinions had the effect of rousing the people from a state of lethargy. In a short time interest began to be taken in the conversion of the heathen, philanthropic institutions of different kinds were originated, and generally the ideas of men with regard to their duties to others were enlarged. This change was not, indeed, universally seen; though in Capetown, Stellenbosch, and Roodezand it soon became apparent, and it possessed the principle of life and growth. Political events engrossed so much attention that the time was inopportune for a great religious movement, but in the minds of a few men and of many women the advanced evangelical doctrine secured a firm and lasting place.

In 1795 the portion of South Africa that had been explored by Europeans included the Cape Colony, the western coast belt as far north as Walfish Bay, the eastern coast belt to the Zambesi, the Zambesi valley from the sea to a point a little farther up than Tete, and a few localities once occupied by Portuguese missionaries and traders along the eastern border of the territory now known as Rhodesia. Western Rhodesia, Bechuanaland, the Kalahari, Damaraland, Ovampoland, the territory now included in the South African Republic and the Orange Free State, Basutoland, and the belt along the seaward base of the Kathlamba mountains were as yet unvisited and entirely unknown. It is indeed possible that roving elephant hunters had crossed the Orange river into Southern Bechuanaland and the lower part of the present Orange Free State, but if so, they had communicated to others no information concerning their discoveries. Of the Cape Colony itself, though the general features were correctly delineated, there was no map in existence that

Negapatam. In 1809 he returned by way of Madras to the Cape Colony, and was afterwards stationed at Zwartland and Caledon. In August 1818 he was obliged to retire, owing to physical inability to labour longer, and he then went to reside as a confirmed invalid at Roodezand, or, as now called, Tulbagh.

was even fairly correct in the longitudes of the villages, the rivers, and the mountains.

The settlement of Europeans in the country was disastrous to one section of the aborigines. Bushmen were still numerous along the interior mountain range, but in other parts of the colony there were hardly any left. One may feel pity for savages such as these, destroyed in their native wilds, though there is little reason for regretting their disappearance. They were of no benefit to any other section of the human family, they were incapable of improvement, and as it was impossible for civilised men to live on the same soil with them, it was for the world's good that they should make room for a higher race.

The Hottentots had dwindled away to a few thousands, but it is impossible to form a reliable comparison between their number in 1652 and in 1795. The loss of life with them also could not be prevented. The most devoted philanthropists in the world, had they settled in South Africa, must sooner or later have introduced diseases which these people could not withstand, and which would have swept them off as the small pox did. Arrack and brandy contributed to their decline, but to a very trifling extent.

It is questionable whether the Hottentots that remained were happier than their ancestors, or not. Those of the beachranger class were undoubtedly in a better position, and the others were no longer constantly at war and subject to spoliation, while in times of scarcity food could be procured more easily than before. Against these advantages, however, must be placed a great diminution in the number of their cattle, the evils that arise from anarchy, and occasional instances of harsh treatment by Europeans residing at so great a distance from a court of justice as to be practically beyond the reach of law.

It is an axiom that the duty of a civilised government towards people of an inferior race residing within the

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limits of its authority is to govern them strictly, justly, and kindly. It is, however, a difficult matter to point out in all instances how this can be effectually done, and the words themselves are capable of different interpretations. The Dutch East India Company did not attempt to govern the Hottentots at all. It termed them a free people, and left them in general to act as they chose towards each other. The harshest rule could hardly have had a worse effect upon them.

Before the symbol of its authority disappeared from the castle of Good Hope, the East India Company had ceased to exist. The great association, whose early history was an almost unbroken record of success, owed its fall not so much to the competition of powerful rivals and to its losses in war as to the corruption which its system of government fostered among its officials. Hopelessly insolvent, it went out of sight when the wave of revolution passed over the Netherlands.

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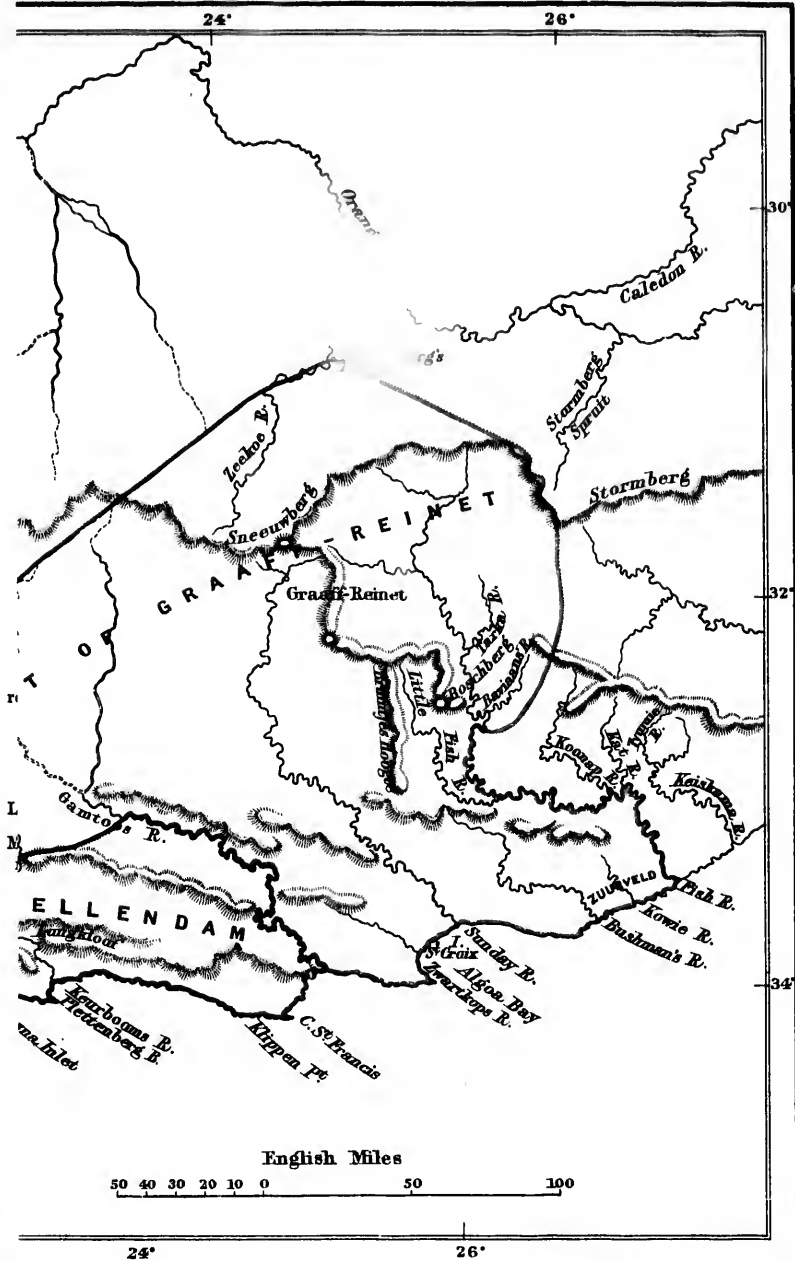
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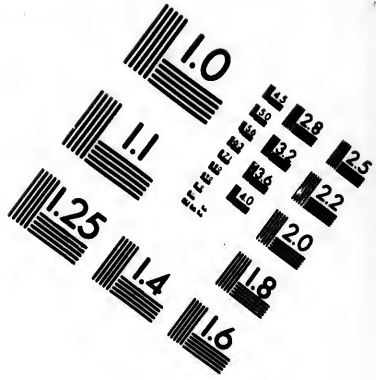
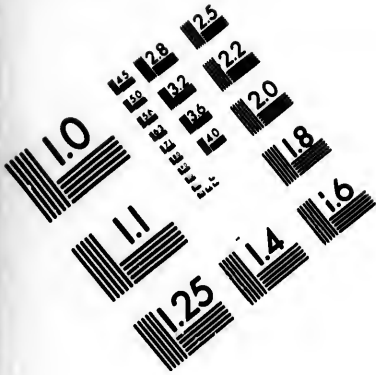
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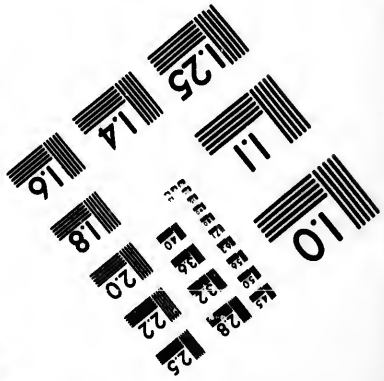
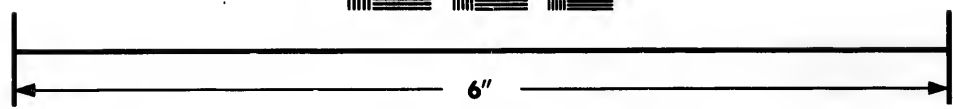
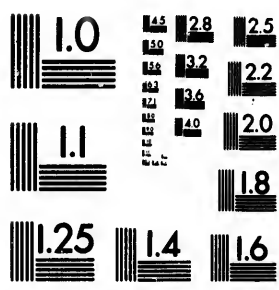
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**IMAGE EVALUATION  
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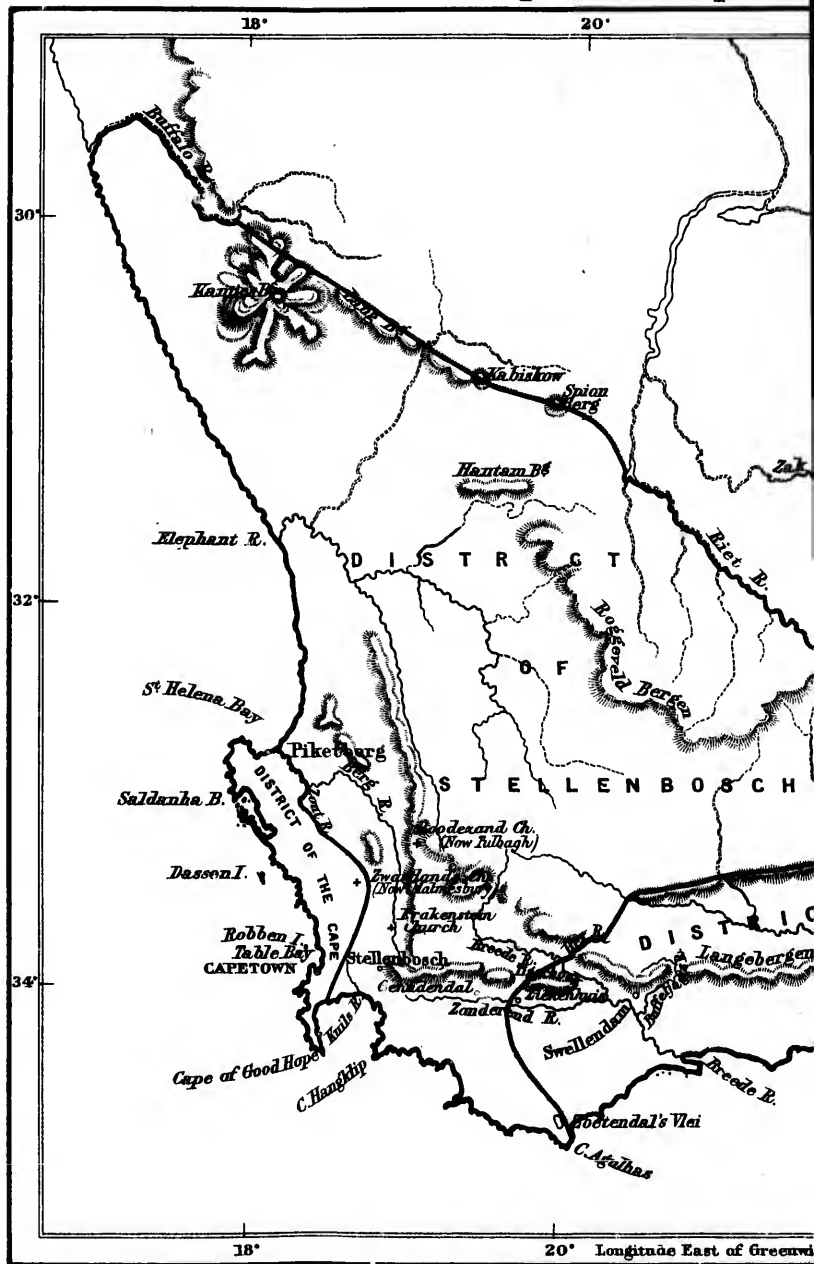
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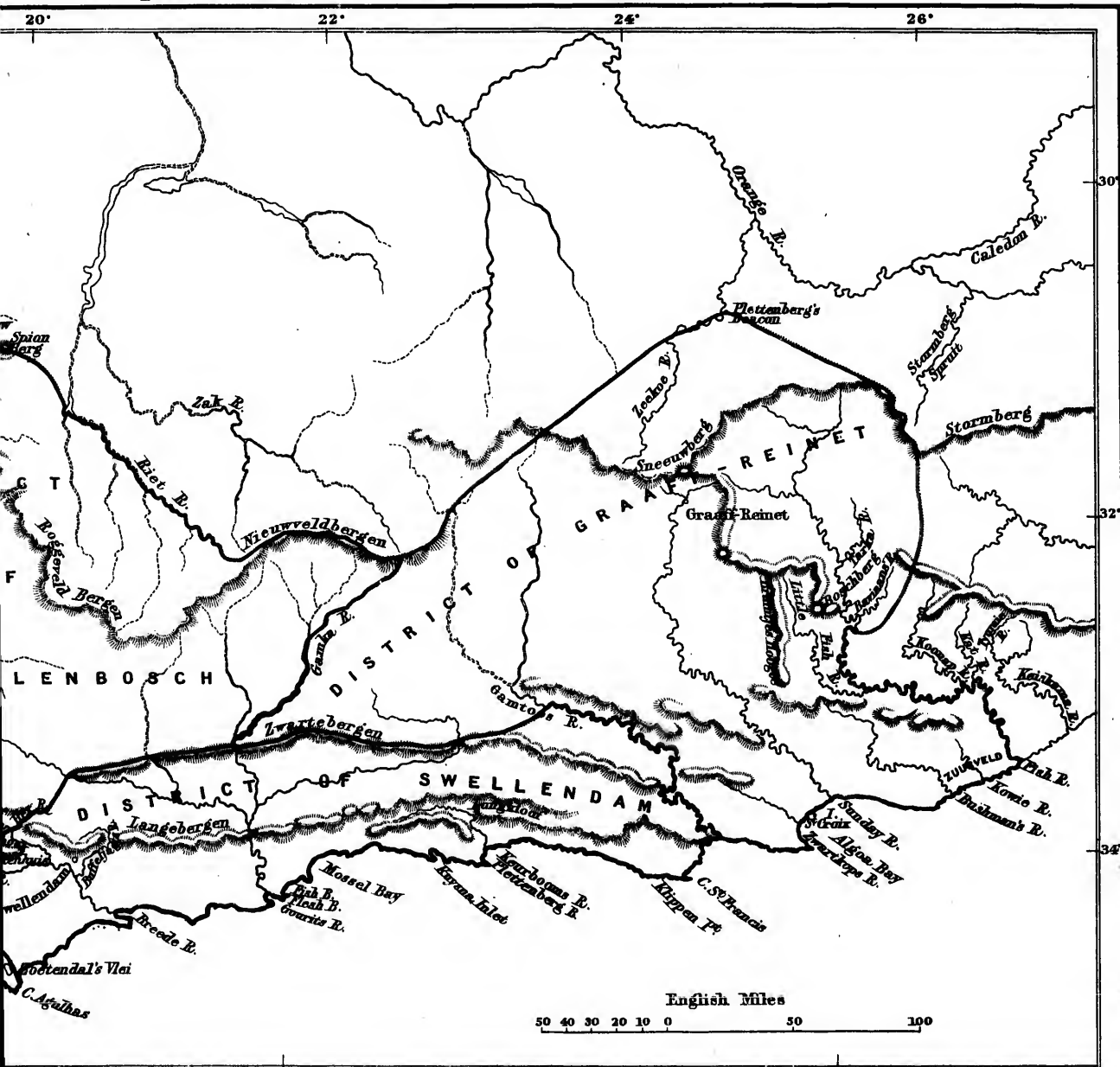
The places where there were courts of law were  
 Capetown, city founded in April 1652,  
 Stellenbosch, village founded in December  
 1679,  
 Swellendam, village founded in October 1746,  
 Graaff-Reinet, village founded in October  
 1786.

The churches were at

Dutch reformed	}	Capetown, established in August 1665,
		Stellenbosch, established in January 1687,
		Drakenstein, established in December 1691,
		Roodersand (now Tulbagh), established in October 1743,
Lutheran	}	Zwartland (now Malmesbury), established in July 1745,
		Graaff-Reinet, established in October 1792.
Moravian mission	}	Capetown, established in December 1780.
		Genadendal, established in December 1792.



VI. This map shows the extent of the settlement in the year 1795.



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## APPENDIX.

NOTICES OF PRINTED BOOKS CONTAINING INFORMATION UPON  
SOUTH AFRICA DURING THE PERIOD 1652 TO 1795.

Hondius, Jodocus (publisher—author's name not given): *Klare ende Korte Besgruyvinge van het Land aan Cabo de Bona Esperance*. A little work published at Amsterdam in 1652. This book professes to be a description of the country about the Cape of Good Hope, and was published by Jodocus Hondius,<sup>1</sup> maker of land and sea charts, whose name is a guarantee that all possible care was taken in the preparation of the work. The numerous authorities referred to in this early South African handbook prove further that the compiler was not only well read, but that he spared no trouble to collect oral information from the officers of ships. And yet he knew absolutely nothing of any part of the country now comprised in the Cape Colony except the sea coast from St. Helena Bay to Mossel Bay, and even that very imperfectly. Elizabeth and Cornelia or Dassen and Robben Islands he describes accurately, but of Saldanha Bay he could give no other information than the name and position. Table Bay and the country a few miles around he could delineate with precision, as he had information from persons who had been shipwrecked and had lived here many months. That there was such a river as the Camissa he had no doubt, but he believed it to be an open question if it did not enter the sea much farther eastward than Linschoten had placed its mouth. To the natives in the neighbourhood of the Cape he gives both the names Hottentots and Caffres, and says they were called Hottentots on account of their manner of speaking, Caffres from their being held to have no religion. Their personal appearance, filthy habits, manner of subsistence, clothing, weapons, and huts are fairly described, but the

<sup>1</sup> Grandson of the world-renowned map-maker of the same name.

writer had no idea that they were a distinct race from those living on the eastern coast. He thought it probable, indeed, that they were degraded offshoots from the empire of Monomotapa. This was the extent of the knowledge of South Africa, beyond the parts frequented by the Portuguese, possessed by Europeans a century and a half after the discovery of the sea route to India.

Nieuhof, Joan: *Zee en Lant-Reize, door verscheidene Gewesten van Oost Indien, behelzende veele zeltzaame en wonderlijke voorvallen en geschiedenissen. Beneffens een beschrijving van lantschappen, steden, dieren, gewassen, draghten, zeden en godsdienst der inwoonders: en inzonderheid een wijtloopig verhaal der Stad Batavia. Verciert doorgaens met verscheide Koopere Platen.* A beautiful folio volume of three hundred and sixteen pages, published at Amsterdam in 1682. Twelve pages and a half are devoted to the Cape settlement. An English translation of this work, condensed and connected with an account of earlier journeys in Brazil by the same author, is to be found in the second volume of *Churchill's Collection of Voyages and Travels*, of which the third edition was issued in London in 1744. In this edition Nieuhof's work occupies three hundred and five pages, and is profusely illustrated. The author was at the Cape in 1653, 1659, 1671, and 1672. In the year last named he was murdered at a little island off Madagascar. His manuscript, however, was in his brother's possession, who caused it to be published. In an account of his first visit in 1653 seven pages are devoted to the Cape, but events which he observed in later years are also described as if they occurred at this time, and his subsequent calls are very briefly mentioned. He gives no information which cannot be obtained from the manuscript official records. A curious map of the Cape peninsula, showing the course of the canal from Table Bay to False Bay proposed by Mr. Van Goens, is inserted in this work; and there is also a picture of the first fort in Table Valley, with the mountains around.

Saar, Johan Jacobsz: *Reisbeschryving naer Oost Indien.* Translated from the original German, and published at Amsterdam in 1672. The author, a native of Nuremberg, was in the service of the East India Company from 1644 to 1660. When returning to Europe with the homeward bound fleet of the last-named year, he

visited Table Bay. In a pamphlet of eighty-eight pages he has given four to the Cape, but there is nothing of very much interest in them except an account of the conspiracy to seize the *Erasmus*, and this is more completely recorded in manuscripts in the Cape archives.

Schouten, Wouter: *Reys Togten naar en door Oost Indien*. The second edition was published at Amsterdam in 1708; the fourth, large quarto with plates, in 1780. The author, who was in the service of the East India Company, called at the Cape on his outward passage in 1658. Of this visit he gives a short but interesting account. When returning home in 1665 he was here six weeks. He devotes a chapter to the observations which he made at this time, in which he describes the colonists and the natives, as well as the condition of the settlement. The book is well written, and the chapter upon the Cape is not the least valuable portion of it, though it contains no information which is not also to be gathered in a more perfect form from the official records of the period.

Evertsen, Volkert: *Beschrijving der Reizen naar Oost Indien van*. Translated from the original German, and published at Amsterdam in 1670. The author was a German, who entered the service of the East India Company in 1655 and proceeded as a midshipman to Batavia. In the outward passage, and again when returning to Europe in 1667, he called at the Cape. On the last occasion he remained here a month. His work is a pamphlet of forty pages only, but his account of the condition of the infant colony, though very short, is highly interesting.

van Overbeke, Aernout: *Rym Werken*. The copy in my possession is of the tenth edition, published at Amsterdam in 1719. The seventh edition was issued in 1699. The author was the same officer who first purchased territory from Hottentot chiefs in South Africa. Some of the verses are written with spirit, but there is nothing in the book to give it an enduring place among the works of the Dutch poets. The volume contains also in prose a *Geestige en vermakelijke Reys Beschrijving van Mr. Aernout van Overbeke, naar Oost Indien uytgevaren voor Raet van Justitie, in den jare 1668*. This is a comic description of a sea voyage, and would be quite useless for historical purposes, if it were not for the mention that is made of Commander Van Quaelberg. The

character of that commander is delineated therein identically the same as I found it to be from his writings. Mr. Van Overbeke adds that even the Hottentots regarded him with aversion.

Dapper, Dr. O.: *Naukeurige Beschrijvinge der Afrika-nsche Gewesten, etc.* Amsterdam, 1668. This is a splendidly printed and illustrated volume of eight hundred and fifty large pages, and contains a great number of maps and plans. It was carefully compiled from the best sources of information. As far as the Cape settlement is concerned, Dapper states that his descriptions are principally from documents forwarded to him by a certain diligent observer in South Africa, to which he has added but little from books of travel. The twenty-nine pages which are devoted to this country and its people were prepared by some one who was not here at the commencement of the occupation, who had not access to official papers, but who had been in the settlement long enough to know all about it, and who was studying the customs, manners, and language of the natives. Such a man was George Frederick Wreede, who was probably the writer. The order of events is not given exactly in accordance with official documents, though there is generally an agreement between them.

Ogilby, John: *Africa, being an Accurate Description of, etc., Collected and translated from most Authentick Authors.* London, 1670. All the information of value in this large volume is obtained from Dapper, to whom the compiler acknowledges his indebtedness. It is, indeed, almost a literal translation of Dapper's work, and contains most of his maps and plates. An extract will show how little was then known in England of the people we call Kaffirs:—'The Cabona's are a very black People, with Hair that hangs down their Backs to the Ground. These are such inhumane Cannibals, that if they can get any Men, they broyl them alive, and eat them up. They have some Cattel, and plant Calbasses, with which they sustain themselves. They have, by report of the Hottentots, rare Portraitures, which they find in the Mountains, and other Rarities: But by reason of their distance and barbarous qualities, the Whites have never had any converse with them.'

Struys, J. J.: *Drie aanmerkelijke en seer rampspoedige Reysen door Italien, Griekenlandt, Lijflandt, Moscovien, Tartarijen, Meden,*

*Persien, Oost Indien, Japan, en verscheyden andere Gewesten.* A small quarto volume of three hundred and seventy-seven pages, dedicated to the celebrated Nicolaas Witsen, and published at Amsterdam in 1676. In April 1673 Struys called at Table Bay, in the Dutch Indiaman *Europa* on her homeward passage. He says nothing whatever of the Cape, but gives the following account of the capture of the *Europa* by Commodore Munden's fleet at St. Helena, when he and all on board were made prisoners of war:—'Wy vertoefden tot den 1 May (1673) aan de Caap, als wanneer wy door bevel van den Heer Gouverneur Ysbrand Godskens met ons Schip *Europa* gelast wierden na het Eylandt St. Helena te gaan, zijnde het selve door hem op den 13 Januarius jongst-leden met omtrent 300 Mannen de Engelschen afgenomen. De andere Schepen soudon ons over 7 of 8 dagen volgen, en van daar gesamentlijk na 't Vaderlant gaan. Aldus gingen wy ter gemelder tijdt met een frissche koelte onder zeyl, voerende op ons Schip mede den kapiteyn Bredenbach, om op St. Helena voor Gouverneur te leggen. Wy setten onsen loop Noordwest aan, en quamen op Pinxster dagh, den 21 May, voor St. Helena. Maar nauwlijks om den hoek zijnde, sagen wy wel haast dat de kaart vergeven was, leggende aldaar 7 groote Engelsche Oorloghs-Schepen voor Gaats, nevens een Brander, en 3 koop-Vaarders. De Engelschen ons binnen schoots hebbende, heeten ons terstont met haar onder- en boven-lagen welkom, en planten ons soodanigh den Pinxter bloem dat wij in 't korte Schip en Goed daar voor quijt wierden, niet sonder eenige dooden en gequetsten. Wy hadden niet meer als 60 Ekers op, en kosten niet meer als 5 of 6 Stukken roeren. Wy aldus in groote benautheyt zijnde, en met ons Geschut weynig kennende uytrechten, besloten kloekmoedigh het Engelsch Fregat, *de Assistentie*, dat 50 Stukken voerde, en ons met sijn Brander volgde, aan Boort te klampen, en soo drijvende te enteren. Hier op gaf onsen Schipper last alle de Luyken toe te spijkeren, op dat sich niemant soude verschuylen, en aldus gesamender-hant op den Engelsman over te springen; doch tot ons groot ongeluk konden wy niet half soo veel Geweer by der handt krijgen als wy van nooden hadden. Aldus wierden wy gedwongen ons Schip, Volk, en Goed over te geven, alsoo den Engelsman het ons uyt sijn 12 en 18 ponders met koegels, kneppels, en Schroot soo bang

maakte dat wy niet langer duuren kosten; sonder dat wy hem met ons swak Scheeps-volk en weynigh Geschut eenige voorname schade konden toebrengen.' Struys also gives an account of the subsequent capture of two Dutch Indiamen by Commodore Munden's fleet.

ten Rhyne, Wilhelm: *Schediasma de Promontorio Bonæ Spei, etc.* Schaffhausen, 1686. This little volume of seventy-six pages in the Latin language is the work of a medical man in the service of the East India Company, who visited the Cape in 1673. It consists of a geographical description of the country in the neighbourhood of Table Bay, and a very interesting account of the Hottentots. The author obtained his knowledge of the customs of these people from careful observation and from information supplied by a native woman in the settlement who spoke the Dutch language.

de Neyn, Pieter: *Lusthof der Huwelyken, behelsende verscheyde seldsame ceremonien en plechtigheden, die voor desen by verscheyde Natien en Volckeren soo in Asia, Europa, Africa, als America in gebruik zyn geweest, als wel die voor meerendeel noch hedendaegs gebruykt ende onderhouden werden; mitsgaders desselfs Vrolycke Uyren, uyt verscheyde soorten van Mengel-Dichten bestuande.* Amsterdam, 1697. The author of this book held the office of fiscal at the Cape of Good Hope from February 1672 to October 1674. He states that he had prepared a description of the Cape and had kept a journal, but that upon his return to Europe he was robbed of the whole of his papers and letters. The *Lusthof der Huwelyken* is a treatise upon the marriage customs of various nations, and is compiled from the writings of numerous authors. The *Vrolyke Uyren* are scraps of poetry of no particular merit. Among them are several referring to South Africa. In the *Lusthof der Huwelyken* are eight or ten pages of original matter concerning the Hottentots, written from memory. The story of the murder of the burghers by Gonnema's people in June 1673 is told, but not very correctly. An account of the execution in the following August of the four Hottentot prisoners is given, which agrees with the records, and is even more complete in its details. The story of the rescue of the Hottentot infant by Dutch women in the time of Commander Borghorst is also told more fully than in the journal of the fort. The

names of the women are given, and it is added that one of them afterwards became the wife of Jan Pretorius, who had been a fellow-student with the writer at Leiden. It is also stated that the child was baptized, but died shortly afterwards. Several other items of information are given in these few pages more fully than elsewhere.

Tachard, Guy: *Voyage de Siam des Pères Jésuites, Envoyez par le Roy aux Indes & à la Chine, avec leurs Observations Astronomiques, et leurs Remarques de Phisique, de Géographie, d'Hydrographie, & d'Histoire.* Paris, 1686. (*Par ordre exprez de sa Majesté.*) Father Tachard was one of a party of six Jesuit missionaries, who accompanied an embassy sent by Louis XIV to the court of Siam. The embassy arrived at the Cape in June 1685, and remained here about a week. Some of the missionaries were astronomers, who were provided with the best instruments known in their day, including a telescope twelve feet in length. The high commissioner Van Rheede, whom they found in supreme command, placed at their disposal the pleasure house in the Company's garden, which they converted into an observatory. They found the variation of the magnetic needle to be eleven degrees and thirty minutes west. From observations of the first satellite of Jupiter, they calculated the difference of time between Paris and the Cape to be one hour twelve minutes and forty seconds, from which they placed the Cape in longitude forty degrees thirty minutes east of Ferro. During the time that some of the missionaries were engaged in making astronomical observations, others were employed in investigating the natural history of the country and the customs of its native inhabitants. They made the acquaintance of a physician and naturalist named Claudius, a native of Breslau in Silesia, who was here in the service of the East India Company, and who had been with several exploring expeditions in South Africa. From him and from the commander Van der Stel they obtained a great deal of information, to which they added as much as came under their own notice. The missionaries found a good many people of their creed in the colony, both among the slaves and the servants of the Company, but though no one was questioned as to his religion, they were not permitted to hold public worship on shore. Father Tachard speaks in unqualified



terms of the very cordial reception which the members of the embassy had at the Cape. They were astonished as well as gratified, he says, to meet with so much politeness and kindness from the officers of the government. On his return to Europe in the following year he called again, and was equally well received. He devotes about fifty pages of his very interesting book to South Africa, and gives several illustrations of natives, animals, etc.

*Journal en Suite du Voyage de Siam, en forme des Lettres Familières fait en 1685 et 1686 par Mr. L. D. C.* A small octavo volume of three hundred and seventy-seven pages, published at Amsterdam in 1687. This is an account of the above voyage to Siam in the ships *Oiseau* and *Maligne* by another writer, in which a few particulars of the visits to Capetown are given that Father Tachard has not mentioned. The writer was charmed with what he saw and experienced. He tells how hospitably and courteously all were treated, and how the young officers went on hunting excursions and came back laden with antelopes and pheasants. He states that the high commissioner Van Rheede, Major-General de Saint Martin, a Frenchman by birth but then commanding the whole of the Company's troops in India, and the late Governor Bax were fast friends, who more than thirty years before had left the Netherlands as soldiers with muskets on their shoulders, and had worked their way upward to the highest positions in the service. This may not be quite correct, as another writer states the same of Mr. Van Rheede, but gives him different associates. It was, however, characteristic of the Company's service at the time that its ablest officers rose from the ranks. This account of the voyage is very pleasantly written.

Tachard, Guy: *Second Voyage du Père Tachard et des Jésuites envoyez par le Roy au Royaume de Siam.* I have two copies of this work, one a handsome quarto volume of four hundred and twenty-eight pages, published at Paris in 1689, the other a duodecimo volume published at Amsterdam in the same year. The second expedition sent by the king of France to Siam was conveyed in the ships *Gaillard*, *Oyseau*, *Loire*, *Normande*, and *Dromedaire*, and visited the Cape on the outward passage in June 1687. Twenty-six pages of the quarto volume are devoted to an

account of occurrences here. Sixty-six pages are filled with a narrative of the loss of the Portuguese ship *Nossa Senhora dos Milagros*, as given to Father Tachard by one of the Siamese officials who was in her when she was wrecked, and who was a member of the embassy to France in 1688. There is also a brief account of Father Tachard's visit to the Cape in April 1688, when returning to France with the Siamese embassy.

Cowley, Captain: *A Voyage round the Globe, made by the Author in the years 1683 to 1686*. London, 1687. With several editions subsequently. The writer was in Table Bay for about a fortnight in June 1686. His work is a pamphlet of forty-four pages, six of which are devoted to an account of what he saw at the Cape of Good Hope. He has managed to compress a good deal of information into a very small compass.

de Graaf, Nicolaus: *Reisen na de vier Gedeeltens des Werelds*. Hoorn, 1701. The author of this very interesting book was a surgeon, and in that capacity visited various parts of the world between the years 1639 and 1688. He was in Table Bay in 1640, 1669, 1672, 1676, 1679, 1683, and 1687. His observations upon occurrences at the Cape are entirely in accordance with the documents preserved in the archives. His calculations of heights are more accurate than those of any other early traveller. In 1679 he estimated the height of Table Mountain from his measurements at three thousand five hundred and seventy-eight Rhyndland feet. He speaks at the same time of the Duivelsberg by this name. The book is admirably written, but contains no information of value that is not also to be found in the government records of the time.

*Drie seer aenmercklijcke Reysen nae en door veelerley Gewesten in Oost Indien, gedaen van Christophorus Frikius, Elias Hesse, en Christophorus Schweitzer, yeler bysonder, van't Jaer 1675 tot 1686*. Translated by S. de Vries into Dutch from the original German, and published in a quarto volume at Utrecht in 1694. All of these travellers profess to have called twice at the Cape, and give an account of what they saw here. The first named is either given to exaggeration and falsehood or never was here at all, and the two last mention nothing that is not to be learned from other sources.

Dampier, William: *A new Voyage round the World, etc.* The

second edition in two volumes was published at London in 1697. The work was translated into Dutch, and a beautiful edition was issued at Amsterdam in 1717. In these volumes Dampier gives a very interesting account of his adventures between his departure from England in 1679 and his return in 1691. He was at the Cape for six weeks in April and May 1691, and fifteen pages of his first volume are taken up with an account of this visit. Four pages of an appendix to the second volume are devoted to an account of Natal, as furnished to the writer by his friend Captain Rogers, who had been there several times.

Vogel, Johann Wilhelm: *Zehen Jahrige Ost-Indianische Reise Beschreibung*. The second edition, a small octavo volume of seven hundred and twenty pages, was published at Aitenburg in 1716. Vogel was a master miner in the service of the Dutch East India Company, and was at the Cape for a short time in 1679 and again in 1688. He has devoted about thirty-five pages to a description of this country and its people. His work is written in a German dialect which any one familiar with Dutch will have no difficulty in reading and understanding. He is quoted by early writers on South Africa, but has left nothing on record which is not to be gathered from the colonial archives.

Grævenbroeckii, N. N.: *Elegans et accurata gentis Africanæ circa Promontorium Capitis Bonæ Spei, vulgo Hottentotten nuncupatæ, descriptio epistolaris*. A manuscript volume of one hundred and twenty-one quarto pages, obtained at the sale of the Sunderland library in 1882, and presented by the late C. A. Fairbridge, Esqre., to the South African public library. It is a copy made in 1695 of a letter of Mr. Grevenbroek to a clergyman in Amsterdam. A Dutch translation by Dr. J. W. G. van Oordt appeared in the numbers of the *Zuid Afrikaansche Tijdschrift* for January and February 1886. We have at the present day hardly any account of South African natives more accurate than this of Mr. Grevenbroek, the learned and able secretary of the council of policy during the government of Commander Simon van der Stel. When the abbé La Caille was at the Cape he was informed that Mr. Grevenbroek had prepared a work which after his death fell into Peter Kolbe's hands, and was the basis of that author's account of the Hottentots. This letter, so long concealed from writers on the Cape, shows that La Caille's informa-

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tion was in all probability correct. A few errors in it are also to be found in Kolbe's volumes, and in no other writings of that period within my knowledge. It may have been a condensation of a larger work, or it may have been a beginning from which a larger work afterwards grew. In addition to observations upon the natives, it contains some details of events that must have been written from memory after a lapse of several years, as they are not in agreement with the contemporaneous records in the colonial archives.

Ovington, John: *A Voyage to Suratt, in the Year, 1689. Giving a large Account of that City, and its Inhabitants, and of the English Factory there. Likewise a Description of Madeira, St. Jago, Annobon, Cabenda and Malemba (upon the Coast of Africa), St. Helena, Johanna, Bombay, the City of Muscatt, and its Inhabitants, Arabia Felix, Mocha, and other Maritime Towns upon the Red-Sea, the Cape of good Hope, and the Island Ascension.* By J. Ovington, M.A., Chaplain to his Majesty. A crown octavo volume of six hundred and six pages, published at London in 1696. I have also a Dutch translation, entitled *Reysen gedaan na Suratte en andere plaatsen van Asie en Afrika*, published at Amsterdam in 1729. Ovington sailed from London for the Indies in April 1689, and reached home again in December 1693. He called at Table Bay on his return passage, and remained here seventeen days. He devotes a chapter of thirty-three pages to the Cape, in which he gives an interesting account of the colonists, the natives, and the condition of the settlement. The country, which he saw in the month of May, he terms 'this Paradise of the World.' Of the Huguenot immigrants he says: 'The Refugees of France, who are received here with the same privilege the Dutch enjoy, acknowledge the happiness of their Transportation; and boast that their Misfortunes are turn'd into their Felicity, since they are blest here with peaceable Dwellings and kind Accommodations, who had not formerly where in safety to lay their Heads.' The only fault he had to find was with the monopolies, which he regarded as highly oppressive. His description of the governor Simon van der Stel is of a friendly and courteous, but at the same time energetic man, who knew how to maintain his position with becoming dignity. He considered it worthy of mention that silver dishes only were used

at the governor's table. Ovington thought there was probably no other place in the world where such a variety of wares and curiosities could be found, as every ship that put into Table Bay brought something from Europe or India to trade with. He has made several slight errors, as, for instance, in over-estimating the European population, and in describing inaccurately the method of raising revenue by licenses for the sale of wines and spirits, otherwise his account of the Cape corresponds with that given in official records.

Silleman, Daniel, and Thyssen, Lourens: *Ongelukkig of Droevigh Verhaal van 't Schip De Gouden Buys*. Enkhuizen, 1694. The *Gouden Buys* sailed from Enkhuizen on the 4th of May 1693, with one hundred and ninety souls on board, and on the 19th of October dropped anchor in St. Helena Bay, when there were only six men capable of working, all the others having died or being ill with scurvy. On the 11th of November seven men left the ship with the object of seeking assistance inland. The pamphlet of twenty-eight pages is principally taken up with an account of the terrible sufferings which they underwent in their wanderings along the Berg river, until, ultimately, Thyssen was rescued by Hottentots and taken to the Company's post at Saldanha Bay, and Silleman, after roaming about for seven weeks and a half, returned to St. Helena Bay and found some small vessels there which had been sent by the governor to the assistance of the *Gouden Buys*. The remaining hundred and eighty-eight all perished. Silleman and Thyssen relate but little that is of importance concerning the condition of the country, but their account of the friendly disposition of the Hottentots towards the Europeans is interesting.

Leguat, François: *De gevaarlyke en zeldzame Reyzen van den Heere François Leguat met zyn byhebbend Gezelschap naar twee Onbewoonde Indische Eylanden, gedaan zedert den jare 1690, tot 1698 toe*. Originally written in French, but translated into Dutch, and published at Utrecht in 1708. The author of this book was a French refugee of noble blood, who was sent out at the head of a small party to inspect and report upon the island of Bourbon, where the marquis Du Quêne proposed to establish a colony under the protection of the states-general and the East India Company of the Netherlands. (This project is

fully described in despatches in the Cape archives.) The captain of the vessel, however, passed by Bourbon, or Eden as the refugees had named it, and set the party ashore on the island of Rodriguez. There the author remained two years, when with the whole of his party he passed over to the island of Mauritius in an open boat. From the commander of Mauritius the refugees received most cruel treatment. He confined them on an islet for a long time without any just cause, but they were at length sent to Batavia, from whence the survivors returned to Europe. Leguat was at the Cape about three weeks on the outward passage in 1691, and again about a month on the homeward passage in 1698. In the chapter of his book which is devoted to the Cape Colony, he gives a very interesting account of the settlement and the condition of the natives. He has made one or two notable errors, however, as, for instance, in estimating the European inhabitants of Drakenstein at three thousand souls. This traveller could find no drawback to the prosperity and happiness of the colonists, except the violent south-easters which damaged their crops. He thought the Company's garden in Table Valley was generally too highly praised, as the trees in it could not attain a great size, owing to the furious south-easters proceeding from a mountain usually called on that account the Devil's peak.

Maxwell, John: *An Account of the Cape of Good Hope*. A letter furnished to the Royal Society of London by the reverend Dr. John Harris, and published in the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1707. There is nothing of any great importance in this paper. It is only ten pages in length, and is chiefly devoted to a description of the Hottentots, from the personal observations of Mr. Maxwell, who had resided for a short time in the Cape Colony. In the manuscript department of the British museum the original letter from Mr. Maxwell to Dr. Harris is preserved, and I copied it for the Cape archives. It covers twenty-one pages of foolscap.

*Korte Deductie van Willem Adriaen van der Stel, gewesene extraordinaris Raat van India en Gouverneur aen Cabo de bon Esperance; Tot destructie ende wederlegginge van alle de klaghten, die enige vryluyden vande voorsz Cabo aen de Edele Achtbare Heren Bewinthebberen van de Oost Indische Compagnie over hem hadden*

*gedaen.* This is a volume of one hundred and seventy-two pages foolscap size, printed in Holland—the name of the town is not stated—shortly after the recall of Governor Wilhem Adriaan van der Stel in 1707. It consists of his defence, which is a document covering forty-four pages divided into verses similar to those of the bible, and a number of official papers forming appendices. The work, though dull as anything well can be, is of great value to a student of Cape history of that period. The emphatic manner in which the late governor denied the accusation of his opponents that he had placed restrictions upon the free sale of their produce, that he had curtailed their free right of fishing, etc., shows as clearly the theory of the government as any despatch or order that is extant. It is interesting to contrast this defence with that of the Cape government in the time of Van Plettenberg. Van der Stel shows that his accusers made many rash and untrue statements, but he has not succeeded in refuting the charges that his administration was oppressive to the colonists, and that he was carrying on extensive farming operations at the expense of the Company.

*Contra Deductie ofte Grondige Demonstratie van de valsheit der uitgegevene Deductie by den Ed. Heer Willem Adriaan van der Stel, waarin niet alleen begrepen is een nauwkeurig Historisch Verhaal van al 't geene de Heer Van der Stel in den jare 1706 heeft werkelijk gemaakt, om de Vryburgeren aan de Kaab t'onder te brengen: maar ook een beknopt Antwoord op alle in gemelde Deductie, en deszelfs schriftelyke Verantwoordinge, voorgestelde naakte uitvluchten, abuseerende bewysstukken, en andere zaken meer, strekkende tot Verificatie van't Klachtschrift in den jare 1706 aan Haar Wel Edele Hoog Achtbaarheden, de Heeren Bewinthebberen ter Illustre Vergadering van Zeventienen afgezonden; zynde gesterkt door veele authentique en gerecolleerde Bewysstukken, waar van de origineele of authentique Copyen in handen hebben de twee Gemachtigden van eenige der Kaapsche Inwoonderen Jacobus van der Heiden en Adam Tas.* A volume of three hundred and twenty pages foolscap size, published at Amsterdam in 1712. This volume contains every particular of the charges of the Cape burghers against Governor Wilhem Adriaan van der Stel, fortified with depositions and documents of like kind. It is therefore of the utmost value to a writer on Cape history. But a drearier volume to wade through,

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*Neutrale Gedagten over zekere korte Deductie die den Edelen Heer Willem Adriaan van der Stel heeft believen in openbaaren Druk uit te geven, tot verantwoording van zyn Gedrag in het Gouvernement aan Cabo de Bon Esperance.* This is a volume of one hundred and forty-seven pages foolscap size, without author's name or place or date of publication being given. It is in a single chapter, divided into verses, and is so intolerably heavy that it can have had but few readers even at the time of the controversy. It bears upon the complaints of the Cape burghers against Wilhem Adriaan van der Stel, but contains no information which is not also given in the volumes already referred to.

Bogaert, Abraham: *Historische Reizen door d'oostersche Deelen van Asia.* Amsterdam, 1711. In a book with this title one would not expect to find anything about South Africa, but out of six hundred and four pages no fewer than one hundred and fifty-six are devoted to Cape affairs. The author was a physician, but he did not hesitate to turn to any other occupation that would advance his fortunes. The book is an account of the third voyage which he made to India, with a description of the countries that he visited. Bogaert called at the Cape for the fifth time on the outward passage in July 1702, and for the sixth time on the return passage in February 1706. He devotes one chapter to a description of the country, another to an account of the Hottentots, and two long chapters to the tyranny practised by Governor Wilhem Adriaan van der Stel and its consequences. Of this he was more than a spectator, as he took an active part in the cause of the burghers. For this period of Cape history his work is of great value, and for the rest, though no special information is to be obtained from his writings, he corroborates much of what is mentioned in official records.

Funnell, W.: *A Voyage round the World, being an Account of Captain William Dampier's Expedition into the South Seas in the Ship St. George.* The edition before me is in one volume, published in London in 1729. Funnell was an officer under Dampier in this voyage, which lasted from 1703 to 1706. He was at the Cape from the 3rd of February to the 24th of March 1706, and



devotes seven pages of his work to a description of the place and the people.

Juncker, Christian: *Commentarius de Vita, Scriptisque ac Meritis, Illustris Viri Jobi Ludolfi*. Leipsic and Frankfort, 1710. This little volume contains in an appendix an extract from the Cape Journal of 1691, and a short Dutch, Hottentot, and Latin vocabulary. It is quite valueless to a student of Cape history, except as indicating what may have become of Wreede's vocabulary and several missing documents of that period. Probably they were lent by the Amsterdam burgomaster Nicolaas Witsen, who was also a director of the East India Company, to the historian Ludolf, and had not been returned when Ludolf died.

Rogers, Captain Woodes: *A Cruising Voyage round the World, begun in 1708 and finished in 1711*. An octavo volume published at London in 1712. The author was in Table Bay from the 28th of December 1710 to the 5th of April 1711. He gives an account of his observations and opinions upon the country and its people, which covers four pages, but contains no information of any particular value.

Purry, Jean Pierre: *Mémoire sur le Pais des Cafres et la Terre de Nuyts. Par raport à l'utilité que la Compagnie des Indes Orientales en pourroit retirer pour son Commerce. And Second Mémoire sur le Pais des Cafres et la Terre de Nuyts. Servant d'éclaircissement aux propositions faites dans le premier, pour l'utilité de la Compagnie des Indes Orientales*. These treatises form a little volume of one hundred and sixty pages, published at Amsterdam in 1718. The speculations of the author upon climatic effects are interesting, but there is nothing in his work that can add to one's knowledge of the countries he refers to.

Kolbe, Peter: *Caput Bonæ Spei Hodiernum*. This work, originally published in the German language at Nuremberg in 1719, professes to be a complete account of the Cape Colony and its inhabitants, European and native. Kolbe, a German who had received a tolerably good education, was sent to this country by the baron Von Krosink to make astronomical observations. He reached the Cape in June 1705. As he enjoyed the favour and patronage of the learned burgomaster of Amsterdam, Nicolaas Witsen, who was a director of the East India Company, all possible assistance in carrying out his mission was tendered by the

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officers of the Cape government. But Kolbe did not prove worthy of the confidence that was placed in him. Too indolent or too conceited for patient research, too credulous in believing idle tales, too unscrupulous to abstain from writing fancies and terming them facts, he forfeited the esteem of his patrons, and after a time found himself in South Africa without employment and without means of living. In February 1710 the Cape council resolved to send him back to Europe as being a person of no use in the settlement, unless he chose to become a burgher. He was saved from being deported, however, by taking service under the government. Kolbe was for a considerable time secretary of the court of landdrost and heemraden at Stellenbosch, and a mass of records in his handwriting is still in existence. That he did not make notes for reference is seen upon comparing his own entries with his printed statements. He attributed the defects in some of his official work at Stellenbosch to bad eyesight, so on the 12th of January 1713 the council of policy directed Jan Mahieu to take over the duty of secretary, and required him to report himself at the castle. The result was that in April of that year he left the colony to return to Germany, where at the time of the publication of his work he filled the post of principal of a high school. Kolbe's writings were the basis of nearly everything that was published concerning South Africa during the next half century. To those who can compare them with the official records of the time, they are unquestionably of very great value, but others should be careful not to rely too much upon them. They are often misleading as to dates and causes of occurrences, while facts are frequently distorted, and imagination is allowed to take the place of investigation. The handsomest edition of Kolbe's work is a Dutch translation entitled *Naauwekeurige Beschryving van de Kaap de Goede Hoop*, published at Amsterdam in two great volumes in 1727. These volumes are illustrated with numerous full-page engravings and maps, and the printing is beautifully executed. A second Dutch edition, though smaller in size, is but little inferior in style of printing and binding. There is no good translation of Kolbe's work in English that I know of. A compendium, published in two small octavo volumes in London in 1731, has caused even more discredit to be cast upon him than he deserves. It is merely a selection of his paragraphs, badly

translated, and condensed by a man absolutely ignorant of his subject.

Valentyn, François: *Beschryvinge van de Kaap de Goede Hoop, met de Zaaken daar toe behoorende*. Amsterdam, 1726. This is a portion of Valentyn's great work upon the Dutch possessions in India. The author, who was a clergyman, called at the Cape in the years 1685, 1695, 1705, and 1714. He was supplied by the government with a great amount of information, including copies of charts and of several important documents. Using this as a basis, he added to it from personal observation and from communications, oral and written, from many of the principal residents in the colony. The whole is worked up into an admirable description of the country. The second edition of Valentyn's *Oost Indiën* was published in three royal octavo volumes at Amsterdam in 1862, but it contains only an account of those countries that were then dependencies of the Netherlands, and consequently the chapters upon the Cape Colony are omitted.

*An account of the success of two Danish missionaries lately sent to the East Indies for the conversion of the Heathens in Malabar, in several letters to their correspondents in Europe*. Rendered into English, and published in London in 1718 as a crown octavo volume of four hundred and sixty-eight pages. A letter from Bartholomew Ziegenbalgh and Henry Plutsch, dated Cape of Good Hope, 30th of April 1706, gives an interesting account of their visit to Capetown.

*Het Ontroerd Holland, of Kort Verhaal van de Voornaamste Onlusten, Oproeren, en Oneenigheden die in de Vereenigde Nederlanden in voorige tyden, en allerbyzonderst in deze laatste Jaaren zyn voorgevallen*. This work was issued at Harderwyk in three neat volumes, the first volume in 1748, the others subsequently. The author's name is not given. The first volume contains *Een beknopte Historie van de Opschuddingen aan Cabo de Goede Hoop*, which covers twenty-two pages. It is an account of the disturbances which arose in South Africa through the rapacity and tyranny of Governor Wilhem Adriaan van der Stel, and is compiled from the *Korte Deductie, Contra Deductie, and Neutrale Gedachten*, together with the testimony of Bogaert and Kolbe.

Philips, John: *An authentic Journal of the late Expedition under the command of Commodore Anson*. An octavo volume of

five hundred and sixteen pages, published at London in 1744. The author of this journal was a midshipman in the *Centurion*, and was in Table Bay in that famous ship from the 12th of March to the 4th of April 1744. He has devoted sixty-seven pages to this country and its people, but the greater part of the narrative is extracted from other books. Its value, like that of all accounts by casual visitors, consists chiefly in the testimony which it affords as to the treatment of foreigners at the Cape.

de la Caille, M. l'Abbé: In the volume for the year 1751 of the *Mémoires de l'Académie Royale des Sciences*, Paris, 1755, there are three papers by the abbé De la Caille. The first is entitled *Suite des Observations faites au Cap de Bonne-Espérance pour la parallaxe de la Lune*, the second *Diverses Observations astronomiques et physiques faites au Cap de Bonne-Espérance*, and the third *Relation abrégée du Voyage fait par ordre du Roi au Cap de Bonne-Espérance*. The first of these papers is of no interest except to astronomers, and the last needs no comment, as the diary of the journey will be referred to under another head. The second paper contains an account of a variety of work performed and observations recorded by the author at the Cape, which can be studied with pleasure and interest by ordinary readers as well as by those who make a special study of astronomy and meteorology. This paper covers fifty-eight pages of the *Mémoires*.

de la Caille, Nicolas Louis (l'Abbé): *Journal Historique du Voyage au Cap de Bonne-Espérance*. This is a small octavo volume, of which a considerable portion is occupied with a biography of the abbé De la Caille, who died in 1762, a year before the publication of his journal. The chapters of this book which were written by him embrace the journal kept during his residence in the colony, eighty-five pages, remarks upon the customs of the Hottentots and other inhabitants of South Africa, fifty-five pages, and notes upon Kolbe's work, forty-one pages. In point of interest these chapters come very far short of the instructive paper mentioned under another heading, for their author was dealing with subjects outside of his line of work; still they are not without considerable value. Perhaps their chief worth, historically considered, is the exposure given in them to some of Kolbe's errors, though in correcting his descrip-

tions of the Hottentots, De la Caille really made almost as great blunders himself. From this date, at least, Kolbe ceased to be considered a standard author, which was a gain to students of Cape history.

*Hedendaagsche Historie of Tegenwoordige Staat van Afrika, waarin uitmunt de Beschryving van Barbarie, Senegal, Guinee, de Kaap der Goede Hope, etc.* This is one of a collection of works upon contemporary history published by Isaak Tirion at Amsterdam, of which the twelve volumes upon the Netherlands form most perfect pictures of that country in the middle of last century. The volume upon Africa contains eight hundred and ten pages, and was published in 1763. One hundred and eighteen pages are devoted to the Cape Colony. A description of the Hottentots, compiled from earlier authors, takes up a considerable space, and the geography of the country as then known is described at length. The historical references are less correct than one could wish to see them, and in all parts inaccuracies may be found, such as are unavoidable in a compilation in which a work like Kolbe's was largely drawn from. De la Caille's chart of the south-west coast is attached, and there is also a general map of South Africa, which is very erroneous.

du Bois, J. P. I.: *Vies des Gouverneurs Généraux, avec l'Abrégé de l'Histoire des Etablissemens Hollandois aux Indes Orientales.* A large quarto volume with portraits and numerous maps and plates. Published at the Hague in 1763. This work is a biography of the governors-general of Netherlands India from Peter Both to Jacob Mossel, and is therefore of considerable interest. Beyond this, it does not contain much special information of value to a student of South African history. Half a page only is devoted to an account of the establishment of the Cape Colony, and even that is not altogether free of error. A plan of the castle and town is given. The work, as far as I am aware, exists only in the original French.

Kindersley, Mrs.: *Letters from the Island of Teneriffe, Brazil, the Cape of Good Hope, and the East Indies.* A crown octavo volume of three hundred and one pages, published at London in 1777. The authoress was in Capetown from November 1764 to March 1765, and in five letters, covering twenty pages of her book, gives a pleasant account of what she saw. She was

favourably impressed with the government, the people, and the town.

*Wolradi Wolthemadii Apotheosis.* Amsterdam, 1775. A pamphlet containing a few pages of Latin verse, a large plate of the wreck of the *Jonge Thomas* in Table Bay on the 1st of June 1773, and an account of the heroism displayed by Woltemaade, who, after rescuing fourteen of the crew, sacrificed his life in a vain effort to save others.

de St. Pierre, J. H. Bernardin: *A Voyage to the Isle of France, the Isle of Bourbon, and the Cape of Good Hope; with Observations and Reflections upon Nature and Mankind.* I am indebted for my knowledge of this work to an English translation which was published in an octavo volume of three hundred and thirty-four pages at London in 1800. Anything from the pen of the amiable author of *Paul et Virginie* could not fail to be interesting, and the forty-four pages of this book in which he gives his observations upon the Cape, made during a stay of six weeks when he was returning to Europe in 1771, are very pleasantly written. Unfortunately, several of the statements made are very inaccurate.

*Nieuwste en Beknopte Beschryving van de Kaap der Goede Hoop; nevens een Dag-Verhaal van eenen Landtocht naar het Binnenste van Afrika, door het Land der kleine en groote Namacquas.* An octavo volume published at Amsterdam in 1778. Simultaneously with the Dutch a French edition appeared, which bears the title *Nouvelle Description du Cap de Bonne-Espérance, avec un Journal Historique d'un Voyage de terre, fait par ordre du Gouverneur feu Mgr. Ryk Tulbagh, dans l'Intérieur de l'Afrique.* The first part consists of a description of the Cape Colony and the Hottentots, compiled from earlier authors, principally from Kolbe and De la Caille. It contains many inaccuracies. Next follows the journal of the expedition under the leadership of the burgher captain Hendrik Hop from the Cape to Great Namaqualand, kept by the surveyor Carel Frederik Brink, with long notes added by the compiler in Holland. This part of the work is illustrated with full-page prints of the elephant, giraffe, zebra, hippopotamus, rhinoceros, gnu, wild hog, and other South African animals, some of them being very well, others indifferently, executed. Following the journal come two

reports to Governor Tulbough by members of the expedition, the one upon the natives and their customs being by far the most valuable portion of the volume. The men who drew it up were diligent observers, and one of them had the advantage of being conversant with the Hottentot language. This document is therefore not only highly interesting but of great permanent worth. The other report is upon copper ore, and was drawn up by the surgeon who accompanied the expedition. An article upon the wax plant completes the volume. Some copies—now rarely obtainable—of this work contain a number of large folding-out plates of Capetown as seen from different points and of Simonstown, beautifully drawn and engraved.

Masson, Francis: *An Account of Three Journeys from the Cape Town into the Southern Parts of Africa; undertaken for the Discovery of new Plants, towards the Improvement of the Royal Botanical Gardens at Kew.* By Mr. Francis Masson, one of his Majesty's Gardeners. Addressed to Sir John Pringle, Bart., P.R.S. This paper covers fifty pages of volume lxvi of the *Transactions of the Royal Society*, published at London in 1776. In his first journey Mr. Masson left Capetown on the 10th of December 1772, and travelled eastward as far as Swellendam. His observations are of no importance. He left Capetown again on the 11th of September 1773, in company with Dr. Thunberg, and after visiting the valley of the Elephant river and the Cold Bokkeveld, proceeded through the land of Waveren, down the valley of the Breede river, and eastward from Swellendam to the Sunday river. At Van Staden's river on this journey he saw a small kraal of Gonaquas who observed several Bantu customs. He arrived in Capetown again on the 29th of January 1774. On the 26th of September 1774 with Dr. Thunberg he left Capetown for the third time, and travelled northward to the Hantam. This journey occupied three months. There is nothing of very high interest in the paper.

*Nieuwe Algemeene Beschryving van de Kaap de Goede Hoop.* Amsterdam, 1777. In two octavo volumes. This work is a condensation of De Kolbe's book, somewhat improved by the observations of De la Caille. The compiler had never been in South Africa. The work treats of the political and physical features of the country; of the Hottentots; of the mammalia, birds, rep-

tiles, and insects, of the districts known; of the plants, indigenous and exotic, within the Dutch settlement; of the administration of the government, etc., etc. It contains a great many errors.

Thunberg, Charles Peter, M.D.: *Travels in Europe, Africa, and Asia, performed between the years 1770 and 1779*. Originally written in Swedish, but translated into English and published at London in four small octavo volumes in 1795. The portion referring to South Africa occupies nearly the whole of the first and more than half of the second volume. Thunberg travelled as a botanist in the Cape Colony from April 1772 to March 1775, under the patronage and in the pay of the Dutch East India Company, in one of whose ships he came from Europe as a surgeon. His style of writing is not attractive, owing to the abrupt manner in which he has thrown together information of various kinds, making his work resemble a series of memoranda rather than a connected narrative. He was also so credulous as to believe and repeat many absurd tales which he heard during his wanderings. Further, his work contains little or nothing of any permanent value that is not to be found in Sparrman's or Le Vaillant's. It must, however, be said in its favour that it contains a great many facts, though irregularly strung together, and that if no other travellers had written books about the Cape at that time, his would be considered one of considerable merit. There are editions of it in French and German as well as in Swedish and English.

Sparrman, Andrew, M.D.: *A Voyage to the Cape of Good Hope, towards the Antarctic Polar Circle, and round the World; but chiefly into the Country of the Hottentots and Kaffirs, from the year 1772 to 1776*. Originally written in Swedish, but translated and published in English, French, and German. The second English edition, in two volumes, with map and plates, was published at London in 1786. Sparrman arrived in South Africa in April 1772. In November of the same year he left the Cape in the *Resolution*, having engaged to accompany the English exploring expedition as a naturalist, and sailed with Captain Cook round the world. In March 1775 the *Resolution* reached the Cape again, and Dr. Sparrman at once set out upon a tour through the colony, which occupied him until April 1776. The results of his observations are given in the work under notice, which is the



most interesting and most trustworthy account of the Cape Colony and the various races of people then residing in it, that was published before the beginning of the present century.

Paterson, William: *A Narrative of four Journeys into the Country of the Hottentots and Caffraria, in the years 1777, 1778, and 1779.* London, 1789. A quarto volume containing one hundred and thirty-five pages of reading matter in the form of a journal, twenty-four pages of weather tables, and ten descriptive of animal and vegetable poisons. It is illustrated with seventeen full-page plates, principally of plants, and a large map. In the best copies the plates are coloured. A second English edition was published in 1790, and Dutch, French, and German translations were speedily issued. Lieutenant Paterson, whose chief pursuit was the study of botany, travelled eastward nearly to the Keiskama and northward beyond the Orange river. Unfortunately, his narrative is little more than a record of stages made and of specimens of plants secured. As a description of the country or of the people it is worth nothing, but it contains two or three observations of some historical value.

Stavorinus: *Reizen.* I have as yet only been able to procure in the original Dutch the first book written by this author. It is entitled *Reize van Zeeland over de Kaap de Goede Hoop, naar Batavia, Bantam, Bengalen, enz., gedaan in de jaaren 1768 tot 1771, door den heer J. S. Stavorinus, Schout bij Nacht bij de Admiraliteit van Zeeland. Gevolgd van eenige belangrijke aanmerkingen over den aart, gewoonten, levenswijze, godsdienstplegtigheden en koophandel der volkeren in die gewesten.* This is an octavo volume, published at Leiden in 1793. I have, however, a translation in English of his complete works, entitled *Voyages to the East Indies by the late John Splinter Stavorinus, Esq., Rear Admiral in the Service of the States General. Translated from the original Dutch by Samuel Hull Wilcocke. With Notes and Additions by the Translator. The whole comprising a full and accurate Account of all the present and late Possessions of the Dutch in India and at the Cape of Good Hope.* This English translation is in three thick royal octavo volumes, published at London in 1798. At the time of making his voyages to India Stavorinus was a post captain in the national navy. The States were at peace, and as he wished to acquire more experience in matters

pertaining to seamanship, he asked for and obtained permission to take command of an Indiaman. In that capacity he visited Table Bay in 1768, 1771, and 1778, and Simon's Bay in 1774. Altogether he spent about fifteen weeks in South Africa. One hundred and thirty pages of his work are devoted to subjects connected with this country, and in addition nineteen pages of the appendix are occupied with an abstract of Oldenland's catalogue of plants. In these chapters the author gives an account of Capetown and its inhabitants, a description of the government, an account of an excursion to Klapmuts and Stellenbosch, particulars of the commerce of the colony, etc. He draws a broad line of distinction between the inhabitants of the town and those of the country, and institutes a comparison greatly in favour of the farmers. He denounces the rapacity of the public servants and the arbitrary nature of the government, and recommends the suppression of the first and the amelioration of the last. Stavorinus confines his observations to the European settlement, and has nothing to say of the coloured races. Attached to the work is a chart of the country and coast from Hottentots-Holland to Saldanha Bay.

Cook, James (Captain): *A Voyage towards the South Pole and round the World, performed in his Majesty's ships Resolution and Adventure in the years 1772-1775*. The third edition, in two quarto volumes, was published at London in 1779. Captain Cook was at the Cape in November 1772 and in April 1775. He has made a few observations, which are interesting but too brief to be of much value. Some short remarks are also to be found in the account of Captain Cook's last voyage, the third edition of which, in three quarto volumes, was published at London in 1785. This work is entitled *A Voyage to the Pacific Ocean undertaken by the command of His Majesty for making Discoveries in the Northern Hemisphere; performed under the direction of Captains Cook, Clerke, and Gore, in His Majesty's ships the Resolution and Discovery, in the years 1776-1780*. Volumes i and ii were written by Captain Cook, volume iii by Dr. King. The expedition was at the Cape in November 1776 and in April 1780.

Sonnerat, M.: *Voyage aux Indes Orientales et à la Chine, Fuit par ordre du Roi, depuis 1774 jusqu'en 1781: Dans lequel on*

*traite des Mœurs, de la Religion, des Sciences & des Arts des Indiens, des Chinois, des Pégouins & des Madegasses ; suivi d'Observations sur le Cap de Bonne-Esperance, les Isles de France & de Bourbon, les Maldives, Ceylan, Malacca, les Philippines & les Moluques, & de Recherches sur l'Histoire Naturelle de ces Pays.* Par M. Sonnerat, Commissaire de la Marine, Naturaliste Pensionnaire du Roi, Correspondant de son Cabinet & de l'Académie Royale des Sciences de Paris. Two beautiful quarto volumes, published at Paris in 1782. They contain four pages of reading matter concerning South Africa and two large plates of Hottentots and Kaffirs. I have also an English translation entitled *A Voyage to the East-Indies and China, performed by order of Lewis XV between the years 1774 and 1781.* Translated from the French of Monsieur Sonnerat by Francis Magnus. This is in three octavo volumes, published at Calcutta in 1788. It does not contain the plates. I have also a Dutch translation published in three octavo volumes at Leiden in 1786, and entitled *Reize naar de Oost Indien en China in de Jaaren 1774-1781, op last des Konings van Frankryk, gedaan door den Heer Sonnerat.* The French naturalist Sonnerat, having spent five years in travelling in Mauritius, Bourbon, Madagascar, New Guinea, the Moluccas, and the Philippine islands, where he made rich collections of specimens in the animal and vegetable kingdoms, returned to Paris and published a work in quarto illustrated with one hundred and twenty plates. He was then sent by the king to make further researches in other parts of the East, and was absent from France on this occasion seven years. He returned in 1781 with a magnificent collection of animals and plants. Sonnerat called at the Cape on several occasions, and in 1781 spent some weeks here. He is mentioned by other travellers of the time, who considered the meeting of a man of such eminence in the study of natural history a noteworthy event. In the last volumes here referred to there is but one chapter upon the Cape Colony, and it covers only five pages. These are pages of correct information, but the whole is too short to draw attention, were it not for the name of the author.

Raynal, Guillaume Thomas: *Histoire Philosophique et Politique des Etablissemens et du Commerce des Européens dans les deux Indes.* This is one of the great histories produced in the eighteenth cen-

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tury, and its writer long held in French literature a position similar to that occupied by Hume and Gibbon among English authors. Modern critics believe, however, that he was only a compiler, and that Diderot wrote at least one third of the book. On account of the views expressed in it being offensive to the king, the work was condemned to be publicly burned, and Raynal was obliged to leave France for a short time. Napoleon was a warm admirer of the book, and treated its author (or compiler) with great respect. Of the many editions, one of the best is in ten octavo volumes with large quarto atlas, published at Geneva in 1782. In this edition sixteen pages are devoted to the establishment of the Cape Colony, but they do not contain a correct account of that event. The archives of the East India Company were not then open, and only printed works upon South Africa could be referred to. The Cape Colony also, in relation to other countries, was considered so unimportant that only a certain amount of time as well as of space could be devoted to it.

Le Vaillant, François: *Voyage dans l'Intérieur de l'Afrique, par le Cap de Bonne-Espérance, dans les années 1780, '81, et '82.* Paris, 1790. The two volumes of M. Le Vaillant's work, in which an account is given of his journey to Kaffirland, contain a little interesting matter, but the author's vivid imagination caused him to colour his descriptions too highly. Le Vaillant came to South Africa in the *Held Woltemaade*, the Dutch Indiaman which was captured by Commodore Johnstone's fleet soon after she sailed from Saldanha Bay. He reached the Fish river towards the close of 1781. There are translations of this work in Dutch and English.

Dalrymple, Alexander: *An Account of the Loss of the Grosvenor Indiaman, commanded by Capt. John Coxon, on the 4th of August, 1782, with a Relation of the Events which befel those Survivors who have reached England, viz. Robert Price, Thomas Lewis, John Warmington, and Barney Larey, being the Report given in to the East India Company.* This is an octavo pamphlet of fifty-eight pages, published with the approbation of the court of directors, at London (second edition), in 1785. An appendix of thirty-eight pages contains the report of William Hubberley, another of the survivors. In this little work the

particulars of the wreck are given briefly, the greater portion being taken up with an account of the wanderings and sufferings of the narrators. A list of the names of those who were left behind is given.

Carter, George: *A Narrative of the Loss of the Grosvenor East Indiaman, which was unfortunately wrecked upon the Coast of Caffraria on the 4th of August 1782. Compiled from the Examination of John Hynes, one of the unfortunate survivors.* London, 1791. This work is an illustrated volume of one hundred and seventy-four pages, and contains an account of the wreck, of Hynes' journey until he reached the residence of a colonist, and lists of names of those saved, left behind, and known to have perished.

*A narrative of the two sailors lately arrived in England, and who were wrecked in the Grosvenor East Indiaman on the coast of Caffraria, August 4, 1782, containing a particular description of the hardships they endured and the dangers they escaped; besides an account of the country, the extraordinary manners of the inhabitants, and other very interesting particulars relative to the miraculous preservation of one of the sailors, the finding an infant buried alive in the sand on the sea-shore, and an old man whom they found exposed to the ferocity of the wild beasts in the woods, etc., etc., etc.* A pamphlet of forty-three pages published at London in 1783. This little work is evidently the production of some ingenious writer in London. It contains illustrations of several of Kolbe's inaccuracies, but not a single item of information relative to the wreck that had not been published previously.

*L'Afrique Hollandaise; ou Tableau Historique et Politique de l'Etat originaire de la Colonie du Cap de Bonne-Espérance comparé avec l'Etat actuel de cette Colonie. Publié sur le manuscrit d'un Observateur instruit.* An octavo volume of three hundred and twenty-two pages, published in Holland (no city mentioned) in 1783. The writer's name is not given, but it is evident that he was a Cape burgher. This work was published at a time when the colonists of South Africa were divided into two factions, and party feeling was running extremely high. The writer was a special pleader of one of the factions, and therefore anything like an impartial account of the colony is not to be ex-

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pected from his pen. His account of the early days of the settlement is almost fabulous in its inaccuracy. Thus Van Riebeeck is represented as a kind of hero, and his immediate successors as tyrants who destroyed the liberal form of government which he introduced. He is said to have wrested the country from the Portuguese, and to have brought out a body of planters with him. A large portion of the book is taken up with a refutation of the defence of the fiscal Boers. The value of the work consists in the fact that it gives a picture of the administration of the East India Company, at the time it was written, from the point of view of a large section of the colonists of South Africa.

Redelinghuys, Johannes Henricus: *De Eerloosheid ontmaskerd*. A crown octavo volume of two hundred pages, published at Amsterdam in 1792. The author of this book was one of the delegates who proceeded to the Netherlands in 1785 to bring the grievances of the Cape burghers anew before the states-general, and to endeavour to obtain redress. One hundred and one pages are taken up with a complaint of the manner in which he was treated by his constituents, and the remaining ninety-nine pages are filled with copies of documents relating to his mission. The book is valuable to a student of Cape history more as showing the height to which passion was running at the time than for any information which it contains.

James, Silas: *A Narrative of a Voyage to Arabia, India, etc., containing, amidst a variety of information, a Description of Saldanha Bay, etc., etc.* An octavo volume of two hundred and thirty-two pages, published at London in 1797. The author of this work was a seaman on board a ship in the fleet of Commodore Johnstone, and was present in the engagement with the French at Porto Praya on the 16th of April 1781, of which event he gives some particulars not found in the official reports of either the English or the French commanders. He describes also the capture of the *Held Woltemaade*, and the seizure of the Dutch Indiamen in Saldanha Bay. His account must be compared with official documents, however, as it is not strictly accurate. On the return passage James was in Saldanha and Table bays from September 1783 to March 1784, but his account of that visit contains nothing of interest.

*Kaapsche Geschillen.* Four bluebooks, containing in all one thousand one hundred and forty-six large quarto pages, printed in Holland in 1785. They contain the principal documents concerning the complaints of the burghers from the 1st of March 1779 to the 28th of July 1785, with the replies of the officers at the Cape.

le Vaillant, François: *Second Voyage dans l'Intérieur de l'Afrique, par le Cap de Bonne-Espérance, dans les années 1783, 1784, et 1785.* Paris, l'An 3 de la République une et indivisible. This work is in three octavo volumes, in which Le Vaillant gives an account of his journey from the Cape to Namaqualand. It has the same faults as the account of his journey to Kaffraria, and would have been greatly improved by the omission of many of the adventures described with wearisome minuteness as well as such tales as that of his bursting into tears and throwing himself into the arms of a savage. The great defects in this book of Le Vaillant have caused some of his critics to express an opinion that he never really crossed the Orange river into Great Namaqualand, but drew upon his imagination for the account he has given. This view is incorrect, and there can be no reasonable doubt that he went as far as he states that he did. His account of the lower portion of Great Namaqualand and its people will be found fairly correct, if separated from his own exploits. His troubles south of the Orange, the suffering from thirst, the loss of his cattle, and the abandonment of his waggons until he procured aid from a Hottentot clan, coincide with the experiences of many other travellers. When ultimately he reached the great river, he found himself compelled to leave his waggons on the southern bank, and to push forward with horses and pack oxen. He states that he had formed a design to traverse the continent from south to north, and only abandoned it when it was proved to be absolutely hopeless. The work is illustrated, but is not divided into chapters.

Degrandpré, L. (Officier de la Marine française): *Voyage à la Côte Occidentale d'Afrique, fait dans les années 1786 et 1787; suivi d'un Voyage fait au Cap de Bonne-Espérance, contenant la description militaire de cette colonie.* Two volumes octavo. Paris, 1801. Nearly the whole of the second volume is devoted to the Cape Colony. The author was a man of keen observation and of

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extensive reading. His work is therefore valuable as well as interesting. His description of the Cape is of a period just before the first English conquest of the colony, though it was written after that event. Of the country beyond the isthmus Degrandpré says but little, as his farthest journey inland was only along the Berg river to its mouth. He treats very fully of the navigation and winds at Table Bay, and describes Robben Island, Capetown, and Table Mountain at great length. Into military matters he enters largely, as stated in the title of his work. Speculative remarks upon the formation of Table Mountain and upon the circumnavigation of Africa by the ancients also occupy a good deal of space. This author is very severe upon the colonists, to whom he attributes the destruction of the Hottentot race. He speaks in the highest terms of Sparrman's work, and exposes many romances in that of his own countryman Le Vaillant, to whose ability, industry, and extensive researches in natural history, however, he testifies. It produces a smile to find Degrandpré in his preface indignantly denouncing Damberger as an impostor, and seriously pointing out errors that this African Munchausen had fallen into. A good chart of the coast from Saldanha Bay to False Cape and a plan of the Cape castle are attached to the work.

Huysers, Ary: *Beknopte Beschryving der Oost Indische Etablissementen*. Utrecht, 1789. Only four pages of this volume are devoted to the Cape Colony, and those chiefly to its finances, but there is some interesting matter in the appendix.

Riou, Capt. Edward: *A Journal of a Journey from the Cape of Good Hope, undertaken in 1790 and 1791 by Jacob van Reenen and others of his countrymen, in search of the wreck of the Honourable the East India Company's ship The Grosvenor, to discover if there remained alive any of the unfortunate sufferers. With additional Notes and a Map*. A quarto pamphlet of fifty-one pages published at London in 1792. It is a literal translation of the journal of an expedition that travelled through Kaffirland to the place where the *Grosvenor* was lost. The map added by Captain Riou is a curiosity. In it Natal and even St. Lucia River are placed a long way south of the Umzimvubu. With a knowledge of Kaffir proper names and a good modern map of South Africa, there is not the slightest difficulty in following the



course of Van Reenen's party from the journal, but Captain Riou believed that it nearly reached Delagoa Bay. There are Dutch and French editions of the work.

*Staat der Generale Nederlandsche Oost Indische Compagnie, behelzende Rapporten van de Heeren Haar Ed. Groot Mog. Gecommitteerden G. J. Doys, Baron van der Does, Heer van Noordwyk, Mr. P. H. van de Wall, Mr. J. Rendorp, Heer van Marquette, en Mr. H. van Straalen, als mede Nader Rapport van gemelde heeren gecommitteerden, en Bylaagen.* Two volumes. Amsterdam, 1792. These volumes contain a large amount of statistical and other valuable information concerning the Cape Colony.

de Jong, Cornelis: *Reizen naar de Kaap de Goede Hoop, Ierland, en Noorwegen, in de Jaren 1791 tot 1797.* Three octavo volumes, published at Haarlem in 1802. The author of this work was captain of the Dutch frigate *Scipio*. His ship lay at anchor in Table or Simon's Bay from the 27th of March 1792 to the 31st of May 1793. In the following year Captain De Jong returned from Europe to the Cape, and remained on this occasion rather longer than six months. His official position, combined with his being an intimate friend of the commissioner Sluysken, gave him a thorough knowledge of the events then taking place in the colony. Several short tours afforded him opportunities of observing the country and people, and his marriage with a Cape lady must have added to the interest which he took in the colony. In the form of a series of well-written and lively letters to a friend, Captain De Jong has placed on record his observations. In point of value to a student of Cape history, this work ranks high. It is ornamented with a view of Simonstown and harbour, and with two large pictures of Table Mountain and Bay, one of which is from the pencil of the celebrated Kobell.

Nederburgh, S. C.: *Verhandeling over de Vragen of, en in hoe verre, het nuttig en noodzakelijk zijn zoude, de Oost Indische Bezittingen van deezee Staat, ofte sommigen derzelve, te brengen op den voet der West Indische Volkplantingen; en of, en in hoe verre, het voordeliger voor dit Gemeenebest, en desselfs Ingezeetenen, zijn zoude, den Handel op voormelde Bezittingen bij aanhoudendheid door eene uitsluitende Compagnie te drijven, dan wel die voor allen 's Land's Ingezeetenen open te stellen; en in dit laatste geval: op*

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*welke voorwaarden, en onder welke bepalingen.* An octavo volume of two hundred and fifty-two pages, published at the Hague in 1802. The author of this work, Mr. Sebastiaan Cornelis Nederburgh, had been commissioner-general of the whole of Netherlands India and the Cape of Good Hope. There are only a few pages of the book devoted to this colony. These contain little beyond some severe comments upon the burghers and some remarks upon the introduction of Spanish rams and the production of merino wool.

Nederburgh, S. C.: *Echte Stukken betreffende het volbragt onderzoek der verrichtingen van de General Commissie in den jare 1791 benoemd geweest over de O. I. Bezittingen van den Staat en de Kaab de Goede Hoop, benevens den Finalen Uitslag van hetzelfde.* An octavo volume of one hundred and fifty-six pages published at the Hague in 1803. The items in this work of greatest interest to a student of Cape history are some official documents connected with the arrival of Admiral Elphinstone's fleet in Simon's Bay in 1795, and to the subsequent intercourse between the English and Dutch officers.

Some important papers are to be found in the *Annual Register or View of History, Politics, and Literature*, published at London. Thus the volume for 1758 contains an account of the wreck of the *Doddington*; the volume for 1790 contains a narrative of the disaster to the *Guardian*; and the volume for 1795 contains despatches, copied from the *London Gazette*, concerning the conquest of the colony, from the officers commanding the English forces.

van Hogendorp, Gysbert Karel: *Verhandelingen over den Oost Indischen Handel.* Three octavo volumes, Amsterdam, 1801. The second volume, of three hundred and eighty-eight pages, is devoted to the Cape Colony.

van Ryneveld, W. S.: *Aanmerkingen over de Verbetering van het Vee aan de Kaap de Goede Hoop, inzonderheid over de Conversie der Kaapsche in Spaansche of Wolgeevende Schapen.* A pamphlet of one hundred and four pages, printed at Capetown in 1804. Some information concerning the attempts made to improve the breed of cattle at the Cape is to be found in this little work.

Sluysken, A. J.: *Verbaal gehouden by den Commissaris van de*

*Caap de Goede Hoop.* An octavo volume of three hundred and thirty pages, published at the Hague in 1797. This is Mr. Sluysken's account of events from the 10th of June to the 16th of September 1795, and contains nearly the whole of the correspondence between the officers commanding the English forces and himself. A large portion of it has been copied from the secret resolutions of the council of policy preserved in the Cape archives.

Neethling, C. L.: *Onderzoek van 't verbaal van A. J. Sluysken, voormalige commissaris van Cabo de Goede Hoop, en verdediging van 't gedrag der Caapsche burgery.* A demy octavo volume of one hundred and three pages, published in 1797. The place of publication is not given, but it was probably Amsterdam. In this book some of the errors and omissions of duty of Commissioner Sluysken and Colonel Gordon are pointed out, and Sluysken's printed defence of his conduct is sharply criticised, but very little other information is given.

Campagne, H. D.: *Memorie en Byzonderheden wegens de Overgave der Kaap de Goede Hoop, 1795. Als mede Relaaas gegeven door den 's lands kapitein Dekker wegens het voorgevallen tusschen denzelve, den Engelsche Admiraal Generaal S'r George Keith Elphinstone, en den Commissaris Sluysken aan Kabo de Goede Hoop.* Manuscript in the archives of the Netherlands, a copy of which has been obtained by the Cape government for preservation with its records. This is a very graphic and complete account of events from June to September 1795, by an eye-witness. The writer belonged to the corps of pennists, but his sympathies were with the democratic party. In an appendix a well-written account of the Kaffir war of 1793 is given, the writer having been engaged in it.

Marnitz, Philip Wilhelm: *Verhaal van de Overgave van de Kaap de Goede Hoop aan de Engelschen. Door een vriend der waarheid aldaar. In't tweede jaar der Batavische vryheid.* This work is in manuscript in the archives of the Netherlands, and a copy has been procured for preservation with the Cape records. Its author was an eye-witness of what he relates. He gives a version of occurrences from the arrival of the British fleet to the surrender of the colony, from the standpoint of an artillery officer attached to the democratic party in Europe. He is very severe upon Commissioner Sluysken and Colonel Gordon.

Watermeyer, E. B.: *Three Lectures on the Cape of Good Hope under the government of the Dutch East India Company*. These lectures, which were delivered at the Capetown Mechanics' Institute and published as a pamphlet in 1857, during the next twenty years were regarded as the highest authority upon that period of South African history. The information contained in them was derived partly from such of the old colonial records as were then accessible, but Judge Watermeyer had not time for close research.

*Verzameling van eenvoudige leerredenen aan de gemeente van de Kaap de Goede Hoop, ter gedachtenis toegewijd door haren medeleeraar Helperus Ritzema van Lier. Met een karakterschets van den schrijver*. Three editions had been issued in Holland when the fourth—an octavo volume of two hundred and eighty-five pages—was published in Capetown in 1852. It contains eighteen sermons, eleven of the texts being taken from the new testament.

*Merkwaardig Verhaal aangaande het leven en de lotgevallen van Michiel Christiaan Vos, als predikant der Hervormde Christelijke Gemeenten op verscheidene plaatsen in Nederland, Afrika en Azië, van zijne Jeugd af tot den tijd van zijn Emeritusschap, door hemzelve in den jare 1819 briefsgewijze aan eenen vriend medegedeeld*. An octavo volume of two hundred and thirteen pages, published at Amsterdam in 1824.

de Villiers, Christoffel Coetzee: *Geslacht Register der oude Kaapsche familien*. The materials for this work were collected by Mr. C. C. de Villiers, of Capetown, assisted by his wife, during many years of close application. All the baptismal and marriage entries of Europeans and persons of European descent in the church registers of Capetown, Stellenbosch, Paarl, Tulbagh, Malmesbury, and Graaff-Reinet, from the foundations of those churches to the close of the eighteenth century, were copied. Unfortunately these registers are not complete, so in an endeavour to supply what was wanting, the wills and inventories in the office of the master of the supreme court and the documents in the registry of deeds were carefully examined, and copious notes were made from them. Old family bibles were sought out, and yielded some information. The public archives were next turned to, but before the first series of papers in them was completely examined, the indefatigable worker was suddenly struck

down by death, and his widow did not long survive him. His papers remained unarranged for several years, but in 1892 the government of the Cape Colony resolved to have them put in order and printed as a public undertaking, and the parliament without a dissentient voice voted the necessary funds. The task of arranging them and putting them through the press was entrusted to me, with Mr. W. J. Vlok—a most industrious and able man—as assistant. We were engaged upon it nineteen months. The work forms three thick crown quarto volumes in brevier type, and contains the genealogical tables of over fifteen hundred distinct families, some occupying only a few lines, others ten or a dozen pages. The places of birth of more than nine-tenths of the men who founded those families are given. That the work contains matter of importance to a writer of South African history is thus evident, though its chief interest is of another nature.

Moodie, D.: *The Record; or a Series of Official Papers relative to the condition and treatment of the Native Tribes of South Africa.* Compiled, translated, and edited by D. Moodie, Lieut. R.N., and late Protector of Slaves for the Eastern Division of the Colony of the Cape of Good Hope. Capetown, 1838. This work, now unfortunately so rare that a copy is only obtainable by chance, is a literal translation of a great number of original documents relating to the native tribes of South Africa from 1651 to June 1690, and from 1769 to 1809. A vast amount of labour and patience must have been expended in the preparation of this large and valuable book. I have not had occasion to make use of it, because, first, the early records are now much more complete than they were when Mr. Moodie examined them, and secondly, my aim was to collect information concerning the colonists as well as the natives. Nevertheless, it would be an act of injustice on my part not to acknowledge the eminent service performed by Mr. Moodie in this field of literary labour forty years before the archives were entrusted to my care.

Lauts, G.: *Geschiedenis van de Kaap de Goede Hoop, Nederlandsche Volkplanting.* 1652-1806. Door den Hoogleeraar G. Lauts. Amsterdam, 1854. A pamphlet of one hundred and eighty-six pages. The author had access to the archives of South Africa at the Hague, and made good use of them. He

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van Kampen, N. G.: *Geschiedenis der Nederlanders buiten Europa*. This is a work published in four octavo volumes at Haarlem in 1831. The references to the Cape Colony are incorrect, both as to occurrences and dates.

Theal, George McCall: *Abstract of the Debates and Resolutions of the Council of Policy at the Cape from 1651 to 1687*. An octavo volume of two hundred and thirty-three pages, published at Capetown in 1881. I have also published, under the title of *Belangrijke Historische Dokumenten*, a considerable number of original journals of travellers, and other papers, dating from 1685 to 1778, in the Cape archives, *verbatim et literatim* in Dutch as they were written, and have now in the press a volume of correspondence, etc., from 1793 to 1796 copied by me from the originals in the Public Record Office, London, as also a volume of journals and reports referring partly to the Dutch occupation of Delagoa Bay, which I copied at the Hague from the originals in the archives of the Netherlands.

*Dagverhaal van Jan van Riebeeck, Commandeur aan de Kaap de Goede Hoop*. Under this title the Historical Society at Utrecht has published three octavo volumes containing the journal kept in the fort Good Hope from 1652 to 1662. The first of these volumes, six hundred and five pages, was published in 1884, the second, six hundred and twenty-one pages, in 1892, and the third, seven hundred and fifty-five pages, in 1893.

*De Hervormde Kerk in Nederlandsch Oost-Indië onder de Oost-Indische Compagnie (1602-1795)*, door C. A. L. van Troostenburg de Bruyn, Predikant, laatstelyk te Batavia. An octavo volume of seven hundred and five pages, published at Arnhem in 1884. Some interesting particulars concerning various individuals connected with the Cape Colony are to be found in this book.

*Decreeten der Nationale Vergadering, representeerende het Volk van Nederland*. Volumes ii, viii, and x, which were issued at the Hague in octavo in 1796, contain the particulars of Mr. Sluysken's defence and the action of the National Assembly with reference to him.

*History of the Civilization and Christianization of South Africa*

*from its first settlement by the Dutch to the final surrender of it to the British.* A duodecimo volume of three hundred and twenty pages, published at Edinburgh in 1832. The compiler's name is not given. This book was prepared from missionary reports, without the slightest original research, and in an unfriendly spirit towards the colonists.

The publication of a précis of official documents referring to the early years of the eighteenth century was commenced in 1896 in Capetown by the reverend H. C. V. Leibbrandt, the present keeper of the archives of the Cape Colony.

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- Harders, Rev. R.: in January 1758 calls at the Cape and is appointed clergyman of Roodezand's church, ii 206; in June 1774 retires on a pension, ib.
- van Harn, Gerrit: in 1660 is appointed commander of the Cape, i 121; in 1661 dies on the passage out, ib.
- de la Harpe: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, ii 321
- Harry, a Hottentot of the Goringhaikona clan: in 1652 is found living in Table Valley, i 13; has been to Bantam in an English ship, and speaks a little English, ib.; is employed as an interpreter by Mr. Van Riebeeck, ib.; in October 1658 takes part in an act of murder and robbery, i 37; runs away from Table Valley, ib.; in June 1655 returns to the fort, i 48; in September of the same year goes inland to purchase cattle for the East India Company, i 49; acts a dishonest part, ib.; is difficult to deal with, i 55; in 1658 is made a prisoner by Mr. Van Riebeeck, i 81; and is transported to Robben Island, i 83; in 1659 is brought from Robben Island to serve as guide and interpreter with a military expedition, but is sent back again, i 95; he makes his escape in a boat to the mainland, i 97; in 1660 interprets when peace is concluded between the Europeans and the Cape clans, i 100; in 1663 dies, i 138
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- Hartzogenrath, Rev. J. W.: in April 1781 arrives in South Africa, and assumes duty as clergyman of the Drakenstein congregation, ii 21; in June 1786 dies, ib.
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- 1671; vacancy to 25 March 1672; Albert van Breugel, acting commander, from 25 March to 2 October 1672; Isbrand Goske, governor, from 2 October 1672 to 14 March 1676; Johan Bax, governor, from 14 March 1676 to 29 June 1678; Hendrik Crudop, acting commander, from 29 June 1678 to 12 October 1679; Simon van der Stel, commander, from 12 October 1679 to 1 June 1691, governor, from 1 June 1691 to 11 February 1699; Wilhem Adriaan van der Stel, governor, from 11 February 1699 to 3 June 1707; Johan Cornelis d'Ableing, secunde acting as governor, from 3 June 1707 to 1 February 1708; Louis van Assenburgh, governor, from 1 February 1708 to 27 December 1711; Willem Helot, secunde acting as governor, from 28 December 1711 to 28 March 1714; Maurits Pasques de Chavonnes, governor, from 28 March 1714 to 8 September 1724; Jan de la Fontaine, secunde acting as governor, from 8 September 1724 to 25 February 1727; Pieter Gysbert Noodt, governor, from 25 February 1727 to 23 April 1729; Jan de la Fontaine, secunde acting as governor, from 24 April 1729 to 8 March 1730, governor, from 8 March 1730 to 31 August 1737; Adriaan van Kervel, governor, from 31 August to 19 September 1737; Daniel van den Henghel, fiscal independent acting as governor, from 20 September 1737 to 14 April 1739; Hendrik Swellengrebel, governor, from 14 April 1739 to 27 February 1751; Ryk Tulbagh, governor, from 27 February 1751 to 11 August 1771; Joachim van Plettenberg, secunde acting as governor, from 12 August 1771 to 18 May 1774, governor, from 18 May 1774 to 14 February 1785; Cornelis Jacob van de Graaff, governor, from 14 February 1785 to 24 June 1791; Johan Isaac Rhenius, secunde acting as governor, from 24 June 1791 to 3 July 1792; Sebastiaan Cornelis Nederburgh and Simon Hendrik Frykenius, commissioner-general, from 3 July 1792 to 2 September 1793; Abraham Josias Sluysken, commissioner-general, from 2 September 1793 to 16 September 1795
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- Hemp: experiment in the cultivation of, i 260
- Hendriks: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, ii 67
- van den Henghel, Daniel: is appointed fiscal independent, ii 7; in March 1731 assumes duty, ii 27; upon the death of Mr. Van Kervel is chosen by lot to act provisionally as head of the govern-ment, ii 28; is required by the directors to confine himself to the duty of fiscal independent, ii 32; in 1741 returns to Europe, ib.
- Herholdt: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, ii 67
- Herold: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, ii 321
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- Hessequa tribe of Hottentots: in 1661 send a messenger to the Cape, i 127; in 1662 send cattle to the fort for sale, i 132; in 1693 are plundered by the Attaquas, i 351; in 1793 members of this tribe are collected by Moravian missionaries at Genadendal, ii 271; see Goukou
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- Heydenreich: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, ii 67
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- Heyns: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, i 242
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- Hitzeroth: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, ii 321
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- Höhne: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, ii 321
- Holland*, Dutch ship: in 1786 is wrecked in Table Bay, ii 296
- Holtshausen: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, i 458
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- Hondius (grandson of above): note on a pamphlet published by, ii 353
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- Hop, Hendrik, captain of burgher militia: in 1761 leads an exploring expedition into Great Namaqualand, ii 92
- Hops: experiment: in the cultivation of, i 315 and 369
- Horak: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, i 458
- Horak, J. A.: in April 1749 is appointed landdrost of Swellendam, ii 127; in 1766 leaves the Company's service and becomes a burgher, ii 98
- Horses: in 1653 the first are brought from Batavia, i 37; particulars concerning the importation and price of, i 44, 50, 97, and 157; as the Javanese horses have deteriorated, in 1689 some are brought from Persia to improve the breed, i 353; in 1769 are first exported from South Africa, ii 144
- Horse-sickness: in 1719 the first outbreak is recorded, i 442
- Hospital: in 1656 one is built between the fort Good Hope and the shore of Table Bay, i 52; which becomes dilapidated, so in 1697 another is commenced at the bottom of the Company's garden in Capetown, and in 1699 is opened for use, i 371; in 1772 the present military barrack in Capetown, intended for a hospital, is commenced, ii 141; in July 1781 it is first used as a barrack for the regiment of Pondicherry, ii 182
- Hot springs at Caledon: in the first decade of the eighteenth century begin to be used by persons troubled with rheumatic pains, i 422
- Hottentots: possess nothing with which to carry on commerce with the Portuguese, i 1; in 1647 sell great numbers of cattle to the wrecked people of the *Haarlem* in Table Valley, i 2; are favourably described by Janssen and Proot, i 3; assist the colonists against the Bushmen, i 386; in 1713 perish in great numbers from small pox, i 428; suffer terrible loss in 1755 from another outbreak of the same disease, ii 86; particulars concerning their condition, customs, arts, etc., i 13, 26, 28, 39, 49, 50, 71, 96, 106, 111, 118, 126, 131, 174, 213, 226, 251, 276, 279, 281, 301, 303, 347, 380, 388, and 442, and ii 93, 95, 98, 129, 169, 219, and 271; particulars concerning their treatment by Europeans and the intercourse between the two races, i 16, 27, 28, 37, 40, 45, 46, 48, 55, 67, 70, 79, 104, 131, 154, 167, 195, 231, 235, 270, 280, 346, 351, 386, and 426, and ii 4, 23, 64, 99, 114, 148, 169, 269, and 350;

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- see Afrikaner, Akemie, Attaqua, Chainouqua, Choro, Cochoqua, Damaqua, First Hottentot war, Gorachouqua, Goringhaikonas, Gori-haiquas, Gouriqua, Grigriqua, Hessequa, Inqua, Kees, Namaqua, Pandour, and Second Hottentot war
- Hottentots-Holland: in 1657 is visited by Europeans and named, i 69; in 1670 its occupation by the Company is authorised by the commissioner Van der Broeck, i 178; in 1672 a farming establishment is formed there, i 204
- Hubner, Hermanus: in 1736 is leader of a party of elephant hunters, ii 22; penetrates the Kafir country deeply, ib.; with five others is murdered at the kraal of the Xosa chief Palo, ii 23
- Hugod (Hugo): mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, i 363
- Huguenot immigrants: in 1688 the first arrive in South Africa, i 332; names of those who settled in this country in 1688 and 1689, i 337
- Hulsenaar, Rev. P: in March 1676 arrives in South Africa and assumes duty as olergyman of the Cape congregation, i 237; in December 1677 dies, ib.
- Human: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, i 458
- Huysamer: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, ii 67
- Huysers, Ary: note on a book written by, ii 383
- van Huysteen: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, ii 107
- van Imhoff, Gustaf Willem, governor-general of Netherlands India: in 1743 on his passage out visits the Cape, where he exercises supreme control during the period of his stay, and issues many important orders, ii 86
- Imhoff battery: in November 1744 is commenced, and in July 1745 is completed, ii 58
- Imidange clan of Xosas: formation of, ii 122; in 1779 is at war with the colony, ii 171; also in 1789 and following years, ii 220
- Imidushane clan of Xosas: formation of, ii 136
- Immelman: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, ii 107
- Immigrants from Europe: in 1657 several servants of the Dutch East India Company become colonists in the Cape peninsula, i 60; in 1671 and 1672 a few families arrive from the Netherlands, i 185; also in 1676 and 1677, i 242; in 1685 and two years thereafter some families and a few orphan girls arrive from the Netherlands, i 310; in 1688 and following few years three or four hundred French and Dutch immigrants arrive, i 328; during the early years of the eighteenth century a few families arrive every summer, i 395; upon the abandonment of Mauritius in 1710 nine families remove from that island to the Cape Colony, i 418; very



- few arrive after 1711, but many servants of the Company are discharged and become burghers, i 425
- Immigrants of coloured blood: in 1658 a number from the west coast of Africa arrive at the Cape as slaves, i 57; thereafter many are introduced as slaves from Madagascar and Ceylon, i 295; during the early years of the eighteenth century many slaves are introduced from Madagascar and Mozambique, i 295; during the remainder of the century many are introduced from the Indian islands, the east coast of Africa, and especially from Madagascar, ii 77
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- Inqua tribe of Hottentots: in 1689 is visited by Europeans, i 300
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- Islands of Dina and Marseveen: in 1699 a vessel is sent from the Cape to search for these islands, but returns without finding them, i 379
- Ivory: price of in 1753, ii 76
- van Jaarsveld: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, i 458
- van Jaarsveld, Adriaan: in 1770 is leader of a commando against Bushmen, ii 102; in October 1780 is appointed commandant of the eastern frontier, ii 172; brings the first Kaffir war to a conclusion, ii 174; causes a volley to be fired into a party of Kaffirs scrambling for tobacco, ii 257; in 1795 is one of the leaders of the Nationals in Graaff-Reinet, ii 282; in August 1795 is appointed chief military officer by the Nationals of Graaff-Reinet, ii 284
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- de Jager: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, i 458
- James, Silas: note on a book written by, ii 381
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- Janssen, Leendert: in 1647 is wrecked in Table Bay, and remains here several months, i 2; in 1649 presents to the chamber of Amsterdam a memorial upon the advisability of founding a settlement in Table Valley, i 1
- Jetty: in 1656 the first is constructed at Table Bay, i 53

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- Johnstone, Commodore George: in 1781 is sent from England with a large force to take possession of the Cape Colony, ii 178; brings his fleet to anchor in Porto Praya roads, ib.; where he is attacked by a French fleet under Acting Commodore Suffren, ib.; he beats off his assailants, ii 181; but is unable to pursue them at once, ib.; sails for the Cape as soon as he refits his ships, ii 183; learns from the crew of a prize that there is a strong French garrison in the colony, ii 184; captures several Dutch Indiamen in Saldanha Bay, ib.; and returns to Europe, ii 185
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- de Jongh: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, ii 67
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- Joubert: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, i 331
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- Kaapsche Geschillen*: note on four bluebooks so called, ii 382
- Kabeljauw River: in 1752 a mark of the Company's possession is set up at the mouth of, ii 128
- Kalden, Rev. P.: in December 1695 arrives in South Africa and assumes duty as clergyman of the Cape congregation, i 370; carries on farming operations largely for his private benefit and to the neglect of his duty, i 397; is recalled by the directors, and in April 1707 ceases to preach, i 405; returns to Europe, i 414; and is dismissed from the Company's service, ib.
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- Kannemeyer: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, ii 67
- Karnspek: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, i 458
- Karoo, the: usual appearance in August and September of, ii 150; in 1795 is not permanently inhabited by Europeans, ii 319
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- Kawuta, Xosa chief: about the year 1790 succeeds his father Gcaleka, ii 136; about the year 1804 dies, ib.
- Kees, Hottentot captain: in 1783 is believed to be promoting sedition in the district of Swellendam, ii 269; is confined in Capetown as a political prisoner, ib.

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- Keiskama River: in 1752 is the boundary between the Bantu and the Hottentots, ii 130
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- Kerguelen, Captain: in 1773 and 1774 visits the Cape, ii 195
- van Kervel, Adriaan: after long service at the Cape in June 1724 is appointed fiscal independent, i 454; in March 1730 becomes secunde, ii 7; in August 1737 becomes governor of the Cape Colony, ii 26; holds the highest office in the land less than three weeks, ib.; and in September 1737 dies, ib.; his remains are interred beneath the pavement of the church, ib.
- Keyser: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, i 458
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- Kirman hair: experiment in the production of, ii 3
- Kirsten: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, ii 67
- Kirsten, J. F.: in May 1761 is appointed resident at Simonstown, ii 97; in May 1774 is promoted to another post, ii 209
- Klaas or Dorha: in 1672 is one of the captains of the Chaincoqua tribe, i 208; is attached to the Europeans, ib.; is protected by the Company, i 209; in 1673 assists in the war against Gonnema, i 212; in 1682 shows kindness to shipwrecked Englishmen, i 260; and in 1690 to wrecked Dutch seamen, i 306; in 1686 massacres some Bushmen, i 318; loses favour with the government, i 347; in 1693 is made prisoner and brought before the council of policy, i 348; is sent to Robben Island, ib.; after a time is released from confinement and permitted to live near Muizenburg, i 349; is subsequently allowed to return to his old kraal, ib.; resumes a feud with his rival Koopman, ib.; with the assistance of the Hessequas attacks Koopman and takes his cattle, ib.; lives thereafter in constant strife until he is killed in 1701 in a skirmish with Koopman, i 350
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- Klopper: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, i 458
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- Koch: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, ii 107
- Kock: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, ii 67
- Kock, Rev. H.: in April 1732 arrives in South Africa and assumes duty as clergyman of the Cape congregation, ii 21; in February 1742 returns to Europe, ii 38
- de Kock: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, i 458
- Koekemoer: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, i 458
- Kolbe: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, ii 107
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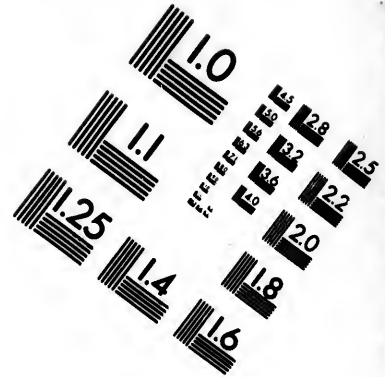
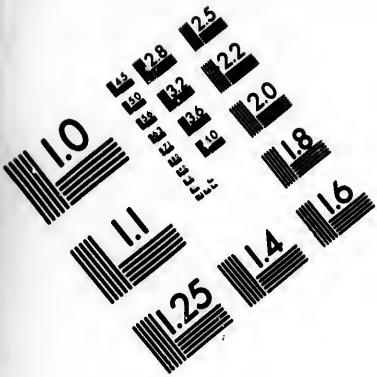
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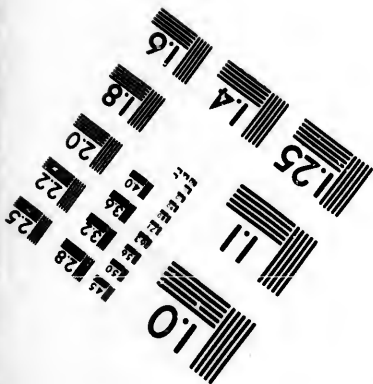
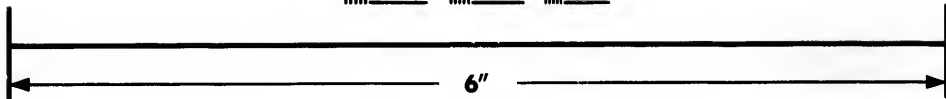
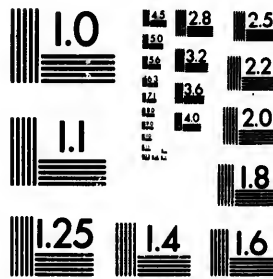
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Seasons: record of good and bad in the grain producing districts: 1698 to 1705, i 895; 1700 to 1725, i 455; 1725 to 1750, ii 62; 1751 to 1771, ii 142; 1772 to 1780, ii 145; 1781 to 1784, ii 193; 1785 to 1786, ii 213; 1787 to 1795, ii 279. In many instances there are no means of ascertaining whether the season was a very good or only a moderately fair one, except by the quantity of grain exported. The periods of drought, as recorded, were 1698 to 1704, 1710 to 1712, 1717 to 1720, 1725, 1738, 1755 to 1756, 1763 to 1764, 1771, 1777, and 1788 to 1785, all the years named being included. The crops of several other years were wholly or partially destroyed by rust and insect plagues.

Second Hottentot war: in June 1673 the Cochoqua clan under Gonnema murders eight burghers and a slave forming a hunting party, and seizes their waggons and cattle, i 210; a commando is thereupon sent against them, i 211; while marching, the commando receives intelligence that a division of Gonnema's people has surprised the Company's post at Saldanha Bay, plundered it, and murdered four white men, ib.; the commando endeavours to surprise one of Gonnema's kraals, but fails to do so, i 212; it succeeds, however, in capturing eight hundred head of horned cattle and nine hundred sheep, and in shooting ten or twelve Hottentots, ib.; the clan of the Chainouquas under Captain Klaas and the Goringhaiquas and Gorachouquas join the Europeans, ib.; they succeed in capturing four of Gonnema's followers, who are tried by a court martial and executed by their captors, ib.; owing to an epidemic, hostilities are now suspended for some months, i 213; but in April 1674 a combined force of soldiers, burghers, and Hottentots is sent against Gonnema's people, and without loss of life on either side eight hundred head of horned cattle and four thousand sheep are captured, i 214; after this Gonnema and his people keep out of sight until November 1675, when they surprise the kraals of the Goringhaiquas and Gorachouquas at the Tigerberg, kill several of the inmates, and drive off a good many cattle, i 215; assistance is immediately sent to the Company's allies, and Gonnema is followed up, when fifteen of his people are killed, but the cattle are not recovered, ib.; in November 1676 a commando marches against Gonnema, but does not succeed in finding him, i 228; it, however, manages to punish those of his people who destroyed the post at Saldanha Bay, by killing several of them and capturing all their cattle, i 229; in June 1677 Gonnema sends messengers to ascertain if peace cannot be established, ib.; the governor and council entertain the overture favourably, ib.; thereupon three of the principal men of the clan visit the castle, i 230; and peace is formally concluded, ib.

Second Kaffir war: in March 1789 the chiefs Langa, Cungwa, and others of less note cross the Fish river and take possession of the Zuurveld, ii 220; the farmers retire before the invaders, ib.; Land-

drost Woeke calls out a commando, *ib.*; the government sends a commission to buy off the Kaffirs, *ii* 221; the invaders are retiring before the commando, and no action has yet taken place, when the instructions of the government are received by the landdrost, *ib.*; the commando is at once disbanded, *ib.*; the commissioner Wagener consents to the occupation of the Zuurveld by the Xosas during the pleasure of the government, *ii* 228; after this arrangement the Xosas in the colony steal cattle far and wide, *ii* 259; in May 1798 a reprisal is made upon a kraal by a party of farmers under Barend Lindeque, *ib.*; a few days later the Xosas spread over the whole of the coast belt as far as the Zwartkops, burning, plundering, and murdering, *ib.*; they place the spoil in safety with their friends beyond the Fish river, *ii* 260; a commando is raised, and under the landdrost Maynier penetrates Kaffirland as far as the Buffalo river, *ii* 261; a few cattle are recovered, but very little harm is done to the enemy, *ii* 262; a visit is paid by Maynier to Ndlambe, who professes to be friendly, although many of his people are known to have taken part in the devastation of the colony, and some of the farmers' cattle are seen in his herds, *ii* 264; Maynier professes to believe Ndlambe's assurances of friendship, and the farmers in consequence abandon all hope, *ib.*; some fruitless movements backwards and forwards in the Zuurveld are made, *ib.*; and in November 1798 an arrangement is concluded by Maynier and those who act with him, which the government terms a restoration of peace, but which gives to the Xosas all the fruits of victory, *ii* 265

Secretary of the council of policy: duties of the, *i* 102

Secunde, succession of officers who held the situation of: Jacob Ryniers, August 1658 to January 1654; vacancy; Frederick Verburg, June 1654 to August 1655; vacancy; Roelof de Man, April 1657 to March 1663; Abraham Gabbema, March 1663 to April 1666; Hendrik Lacus, May 1666 to September 1667; vacancy; Abraham Zeeuw (acting), April to November 1669; vacancy; Cornelis de Cretzer, March 1670 to April 1671; vacancy; Albert van Breugel, March 1672 to April 1675; vacancy; Hendrik Crudop, February 1676 to June 1680; vacancy; Andries de Man, June 1684 to March 1695; vacancy; Samuel Elsevier, April 1697 to June 1707; Johan Cornelis d'Ableing, June 1707 to April 1710; Willem Helot, April 1710 to May 1714; vacancy; Abraham Cranendonk, March 1715 to October 1721; Jan de la Fontaine, October 1721 to March 1730; Adriaan van Kervel, March 1730 to August 1737 (also retaining the office of fiscal independent until March 1731); Hendrik Swellengrebel, August 1737 to April 1739; Ryk Tulbagh, April 1739 to February 1751; Sergius Swellengrebel, February 1751 to December 1760; Pieter van Reede van Oudtshoorn, December 1760 to April 1766 (also retaining the office of fiscal independent until September 1762); Jan Willem Cloppenburg, April 1766 to May

- 1770; Joachim van Plettenberg, May 1770 to April 1774; Otto Luder Hemmy, April 1774 to January 1777; Pieter Haaker, January 1777 to August 1786; Johan Isaac Rhenius, August 1786 to September 1795
- Sénéchal (Senekal): mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, i 398
- Serrurier, Jan Jacob: is appointed fiscal independent, and in April 1783 assumes duty, ii 187; in May 1785 dies, ii 229
- Serrurier, Rev. Jan Pieter: in March 1760 arrives in South Africa and assumes duty as clergyman of the Cape congregation, ii 205
- Seventy-eighth British regiment of the line: in 1795 assists in wresting the colony from the Dutch, ii 302
- Sheep, woolled: in 1655 are introduced from Europe, i 54; also in 1689, i 353; and in 1793, ii 270; regulations concerning the breeding of, i 87
- Sheikh Joseph: in 1692 takes an active part in the Bantamese civil war, i 258; in 1693 surrenders to the Dutch forces, i 259; in 1694 is banished to the Cape, ib.; in 1699 dies, ib.; his tomb becomes a place of pilgrimage for the Mohamedans, and is so to the present day, ib.
- Shipping, statistics of numbers and flags of vessels that put into South African ports, coasters excluded: 1652 to 1661, i 124; 1662 to 1671, i 194; 1672 to 1700, i 367; 1701 to 1725, i 442; 1726 to 1750, ii 60; 1751 to 1771, ii 146; 1772 to 1780, ib.; 1781 to 1784, ii 193; 1785 to 1789, ii 236; 1794, ii 276
- Shipwrecks in Table Bay: particulars concerning the loss in May 1660 of the French ship *Marichal*, i 103; in June 1692 of three Indians, i 372; in May 1697 of two Indians, i 373; account of terrible loss of life and property in a great gale in June 1722, i 450; account of disasters in a gale in July 1728, ii 17; account of disasters in the great gale of May 1737, ii 19; account of the loss of the *Visch* in May 1740, ii 61; account of the loss of two ships in 1756 and 1757, ii 197; account of the loss of the *Jonge Thomas* in June 1773, ii 199; account of the loss of the French ship *Ceres* in October 1776, ib.; account of the wreck of the French corvette *Victor* in September 1782, ii 200; account of the loss of the French ship of the line *Sevère* in January 1784, ib.; account of the loss of the Company's ship *Hoop* in July 1784, ii 201; account of the loss of a ship in May 1788, ii 237; account of the loss of several vessels in a gale in April 1790, ii 238
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- Silleman, Daniel: note on a pamphlet written by, ii 364

- Simond, Rev. P.: in 1687 is engaged as clergyman for the French refugees, i 328; in August 1688 arrives in South Africa, and is stationed at Stellenbosch, i 333; in 1694 moves to Drakenstein, i 344; in May 1702 returns to Europe, i 389
- Simons, Cornelis Joan, the first independent fiscal in the Cape Colony: in 1689 is appointed, i 357; in November 1694 proceeds to Batavia, i 370; in 1708 visits the Cape as commissioner, and makes many regulations, i 415
- Simon's Bay: in 1687 is examined and named, i 323; in 1729 is carefully surveyed, ii 18; in 1742 becomes a port of call for ships during the winter months, ii 46
- Simonstown: in 1743 is founded, ii 46; a few years later is much enlarged, ii 97; in June 1795 is abandoned by the Dutch troops and inhabitants, and is occupied by the English forces, ii 299 and 302
- S. *João Baptista*, Portuguese ship: in 1622 is wrecked on the coast south of the river Kel, ii 118; when some of her crew travel overland to Sofala, ii 114; and give a detailed account of the journey, ii 120
- S. *José*, Portuguese ship: in December 1794 is wrecked at Camp's Bay, ii 288
- Slabbert: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, i 376
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- Slaves: in April 1657 there are at the Cape three male and eight female slaves, i 68; in 1658 a considerable number are brought to the Cape from the west coast of Africa, i 77; particulars concerning, i 182, 235, 267, and 366; laws of 1708 concerning the emancipation of, i 416; trouble caused by fugitives, i 494; effect upon white people of the introduction of, ii 51; during the eighteenth century are brought to the Cape from Batavia, the east coast of Africa, and especially from Madagascar, ii 77; laws concerning slaves made in September 1754, ii 80
- Slave trade: manner of conducting, ii 77
- Slicher, Rev. L.: in 1714 arrives at the Cape as a midshipman and is appointed rector of a high school, i 452; in February 1723 becomes second clergyman of the Cape congregation, i 453; in July 1725 is transferred to Drakenstein, ii 21; in June 1780 dies, ib.
- Sluysken, Abraham Josias: since 1765 has been in the Company's service in India, ii 277; arrives at the Cape on his way to Europe, and is appointed commissioner-general by Messrs. Netherburgh and Frykenius, ib.; in September 1793 assumes the duty, ii 278; causes some small forts to be built in Simonstown and round

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- Hout Bay, ii 280; in June 1795 is invited by the commanders of a British force to place the colony in their hands, ii 291; declines to do so, ii 292; makes a show of defending the colony until the 16th of September, when he capitulates, ii 314; returns to Europe in a cartel ship, ii 317; and is pronounced by the National Assembly at the Hague to have acted correctly in the defence of the colony, ii 318; note on a book compiled by, ii 385
- Small pox: in 1718 makes its first appearance in South Africa, i 426; causes fearful loss of life, *ib.*; almost destroys the Hottentots, i 428; in 1755 appears the second time, ii 84; again causes great loss of life, ii 86; in 1767 appears the third time, ii 96; but is not as destructive as on the former occasions, *ib.*
- de Smidt: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, ii 184
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- de Sousa, Lopo, Portuguese nobleman: in 1622 is wrecked on the Kaffir coast, ii 113; and perishes of hunger, ii 117
- Sparrman, Dr. A.: in 1772 visits the Cape Colony, ii 195; note on a book written by, ii 375
- Spies: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, ii 68
- Spolander: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, ii 322
- van der Spuy: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, i 458
- van der Spuy, Rev. P.: in September 1746 arrives in South Africa and assumes duty as clergyman of the Cape congregation, ii 42; in January 1753 is transferred to Drakenstein, ii 204; in March 1781 retires on a pension, ii 206
- van der Spuy, Rev. P., junior: in April 1786 arrives in South Africa and assumes duty as clergyman of Zwartland's church, ii 275
- van Staden: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, i 310
- van der Stael, Pieter: in 1656 becomes sick-comforter at the Cape, i 77; opens a school for slave children, *ib.*; makes exertions to improve the beachranger Hottentots, i 114; in 1663 leaves for Batavia, i 147
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- Stamps: in 1714 are introduced to increase the colonial revenue, i 481
- Stander: mention of the founder of the South African family of that name, ii 108
- Starrenburg, J.: in July 1705 is appointed landdrost of Stellenbosch, i 399; is a mere tool of Governor W. A. van der Stel, ib.; is set at defiance by the burghers and the women of Stellenbosch, i 403; is supported by a body of troops, i 404; is recalled by the directors, i 405; and in April 1707 leaves South Africa, i 403
- Staventisse*, the, Dutch ship: in 1696 is wrecked on the coast of Natal, i 286
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- van der Stel, Frans (son of Simon van der Stel): is required by the directors to leave South Africa, i 408
- van der Stel, Simon: in 1679 is appointed commander of the Cape settlement, i 243; in October of the same year arrives and assumes the duty, ib.; in 1685 explores the western coast belt as far north as the Copper mountain in Little Namaqualand, i 275; in June 1691 is promoted to be governor, i 369; changes his conduct towards the colonists, i 376; in 1696 tenders his resignation of the government, i 377; in February 1699 transfers the duties to his son and successor, ib.; during the remainder of his life is chiefly engaged in farming operations, ib.; in June 1712 dies, i 378; his remains are buried in the church in Table Valley, ib.; and a monument to his memory is placed behind the pulpit, which remains there until 1835, ib.
- van der Stel, Wilhem Adriaan: is appointed governor of the Cape Colony and its dependency the island of Mauritius, i 377; in February 1699 assumes the duty, ib.; inspects the Tulbagh basin, i 380; carries on extensive farming operations for his private benefit, i 396; is charged by certain burghers of the Cape with corruption, i 397; conducts himself in a foolish and violent manner, i 399; causes a large number of burghers to be imprisoned or banished, i 400 and 401; is recalled by the directors, i 405; in June 1707 is obliged to transfer the duties of governor to the *secunde D'Ableing*, i 406; returns to Europe, where the charges against him are investigated, with the result that he is dismissed from the Company's service, i 414; notes on books containing the case for and against, ii 365 *et seq.*
- Stellenbosch: in November 1679 is visited and named by Commander Simon van der Stel, i 246; in December 1679 is first occupied by

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white people, i 247; in August 1682 a board of heemraden is established, i 254; in 1688 a school is opened, i 255; in 1685 a landdrost is appointed, i 266; in 1686 a church is established, i 814; in the same year the first fair is held, i 812; in 1698 the church is enlarged, i 809; conduct of the burghers at the time of the opposition to Governor W. A. van der Stel, i 408; in December 1710 the church, the public offices, and several dwelling houses are destroyed by fire, i 422; in 1717 another church is commenced on a different site, part of one wall of which remains in the present building, i 459; the village is gradually enlarged, and before the middle of the eighteenth century becomes embowered among oaks, ii 56; during the time that Ryk Tulbagh is governor it is further enlarged and improved in appearance, ii 98; boundary of the district in 1685, i 267

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St. Helena, island of: in 1658 or 1659 (supposed, but not absolutely certain, 4th June 1658) is occupied by the English, i 107; on the 12th of January 1673 is taken from the English by a Dutch fleet sent from the Cape, i 206; on the 15th of May of the same year is retaken by the English, i 207

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- le Sueur, Rev. F.: in October 1729 arrives in South Africa and assumes duty as clergyman of the Cape congregation, ii 21; in June 1730 is transferred to Drakenstein provisionally, ib.; in April 1731 returns to the Cape, ib.; in August 1746 retires from duty, ii 41
- le Sueur, J. J.: in August 1768 is appointed landdrost of Stellenbosch, ii 98; in June 1769 is promoted and removed, ib.
- de Suffren, Acting Commodore Pierre André: in 1781 is sent from France with a strong force to operate against the English in India and to protect the Cape Colony from Commodore Johnstone, ii 178; attacks the English fleet at Porto Praya, ib.; is beaten off, ii 181; but sails to the Cape, ib.; which he reaches in time to put in a state of defence before Johnstone's appearance off the coast, ii 182
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- Swellengrebel, Sergius: in February 1751 becomes secunde, ii 66; in December 1760 dies, ii 89
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- Verburg, Frederick: in April 1652 arrives in South Africa, i 17; in October 1652 is sent to inspect Saldanha Bay, i 26; in September 1653 visits Saldanha Bay again to ascertain particulars concerning a French ship that has been there more than six months collecting a cargo of sealskins and oil, i 36; in April 1654 is sent to St. Helena to obtain a supply of provisions from the ships assembling there, i 41; in June 1654 becomes secunde, *ib.*; shortly afterwards visits Madagascar and procures a quantity of rice, i 42; in 1655 visits Madagascar the second time, is shipwrecked there, and dies of fever, i 51
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