**Attachment 7: Land annexed and the colonies established by the Crown to form the Union of South Africa**

After ferocious attacks on various tribes in southern Africa by the Crown during the 1800’s, in which many of the local leaders and communities were murdered, driven off their land, and displaced, (with reference Attachment 6: War against southern Africans for the creation of the Union of South Africa.), the Crown annexed the western coastal side of Southern Africa and named it the “Cape Colony”.

From there, they reached further up the coast line towards South West Africa (now known as Namibia) to annex the portal ‘Walvis Bay’, and down the coast line to Port Natal, where they annexed land which they named the “Natal Colony”.

Control of the coastline strengthened their power in the world control of the sea freight transport. The British Crown was not interested in the territory inland - where the climate was harsh for farming and human survival at that time, with no amenities and where wild animals still roamed free (except for sporting hunting expeditions) - until valuable minerals were discovered inland.

Significant in the annexation of southern Africa by the Crown for the purpose of plundering the mineral wealth of the land, was the guiding hand of British military leader and mining magnate, [Cecil John Rhodes](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cecil_Rhodes), member of and working with the House of Lords to strengthen the wealth of the Bank of England.

The first diamonds were discovered near the Orange River in 1867, and subsequent placer diamonds were found between the Orange and Vaal Rivers, territories that belonged to the Griquas and the Boers. An attempt by the Crown to annex these territories led to the Anglo Boer wars, the Jameson Raid and the Anglo-Matabele Wars.

Along the gold reef which later became known as the Rand area in the Transvaal, the unsuccessful Jameson Raid was followed up by the second Anglo-Matabele war, as Rhodes followed the mineral wealth into Matabeleland, which was renamed ‘Rhodesia’ in his honour by proclamation of the British Crown on the 3rd of May 1895.

During this year there was great activity in exploiting Matabeleland. "Stands" or plots were sold at extraordinary prices in Bulawayo by the British company of Rhodes. Within nine months the rebuilt town of Bulawayo had a population of 1,900 colonials, and in the various goldfields.

There were over 2,000 colonial prospectors. The construction of telegraph lines preceded with rapidity and by the end of 1895, there had been 500 miles of new lines constructed, making about 1,500 miles in all. A new company, the African Transcontinental Company, had been founded under the auspices of Col. Frank Rhodes, brother of Cecil, with the ultimate purpose of connecting the Cape with Cairo. By the end of 1895, 133 miles of these lines had been laid. At this time too, the railway line from Cape Town in the Cape Colony, had passed Mafeking and was approaching the Rhodesian frontier. This railway reached Bulawayo in 1897. Meanwhile on the east coast the line to connect Salisbury (now Harare) with Beira, in Mozambique (then Portuguese East Africa Colony), was under construction and this was completed in 1899. During all this activity, Cecil John Rhodes had never forgotten about the diamonds and gold within the Boer republics, and a case for the annexation of the Boer republics known as the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek and the Orange Free State, as well as the whole of South Africa, was developed.

**Section A: British colonies in South Africa**

**British colonies in Southern Africa included the following annexed areas:**

1. Cape Colony
2. Natal
3. Transvaal
4. Orange Free State
5. Basutoland
6. Bechuanaland
7. The Griqualands
8. Swaziland

**(i) Cape Colony.**

The Cape Colony was founded by the Dutch East India Company in 1652. In 1795, it was taken over by the British Crown, who then officially declared possession in 1806. At this time, the Cape Colony encompassed 100,000 square miles (260,000 km2) and was populated by about 25,000 Dutch, German and French colonists, besides the local inhabitants who lived in that area before the arrival of the colonists.

The gain of this colony by the British was strategic – ensuring that other European Nations could not have it controlled their access to important trading routes – and was originally thought to be temporary.

The area was expanded in several ways over the next century. As colonists turned into Trekboers and moved outward, they claimed new lands. By 1871, they had gained Natal as well as reaching the Orange River, marking the northern boundary. At this time, representatives of the Crown in the Cape began annexing surrounding regions; Basutoland, 1871–1884; Griqualand East, 1874; Griqualand West, 1880; and Southern Bechuanaland, 1895. By the end of the Southern African Wars, land had been redistributed into four provinces, namely the Cape, Natal, Orange Free State and the Transvaal, and united into one country named South Africa.

**(ii) Natal**

Natal is positioned on the Indian Ocean coast of southern Africa, south-east of the Cape Colony. Home to the indigenous Nguni and later the Zulu, the region of Natal played a key role in British colonization. The Zulus had established the Zulu Kingdom in the province now known as Natal before the British had entered the territory.

1. **Deceit by British leaders to gain a port in Natal**

**Fake treaties**

In 1823, Captain Owen had attempted to 'bounce' the Portuguese out of Delagoa Bay, situated in the country now known as Mozambique, neighboring South Africa.

He suggested to the Government in London that the Portuguese were not in effective occupation, and then faked a treaty1 dated 8 March 1823 in which it was claimed the King of Tembe had ceded all his land to Owen in return for knick-knacks.

The British Government - at that moment confirming Portuguese ownership of the Bay in return for restrictions on the slave trade - declined to ratify the fabricated Tembe treaty.

Note: The word 'bounce' was a favourite of Jameson's and is used here to signal the large number of parallels between what is now described, and the machinations of Jameson and the British South Africa Company against Lobengula and the Ndebele in 1888-93. The failure of historians to connect the attempt on Delagoa Bay in 1823 with the 1824 Natal 'treaty' is partly the result of the particularistic cutting off of southern Mozambique.1a a very different picture emerges of the regional expansion of the British when the two treaties are reconnected.

The vessel Salisbury, carrying Lieutenant Francis George Farewell, three of his servants, and James Saunders King took shelter from a sudden gale in the bay at Port Natal, an area close to the Boer republic Natalia, which did not have such a good port, but where there were no Portuguese claims. Farewell called for a large colonizing party to be landed at this port and in August 1824, and a more plausible treaty was faked in which the Zulu paramount Shaka - who was well to the north of the area at that stage - was credited with ceding Farewell a thirty-five mile coastal strip around the Port and a one-hundred-mile extension inland.1aa. (The Zulu do not appear to have found out about this until early 1828.)

**Mendacious propaganda against indigenous leadership**

Mendacious propaganda was insistently relayed back to the Cape Colony that Natal had been totally depopulated by the Zulu, and that Shaka was a bloody killer whom the world would do better to be without.

The first 'Natal Fever' hit the Cape Colony through a full scale propaganda onslaught in 1827. Both the fever and the pejorative image of Shaka were orchestrated by H. F. Fynn, F. Farewell and J. King - British ‘conquistadores’ who had arrived on the coast of Natal variously between 1823 and 1825.

**Conspirators to the murder of indigenous leadership**

A row took place between Fynn and Shaka1c, which could have caused the entire position of the British conquistadores to crumble. The conquistadores decided to strike against Shaka, and Fynn conspired with Dingaan and other Zulu dissidents to kill Shaka.

Fynn wrote2 of the demise3 of Shakawith insider's knowledge in his notes, from which we quote:
“There is little doubt that the intention of killing Shaka had been long in contemplation. As I have since understood, it was intended to have taken place at my residence during the attack on the amaMpondos, at which time both brothers remained behind with Shaka feigning sickness, when an opportunity was wanting to effect their purpose."'

Soon after his return to Natal, James Saunder King died under strange circumstances, and within the same month on 24 September, Shaka was stabbed to death by conspirators under Dingaan, which was also less than a month after the slaughter at Mbolompo.

Fynn and an 'Mpondo' delegation were at Dukuza at the time. Mopo confessed to the murder, as follows:

“...So men have thought for many years, but that is not my name. Few have known it, for I have kept it locked in my breast, I am Mopo who slew Chaka the king. I killed him with Dingaan and Umhlangana the princes; but the wound was mine ...”4

When Shaka was killed, a messenger was sent from Dingaan to Natal with word that the white people might live easy; that Shaka who wished to kill them all was dead. Shaka's kraal where he was killed was called 'The Ugly Year'.5

It was in this year that a petition from Cape Town merchants asking for the creation of a British colony at Port Natal.6

Dingaan was backed by the British. They sang the praises of Dingaan, and aided him in the campaigns against Shaka loyalists which occupied much of the next two years. Farewell, for example, went to the Cape to advance his schemes and obtained considerable quantities of firearms for Dingaan. On his return with the guns in September 1829 he was killed by Mwabe supporters of Shaka. 7

In September 1834, Piet Uys led the successful 'Commission Trek' to Natal. There were four of the Uys family among the 21 persons in the expedition: Piet (aged 37), Cobus (aged 34), with his wife Gertruida Johanna, and Jannie (aged 15).

Uys first approached the Xhosa chiefs, Hintza and Faku, and requested land for settlement. He was advised to speak to their enemy, Dingaan, and possibly form a buffer settlement between themselves and their arch-enemies, the Zulu.

The expedition visited the Port Natal (Durban) settlement where Uys sought the advice of Dick King and others.

Uys and two men visited Dingaan at his kraal. The Zulu chief agreed to the Boers settling in Natal and that after their arrival he would sign a contract. In order to guarantee a peaceful settlement he insisted that a hostage be left with him. Jannie volunteered to remain. Piet Uys assured Dingaan that if a hair of his brother's head was harmed, he would personally lead the reprisal raid.

Jannie soon grew bored and began pining for his family. Twelve days after the departure of the Uys party, Jannie was allowed to leave and rejoin them. In order to ensure that the boy was not harmed, Dingaan instructed some of his ‘indunas’ (foremen) to run on either side of Jannie’s horse and to taste any food before it was given to Jannie.

Following the report of the Commission Trek, farmers were leaving on ‘The Great Trek’. Piet Uys sold his farm in December 1836, and in April 1837 left Uitenhage with his party of 100 Trekkers. At Grahamstown the British settlers banded together and bought a large Bible which was presented to Koos Bybel and Piet Uys 'as a farewell token of their esteem and heartfelt regret at their departure'.

On 29 June, the Uys party reached the combined Trekker Laager at Sand River to discover that Piet Retief had been elected Governor. Uys refused to accept Retief's leadership or their draft constitution. He insisted that democratic elections would be held once Natal was reached, and proposed a constitution based on that of the United States of America.

In August Piet Retief wrote to his friend Sir Benjamin D'Urban, setting out his reasons for leaving the colony.

Whilst encamped at 'Kerkspruyt', Uys visited the Basuto chieftain Moshesh, and requested permission to erect a more permanent church at their present encampment at some date in the future.

On 19 October he concluded a friendly agreement with Maroko, the chief of the Barolong, at Thaba'Nchu. Uys then joined forces with Andries H. Potgieter to avenge the latter's defeat by the Matabele. A Commando of 322 mounted men crossed the Vaal River and harried the Matabele in many bloody battles in the Marico valley area (west of present Rustenburg). At eGabeni on 9 November the Matabele drove forward behind a herd of stampeding cattle, however the Trekkers managed to disperse the animals with well-placed volleys and drove them back on the enemy.

This campaign was the greatest single reason for the later peaceful settlement of the Highveld and has been grossly underrated in Southern Africa's history. Over

3 000 Matabele were killed **and thousands of slaves set free.** Msilikatse and his nation were driven beyond Botswana into Rhodesia, without the loss of a single man in the combined Trekker commando.

The loss the Matabele suffered of their slaves which they were planning to trade with the British slave traders was a great loss to both the Matabele and the British slavers, and had a negative effect on the safety of the Boers living near Port Natal.

On their return to the Trekker ‘laager’ Uys was incensed to find it empty. Retief had already left for Natal.

The British Crown heard about the success of Piet Uys acquiring land in Natal from Dingaan in 1834, and decided to assert their power in that area and secure the sea port.

In 1835 another British officer, Captain Allen Gardner got permission from Dingaan to introduce missionaries into the country, and the attempt was made to extirpate the Boers throughout the length and breadth of the land.8

**Trekking expedition to thwart Boer expansion – enter Piet Retief**

In September 1837, Piet Retief led a Boer trek of fifty-four wagons towards Port Natal to speak with Dingaan regarding use of Port Natal. Retief had joined the Free Masonry in the Cape, and their information network was well aware of his movements. By the time these Trekkers reached Bethlehem (as it was later named) on 2 October, the more faint-hearted among them were already talking of retreat and drifting back to the laagers on the Vet and Sand Rivers. On 5 October, Retief decided to ride on with fourteen horsemen and four wagons to seek interviews first with the English settlers at Port Natal, and then with the Zulu king. He left his stepson, Abraham Greyling, to bring along the nineteen wagons that still remained with his party.

It is clear that through the ignorance of the workings within the Masonry, Piet Retief was instrumental for the Illuminati, who used his Voortrekker Expedition to further expansion for the Crown at the expense of the Boers.

During the first days of October his Trekkers' cause had been jeopardised by a band of horsemen carrying guns and dressed up like Boers who raided a Zulu cattle station below the Berg and carried off 300 beasts that week. The leader of the cattle-raiders had made a point to incriminate the Boers as the culprits. A missionary explained this matter in a letter to his directors the following:

“While taking the cattle, he called to some of Dingaan's people who were at a distance, saying the party were Boers, and that others had gone to Natal; and that Dingaan might expect to be treated by them as Moselekatse had been.'9

Retief felt that it was important to reassure Dingaan immediately that the raiders were not Boers, and hurried over the 220 miles which separated him from Port Natal, continually amazed as he went by the succession of ruined kraals he passed whose inhabitants had been killed or driven away: it has been estimated that at this time only 3,000 refugees were living (hiding would perhaps be the better term) in the whole of Natal south of the Tugela.

Once arrived at the Port, Retief was relieved to discover that it had not been annexed by the British Governments as he had feared, and on the whole the welcome he received was good. The English traders and hunters living there were divided, like the Trekkers, into two factions: while all of them were now on bad terms with Dingaan and only remained at the settlement on sufferance, one party was anxious to proclaim British authority over it; the other faction led by Alexander Biggar and John Cane looked forward to obtaining security through an Afrikaner occupation of the country. Thirteen settlers out of the thirty-eight at Port Natal went so far as to sign an address of welcome to Retief, and Biggar wrote thankfully to the ‘Grahamstown Journal’ the following notice:

“The arrival of Mr Retief ... was hailed by us as a matter of no small moment. The conviction that we shall for the future be permitted to live in peace has infused a lively spirit among us. We can now proceed with confidence, and an assurance that our future exertions will no longer be cramped by doubts of our stability; but be rewarded by the fruits of our industry.'

Retief remained in Port Natal until 27 October obtaining information about the surrounding country and the Zulu kingdom. He wrote to his people at Kerkenberg that the English settlers at the Port would place no obstacle in the way of the Boers occupying Natal, and that no difficulty was to be expected from Dingaan, who had already on four separate occasions alienated the country south of the Tugela to Europeans.

**Missionary spy placed with Dingaan in Natal to thwart Boer Expansion – enter Owen**

Retief was surprised to hear that a missionary, the Reverend Francis Owen, had arrived at the Zulu capital that very month, and had been received very well by Dingaan. Retief wrote a letter for Owen to translate to the king Dingaan. Owen read the letter to Dingaan on 26 October and noted afterwards in his diary that it had expressed the Boers' `desire for peace and good understanding with the Zoolu [sic] nation: to effect which it was their wish to have, by means of their chief head, a personal interview with Dingaan; who would at the same time also arrange with Dingaan the place of their future residence which is to be in some part of the uninhabited country adjoining the Zoolu territories.'

The following day Retief set off for UMgungundlovu with four of his own men and two settlers from the Port who would act as interpreters. On the road he received a letter dictated by Dingaan; it said that his soldiers had captured some sheep from the Matabele which he believed to be trekker property looted at Vegkop, and these he intended to return. This sounded promising enough and Retief rode into the Zulu capital, certain that an easy success to his mission was not far away.

Reverend Owen set about immediately to complain bitterly to his government about the possibility of Boer presence in Port Natal, stating that the Boers would detract from the work of the missionaries with the Zulus. In his diary, notes can be read such as the following:

“We cannot think of the natives of this country without fearing that years of missionary labour among Dingaan's people may yet be sacrificed to what is called the enterprise of civilized man. The emigration of the Boers, now going on from ...”10

No white man who might have stilled the meaningless welter of brutality and bloodshed stayed permanently at his `Great Place' until the Rev. Francis Owen turned up in UMgungundlovu during the October of 1837. In any case the king regarded him not as a teacher but as an agent sent by Providence to supply his soldiers with the white men's arms. During his four month stay in Dingaan’s kingdom, Owen gained an in-depth knowledge of the manner in which Dingaan dealt with people he thought as his enemies, and also served as the interpreter between Dingaan and Piet Retief. See Footnote 1 – Dingaan’s Execution Place.

Dingaan’s cruelty was also well known to the British representation in South Africa, and recorded by Owen in his diaries and various other literatures on his travels in Africa.

**Incite murder on the Voortrekkers – enter Gardiner**

In full knowledge of what the consequences would be to anyone considered an enemy of Dingaan, the British Naval Officer who had taken on the position of a missionary in South Africa, Allan Gardiner, challenged the pride of Dingaan and incited him to murder the Boers, to which we quote the following excerpt:

“It is true that on November 18th, 1837, Allan Gardiner had written to Dingaan objecting to his granting the Boers the land already given to the King of England, asking what other kings would think of him if they discovered that his ...” 10

Afterwards, still according to the book of Smit, Stubbs and Blanckenberg, Gardiner talked treacherously with Dingaan about killing the Boers, and further that Gardiner with three more Englishmen incited Dingaan to fall upon them pretending that they were bad ... 11

On the 7th of November 1837, Retief's horsemen arrived in UMgungundlovu as per their arrangement with Dingaan. They waited for two days before he would see him. He was trying to make up his mind about his reply to the inevitable request for land.

During this time, Retief wrote an avid description of the King’s palace, as well as the entertainment they were provided with during this time, as written in Footnote 2- Dingaan’s Palace.

The king had expected to meet Piet Uys who had ridden into Natal three years before with the ‘Commissie Treks’ and he were surprised to find a different white man awaiting him. His first discouraging words to the Governor Retief were: “You are too small for a captain”. Thereafter Dingaan listened in silence to Retief's explanation that he had come to purchase land which was laying waste south of the Tugela. It was some time before the king replied with an accusation. Retief's men, he said, only the month before had rustled a herd of royal cattle and driven them up the Berg, and he silenced the Governor's indignant denials by pointing out that the thieves had been mounted, carried guns, and were dressed in Boer fashion. At last Retief was able to break in to tell Dingaan that he believed the culprits to have been Manthatisi's Tlokwa, the so-called ‘Wild Cat’ people, led by her son Sekonyela who was known to affect the white men's clothes.

Dingaan replied that the best way for Retief to prove the Boers' innocence in the affair was to ride in Sekonyela's country with a commando and ten Zulu herders who would be able to recognize any royal cattle there. If they identified the beasts, then Retief must arrest Sekonyela and bring him back with his stolen cattle to UMgungundlovu. Once this task had been completed Dingaan gave an assurance that he was prepared to cede the land between the Tugela and Umzimvubu to the Boers. Dingaan put his mark on a written declaration to this effect, even though he had already granted this same piece of land in Port Natal to three other Boers prior to granting the land to the British Crown.

Retief agreed to these terms, certain that his mission had been successful. Meanwhile Retief's followers at Kerkenberg had heard rumors that English soldiers had occupied Port Natal and that Retief and his men had all been slain by Zulus. Other trekkers were now trickling in to join them at Kerkenberg.

On 11 November 1837, the two messengers Retief had sent off to Kerkenberg during his journey to UMgungundlovu rode into camp, carrying welcome advice from their leader in a letter which stated that there was no reason now why the Trekkers should not descend the Berg they were waiting on.

On 27 November 1837, Retief rode into his camp which had been set up at a place called Doornkop, close to the site of modern Chieveley. There were a score of other encampments nearby: by this time it was estimated that close to a thousand Boer wagons were scattered about in the vicinity.

On 28 December 1837, Retief lead a fifty-man commando to Wild Cat overlooking modern Ficksburg. Here Retief met Sekonyela by arrangement in the garden of `the chief's missionary', Mr. Allison. Sekonyela was handcuffed and then told that he would not be released until he had handed over the cattle he had stolen from Dingaan.

Retief sent Dingaan's cattle to UMgungundlovu with the Zulu herders and returned to Doornkop, and called for volunteers to accompany him to the Zulu capital. Retief selected sixty-seven men and three youths (including his own fourteen-year-old son) to ride with him, and also took along Thomas Holstead from the Port to act as interpreter, as well as thirty colored servants.

With the help of the Rev. F. Owen, Dingaan drew up a deed of cession in English. Dingaan and Retief signed it on the 4th of February 1838.

Dingaan insisted that the Retief party attend a celebration of this agreement two days later inside his enclosed hall. As a sign of goodwill, the Boers were requested to leave their weapons outside. During the ceremony, Dingaan ordered the execution of Retief and all of his party, except for the interpreter Thomas Holstead, as Dingaan felt that not all the information the Boers had given for translation, was given by missionary Owen to Dingaan accurately.

From the diary of Rev. F. Owen (and the accounts of Zulu affairs by the interpreters, Messrs. Hully and Kirkman), the following events transpired:

“The following morning, about ten messengers that had travelled all night from the capital, arrived at the mission station of James Brownlee, requesting him to interpret for king Dingaan.

“They said that William as well as Mr. Hully, my own Interpreter, were not here and that Thos. Halstead, the Beers Interpreter was at Capt. Gardiner’s, a palpable lie, for he was here when the messenger left on Sunday evening, and I tremble to say is now amongst the number of the slain: so the natives to say tho’ Dingarns servant this morning informed me he was not to be killed. The reason for this call from James Brownlee is mysterious, he is a boy and the king likes him; for what end he should have sent in so unaccountable a manner and with such haste is surprising. On Mr. V’s arrival he was surprised to see the Doer (sic. Boer) guns under the trees and the natives handling them freely, but they themselves not to be found but described as having gone a hunting, etc. At length Umthlela the Indoona told him that the Beers were killed. Mr. Venable made no reply, and the savage, remorseless Indoona asked him if he did not thank the king for having killed them.”

On the 7th of February 1838, Owen entered the following description in his diary:

I did not give an adequate description of the dreadful carnage yesterday. I omitted to state that many of the Boers had children with them, some under 11 years of age, as I am informed, as these were all butchered. They also had their Hottentot servants and these were likewise slaugh­tered besides their Interpreter and his servant. The number of slain must have been nearer a hundred than sixty, but if there had been ten hundred it would have been all the same. Dingarn afterwards sent for Mr. Venable and his interpreter. He set the latter to unhalter some of his newly acquired horses which were knee haltered. As he never possessed a horse before, none of his own people were as yet adequate to this office. The usual messenger who comes to the station was thrown yesterday and seriously injured, nevertheless, he was obliged to come this morning, tho’ apparently in great pain. When the above task was performed the sun was too hot: the king went into his hut and there was no con­versation. The thermometer to-day in our hut is at 1010, higher that it has ever been. In the evening, Mr. Venable went down again to the king. He professed that he had given orders that Thos. Halstead, the Boers interpreter, should be saved, but his people were not able to distinguish him. This is Dingarn’s usual method when he does a thing of which he is ashamed, he throws the odium of it upon his people. So he professed great surprise that Mungo should have prohibited the people from attending the teaching, and said he should send a messenger to him. He lamented that the Port Natal people should be afraid of him and said that they had built a fort. He observed that Capt. Gardiner and he had fallen out.”

Following the massacre of Retief and his men, Dingaan then gave an order that no one in future, neither man nor woman should go to be taught, and that the children should not go to the British to learn how to sew.

He also commanded his impis to kill all the Boers who had entered Natal.

The Zulu forces crossed the Tugela the same day, and the most advanced Boer parties which had descended the Berg were massacred, many at a spot near where the town of Weenen now stands (its name meaning wailing or weeping). Other of the farmers hastily laagered and were able to repulse the Zulu attacks; the assailants suffering serious loss at a fight near Bushman River. In one week after the murder of Retief, the Zulus killed 600 Boers - men, women and children. This action ended after the Battle of Blood River on 16 December 1838, wherein the Impis attacked the Boer laager at a river, which became red from the blood of slain impis, whereafter the Boers took possession of Natal.

The Boer Voortrekkers established the Natalia Republic in 1839 in Natal after fleeing the British government in the Cape.

In 1843, Britain annexed Natal, and the Natal Boers moved over the Drakensberg to the Transvaal and Orange Free State.

In 1856, the British declared Natal an independent region. As a strategic land gain, the Natal border was extended to the Tugela and Buffalo Rivers.

In 1897, Zululand which was to the north of the Natal colony was annexed into the independent Natal region. The land became part of the Union in 1910. It is now known as Kwazulu-Natal, a province of South Africa.

**(iii)**  **The Transvaal Colony.**

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The sovereignty of the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek (ZAR) had been recognized by Britain at the Sand River Convention of 1852.

The Boers founded the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek inside the area now known as the Transvaal. Rough borders were formed by the rivers of the Orange Free State and Griqualand to the left, and the Zulu Kingdom on the south. The Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek occupied the land north of the Vaal River which bordered Matabeleland and the Portuguese East Africa Colony (now known as Mozambique) that lay to their right, through which they had hoped to establish a route to the Indian Ocean by way of Delagoa Bay, before the British claimed the land.

In 1877, Theophilus Shepstone laid claim to the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek on behalf of the Crown and began taxing the Boers, which led them to fight the Crown for the return of their land and the First Anglo-Boer War in 1881.

After the British Empire lost the first Anglo-Boer war, the British Crown recognized the independence of the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek in 1884 by signature at the London Convention. No one knew there would be the discovery of the colossal gold deposits inside the territory of the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek two years later.

With the discovery of diamonds around 1885, the British Crown annexed part of the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek along with Griqualand, and incorporated the land into the Cape colony.

The first rocky outcrop of gold was discovered in March 1886 inside the territory of the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek.

After the discovery of gold on the reef of the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek, the Crown instigated the Jameson Raid which was followed by the Second Anglo-Boer War. After the Second Anglo-Boer war, the Crown annexed the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek and its surrounding area and named it the Transvaal colony.

**(iv) Orange Free State.**

By the beginning of the Anglo-Boer Wars, the Orange Free State was independently ruled by the Boers. The Free State's boundaries were defined almost entirely by rivers: the Orange River on the south, the Vaal River on the west and north, and the Caledon River on the east. The north-eastern boundary was shared with its British neighbor, Natal. The British governments recognized the sovereignty of the Orange Free State during the Orange River Convention of 1854.

The Caledon boundary was disputed by the Boers and Moshoeshoe I's Sotho people in two primary incidents – in 1858 and 1865. Other than outsider groups like the Sotho, there were few indigenous peoples in the Free State area.

An independent Boer area internationally recognized as a separate country called ‘Die Nieuwe Republiek’ bordered the Orange Free State and the Zulu Kingdom. This land was given to them by the Zulu king DinuZulu for protection they gave him, and he had asked Die Nieuwe Republiek to act as protectorate of his kingdom against annexation by the British governments.

However, once the Crown realized that the Nieuwe Republiek had access to the ocean through the Zulu Kingdom, they annexed a huge part of the Zulu Kingdom and cut the Boers off from the sea, thereby forcing them to use British transport to the sea and pay huge taxes for the use of the land towards the sea, besides exorbitant shipping fees, insurance and taxes. The Boers decided to rather incorporate the development of the Nieuwe Republiek into that of the Orange Free State, and avoid business dealings with the British governments.

In 1890, there were approximately 77,000 whites and 128,000 Africans (many were servants working on white farms) living in the Orange Free State. The Boers from the Orange Free State helped the Boers from the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek fight against the British military during the Anglo-Boer wars. When the British governments offered the Boers a Peace treaty after the 2nd Anglo Boer War, the Orange Free State refused to surrender. However, in the wording of the Peace Treaty, the Orange Free State was included along with the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek to lay down arms against Britain. Thus in the aftermath of the Anglo-Boer War (1899–1902), Britain re-annexed the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek and the  [Orange Free State,](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Orange_Free_State) two hitherto independent Boer republics. These new territories, renamed the Transvaal Colony and the Orange River Colony respectively, were added to the Crown’s existing South African territories, the Cape Colony and Colony of Natal. Even though promises were made to the Boers in the 1902 Treaty of Vereeniging that their Republics would be restored to them, the Crown had absolutely no intention of doing so. It had already decided to annex the whole of South Africa in one foul swoop, and bring these four “colonies” now under her governance, into her permanent possession, to form them into one large colony, under the auspice of the “Union” of South Africa.

**(v) The Griqualands**

There are two Griqualands – West and East – both founded by the Griqua people moving out of the Cape during colonization.

Griqua, a Khoi Khoi tribe, moved to lands just north of the Cape, east of southern Bechuanaland, and west of the Orange Free State, being led by Adam Kok I and Barend Barends.

The Crown employed Andries Waterboer as representative of the Griquas in Griqualand West, which forced about 2000 Griqua to trek east between 1861-1862.

When diamonds were discovered in the Griqualand West area, the British Crown offered the area protectorship in 1871, but annexed the land shortly afterward, and incorporated the land into the Cape colony and recognized Griqualand East as an independent area in 1873, only to be annexed the following year by the Crown, and incorporated into the Cape colony. Griqualand East was positioned between the Cape colony and Natal on the eastern coast.

Griqualand was incorporated into the Union of South Africa by the Crown.

**Section B: Diamonds, Gold and Coal mining areas in South Africa**

A small western area of the Republic of the Orange Free State is home to many of the diamond mines of South Africa. Before the rush to discover diamonds, many of the indigenous people of Africa already used these diamonds as simple tools.

A discovery by John O’Reilly in the 1850’s sparked what is known as the diamond rush. By 1869, thousands of people made their way over to the Vaal River with the hopes of finding their fortunes. Consequentially, mining communities emerged across the region, including Klipdrift, Pniel, Gong Gong, Union Kopje, Colesberg Kopje, Delport’s Hope, Blue Jacket, Forlorn Hope, Waldek’s Plant, Larkins’s Flat, Niekerk’s Hope, and many other smaller settlements.

The later part of the diamond rush took place on a 6,000-acre (24 km2) farm known as Dutoitspan. Along with this discovery developed the mining towns of Old De Beers, and the discovery of Kimberley - which is also known as “New Rush.” Kimberley proved to be one of the wealthiest mines on earth. These new mines within the Orange Free State and their great wealth attracted the attention of the Crown; their new found interest eventually led to a heated debate between the Orange Free State Government and the British Governments.

In 1871, the discovery of diamond deposits by prospectors in Griqualand led to a struggle for control between Britain, the Orange Free State and the Transvaal.

A Griqua chief claimed the land that the mines were located on belonged to him and asked for the protection of the British Governments. This action resulted in the British annexation the region which became known as Griqualand West. This land was originally recognized as part of the Orange Free State by the British in 1854.

The Earl of Carnarvon offered the Orange Free State to become part of the plan to confederate the countries of South Africa, which it refused. Eventually, the Orange Free State was compensated by payment of $525,000 and was also allowed to sit in meetings about the confederation.

In 1880, Griqualand West became a separate province of the Cape Colony, allowing for Cecil Rhodes' entrance into Cape Colony politics to further his agenda as one of the mining magnates when he stood for election to parliament in Barkly West.

In 1886, George Harrison discovered gold in the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek area now known as the Witwatersrand (the Rand), which led to a stampede of gold diggers from Australia, California, London, Ireland and Germany. The influx of gold diggers created a stream of wealth pouring into the previously poverty stricken region. However, severe health problems caused by dust from the dry diggings and unsanitary conditions also appeared in dig sites, along with other types of diseases, death and crime. The industry, characterized as monopolistic and political, was at the centre of controversies, such as the conflicts of the Jameson Raid of 1895 and Anglo-Boer war in 1899, for the region.

With the discovery of diamonds in Griqualand West, gold in Witwatersrand and also coal in the Transvaal and Natal, the capacity of production changed the political and economic structure of South Africa. The development of industrial capitalism in the region was markedly accelerated, whilst the long era of dispossession of independent African chiefdoms was finally completed, paving the way for the mobilization of large numbers of African laborers to provide cheap labour for this industrial revolution.

**Deceit by British leaders to annex the diamond mines in South Africa**

When the first republics were formed - Natalia, The Orange Free State, the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek and the smaller splinter groups like Stellaland, the Free Masons were already in the process of entrenching themselves in the political leadership of these republics.
Steyn, of the Free State, was a high order Free Mason. This is where the Orange in the republic's name comes from - it refers to the House of Orange - the Dutch royal family, and highest order initiates of the Free Masons and global Brotherhood elite, masters of the Crown. Steyn signed over Kimberly to Cecil John Rhodes, who was then the British High Commissioner of the Cape, in a very shady deal, shortly before the diamond find became public knowledge. Maps were redrawn and backdated and approved by Steyn, in order that Kimberly would fall just inside the Cape Province, and not just inside the Orange Free State, as was rightly the case.

**Claims to the Diamond Fields**.

Diamonds were also discovered in the Boer republic which had already been officially recognized as the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek. After their discovery, claim to this land was made by various other tribes by the direction and under the influence of the representatives of the Crown. The Crown decided by arbitration to award these diamond fields to the Griquas, and then annexed the land shortly afterwards.

The indigenous tribes of South Africa that laid claim to the diamond fields were the Voortrekkers of the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek; the Griquas; the Koranas from Mossweu; The Rolong and the Tlhaping.

**(i) The Voortrekkers of the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek.**

In 1840, the Voortrekkers which had settled north of the Vaal River indicated the western side of their territory to border along the tributary of the Molopo River and the salt pan of the Vaal River (which is the area between Bloemhof and Christiana, as the towns are now known).

This is also identified in the description given of the municipalities of the towns Rustenburg and Potchefstroom in 1857. The towns that developed hereafter named Bloemhof (established in 1850, declared a town in 1866, and a district in July 1869) and Christiana (in 1870) were claimed by the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek and recognized. In November 1869, the western border of the district Bloemhof (which became the western border of the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek) was recognized to be the Harts River where it flowed out from the Vaal River.

The Voortrekkers based the claim of their borders of the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek on:

1. The decision of the Sand River Convention of 1852;
2. The right of ‘conquest’;
3. Negotiations and agreements made between the Black and White communities.
4. ‘Occupation rights’ of the whites with regards to the northern areas of the Vaal River, and in the south, between the Vaal and Harts River.

**(ii) Griquas.**

Nicolaas Waterboer and his British lawyer-agent David Arnot made claim with the Orange River as the southern border, with Khies in the west up to Ramah. From Ramah, northwards over Dawidsgraf up to Platberg which was next to the Vaal River.

Waterboer based his claim on:

1. The agreements reached by his father Andries Waterboer with Sir Benjamin D’Urban in 1838 and Adam Kok in 1838.

To the north, he claimed the area from the southern side of the Langeberg in the west, to stretch eastwards toward north of Boetsap near the Harts River which included Roelofsfontein into the Griqua area

He based his claim on the northern border on:

1. An arrangement made between Andries Waterboer and Mahura - the Captain of the Tlhaping, in 1842.

In 1863, Nicolaas Waterberg made a proclamation that the arrangement of 1842 gave their border to be the area from Platberg which is next to the Vaal River to stretch north-west to north of Boetsap, which was confirmed in 1864.

**Leadership history of the Griqua**

Originally there were two Griqua leaders with equal powers, and each with his own community. They were Adam Kok I, and Barend Barends.

Barend Barends settled in Danielskuil, and Adam Kok I settled in Griquastad.

Adam Kok handed over his leadership to his son Cornelius Kok in 1795.

Cornelius Kok was succeeded by his son Adam Kok II in 1820, which left his position in Griquastad due to missionary the interference, and settled in Campbell.

Through arrangements made by missionaries on behalf of the Crown, Andries Waterboer was selected to be leader of the Griquas in 1820. He was only the head of the Griqua community at Griquastad but gained status in 1822 when the Cape government employed a resident, John Melvill, at Griquastad. Andries Waterboer joined military forces with Tlhaping against the Sotho tribes which consisted of the Phuthing, Hlakwana and Fokeng.

Through the power which Andries Waterboer had, Barend Barends and Adam Kok II left Griqualand west.

**Barends** went eastward to Boetsap, closer to the Harts River.

In 1825, Dr.John Phillip, missionary of the London missionary association, caused Adam **Kok II** to move to Phillippolis in the south-west of the Free State, where he would only have power over the community and not the land.

In 1824, the resident John Melvill arranged that Cornelius Kok II take the place of Adam Kok II in Campbell. This increased the power of Waterboer as he had power over the Campbell land and Adam Kok II only had power over the Griqua community at Campbell.

In 1838, Adam Kok II dies and was replaced by his son Adam Kok III in Phillippolis. In 1861, the governor George Grey moved Adam Kok II and his community to Griqualand east (then known as ‘Niemandsland’ (no man’s land). The Free State Boer Republic bought the land area of Adam Kok III for 4000 pounds. Adam Kok III denied that the land the Free State Boer Republic bought included the Campbell land.

However, during a formal ceremony at Campbell in 1857, shortly before his death, Cornelius Kok II formally handed over his power over his own area (Campbell) and the area of Barend Barends to Adam Kok III. This gave Adam Kok III all the official power of the Campbell area and although he governed the area through the permission granted by a representative of the Cape government, Waterboer also recognized Adam Kok III as the head of Campbell.

**Campbell Land.**

The Campbell land originated after Adam Kok II had moved to Phillippolis, and there became tension between Cornelius Kok in Campbell and Andries Waterboer in Griquastad.

Waterboer had asked Adam Kok II to act as peacemaker between himself and Cornelius Kok. Therefore Adam Kok II tried to define the borders of their respective areas in 1827. He wrote these borders down as follows:

From Koukonap (presently known as Douglas) in the north-west, halfway between Griquastad and Campbell through till Koegelbeen (now Koebeen), and from there straight north-eastwards over Boetsap up till Harts Rivier, down along the river, and further along the Vaal River up to Koukonap.

The land division as laid out in 1827 for Campbell consisted only from the area which belonged to Cornelius Kok north-west of the Vaal and Harts River up to the line of Koegelbeen to Boesap.

In 1834 the British Cape governor Sir Benjamin D’Urban issued an Order by which Waterboer would protect the Cape colony border from Kheis to Ramah against attacks. This Order offered Waterboer no areas with fixed borders and no powers of authority over the other leaders of Griquastad, but increased his status to a partner of the British authority in South Africa, and from here onward acted as a representative of the British Crown.

In 1835, Andries Waterboer claimed to have bought the jurisdiction from Barend Barendse for the area around Danielskuil. The western border hereof appears to be along the Koukonap (Douglas) line and on the north-east along Nelsonsfontein.

After disagreements between Andries Waterboer and Cornelius Kok In 1838, Andries Waterboer tried to alter the borders of the Campbell land, and drew up an Order to change the borders, but nothing came of this. This Order would have increased the region under Waterboer’s control up to the Ramah line along the Orange River over Dawidsgraf to Platberg at the Vaal River, and reset the Phillippolis area of Kok to the south-east of this line.

According to Nicolaas Waterboer, his father Andries Waterboer had drawn up an Order in 1842 to which Mahura, the Tlhaping leader who had his position in Taun, had agreed. According to this Order, the borders between their areas - which included the northern border of Waterboer’s area – to run from the northern tip of the southern side of the Langberge north of Nelsonsfontein near the Harts River north of Boetsap?

After Nicolaas Waterboer took over leadership from his father Andries in 1853, he admitted on various occasions that he had no right to the Campbell land.

Before his death in 1857, Cornelius Kok carried over his rights to the Campbell land north of the Vaal River to his nephew Adam Kok III from Phillippolis.

In October 1962, Nicolaas Waterboer redefined the borders of Griqualand by Proclamation based on the Order by D’Urban which gave Andries Waterboer responsibility in 1834, the Order of 1838 which Andries Waterboer was unsuccessful to justify and implement, and the Order of 1842 which Andries Waterboer was supposed to have drawn up with the consent of Mahura. He extended the borders even further by rounding off the northern border from Boetsap up to Platberg along the Vaal River.

In 1870, David Arnot tried to revive the draught Andries Waterboer had drawn up in 1838 to strengthen the authority of Nicolaas Waterboer artificially. Arnot declared the Waterboers as the prime heads of powers over all of Griqualand West by Proclamation in 1871, even though the Griquas had never had a prime headship in their system of governance before.

Arnot based his proclamation on the Order made by Sir Benjamin D’Urban in 1834, the Orders made by Waterboer in 1838, in 1842 and in 1862.

**(iii) The Koranas from Mossweu**

The Koranas lived on a farm named Zendelingsfontein between Bloemhof and Christiana near the Vaal River for a while, but settled at Mamusa which was along the Harts River (where Schweizer-Reneke was established later on) before 1869.

**(iv) The Rolong**

At the end of the 18th Century the Rolong were divided between four brothers: Ratlou, Seleka, Rapulana and Tshidi.

All four groups were unsettled during the ‘Mfecane’ and many of these people took shelter in Thaba Nchu in the Free State. The Seleka-Rolong stayed on at Thaba-Nchu when the Tshidi-Rolong moved north-west under the leadership of Montshiva to their erstwhile homes south of the Molopo River in the 1840’s, which was much further north than the diamond areas discovered later on. In the 1850’s, the Ratlou-Rolong under leadership of Gontse joined up with Montshiva and his people, and they moved to the south-west of Gaborone where they joined up with the Ngakwetse in the Kanye area until 1876 or 1877, after which they returned to the Molopo area, and the Ratlou-Rolong broke off with the Montshiva community and joined up with a Tlhapping community.

Montshiva and his community claimed the area west of the Harts River, and late in the 1870’s the Seleka-Rolong claimed the area east of the Harts River down the Vaal River up to Skoonspruit, which was very close to Potchefstroom.

In 1828, the Tlhaping under leadership of Mothibi left the Kuruman area and moved south to the conflux of the Vaal and Harts River where they lived until 1831. After the death of Mothibi the Tlhaping split up into many smaller communities.

The Tlhaping community under Jantjie was influenced by the British missionaries to move to Dikgadlong on the western bank of the Harts River near the confluence with the Vaal River.

After the public discovery of diamonds free-lance diamond merchants frequented Dikgathong. By the middle of 1870, there were more than 800 prospectors along the banks of the Vaal River, and Jantjie charged these people a fee of 10 shillings per month.

Mothibi’s younger brother Mahura, and the greatest part of the Mothibi community who did not follow Mothibi, had not left Kuruman until much later, when they moved to Dikgathong, and then later to Taung along the top tributaries of the Harts River, where they came into conflict with the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek.

The Mahura tribe lost a battle against the Boers in 1858, but the Boers did not claim the land used by the Mahura. In 1864, the British lawyer David Arnot (who had also been an agent for the Griquas) worked as an agent for the Mahura and claimed land on their behalf, which stretched as far as Makwassiespruit. He designed the borders as follows:

The Southern border: The communal border between Mahura and Waterboer from the northern point of the southern part of the Langeberg in the west, stretching to Platberg along the Vaal River.

The Eastern border: From Platberg in the north-east along the Vaal River up to Makwassiespruit , and from the source of Makwassiespruit to the source of the Harts River, and from there to the Molopo River.

Northern border: The Molopo River on the west up to its confluence with the Kuruman River.

On the west: From the confluence of the Molopo and Kuruman River with a straight line up to where it reached the northern point of the Langeberg.

However, the Mahura, Rolong and other tribes claimed that these borders were inaccurate during their meeting with M.W.Pretorius in Feb 1869.

Whilst negotiating with the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek at Witgatboom near Bloemhof in February 1969, Mahura rejected the proposal that the Harts River should form the border between the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek and his area. He passed away shortly before the next conference, which was scheduled for 25 August 1870.

**(v) The Tlhaping**

The Tlhaping tribes who laid claim to the diamond fields were the following:

1. Botlasitse (who succeeded Gaseborrwe) was genetically the most senior of the Tlhaping leaders, and his followers who lived in Phokwane;
2. Mankurwe (who succeeded Mahura) and his followers lived in Taung;
3. Luka (who succeeded Jantjie) and his followers who lived in Dikgatlhong at the influx of the Vaal and Harts Rivers, from where they moved later on to other outposts such as Manyeding;
4. The Maidi-Tlhaping, who were followers of Motlhabane and lived in Manthe.

**Events which led up to the Keate Arbitration**

President Brand called for a conference in Nootgedacht to take place on 25 August 1870 wherein different leaders who were laying claims to the diamond fields could state their case.

Waterboer attended this conference to give his reasons on which he based his claim for the Campbell area, but withdrew before the conference was concluded.

President M.K. Pretorius presented the case of the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek so well that President Brand relinquished all the rights of the Orange Free State to the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek regarding the area between the Vaal and the Harts River.

Shortly afterwards, Pretorius organized management of the Vaal-Harts triangle and issued a Proclamation which reasserted the right of the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek over their area up to the east of the Harts River.

Shortly after this, Montshiwa as leader of the Rolong met with State President Pretorius and told him that a document dated 1851 awarded the territory on the west of the Harts River to him. Although the authenticity of this document was under suspicion, Pretorius declared his willingness to abdicate Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek land rights to the west of the Harts River. However, the other Rolong leaders refused to accept any border other than Skoonspruit. To solve the border matter, it was decided upon arbitration. One of the reasons the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek had agreed to arbitration, is that they had resolved a matter between the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek and the Orange Free State during February 1870 through arbitration managed by Lieutenant Governor Robert Keane from Natal as a neutral party. The matter in question had been under debate since 1854 and concerned the northern border of the two republics, as to which tributary of the Vaal River, the Likwa or the Wilge, formed the border of the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek.

On 26 February 1871, President Pretorius met with the British High Commissioner Sir Henry Barkly at Klipdrift. Also present was the British lawyer David Arnot on behalf of Waterboer; the missionary Reverend Joseph Ludorf on behalf of the Rolong, Tlhaping and Hgwaketse, as well as the leaders of the Black tribes, and the date for arbitration was set for the 4th of April 1871 at Bloemhof. The two arbitrators that were assigned for this matter, was the British John Campbell, who had been assigned by the Cape government as magistrate in Klipdrift, and the British A.A. O’Reilly, the magistrate from Wakkerstroom. Should they not agree on a matter, it would be referred to Keate for a final decision.

Arnot dominated the proceedings, and used information which Pretorius had not been aware of. Pretorius had not been able to scrutinize the Orders proclaimed by Waterboer which Arnot based his accounts on, and Pretorius had to rely greatly on verbal evidence.

The two arbitrators could not agree on their decisions and the matter was referred to Keate.

**The Keate Arbitration**

On 17 October 1871, Keate signed the decision made by the British Court in which the northern and north eastern lines from Langberg across Boesap to Platberg was awarded to Nicolaas Waterboer, and the area north of the border was awarded to the Rolong and the Tlhaping.

Furthermore, the western border of the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek was defined as a line which started at Buhrmansdrif in Molopo east of Mafeking, and curved in a rainbow form above the start of the Harts River to Makwassispruit and further along the Makwassiespruit up to the Vaal River, and along Vaal River in a westerly direction up to Platberg, and from there, southwards over Dawidsgraf to Ramah.

The Keate arbitration decision removed the diamond producing area between the Vaal and the Harts River away from the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek. The Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek had also lost large inhabited areas in the districts of Potchefstroom, Marico and Bloemhof, including the towns of Bloemhof and Christiana.

On 27 October 1871, the British Crown annexed Griqualand West, including the diamond fields at Kimberley..12

1. **Basutoland**

The land of indigenous Khoi-Khoi and Sotho people, Basutoland was positioned between the Cape Colony, Orange Free State and Natal. Basutoland was annexed by the Crown in 1868 after Britain offered to be a protectorate for Basutoland. Three years later it was incorporated into to the Cape Colony.

In 1884, only half of the Basothuland kingdom was given back to the Griqua by the British, a result of the Gun War.

In 1910, still under British rule, attempts to incorporate it into the Union of South Africa failed. In disagreement, Basutoland became one of three colonies outside of the Union (also Bechuanaland and Swaziland). Basutoland is a small independent nation which became known as Lesotho engulfed by South Africa.

1. **Bechuanaland**

Bechuanaland was occupied by Britain in 1885, the northern area becoming the Protectorate and the southern area, the Crown Colony. This region was constructed between German Southwest Africa and the Transvaal as a strategic attempt to prevent the combining of those two colonies. Along with the annexation of the Cape colony in 1895, Cecil Rhodes pushed hard for the northern Protectorate, but was protested by indigenous Tswana chiefs who successfully convinced the British otherwise. This region is present day Botswana, which declared independence in 1966.

1. **Swaziland**

The Swazis had historically assisted the British with conflicts against their enemies the Pedi and the Zulu, and Britain promised Swaziland independence by signing a treaty with their leadership. All this changed following the discovery of gold in the De Kaap Valley in 1884. In order to deal with the growing demand for concessions from mining prospectors, the Swazi Chief Mbanzeni employed the British officer Shepstone of Natal to run the concession administration.

Upon his arrival, Shepstone formed a British governing committee to oversee taxes and law enforcement on the gold mining conglomerate. Shepstone proved to be corrupt and concessions were being sold off at an alarming rate. Soon after Shepstone’s appointment, the Transvaal had acquired railway, telegraph and electricity concessions.

In an attempt to slow down the concessions, Mbanzeni gave the British Governing Committee authority over all whites in Swaziland. This proved disastrous and the rapid selling off of Swaziland continued.

On 3 May 1889, the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek president Kruger informed the British he would forego all claims to the North if he could obtain political rights to Swaziland. The British Governing Committee agreed to the deal and Mbanzeni’s country was sold out from under him by the Crown.

Following the death of Mbanzeni, the British Governing Committee divided up the remaining territory of Swaziland until sole control fell to the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek in 1894.

When the British Crown annexed the Zuid Afrikaanse Republiek in 1902, Swaziland fell back into their power and was incorporated into the ‘Union of South Africa’.

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9 [The Rise of South Africa: 1838-1846](http://books.google.co.za/books?id=a9lBAAAAYAAJ&q=Gardiner+Dingaan+Boers&dq=Gardiner+Dingaan+Boers&hl=en&sa=X&ei=MxNdT47mF-3xmAWtjOn3Dg&ved=0CFsQ6AEwCTgU)’ by Sir George Cory, edition 1965

10 [Missionary chronicle: Volume 6 - Page 150](http://books.google.co.za/books?id=UZ8PAAAAIAAJ&pg=PA150&dq=Gardiner+Dingaan+Boers&hl=en&sa=X&ei=-wxdT_7eEKzwmAWD1rDQDw&ved=0CDcQ6AEwAg);

[Western Foreign Missionary Society of the United States](http://www.google.co.za/search?hl=en&biw=1366&bih=579&tbm=bks&tbm=bks&q=inauthor:%22Western+Foreign+Missionary+Society+of+the+United+States%22&sa=X&ei=-wxdT_7eEKzwmAWD1rDQDw&ved=0CDgQ9Ag), [Presbyterian Church in the U.S.A. Board of Foreign Missions](http://www.google.co.za/search?hl=en&biw=1366&bih=579&tbm=bks&tbm=bks&q=inauthor:%22Western+Foreign+Missionary+Society+of+the+United+States%22&q=inauthor:%22Presbyterian+Church+in+the+U.S.A.+Board+of+Foreign+Missions%22&sa=X&ei=-wxdT_7eEKzwmAWD1rDQDw&ved=0CDkQ9Ag), [Presbyterian Church in the U.S.A. Board of Home Missions](http://www.google.co.za/search?hl=en&biw=1366&bih=579&tbm=bks&tbm=bks&q=inauthor:%22Western+Foreign+Missionary+Society+of+the+United+States%22&q=inauthor:%22Presbyterian+Church+in+the+U.S.A.+Board+of+Foreign+Missions%22&q=inauthor:%22Presbyterian+Church+in+the+U.S.A.+Board+of+Home+Missions%22&sa=X&ei=-wxdT_7eEKzwmAWD1rDQDw&ved=0CDoQ9Ag) – 1838

10 The two Mission Books, 1876-1880 contain copies of Original Papers such as letters and journals copied in full for the use of the committee in London:

[Manfred Nathan](http://www.google.co.za/search?hl=en&biw=1366&bih=579&tbm=bks&tbm=bks&q=inauthor:%22Manfred+Nathan%22&sa=X&ei=-wxdT_7eEKzwmAWD1rDQDw&ved=0CFQQ9Ag) - 1937

11 [The Rise of South Africa: 1838-1846](http://books.google.co.za/books?id=a9lBAAAAYAAJ&q=Gardiner+Dingaan+Boers&dq=Gardiner+Dingaan+Boers&hl=en&sa=X&ei=MxNdT47mF-3xmAWtjOn3Dg&ved=0CFsQ6AEwCTgU);

The two Mission Books, 1876-1880 contain copies of Original Papers such as letters and journals copied in full for the use of the committee in London:

[Sir George Cory](http://www.google.co.za/search?hl=en&sa=N&biw=1366&bih=579&tbm=bks&tbm=bks&q=inauthor:%22Sir+George+Cory%22&ei=MxNdT47mF-3xmAWtjOn3Dg&ved=0CFwQ9Ag4FA) - 1965

12 J.J. Oberholster, ‘Die anneksasie van Griekwaland-Wes’, from ‘Die Argief Jaarboek vir Suid-Afrikaanse Geskiedenis, 194511 pg 18, 15-21, 154;

W.B.Campbell, ‘The South African frontier 1856-1885. A study in expansion’;

D.van Zyl, ‘The Discovery of wealth: the advent of the industrial revolution in South Africa.1870-1899’. Pg 16, 17;

P.H.R.Snyman,’Danielskuil: van Griekwa-buitepos tot dienssentrum’, Pretoria, 1988, pg.6, 14.

**FOOTNOTES.**

**Footnote 1: Dingaan’s Execution place**

Wooded undulating country lay outside the royal kraal on the far side of the Umkumbane stream; about half a mile to the east of the town on its eminence rose a parallel ridge called Hlomo Amabuto, the soldiers' hill, for here it was customary far the Zulu impis to mobilize for war. Towards the north its crest led on to a spur known as Kwa Matiwane. This was Dingaan's execution place.

On Kwa Matiwane, between the black rocks which littered its slopes, grew a tangled mass of coarse grass, aloes, mimosa trees and strangely Byzantine euphorbia which lifted tap their branches to the sky as though they held sockets in which the candles of day might burn. The air of this Golgotha of UMgungundlovu was foul with the sickly-sweet smell of putrescence. For Dingaan forbade the shedding of blood within his kraal and those he sentenced to execution were always dragged to Kwa Matiwane to be battered to death with sticks or to have their skulls shattered with the rocks that are strewn around on the hill. Some of the king's unfortunate victims, however, were made to suffer the more extreme form of Zulu torture here when a pointed stake two inches in diameter was rammed through the anus and up into the body and, thus skewered, they were left to die on these appalling slopes. The hill took its name from a chieftain named Matiwane who incurred Dingaan's wrath and was put to death by having wooden pegs forced up his nostrils into the brain. The event took Dingaan's fancy: he would often jokingly remark to his courtiers that while he ruled over the living in the town, Matiwane reigned over the dead on the hill across the stream; and gradually it became to be known as Kwa Matiwane—the place of Matiwane.

The corpses on this hill were never buried but lay left to scavenging beasts and birds, and this added to its horror. Even from a distance, vultures could be seen swinging incessantly in lazy circles over Kwa Matiwane, waiting for the next meal; indeed the vultures were so familiar with the procedure that they attended all the trials in the town as interested spectators and fluttered joyfully ahead of the prisoner when they saw him pinioned and led away to execution. The king called the repulsive birds his children and took pains to keep them well fed; after a particularly bloodthirsty exhibition of temper he would watch them happily on the hill as they squatted there, filled to repletion, their heads and scraggy necks sunk beneath wings clotted with gore, too sated when disturbed to do more than to run clumsily along the bloodstained ground flapping their great wings in an effort to rise.

From ‘[*The Great Trek*](http://www.ourcivilisation.com/smartboard/shop/ransford/index.htm)’ by Oliver Ransford

**Footnote 2: Dingaan’s Palace**

The letter written by the Piet Retief description of Dingaan’s Palace has been translated as follows:

The Boers had never seen anything like UMgungundlovu before; the king's `Great Palace' was quite different from any other African kraal they had known. The town was set on a gentle slope above a stream named the Umkumbane and was surrounded by a palisade of mimosa poles fully two miles in circumference. Inside stood nearly two thousand huts, six rows deep, and according to Retief `each capable of accommodating twenty warriors'. They surrounded an empty space of two or three acres where military exercises and ritual dances took place. At one end of this parade ground stood the king's private quarters which went under the name of the isigodhlo. Here too were the huts of his mother, those of some of his ninety wives, and a small enclosure especially reserved for the king's ablutions (it was much used since Dingaan bathed himself several times a day). Nearby there was an artificial mound from which he could overlook the entire capital, and above all towered the king's hut which the Boers referred to as a palace. A more barbaric building could scarcely be imagined, and its rude magnificence certainly impressed Relief. `The king occupies a beautiful habitation,' he reported. `The form is spherical and its diameter is 20 feet. It is supported by 22 pillars, which are entirely covered with beads. The floor is perfectly smooth, and shines like a mirror.'

The extensive African town below literally hummed with the activity of its people so that the Boers were reminded of a giant colony of black ants. Above all the noise raised the shouts of Dingaan's *mbongos* who continually called out the praises of their master in brazen voices which could be heard miles away.

There were large numbers of cattle in the kraal too that November: Dingaan had concentrated the pickings of the royal herd there to impress the Boers and set Owen scribbling in his journal that the king `has lately been collecting an immense herd of oxen from distant parts of the country, for no other conceivable motive than to display his wealth to the Dutch'.

From ‘[*The Great Trek*](http://www.ourcivilisation.com/smartboard/shop/ransford/index.htm)’ by Oliver Ransford

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