here in 1752), and the others are given by Sir Thomas Maclear:—

Year.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Total.	Amount of rain.
	days	days	days	days	days	days	days	days	days	days	days	days	days	in.
1752	7	4	5	10	11	8	11	10	6	12	11	8	103	...
1858	8	5	7	8	7	8	10	14	8	10	5	3	93	21·1
1859	9	6	4	4	12	14	13	15	6	13	6	7	105	36·7
1862	4	6	4	5	8	15	14	15	10	14	8	2	105	32·0

The rainfall of the country districts occurs in a very singular way. Generally, beyond the first range of mountains the supply of moisture diminishes, and some tracts will be for many months without even a passing shower. From the registers, we find the fall at Bishop's Court and Wynberg, along Table Mountain, as high as 44 and 39 inches per annum respectively; while at Worcester it is only 11 inches; at Bredasdorp (Caledon Coast), 14 inches; at Amalienstein, 31 inches; at Concordia, Namaqualand, about 9 inches; at Lower Nels Point (Beaufort West), 9½ inches; Goliath's Kraal, near Graaff-Reniet, 13½ inches; at Port Elizabeth, 26 inches; at Graaff-Reinet, 14 inches; and at Aliwal North* about 25 inches. It

* From observations taken by R. Dowling, Esq., from 1866 to 1874 the mean rainfall at Aliwal North was deduced as follows—Rainfall for January is 3·775 inches, with 24 rainy days; February, 4·89 inches, with 11·5 rainy days; March, 3·32 inches, with 12·5 rainy days; April, 1·83 inches, with 8 rainy days; May, 1·11 inches, with 7 rainy days; June, ·56 inches, with 2 rainy days; July, ·47 inches, with 3 rainy days; August, ·51 inches, with 4 rainy days; September, ·77 inches, with 6 rainy days; October, 2·04 inches, with 8 rainy days; November, 2·87 inches, with 9 rainy days; December, 2·99 inches, with 10 rainy days—giving a mean annual fall of 25·31 inches, extending over 95 rainy days.

increases towards Kaffraria, and on to Natal, where the rains are inter-tropical. However, even the driest districts of the Colony at times are visited by deluging thunderstorms, and every year the rivers tumble into the sea as much water as might convert the whole country into corn-fields, vineyards, orchards, and rich pastures, if only proper measures were taken for using it—

> If we could but stay the streams
> Which past us flow, while we, too slow,
> Stand wrapt on the bank in dreams.

The winds which generally prevail at the Cape, as already stated, are the north-west and south-east; others only last a short time, and frequently are merely transitions from the north-west to south-east and *vice versa*. There is a notable phenomena attending one of these winds—the "south-easter" or the "Cape doctor" as it has been termed, which blows most frequently from November to March. Then appears the cloud on Table Mountain known as the "Table Cloth," which to a stranger has a singular effect, and in certain conditions is to every observer of Nature, no matter how often he may have seen it, a truly magnificent sight. The wind charged with vapour rises from the sea south-east of the Cape in masses of white fleecy cloud which steal over the mountain until they cover the highest summit with a dense white sheet, the upper surface of which usually assumes a well-defined outline, and appears to remain stationary,—a veritable table cloth,—while the lower part condensed by contact with the heated rock disappears in light woolly flakes as soon as it has fallen a few yards; or at other times rolls like a mighty cataract, a perfect Niagara of vapour, over the precipitous sides of the mountain, until it becomes invisible and blows with tempestuous force over the valley and city, raising whirlwinds of dust and drying up the ground and gardens.

Hot winds are experienced occasionally during summer in some of the Eastern Districts. They blow from the north-west, carrying with them waves of heated air from the central plains, and raising the temperature to 118° and 120°. Fortunately, they are not of long duration, for they are most objectionable and uncomfortable.

Hail storms are not very common in the south-west, but in the Northern and Border districts they occur with such violence as to cause considerable damage to vegetation and stock.

Thunderstorms are also comparatively rare in the neighbourhood of Cape Town, but more inland and along the Northern and Eastern border they are frequent and at times very fearful and grand. The ordinary indications of their approach are snowy clouds rising on the horizon, and swelling and darkening until the lightning flashes along them and the thunder peals out with prolonged and increasing reverberation. It is then a magnificent sight to watch the brilliant colours and forms of the electric discharges and their varied track against the inky black sky—now forked, now straight, now zig-zagged, now in quivering rays and horizontal flashes, appearing and disappearing rapidly, in the twinkling of an eye. Such striking exhibitions of Nature's elements, however, do not last very long; after them the rain ceases, clouds roll up and disperse, and a delicious and exhilarating cool atmosphere succeeds.

LAND TENURE AND LAND LAWS.

Although the greater portion of the most valuable land within the old settled parts of the Colony has already been alienated and become the property of private individuals, there are still many eligible spots in the coast districts, and large tracts in the Midland and Northern territories, which belong to the Government. These are approximately estimated at 50,000,000 acres. This colonial domain embraces dry pastoral plains, rich forest lands, and well-watered mountain slopes, capable of yielding varied productions. Until lately no effort was made to turn these possessions to account, and they were allowed to lie waste and unoccupied. The exigencies of Government, however, enforced attention to them a few years since, and the result has been the enactment of land laws offering facilities for lease and purchase to all classes of people, which are gradually bringing the whole country under occupation and developing a rich mine of wealth in the expanding rent-roll of the Colony.

Before stating what these laws are, we may briefly glance at the systems under which lands were granted in the "good old times." The early settlers, after the first occupation of the Cape by Van Riebeek, had small freeholds given to them along the skirts of Table Mountain; these did not exceed twenty acres, and were burdened with the payment of tithes and other servitudes—to one of which, the planting of trees, the vicinity of Cape Town is still indebted for its present embellishment. In addition to this, tracts of land adjoining those freeholds, or in other parts, were granted under the name of "loan places." The tenure of these was at the will of Government. Any-

one desiring a loan farm selected the spot he deemed suitable, planted his mark and put down his name for it for a while to make trial of it, or to see if any one had ground of objection; if not, he got it on loan or annual lease, renewable on payment of the rent fixed by the Government—generally an assessment of one-tenth of the stock the ground was estimated to maintain, or a nominal value of £4 16s. per annum. No legal title was issued, nor survey made; the position of the land being defined by a central point, which was generally a local feature, as a spring of water or conspicuous rock, and often a beacon was placed when no local feature existed. From this central point commonly known as the "ordinantie," the right of the lessee extended no further than a walk of half an hour direct, which was considered to be, and adopted as the radius of a circle containing 3,000 morgen (over 6,000 acres). The uncertainty of the "loan" tenure does not seem to have prevented the frequent transfer of those places by sale, and although the buildings and improvements were the only property that was ostensibly sold, the value of the land was allowed to be indirectly included in the consideration; and a transfer duty (the "heerenrecht") was levied upon this, as well as upon all other lands and houses which exchanged hands, from as early a date as 1686.

These "freehold" and "loan" tenures and some short "quitrent leases" were the terms on which lands were held up to the time of the cession of the Colony to England. Then in October, 1812, a proclamation was issued expressing the "intention of Government to grant land on perpetual quitrent," and in the following year it was determined to allow the holders of all lands on *loan* who might regularly apply for the same, to convert their places into perpetual quitrent properties, and to hold the same hereditarily for the annual payment of a sum to be

prescribed according to the situation, fertility, and other circumstances of the ground, but in no case to exceed 250 rix-dollars (£18 15s.) per annum. The object of this was, as Governor Sir John Cradock's proclamation states, a paternal desire on the part of Government to give to the farmers the security of title to their land without any claim to resumption, so that they might be encouraged to "*improve and extend agriculture* by having the right to dispose of their places as they chose, by dividing the same among their children, letting, selling, or otherwise alienating it, and *cultivating it in the prospect of remote benefit by the planting of timber, &c.*" Thus began the perpetual quitrent tenure, a small annual payment dependent on the value and circumstances of the land, which continues in force as an essential feature of the laws at the present time. In all cases, however, the Government made a reservation of its rights on those lands to precious stones, gold and silver, as well as of making and repairing roads, and raising material for that purpose.

During the period up to 1830, the disposal of colonial lands was the prerogative of the Crown, exercised by the Governor, and there are many stories told of the manner in which the colonists in these early days secured farms by favour or interest. This system, however, was set aside by instructions from the Secretary of State in May, 1838, and the rule laid down that lands in future were not to be alienated except by public sale, and that no further applications for loan or "request places" would be received. A few years later, in 1843, the redemption of quitrent and the conversion of the tenure into freehold on the payment of fifteen year's purchase was sanctioned as a temporary measure, in order to replenish the colonial exchequer. At the first sales which were held at that time (1844), the upset price

was by rule fixed at 2s. per acre, and many extensive and valuable areas got into the hands of speculators, who retained them in many cases unoccupied until a favourable opportunity occurred of disposing of them. In a short period the proprietors saw their estates growing more valuable every year, independently of labour, industry, or skill; while in cases where these were exercised, a certain competence and largely increased wealth was ensured. The advantage to the Government, however, was not so evident, and an apprehension that the continuance of the system would lead to results similar to those which followed the destruction of the goose that laid the golden eggs caused a stop to be put to it.

A special exception to the general rule in the disposal of land, was made after the last war, when Sir George Cathcart, and subsequently Sir George Grey, gave grants of farms on the frontier and in Kaffraria, on conditions of military service or defensive occupation; but these conditions being found no longer necessary, have since been relaxed, and the occupants continued in possession on the general quitrent tenure.

The Land Law of the Colony now in force is contained in the Act No. 2 of 1860, which provides for the *sale* of all Government lands on perpetual quitrent by public auction, excepting grants made for public purposes with the concurrence of the Legislature. A subsequent enactment (Act 19 of 1864) authorises lands to be *leased* by public auction for periods of from two to twenty-one years; and another (Act 5 of 1870) gives the lessees permission with the consent of Government at any time during the continuation of their twenty-one years' leases to *purchase* the land at a sum not less than the rent capitalised at six per cent., and a quitrent of £1 per cent. For the encouragement of small agriculturists a further Act was passed (No. 4 of 1870) making provision for the

disposal of agricultural areas in allotments of not more than 500 acres; the terms, for conditional purchase, being an annual rental of one shilling per acre; and of absolute purchase, the payment in advance of ten years' annual rent, and the expenses of survey and title. Extents of Crown land not yet surveyed are let by the civil commissioners from year to year by auction, without reserve, the various lots being roughly defined by description only, published in the *Government Gazette*.

To acquire land under the Act of 1860, the first step is to make application for its purchase to the Colonial Secretary, or to the Divisional Council of the district in which it is situate, setting forth as far as practicable the position, boundaries, and extent of the land referred to. This application is referred to the Surveyor-General and also to the Divisonal Council as a local land board, who may make an inspection and report as to any circumstances connected with it, and give instructions as to survey, diagram, &c., being prepared, the amount of cost of which the applicant may be called upon at once to deposit. These reports being favourable, the Surveyor-General takes steps for fixing a day for the sale of the land, which, after being duly advertised, is held by public auction at the office of the civil commissioner of the division. It is usual to name an upset price which will cover at least the expenses of inspection, survey, erection of beacons, and title-deed, and then it is disposed of to the highest bidder. The conditions as to payment of the purchase-money are, that the survey expenses be paid on the day of sale, and one fourth of the balance within three months after, failing which the sale lapses. When the sale is effected the purchaser has the option of discharging the whole or any portion of the remaining three-fourths of the purchase amount at once, or by passing the necessary

bond to mortgage the land for the balance, payable in three instalments at five, six, and seven years respectively, with interest at 6 per cent. per annum.

Parties wishing to secure small pieces of Government land adjacent to their own properties, and within the watershed, may make application for the same, and according to the recommendation of the Divisional Council or the Surveyor-General, such ground may be so allotted or divided amongst two or more farms as may be deemed just and expedient, at a reasonable and equitable price to be fixed by the Council and approved of by the Governor not being less than the expenses of survey, deed, &c., and subject to a quitrent.

Of late years, the Land Law of 1860 has not been so largely availed of as previously, excepting for the purposes last mentioned of securing particular lots of land.

The Act of 1870, which enables lease-holders to convert their leases into perpetual quitrent tenure, is now more generally taken advantage of by those who are desirous of making purchases of extensive tracts of the waste lands. The mode of leasing is regulated by Act 19 of 1864 and Act 4 of 1867, which empower the Governor, with the advice of the Divisional Council, to offer lands for lease at public auction for a term not exceeding twenty-one years, to the bidder of the highest annual rent, not being less than an upset price fixed according to the average value of the land. The lands offered for lease, and the terms and conditions of lease are advertised from time to time in the *Government Gazette*, and the local papers. The rent is to be paid annually, and payment for the first three years is to be secured by sufficient securities, but a payment of two years' rent in advance may be made in lieu of giving such securities. The lease is not transferable, nor to be sublet, either wholly or in

part, without the previous sanction of the Government, but the latter has the right at any time of resuming the whole or part of the land so leased on giving compensation to the lessee or remitting portion of the rent as may be agreed upon by arbitration. When a lease has not been sold for the upset price at auction, the Governor may dispose of it by tender or private contract, at any rent exceeding the highest offered at the sale, but only for a term of twelve months, when it has again to be put up to public sale, and if a higher bid than the private offer should then be made, and proper security given, Government is bound to grant the lease to such highest bidder.

The liberty of purchase of the property so leased is provided for by Act No. 5 of 1870, which gives to the Government the option of selling, but requires that the sum received shall not be less than that which capitalized or reckoned as a principal sum at six per cent. would produce a yearly rent equal to the rent reserved on such lease; and in the event of the amount demanded by Government being greater than such principal sum, the matter may be referred to arbitration. The land is also subject to a perpetual quitrent of one per cent. on the purchase-money. As soon as the price is agreed upon, the amount may be paid at once, when title will be immediately granted, or the purchaser may pay it in three instalments, the first forthwith, and the other two at intervals of one year respectively; but until the entire sum is paid the terms of the subsisting lease continue.

The progress of the occupation of land under the leasing Act of 1864 has been very marked. During 1866 the quantity of land leased was 605,118 morgen; in 1867, it was 731,372 morgen; in 1868 it was 137,345 morgen; in 1869, 1,154,759 morgen; in 1871, 1,730,729 morgen; in 1872, 2,051,354 morgen; and in 1873, 1,625,159 morgen. The rents paid vary according to locality and circumstances. In 1867 the

average yearly rent realised *per* 100 *morgen* was in Albany, £2 4s.; in Cradock, £2 5s. 4d.; in Hope Town, 16s. 8d.; in Colesberg, £1 10s. 3d.; in Fraserburg, 13s. 8d.; in Riversdale, 3s. 3d.; in Worcester (Karoo), 1s. 6d.; in Richmond, £1 0s. 8d.; in Malmesbury, £2; and (in 1868) at Graaff-Reinet, 19s. 9d.; Murraysburg, £1 1s.; Victoria West, 8s. 2d.; Namaqualand, 11s.; Hope Town, 18s. 1d.; and Cradock, £1 3s. 9d. In 1873, the rents *per* 100 *morgen* were:—At Humansdorp, 12s.; Clanwilliam, 3s.; Uitenhage, £2 9s.; Robertson, 14s.; Victoria West, £1 3s.; Beaufort West, £2 5s.; Queen's Town, £4; Cradock, £3 18s.; Prince Albert, 15s.; Fraserburg, 18s. The rate for King William's Town division was £16 14s. per 100 morgen, but this is exceptional, being principally for Kabousie allotments with commonage rights, and otherwise for comparatively small sections of good land. The rate of rents for the whole Colony for 1873 was £1 6s., and excluding King William's Town, £1 3s. per 100 morgen.

The increase of the rent-roll of the Colony is shown by the following returns of the land revenue from 1870:—

	1870.	1871.	1872.	1873.
Quitrent	£24,726	£25,807	£27,127	£25,725
Lease Rent under Act 19 of 1864	19,797	28,683	46,582	62,429
Do. other Leases	8,999	10,297	15,523	9,306
Hut Tax	8,384	11,052	10,656	12,275
Islands	1,636	1,246	1,548	983
Timber Licences	662	1,120	1,530	2,549
Fishing do.	...	..	...	63
Mineral Leases	43	51	152	86
Licences to Grazing Cattle	1,116	1,513	932	577
Do. remove Guano and Salt ...	542	623	209	333
Do. cut Firewood	...	...	...	...
Sundry Receipts	38	15	21	39
Total ...	£65,935	£80,407	£104,280	£114,365

From the preceding, it will be seen that the rents received in 1873 for waste lands leased under Act 19 of 1864 amounted to £62,429. This at six per cent. (the minimum rate of conversion) would give upwards of £1,000,000 as representing the value of the lands then surveyed and leased if realised under the provisions of Act No. 5 of 1870. The survey of many more millions of morgen of these waste lands is still proceeding, and from time to time these are put up to public competition.

The purchase-amount of the lands sold under the Act 5 of 1870, up to the end of 1873 approached near to £300,000 besides yielding a perpetual quitrent of one per cent. per annum. The whole of this capital sum was until lately placed to the credit of the sinking fund, set apart for the liquidation of the Colonial debt; but now it is included in the general revenue available for carrying on railway and other works. A sinking fund for the repayment of the colonial debt has been specially provided by the Consolidated Public Debts Act of 1870, which will secure the extinction of the whole debt in thirty-seven years.

The following figures showing the extent of the lots of Crown lands sold, and the average value per morgen* paid for them in 1873, will inform the reader of the price at which these lands may be acquired in the Cape Colony:—

Amount and Value of Crown Lands sold in 1873.

Division.	Extent of Lots.				Rate per Morgen.		
	Morgen.	Sqr. Rds.	Morgen.	Sqr. Rds.	£	s.	d.
Aliwal North	705	..	..	...	0	12	9
Albert	1,224	20	..	..	0	10	0
Albany	1,486	..	..	..	0	16	2

* A morgen may be assumed as equal to 2.11654016 imperial acres.

PRICE OF LAND.

Division.	Extent of Lots.				Rate per Morgen.		
	Morgen.	Sqr. Rds.	Morgen.	Sqr. Rds.	£	s.	d.
Beaufort West.. ..	from 367	300	to 11,607	516	0	1	6
Bedford	„ 674	..	„ 1,721	213	0	8	4
Bathurst	„ 1,077	477	..	..	0	7	6
Cradock	„ 295	291	„ 3,205	252	0	7	0
Colesberg	„ 556	174	„ 7,284	17	0	2	8
Calvinia	„ 1,317	359	..	..	0	1	6
Cape	5	275	..	..	20	0	0
Clanwilliam	„ 2,433	398	„ 2,635	133	0	0	5
East London	„ 559	30	..	..	1	3	10
Fraserberg	„ 1,007	235	„ 14,362	280	0	2	2
Graaff-Reinet	„ 134	230	„ 10,200	450	0	3	0
Hope Town	„ 136	6	„ 10,866	...	0	5	10
King William's Town..	„ 26	240	„ 885	85	1	2	1
Mossel Bay	„ 1,060	240	..	..	0	5	6
Prince Albert	„ 507	96	„ 5,214	10	0	1	5
Queen's Town	„ 228	34	„ 6,420	526	0	9	6
Robertson	„ 397	280	„ 4,628	531	0	2	1
Richmond	„ 1,878	569	„ 13,034	208	0	2	10
Swellendam	„ 525	425	„ 72,714	381	0	2	6
Somerset East.. ..	„ 564	330	„ 2,239	384	0	10	1
Tulbagh	„ 3,618	5	„ 8,362	270	0	1	3
Uitenhage	„ 282	444	„ 5,358	253	0	5	7
Victoria West	„ 134	350	„ 28,989	270	0	2	10
Worcester	„ 3,634	304	„ 17,997	512	0	0	11
Wodehouse	„ 837	565	..	..	0	6	0

PASTORAL AND AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES.

The Colony in its varied aspects and conditions, as already described, gives scope for every kind of pastoral and agricultural occupation. Numerous flocks of sheep and goats, and herds of cattle and horses, feed entirely on the natural plants and grasses; wheat, and all sorts of grain, give astonishing returns from the soil; and most of the products of the temperate or semi-tropical zone may with moderate ease and trouble be successfully cultivated. Farming here is accordingly, in judicious and industrious hands, a profitable as well as an independent employment.

It should be understood, however, by persons who are desirous of pushing their fortunes in this direction, that an initiation into the colonial peculiarities of climate, seasons, soil, pasture, management of stock, and, it may be added, native labour, as well as vernacular Dutch, the spoken language of the country, will be of very essential service. A new-comer would therefore do well to take up his residence for a time, or even to seek an engagement for a short period, with a good colonial farmer, whence he would soon acquire a knowledge and an experience that would be invaluable, and which with energy and enterprise would ensure success.

The conditions of life upon a Cape farm are much dependent upon the locality and character of the place. In the old settled districts—especially Stellenbosch, Drakenstein, and the Paarl—there are many magnificent estates, the possession of which one would be loth to exchange for all the attractions of a Con-

tinental principality. Situate on the hillsides, or nestling in the valleys, the homesteads are surrounded by trimly-kept vineyards and corn lands, or embowered among trees, orangeries, or orchards. They are large, substantial, white-washed, thatch-roofed dwellings, built of stone or brick, with a paved stoep or terrace along the front, and an ornamental central gable rising over the doorway to the level of the ridge of the roof, in the old Flemish style. The rooms are usually lofty, cool, and spacious, with polished boarded floors and ceiling, formed of the colonial yellow-wood. In many of these houses will be found every finished comfort of home life—music, pictures, books, and flowers, indicating the culture and tastes of the family; and the visitor who is introduced to them is invariably treated and cared for, during all the time of his stay, with unbounded hospitality. On the front and rear of the main dwellings there are long ranges of outbuildings, forming the wine cellars, grain stores, stables, and servants' quarters. Then there is generally an enclosure for cows and heifers, a kraal for sheep or goats, or a camp for ostriches. There is also an open square, termed the "werf," where three or four horses may be picking leisurely at the grass, while knee-haltered —that is, the head attached to the fore leg by a thong, tied in a peculiar knot below the knee. Or, standing under the trees on one side, there will be a Cape cart—something like an English spring dogcart, but covered with a tent of white canvas, supported on a light wooden frame-work. Or, failing the cart, there will be the genuine Cape ox wagon, with its glistening white canvas tilt, the heavy "reimschoen" beneath and the long "trektow" with its yokes attached, coiled neatly together and lying against the head of the pole or "disselboom," and the great bamboo whip-stick and thong of plaited hide laid carefully along the side.

Within a radius of about a hundred miles from Cape Town, homesteads with surroundings of such a description may be seen at short intervals, almost within sight of each other; but after crossing the mountains and entering the Karoo they are few and far apart. The dwellings then met with are of a more primitive fashion—small houses of stone, or soft brick, thatched with straw or reeds, the rooms only three or four in number, and the floors of earth, or clay, or smeared with cattle manure—while adjacent to them are the sheep kraals, and a few huts or "pondoks" (the native shepherds' quarters), where ebony-coloured urchins are rolling about in company of goats, fowls, or tame springboks. The picture may be relieved by some weather-beaten thorn or fig trees, or a clump of poplars, with a little bit of garden and cultivated ground; but usually it is bare and desolate enough. Many occupiers of such places are for several months of the year on the "trek,"—moving away with their flocks for change of pasture, and they and their families enjoying the healthy air of the plains, and living for weeks together in wagons or tents, or reed huts known as "haartebeeste houses"—only returning to their homes after the rains have fallen, when the fresh young grass has sprung up, or the aromatic bushes are flowering, and the country to the grazier's eye is "supremely beautiful."

The residences of the principal flock-masters in the Midland districts are, however, very comfortable quarters. Many of them, indeed, are big establishments, sometimes approaching to little villages, and embracing trading places which supply the general wants of themselves and neighbours, who may be far distant from a township. The stores at such stations combine everything for which a demand is likely to arise—produce as frequently as money being taken in exchange for the merchandise. There may also be a

smith's or a wagon maker's shop, a mill, or a wayside hotel, all carried on by the same energetic individual, uniting the superintendence of these matters with the ordinary avocation of sheep, cattle, or ostrich farming. This business versatility is, however, more generally met with as one proceeds northward and eastward. In the Eastern and Border districts, too, the farmhouses are of the square, brick-built English style, sometimes having thatch, or tile, but generally flat, or corrugated iron roofs, with cosy, comfortable interiors. Along the undulating slopes of Lower Albany, and over the mound-shaped hills of British Kaffraria, more than anywhere else, these settlers' homes approach in appearance to those of the rural districts of the old country.

Sheep and wool form the chief pastoral productions of the Colony, affording occupation to the greater part of its inhabitants, and contributing the principal amount to its exports. The origin of this industry dates back about eighty years. A Colonel Gordon, who was then (1790) in the Dutch service, received some thoroughbred Spanish rams from Europe. A few of these he parted with to the Van Reenen family, who made a commencement with them among ewes of the Cape hairy sheep, and in nine years afterwards 150 of these half-bred sheep gave them 3,300 head, carrying a good fleece. After Colonel Gordon's death several of his pure flock were taken by the captain of a merchant vessel from the Cape to New South Wales, where they fell into the hands of Captain McArthur, and formed the original stock of the merino sheep in that part of Australia.

Prior to this, the old colonists had the hairy, fat-tailed sheep of the country, which made very good mutton, and was prized for cooking purposes—the heavy tail taking the place of lard, while the skin was highly valued for tanning for home-made shoes,

jackets, and even breeches, familiarly known as "velbrooken." The farmers were very slow to appreciate the advantage of the wool-bearing animals. Apathy, and the prejudice proverbially ascribed to pastoral inhabitants in all countries; also the want of ready money to pay for rams, and the suggested difficulty of getting the fleece washed on the sheep's back—in those days considered a *sine qua non*—all contributed to impede the new enterprise. Still, in 1804, a merchant in Cape Town, Mr. McDonald, was able to purchase from one grower 4,000 lb. of wool for exportation. Another grower, who had been presented by a mercantile firm with a merino ram, came up from the Graaff-Reinet district to market with his usual supply of butter, skins, &c., and about 50 lb. or 100 lb. of wool from the first cross. After disposing of his load, he exhibited his small bag of wool, and several merchants purposely ran it up to a fictitious price—the astonished Boer receiving as much for it as for his whole load of butter. He returned home with his wagon full of rams, and the story of his wool sale did more than any argument, entreaty, or arbitrary order of the Government could have done to make what was then known as the country around the Sneeuwberg a wool-producing district.

At a later period, flocks of pure-bred sheep, similar to Lord Western's stock, were imported by Governor Lord Charles Somerset, and kept at the Government farm at Groote Post; and several others were introduced by the English settlers of 1820. Once the industry was fairly set in motion, a spirit of rivalry amongst those engaged in it was soon evoked. Messrs. Reitz and Breda, in Swellendam; Mr. Van Reenen, of Ganze Kraal; Mr. Eksteen, of Platte Kloof; and Mr. Proctor, of Drooge Vley, in the west; and Lieut. Daniell and Mr. T. White, in the district of Albany, Mr. Dalgairns, of Uitenhage, and others in the east,

entered actively into it, and in 1830 the shipment of wool rose to 33,000lb. During the time that has since elapsed it has multiplied and increased with wonderful rapidity, the export now advancing close upon fifty million pounds—equalling, if not actually surpassing, that of New South Wales and of New Zealand, and only eclipsed by the colony of Victoria.

Of late years our more intelligent sheep farmers have fully realised the advantages of pure blood, and have imported and bred pure merino flocks, by which means the general average of the quality of our wool is greatly improved. They have also eschewed the introduction of any kind of English long-wool sheep into their flocks, but endeavoured to perfect the quality of the pure merino by judicious breeding and selection. By this means several very fine flocks have been established here, and we shall in a few years, if the same sensible course is preserved, be able successfully to compete, as to quality, with the finest clips in the London wool markets.*

Sheep farms are of various sizes. The general average is somewhere above 3,000 morgen, or 6,000 acres. There are some, however, that are four or five times this extent; but then on these, as on even the smaller ones, there are out-stations, or divisions of both flocks and farm, under the care of separate herds. The old and still most common practice of farming is to graze the flocks by day, under the care of a herd, who guides their depasturing over the part of the farm allotted to the special flock under his charge, and at evening time

* The Rambouillet breed have recently been greatly in favour. Mr. Van der Byl, of Nachtwacht, Caledon, has had from one ram and four ewes, imported five years ago, a progeny of 69; and of these he has sold several rams, a few months old, to neighbouring farmers for about £30 a-piece. The weight of fleece in the grease from these sheep is 16 lb.

drives them home to the kraal, where they are kept all night. The kraal, or fold, is made of various materials, the commonest fences being a high, thick hedge of thorny bushes, or an enclosure built with blocks cut out of the accumulated dung and *debris* of the old kraal. Stone walls are erected in many places where stones are handy, and in some of the more exposed situations, where the farmer has the enterprise and the ability, the stone walls are converted into sheds. The coming home of the flocks at night is a pretty sight, and gives the full opportunity to the owners to count them, look to their health, and other matters of management, as well as to check depredations both human and brute. But whatever may have been, or is still, the necessity of the case, this kraaling has no doubt an injurious effect both on the farm and the flocks, injuring the wool and the health of the sheep, collecting the manure and strength of the land into great useless heaps many feet deep, and wearing out the pasture by the constant treading of the ever-moving animals. Arrangements are being made by some of the eastern and western farmers by which the sheep can run night and day, and feed and rest at their leisure in the open veldt, and many miles of fences for this purpose have already been put up.

One of the chief diseases to which the sheep are subject is the scab; this, though not fatal, or only so as it reduces the strength and condition of the sheep and renders them unable to bear bad weather, is a great trouble to the farmer. The "gal zeickte," or gall sickness is also a common disease, and the chief barrier to the rearing and grazing of sheep in the Zuurveldt. There are a few other diseases, such as the geel, tongue, and various forms of fever, which in some parts of the country are occasionally fatal. Another of them is the "fluke," the cause of the rot, so well known in England. This scourge is

confined to certain localities, and, though it causes the loss of numbers of sheep now and then, is not so destructive as in the old countries of Europe. All over the sheep-farming districts there are large spaces of ground which are saltish, known as "brak;" and though the ordinary herbage of the surrounding veldt will not grow on these brak patches, salt bushes flourish there, and this, with the ground itself, which the sheep lick, will be, or rather is, found a remedy or preventative to the spread of this parasite. We have heard of no cases of fluke in the Karoo. As the salt bush in Australia prevents or cures fluke, so the bitter and saline plants of the Karoo are a preventative.

There are some farms that used to carry sheep well which do not now answer for them at all. This deterioration has been brought about by one or two more prominent causes. The first is overstocking when the food gets scarce, as in time of drought the sheep eat all the good plants down into the quick, and they die, and as a consequence the inferior, useless, and unwholesome kind get an advantage and increase. The next most obvious cause is the constant treading of the sheep, by which the finer particles of the soil get loosened, and in heavy rains washed away. The remedy proposed is fencing-in these farms, and giving them rest; and under such treatment there is hope they will in some degree recover, especially if some little trouble is taken to extirpate useless weeds and encourage the growth of grasses and other good and nutritious plants. Some of the frontier farmers are adopting the old plan of occupying two farms—one suitable to the summer, and another for the winter. This, when it can be carried out, is obviously of considerable advantage, and in times of drought will be found specially useful. While the lands at the ordinary level may be scorched and dried up, there

is usually some rain, and consequently grass, on the mountain ranges which constitute the summer farms.

Since the discovery of the Diamond-fields the prices of all kinds of sheep have greatly increased. Three or four years ago one could buy good "hamels" (wethers) for 8s. 6d. each; they are now, if fat, worth fully double as much, and well-bred stock ewes about the same price, or ordinary ones, about 10s. or 15s. each. Of course such prices make the increase, or surplus, which is one of the sources of profit on sheep farming, a very considerable item.

The average clip of wool in the twelve months from the very best flocks in good seasons is about 8 lb. of grease wool per sheep; if this wool fetches 8d., which some of it does, we have the annual return per head of 5s. 4d. But then, as already stated, the increase is also a large item of profit in good years. A ewe flock is supposed to raise 75 per cent. of its lambs, so that, if there is an equal number of ewes and wethers in a flock, we may predicate its doubling itself in four years. Of course we are here speaking of a good well-bred flock, with good management, in a fair season.*

Some flocks there are that do not return 5 lb. of wool, and the wool scarcely fetches over 5d. per lb., and the increase is nothing at all—either on account of bad management, or being on a poor, worked-out farm. In times of severe drought the best flocks and the best farms cannot yield, of course, but a comparatively poor return. The last two years were very trying ones to the flockmasters, there being a great drought over some of the finest districts, so that the total wool export for 1873 was only 40,000,000 lb., and for 1874 43,000,000 lb., against 48,000,000 lb. for 1872, which was the largest hitherto known.

* We know of an instance in which 1,300 mixed sheep increased to 4,000 in less than four years.

Very many of our sheep farmers have flocks of goats—in most cases the common goat of the country, but often mixed with various grades of Angora blood. These original goats are a very hardy race of animals, and live where sheep cannot, and supply meat which, though not equal to Southdown wether mutton, is quite passable, and very useful on a farm. They breed and increase very fast, having as many as five kids at a birth, and seldom less than two, and are, altogether, a useful animal, yielding a famous and valuable skin.* We hardly think a goat farm would pay by itself; yet a number of these animals are useful, and not at all, or but very little, in the way of the sheep.

Angoras are comparatively a recent introduction. The first were brought to the Cape by a Colonel Henderson in 1836, and the stock obtained from them found its way to Caledon, Swellendam, Graaff-Reniet, and Richmond. Messrs. Mosenthal Brothers, who appreciated the value and importance of a fleece-bearing goat as next to a wool-bearing sheep, tried to obtain some pure-bred animals from Angora, and, in 1856, succeeded in doing so. About the same time Dr. White obtained some fine stock, through Sir Titus Salt, and since then several importations have been effected by other private individuals and mercantile firms. Unfortunately the same process of bastardisation was perpetrated on the imported Angoras as was originally tried on the pure merinos, and, as we believe, to the detriment of both. In the case of Angoras, we had better have stuck to the pure blood, and depended alone on the natural increase for the extension of this

*The Cape goat skin is unequalled for the manufacture of superior leathers. Between 300,000 and 400,000 of these are sold annually in the London market, where they have realised as high as 95s. the dozen. They are tanned in bark for the manufacture of black leather, and in shumac for that of coloured leather, called morocco.—*Vide* "Robinson's Report on Vienna Exhibition, 1873."

industry, than have filled the country with cross bred nondescripts, that give neither profit nor satisfaction to their owners. So much is the disadvantage of such a method of breeding that many farmers are saying Angoras won't pay, and returning to the old hairy sort. Several of the larger breeders, however, are fully aware of the value of pure blood, and are raising flocks of true and uncrossed animals, although it will take a little longer to get a large flock. Amongst these breeders of pure stock we may mention Mr. J. B. Evans, in the Zwaart Ruggens, whose clip of 5,000lb. was sold the other day at Port Elizabeth for 3s. per lb. Softness and fineness and lustre are the prime qualities desired by the manufacturers in mohair, and some samples sent out from the Chamber of Commerce at Bradford well illustrated this fact; for while one sample was valued by these gentlemen at the metropolis of the mohair trade at 6s. per lb., others, and all from Asia Minor, were valued at 3s. 6d. It is alone a study of samples of mohair, under the guidance and counsel of the manufacturers, that will enable a farmer to understand what quality is most valued and more valuable; and it is the want of this knowledge that has misled so many in the matter of crossing.

Angoras are the prettiest and merriest of our domestic animals, and to see them coming home through the veldt and bushes in the evening is a sight any lover of animals would delight in. They look like animated streams of pure milk flowing on towards the homestead; while their gambols and pranks—very much like practical jokes, which they play off on each other—are very amusing. Owing to their being all white, and to the circumstance of their generally lambing at the same time (as many as 100 kids being dropped at Mr. Evans's in one day), they require a great deal of care in the lambing season. The animals themselves seem to be puzzled to recognise their

young, and for a day or two the kids have to be given to them. A time of drought, when the poor creatures have little milk, is also very trying to the farmer. The fleece is generally in perfection in July, and it must then be taken from the animal, as otherwise it begins to shed the best hair, and the growth of the short summer hair begins to push its way amongst the long, greatly to the depreciation in value of the latter. July being one of the coldest months, there is much danger of losing one's whole flock if a cold rain should set in, as with their coats off they cannot stand any inclement weather. Sheds are therefore indispensable to shelter the goats for a fortnight or so after shearing. In Asia Minor it is said that three drops of rain falling on a goat after it is shorn is enough to kill it.

The advantage of breeding Angoras is that they scarcely interfere with the pasture of the sheep flocks, and will often live on herbage the latter discard; whilst the fleece, if improved, commands a high price, and is an important addition to the exportable products of the country. Although mohair only began to figure on our exports in 1862, the quantity then being 1,036 lb., in 1871 it increased to 536,292 lb., valued at £43,000, and it advanced in 1874 to over 1,000,000 lb., valued at £107,139. This production now nearly equals that of the vilayet or province of Angora itself—for the consular reports from there for 1873 give the export of mohair (best and fair average qualities) at 902,800 lb., valued at £124,000. The vilayet of Kistamboul also produces largely, and the total quantity of all sorts exported from Turkey in 1873 was 5,120,000 lb., obtaining an average price in England of 2s. 10d. per lb. The British consul at Constantinople says that, exceptionally severe weather coming at the time of kidding, has lately (in 1873) caused disastrous losses in the Angora and other districts—the losses at a moderate estimate being set

down at 70 per cent. of the stock—which cannot but have a considerable effect upon the production for several future years.

Another new branch of farming which has now become a very important one, is the domestication and breeding of ostriches. One of the first to try it in the Colony was the late Mr. Kinnear, of Beaufort West. He commenced about 1860, and his success in breeding and rearing these birds was such as to induce many persons, far and wide, to enter upon what has since proved to be a very interesting and highly remunerative pursuit. On an eight-acre garden plot, attached to his residence in the town of Beaufort West, he had at the time of our visit, in 1870, a flock of thirty birds, and several broods of young ones. A portion of the eight acres was divided by hedges into paddocks, sown with lucerne; the remainder was formed into kraals, or small enclosures, where the birds were pairing, the male and female sitting alternately on the nests in carrying on the natural process of incubation. Adjoining the spot there were one or two outhouses and sheds, where the young birds were sheltered in cold weather, and where the old ones were penned up at the time of feather-gathering, to be relieved of their valuable plumage. Mr. Kinnear's observations on the management and habits of the birds were communicated by him at that time in the following memorandum:—

The number of birds that can be kept on a given area of pasture depends entirely on its quality. A full-grown ostrich will consume 20lb. of chopped lucerne, a sheep 12lb., and a horse of 14 hands 70lb. The birds do not like grass, or green forage; they prefer cabbage leaves, fruit, grain, &c., but for permanent food there is nothing equal to lucerne, or clover.

As far as my experience has gone, they do not lay in general until they are 4 years old or upwards; a very few lay at 3, more at 4, and some not till 5. Out of 6 cocks I had, but one was capable of pairing at 3 years old, four at 4 years, and one not until 5.

In a wild state, there are sometimes as many as five hens to one cock. I think there should always be two; but then there should be an incubator for the surplus eggs, which cannot be covered. If, however, there are equal numbers of cocks and hens, I separate them into pairs. The cock should not, I think, be separated from any of the hens after pairing. The birds for the most part begin to lay about the beginning of August, and continue for about six weeks, when they commence hatching. In about a month or six weeks after they have done hatching (at least if the young birds have been removed) they begin to lay again, and continue a month or five weeks. At the first laying they lay from 15 to 20 eggs, and at the second from 12 to 16.

Incubation lasts from six to seven weeks from the time the bird begins to sit. I take the young ones away when they are so strong that they leave the nest, which is in a day or two. Some persons leave them with the hen, and often give several broods to one hen, in which case they are driven into a shed at night, or during wet weather, as they are very sensible to cold or wet. The hen with the chicks is kept apart from the others. The chicks get for food chopped lucerne, cut as young as possible, as they do not like the stalks, and some grains of wheat may be scattered about for them to pick up, and also maize, as they get older. Clover would do as well as lucerne, and perhaps vetches. I also give them sand, earth, and crushed quartz and bones, and as much water as they please. They like to bathe, and roll in the dust. If taken away from the hen, they should be kept warm, especially at night. I put mine into a high box, with a woolly sheepskin to lie on, and the top covered so as to retain the warmth, but taking care there is sufficient air. In very cold weather I heat the room, and don't allow the birds to get out until the weather gets warm again.

The above observations are general, and from my own experience. There are, of course, exceptions. For instance, I have heard that a hen has hatched at 2½ years old; and I had last year one hen of 10 years old, which laid only three eggs at the first laying, and did not sit or lay any more at all, although she frequently paired. I had also a pair of three-year-old birds which laid at both layings, but did not sit. The male sat now and then for a day or two, but the hen would not. The following year they hatched two birds. I had another pair which did not lay till they were 4½ years old. The hen is sitting now, but the cock not. Another pair, now nearly five years old, has not yet laid. Last year I had a pair of eight years old, which hatched the first brood; but at the second laying the hen did not sit, although the cock sat off and on fo a week.

Previous to this, the artificial incubation of ostrich eggs occupied the attention of others who had followed Mr. Kinnear's example in domesticating the birds. Dr. Atherstone, of Graham's Town, was one of the first to suggest the process, and his suggestion was taken up by Mr. A. Douglas, of Hilton, near Graham's Town, who afterwards patented an improved apparatus made by himself. Similar appliances, with modifications, by Dr. Lawrence, of George, and others, are now in use all over the country. Mr. Douglas's success has, however, been as notable as any. In 1872, from six breeding birds—four hens and two cocks—he reared a progeny of 130. In the following year the season was not so favourable, owing to severe drought, the increase being but 120 from 20 breeding birds, and last year the number hatched was 140 birds. Considering that the value of an ostrich a week old is now about £10, and that its value increases rapidly as it grows older, it will be apparent that ostrich breeding at present pays remarkably well.

In some parts of the Colony, where there are considerable flocks, the birds have extensive runs, and are depastured and driven something like sheep; but generally they are enclosed in camps, within fences or rough stone walls. When paired and breeding, they are allotted small paddocks, fenced in with wire and bush, as the male birds at such a time are vicious and dangerous to approach. The eggs, which are laid in a hole slightly scooped in the ground, are collected and taken away, to be placed in the incubator, one or two being left, or artificial ones placed in their stead, till, perhaps at the end of the season, one or both hens are allowed to sit. In this way the birds, if kept in good condition, continue to lay for a longer time, and there is no injury to their feathers from sitting. The artificial hatching has proved quite a success. Mr. J. M. Beyers, of Nooitgedacht, near Stellenbosch, has seve-

ral of these machines at work, and out of every dozen eggs deposited in them it is seldom that more than one of the number fails to generate. The incubator consists of a wooden box about three feet square, opened from above, and capable of containing 25 eggs. It rests upon a copper or zinc pan, or cistern, three inches deep, and equal to the size of the box. This is filled with hot water, and has four or five openings through which the vapour ascends into the box. The warm temperature of the water is maintained by a paraffin lamp, kept burning underneath the pan; but in some cases this has been found objectionable, as the fumes of the lamp affect the young chicks as they leave the egg, and it is an improvement to have the lamp burning in an adjoining apartment,—an extension of the cistern or pan about a foot wide, being carried through the partition, or wall, and the lamp placed under it. The heat can be regulated as necessary, thermometers being constantly in use. The temperature of the box where the eggs are placed is 102° Fahr. when they are first put in; after two weeks it is gradually reduced to 100°, and in two weeks more to 98°. The period of incubation is 42 days. The eggs are turned and aired, by opening the box and blanket-covering once or twice a day. A fortnight before the expiry of the time, they are held up against the light to examine their condition, and a week after are slightly, but carefully, punctured near the top with a sharp pointed steel, to enable any of the chicks in weak condition the more readily to break the shell. When hatched they are turned out, kept warm, and fed with cut lucerne, and allowed to run about their enclosures like ordinary fowls. Last year Mr. Beyers had 24 birds breeding—8 males and 16 females—and he has turned out a brood of upwards of 100 chickens. The large birds are fed on grain of all sorts—5 lb. of food per day keeping them in excellent condition,

varied with lucerne, bones, crushed granite, and shells from the neighbouring beach. The young birds that are not old enough to breed run in troops of forty or fifty together, and make up a comical and very docile lot of domestic fowls. They live principally on grass and other herbage, but readily eat Indian corn.

In some of the inland divisions there are still numbers of ostriches running wild; these are now carefully preserved by the owners of the land on which they live. In the breeding season their nests are watched from a distance by a man placed on some eminence commanding a view, who every now and then visits the nests. As the time approaches for the chicks to break the egg, a very close watch is kept upon the birds, and the young caught and removed before they are more than a day or two old. On the occasion of the leasing of some of the waste lands of George and Beaufort lately, the Civil Commissioners were astonished at the keen competition for some arid spots, which fetched prices far above the valuation officially set upon them; but it was afterwards ascertained that this arose solely from the fact of these localities being frequented by wild ostriches, whose nests would become the property of the lessees, and yield them a handsome return.

The feathers, of course, are the produce for which the birds are bred. The plucking of each adult bird gives as much as from £10 to £18—prime white feathers fetching from £35 to £45 per lb., while others of the wing and tail are also very profitable. There is little likelihood of this beautiful article of dress or ornament becoming out of fashion. With increased production prices may rule lower; but there is a very wide margin, and it will be some years before ostrich breeders need fear the effects of over production, or that they will be farming at a loss.

Horse-breeding was formerly a favourite pursuit,

and the requirements for the remount of the army, and the sporting tastes of Indian visitors, made it both pleasant and profitable. But the horse sickness which spread over the greater part of the Colony in an epidemic form, in 1853-4, sweeping away no less than 70,000, shattered many of the breeding establishments; in many instances, indeed, parties relinquished them altogether for sheep and other stock. An official inquiry was made into the origin, progress, and effects of the malady which had so disastrous an effect, and the results were published in a pamphlet by the late Mr. T. B. Bayley—himself one of the leading horse-breeders, and a loser by the scourge. The facts established were that the sickness is produced by exposure to the night air in a season of *malaria*, arising from causes not clearly known; that horses stabled before sunset, and not turned out to graze before the dew is off the grass, are safe from its attacks, though exceptional cases may occur; and that relatively high and dry elevations are comparatively free from it. Notwithstanding the diminished number of breeders, the demand for horses at the time of the occurrence of the Indian Mutiny, in 1858-9, served to show the capabilities of the Colony were still very considerable. Upwards of 5,600 horses and 100 mules were shipped from here by the Indian remount agents,—the average cost of each horse sent, including shipping and all charges, which were naturally high at a time of such emergency, being about £65.

The wonderfully hardy and enduring qualities of the Cape horses have been acknowledged by all who know them. Staff Veterinary-Surgeon Thacker, in his report on the horse trade in the colonies in 1874, says that while he was serving "in the Cape and Kafirland, sixty and eighty miles a day were frequently accomplished, the horse having no other food than grass;" and Colonel Apperley, the late remount

agent at the Cape, writes: "Cape horses are peculiar animals. I admit they are not handsome; but they surpass any horse I have seen out of Europe in their untiring and unflinching endurance during the longest and hottest days of the year." The original stock came from South America; they were afterwards improved by pure Arabs, who gave them their characteristic of good constitution and indomitable pluck; and they have since had a large infusion of English thoroughbred blood. During the past fifty years, from Lord Charles Somerset's time to the present, upwards of 200 sires, many of whose names are distinguished in the stud book, were imported and have done good service to our horse-breeders as well as contributed to the race courses of the Colony, Mauritius, and India, sons and daughters worthy of their lineage. Among other introductions for stud purposes were Mr. Martin, Gorhambury, Sponge, Evenus, Rococco, Sarabaud, Student, Bismarck, Brian Boru, Nugget, Belladrum by Stockwell, and Robin by North Lincoln, while more recently there have been Gladiator, Minstrel, St. George, Commissioner, Belfast by Stockwell, Prince by Daniel O'Rourke, Bossington by Camerino, Catalpa by Maccaroni, Ivanhoe by Broomielaw, and the Maid Marian colt by King Tom out of Maid Marian. Several dams have also been brought out, more attention being given to the character of the brood mares than formerly. The number of breeding establishments, however, is very small, several of those who delighted in this branch of farming having lately passed away. The principal studs in the West are those of Mr. A. Van der Byl, Nachtwacht; Mr. C. Barry, Mr. Manuel, Mr. Melck, and Mr. Kotzé. The increased demand for good horses is such, however, as to encourage others to enter upon breeding, and in some of the midland and eastern districts there are indications of a

reaction in favour of this line of business. Last season thoroughbred colts sold at prices ranging from £150 to £300 for one to three year olds, and the other day one only a fortnight old was purchased for £100. Most of them are secured by up-country buyers, and in a little time afterwards change hands for double and treble the amount in the Eastern and Northern districts and the Free State.

Horned cattle were found in tolerable abundance when the Dutch first settled at the Cape, and for brass beads and buttons, tobacco, and tinder-boxes, the aboriginal Ottentoos were always willing to supply the shipping and the garrison. In time, as the Colony became occupied by Europeans, the Dutch breed was introduced to cross with, and although the thorough native species have well-nigh become extinct, a dash of the long-horned Hottentot breed is not discarded when long journeys on bad roads and often starvation allowance as to grass are required. The cattle now met are made up of contributions from nearly every breed known in England and Holland; and it would appear that the only idea of improving their cattle many breeders have had was to cross them with some other breed, no matter what, so that they could obtain a cross. Some of our more intelligent men, however, now see the advantages of pure blood, and have been selecting their herds for some time past, and some good short-horned bulls of undoubted pedigree have been got direct from the first breeders in England.

A good extent of pasturage along the coast, and in the Eastern and Northern districts, are well adapted for cattle, more especially the Zuurveld. In these places, of late, cattle-breeding must have been a very remunerative occupation. Many, or nearly all, of the farmers in the Zuurberg district are not only cattle breeders but "Kurveyors" (transport riders), and have always some wagons on the road. A span con-

sists of 16 oxen, so that a few wagons take a hundred head, counting supernumaries. Some men we know have thus employed more than 500 oxen. The Kurveyors who were provided with oxen of their own breeding, or bought them before the great rise, and engaged pretty largely in the traffic to the Diamond-fields and other parts of the Colony, made very handsome profits, and accumulated pretty good sums of money. Oxen bred for transport purposes were selling a few years ago at £5 to £6 each; now £16 is a common price, with every likelihood of their becoming dearer. Beef has also risen in price, and sells at almost English rates.

Closely connected with cattle breeding is dairying, a branch of farming that we think it would pay anyone who well understands English dairy work to embark in, as not only does butter fetch good prices, but good colonial cheese would find a ready sale. English cheese sells at 1s. 6d. to 1s. 9d. per lb. Of course it is at this price a luxury; but there is no doubt a good colonial cheese would sell readily and in considerable quantity at 1s. per lb., if it could be made to approach the English in quality. The yield of milk very much depends upon the quantity of food the cows can get; and as they are entirely dependent upon the natural veldt, unless there is a good season the share of milk that comes to the dairy is but small. By-and-bye, the raising of artificial food, to be used in scarce times, will come into use, not only to aid the dairy, but also to fatten cattle and produce a better quality of beef. Allied to the dairy in England is the production of pork and bacon. This is also a kind of farming that we believe may be very largely extended. The price of colonial bacon of first quality is always high; for some time it has been above 1s. per lb., and the average is scarcely ever below 8d. per lb.

We now turn to Agriculture proper, in regard to

which we may say the capabilities of the Colony have been as yet very imperfectly developed. The cultivation of corn was always considered essential to the prosperity of the people, and the directors of the Dutch East India Company declared, a century-and-a-half ago, that the country which failed to produce its own food-supply was scarcely worthy of a name. But in those "good old times" one of the laws in force at the Cape was that the exportation of corn should be regulated by the views entertained by the Government of the sufficiency of the supply. Under the British authorities the same restriction upon free trade continued, and it was declared in 1818 that "the Governor's license would not be available at the Custom-house for the export of wheat when the market price should exceed 130 rix-dollars per load of 10 muids, or something more than 48s. 9d. per quarter." No doubt this tended to check the exertions of the farmers, confining the ordinary extent of their industry to domestic supply; and it is only of late years that they have been stimulated by the spirit of commercial enterprise and competition to cultivate and produce more.

Every part of the Colony seems adapted for the growing of grain crops, the only impediments being want of moisture during some seasons in certain localities, the effect of blight in others, and the distance, difficulty, and expense of transport to a market. These drawbacks, however, never prevail over the whole country at the same time, and it is noticeable that, although one part may suffer in diminished or blighted crops, other places yield abundant harvests. When favourable seasons prevail everywhere, the production is more than enough for home consumption; and yet when droughts set in, supplies have to be obtained from Australia, Chili, or California. The periodical occurrence of these cycles of drought and short crops may be observed from the Import and Ex-

port Returns at the end of this chapter. In the year 1863, —which will be remembered as the culmination of a dry season,—the importation of flour and wheat was over 36,000,000 lb. In 1874, also memorable for the extended drought in the preceding year along the frontier and inland districts, the importations went up to a higher maximum—the amount of flour and wheat imported being over 41,000,000 lb. Favourable seasons happily intervened between these periods, and particularly from 1868 to 1872, during which the necessity for heavy importations gradually diminished, and more grain was produced than was actually required for consumption. The Colony was then, in fact, able to send its surplus to a foreign market, the quantity of wheat and flour exported in 1871 being no less than 9,000,000 lb., and in 1872 5,700,000 lb. The expenditure of the Colony for flour imported during the five years of scarcity ended in 1868 was £560,000, while in the five years of plenty ended in 1873 it was not more than £141,000—thus effecting a saving by the consumption of Colonial bread-stuffs of over £400,000. In the years 1871-2, about 30,000 muids (900,000 bushels) of Cape wheat were sent to the London market, and realised the extreme market rates for the finest wheat imported there. Among the Cape Town shippers were Messrs. Goodliffe, Smart, & Searle, who have furnished us with the following memorandum of the prices realised by them :—

Sold in London—				s.	d.	s.	d.	
In July,	1871,	219 qrs.	of 496 lb., at	61	0			per qr.
In Oct. & Nov.,	„	444	„ „	63	0	to 65	0	„
In January,	1872,	382	„ „	65	0	„ 65	6	„
In March,	„	1,546	„ „	63	0	„ 65	0	„
In April,	„	623	„ „	64	0	„ 65	0	„
In June,	„	493	„ „	63	0	„ 64	0	„
In July to Nov.	„	2,343	„ „	65	0	„ 74	0	„ in Sept. & Oct.

6,050 quarters of 496 lb. each.

The above quantity (Messrs. Goodliffe, Smart, & Searle state) consisted almost solely of two descriptions —viz., "Baard" and "du Toit's," and was pronounced by the London brokers and millers to be equal in quality to the finest Dantzic, and the prices realised were quite as high as those ruling for the latter description. Since then repeated applications have been made for more, the wheat being used by biscuit-bakers for their finest quality of biscuits.

The portions of the Colony most favourably situated for the production of wheat are those regularly visited by copious rains, and where artificial irrigation is unnecessary. The coast districts, especially those contiguous to Cape Town, possess this advantage, and form the principal granary. The tracts known as Koeberg and Malmesbury mainly consist of corn farms,—some of the largest and best worked being Eaton's, Drooge Vlei; Hauman's, Kersenbosch; Louw, Tweekuil; those of the Steyns, Smuts, Gous, and Albertyns, in the vicinity of Riebeek's Kasteel; Messrs. Kotzé, Melck, and Breda on the Berg River, and the farm Vogel Vlei, Picketberg. In the neighbourhood of Saldanha Bay there are also some fine farms; and near Darling the farms Ganzekraal, Groote Post, Klavervlei, and Conterberg, as well as those of W. F. and F. Duckett, Karnmelk Fontein and Orange Fontein, are justly valued for their general capabilities. There is still in that area a good deal of virgin soil which can be successfully cultivated. What the farmers want is cheap and regular communication with the market. One of Thomson's road steamers was imported by themselves to meet this want, but was found unsuited to the purpose; and now the Government has obtained the sanction of the Legislature for the construction of a line of railway, which will shortly be commenced. The future prospects of these parts, therefore, are good; for when grain can be transported more easily, greater attention

will be devoted to home improvements, and, with a moderate supply of manure, the land retains its fertility. Wheat and oats yield from 15 to 30 fold, according to the season; barley, from 50 to 100 fold; and rye, from 20 to 40 fold. All kinds of grain are sown thin; otherwise, owing to their quick growth under a cape sun, if sown too full, they are liable to run to straw. The yield of wheat per acre, under good cultivation and free from rust, may be taken at an average of 15 bushels to the acre—*i.e.*, at the rate of 10 to the acre at 15-fold, and 20 to the acre at 30-fold. Oats and rye give about the same; but barley generally yields, on new land, in a good season, 50 bushels the acre. The weight of wheat, per three bushel sack, is from 205 lb. to 208 lb.

A decided improvement has taken place of late in the mode of cultivation. The Howard plough and harrow is extensively used on stiff land, and the Swedish plough along the sea board and on sandy fields. Manure is more carefully harboured and judiciously applied. The old-fashioned way of harvesting is also being superseded. The "tramp floor," where the grain used to be trodden out by horses, is giving place to the steam-thrashing-machine, which itinerates about the districts, doing all the thrashing at the rate of 1s. a muid, the farmer supplying fuel and labour. The oat and barley crops are in many cases mowed down by the cradle scythe, in preference to the sickle, for which purpose a straight-handled scythe, made on the farm of Mr. Eaton, Drooge Vlei, is much used, although other experienced mowers choose the crooked handle, with adjustible cradle, of English or American make. In some instances reaping machines are in operation, and effect a great saving in labour and wages. Recently, too, Ridley's Australian "stripper" has been tried, and found to answer admirably, when

the crops can become sufficiently ripe, and the straw and chaff are of no consideration to the farmer.

The Clanwilliam, Tulbagh, and Worcester divisions, and the south-east coast districts, from Caledon to George, yield considerable grain crops in average seasons; while all over the Karoo, with irrigation, almost fabulous returns, from a hundred fold upwards, may be obtained.

In the East, the most extensive arable lands are those in the Zuurveld districts of Lower Albany and Oliphant's Hoek, and next to them in the Queen's Town and other border districts. In these upper districts wheat is usually sown after the turn of the winter, in June or July; and on the coast lands as late as September. Since the country was first settled this grain has been more or less liable to be damaged by "rust," and only the hardy, or flinty kinds, are sown with any chance of a crop. The return in Lower Albany, when not so affected, is from 30 to 35 bags for one sown, if sown early—about ten acres being covered with a three-bushel sack (or muid) of seed. Barley, or bere, returns from 10 to 15 bushels per acre on an average, but on well-cultivated clean land, has given as much as 20 bushels per acre. Oats are largely grown for forage, when nearly or quite ripe being cut and made into sheaves—forming the staple horse food of the country. It is usually sold by the 100 lb., and though in good years it is as low as 2s. 6d. per 100 lb., for some time past it has ranged at from 5s. to 8s. The best variety sown is the white side, or Tartar oat, which, though occasionally slightly affected, withstands the rust better than any other sort which has been tried. The average yield of oat hay is from 2,000 lb. to 3,000 lb. per acre, but as much as 6,000 lb. has been reaped off an acre. The return of grain is from 35 to 49 per cent. A bag of good side oats (3 bushels) usually weighs 160 lb.;

but since rust has commenced its ravages, the average is not more than 130 lb. Wheat averages, in full three bushel sacks, as high as 230 lb. Barley (5-rowed), if thrashed soon after being reaped, 180 lb. to 200 lb. per sack; and English, or 2-rowed barley, 210 lb. to 220 lb. The divisions of Albany and Bathurst and Alexandria grow a great deal more wheat now than formerly, and some of it is of very excellent quality. With more labour, and easy access to a market, they could produce any amount of food supplies; and no doubt, in course of time, they will be very valuable.

Indian corn or maize, known under the name of "mealies," is grown all over the country, and yields most abundant crops of good food, both for man and beast. Along the frontier especially it is largely cultivated. This grain possesses the advantage of coming to perfection in a shorter time than most other cereals, and thus, as was the case in 1873, it can be sown when all chance of a crop of wheat is lost. It requires but little care in cultivation, and is not affected by rust, or any other disease of any importance. It grows almost on any soil; but when severe frost prevails it has to be sown early enough to be ripe before being touched by it.

Kafir corn or millet, is chiefly raised by the natives, being largely used by them, either boiled for food or malted as beer. There are several varieties—one of them being the *Sorghum Saccharatum*, the shoots of which are rich in saccharine juice.* The late Dr. Pappe, who in 1860 made a report on the various kinds grown in the Colony, says:—"Imphee, or Sorghum, may be sown at different times, so as to have it for

* The Hon. S. Cawood, of Graham's Town, has introduced from the United States a mill and apparatus for crushing the stems, or canes, of this plant, and boiling the juice for sugar—an operation which is carried on a large scale in America.

consumption several months. The stalks, leaves, and panicles of all kinds furnish a highly valuable and nutritive material for stall-feeding, and may be given, both green or dry, to horses, cattle, sheep, or pigs, &c., all of which are not only exceedingly fond of this fodder, but thrive upon it remarkably well. It may be raised on lands that have grown oats or barley, and yield an invaluable crop of green food to dairy farmers from December to March, without any irrigation whatever."

Potatoes, and all kinds of European garden vegetables and pot-herbs, do well, and can be grown all the year round. Sweet potatoes, pumpkins and melons are produced and supplied in wagon loads. Beet is raised extensively, and from some trials that have been made to test the quality of sugar it contained, it is found equal in this respect to any samples of the plant grown in France, Belgium, or elsewhere. The kindred plant, mangel wurzel, when tried, has likewise proved a satisfactory crop, as have also swede turnips in the Queen's Town district. Comparatively little artificial food for stock has as yet been attempted to be reduced; but there is every reason to believe it would pay well, and the increase of both milk and beef would amply compensate for the trouble of cultivating and storing.

Let us next turn to the vineyards, and wine-making. The culture of the vine has been followed at the Cape for upwards of two centuries. It was originally introduced by the Dutch in the time of Van Riebeek, who in his "Journal" (1662) reports to his successor the "flourishing state of the vineyards." The French Protestant refugees who arrived in 1685 gave an impetus to this cultivation; and by 1710 the increase was so great that, according to a return furnished by the Governor of the Colony, Louis Van Assenburg, to the Governor-General of Netherlands India, Johan Van Hoorn, the vines planted amounted to 2,729,300,

and the expected produce, although in a bad season, was 1,190 leggers. Considerable quantities were then shipped by the company to Java, and even to Europe. After the cession of the Colony to England, great inducements were held out to the colonists to develope this trade, the "most constant support and patronage on the part of Government" being assured by proclamation, as well as premiums offered to those who planted most extensively. Such encouragement, together with the advantage of differential duties then in force, enabled colonial wines to compete in England with importations from the nearer Continental countries, and for a time wine-growing was a most lucrative industry. This protection, however, was not long afterwards partially withdrawn, entailing severe loss upon many who had embarked all their means in the enterprise. And later, in January, 1860, when the commercial treaty with France was entered into, establishing the alcoholic scale of duty, which is still maintained, the Cape was actually placed at a disadvantage as compared with the Continental wine-growers. The bulk of the wines produced here, like those of Australia, when prepared to arrive home in good condition, require a greater spirit strength than 26° (the quantity produced by natural fermentation), in consequence of the warm latitudes they have to pass on the voyage to England. The strength of 26° is the limit of the 1s. duty, and everything beyond is subject to 2s. 6d. per gallon, which therefore acts upon colonial wines in a prohibitory manner. The Cape growers have repeatedly made representations to the Home Government on this subject, requesting that in case of a revision of the Imperial tariff wines not exceeding 33 degrees of alcoholic strength should be imported at the lower rate of duty; but hitherto their appeals have been ineffectual, as the Imperial Treasury officers advise that such an alteration would interfere

with the home spirit tax. Meanwhile the operation of the existing tariff has been to diminish the annual export of our wines from 1,000,000 gallons, valued at £153,000, in 1859, to 79,000 gallons, valued at £17,000, in 1874.

Cape wines, unfortunately, have got a bad name in England. They were never fairly brought into general consumption there, but used for supplementing and mixing purposes, when European wines were scarce and dear. This was especially the case between 1854 and 1859, when the Continental vintages were short, owing to the ravages of the vine disease; and the prices then obtainable led to a most objectionable practice by some exporters of shipping young and raw liquids under the name of wine, which justified general abhorence. Hence *Punch's* severe satire upon, and condemnation of, our colonial product. Yet, as is well known, there are Cape wines, such as the famed Constantias, Paarl Pontacs and Hocks, Drakenstein Lachryma Christi, and Worcester and Montagu Sherries, which, when genuine and of good quality, are as excellent as can be produced in any wine-growing country. It is this class of wines which, notwithstanding an excessive rate of duty, are still in yearly demand by old visitors to the Colony and connoisseurs settled in Europe, including many even in the famous wine districts of Germany and of France.

Within the Colony the people show a most decided preference for their own produce. It is commonly used, not only because it is considered pure and wholesome, but also because it is cheap. The production, which ten years ago could not find an outlet abroad, has now a very profitable home consumption; and, although that production is greater than ever it was at any former time, the growers get as good a price as they did in the palmy days of the export

trade. The digging population of Griqualand West and the gold-fields of Transvaal, and the increasing facilities of transport throughout the country and on the Borders, have created a new and continued demand for it, or its alternative form—spirit. Our wine-growers, consequently, are at present very prosperous, and rapidly acquiring wealth, which it is hoped will be applied to the improvement of their particular industry. No doubt there is great room for it. Amongst the mass of the growers the method of making wine is still of the most primitive character. The grapes are often cut at random, without distinction of colour, quality, or degree of maturity; they are gathered in the hottest weather, thrown into tubs trodden by labourers, and fermentation is allowed to go on in cellars crowded with wagons, harness, skins, and other musty articles—little regard being paid to the condition of atmosphere, or anything else. Quantity, not quality, is most frequently the object cared for; although on some large estates, it is true, the want of labour to secure the vintage properly often prevents sufficient pains being taken with it. In past years, too, growers found little encouragement from the merchants to make superior wines. A difference of £1 or £2 a legger in the value of the best and of the worst quality produced was not sufficient to induce them to depart from the old customs of their forefathers, or take any trouble with the manufacture. But the more intelligent and better class of vineyard proprietors have of late found it to their advantage to apply the lessons of modern practical knowledge and skill to their business. The perfect or imperfect state of ripeness of the grape, the kind of grape, the situation of the wine cellars, the condition of temperature during the process of fermentation, and the preservation of the pure aroma, or bouquet, untouched by spirit, are all matters which are receiving more atten-

tion, and undoubtedly contributing to raise the character as well as the profits upon the manufactured article. To those who are laying out new vineyards the mode of planting and the sites chosen should also be matters of importance. As a rule, the vines are planted too closely, and all varieties are generally grown in the same space, although some should have double that allotted to others. The soil, too, has much to do with the quality of the wine produced. It is well known that there are spots in the Colony where on the same farm—as at Johannisberg on the Rhine—within a few yards from each other, two vineyards will produce wines differing from each other a hundred per cent in value. Connoisseurs readily perceive that there is a material difference in the wines produced in the several districts about Cape Town. It is for this reason desirable that the growers who are endeavouring to improve their products should observe their best wines, give specific names to them, or brand the name of their farms on their casks. The superior wines would thereby soon become known, and their value accordingly appreciated. These and other matters connected with the cultivation, management, and manufacture of Cape wines open up a promising field for intelligence and enterprise.

The famous Constantia vineyards—whose produce still maintains a European reputation for excellence—have a history dating backwards to the year 1685. The traditional story is that at that time Governor Simon Van der Stell, who devoted much attention to agriculture, resolved to find out the soil most suitable to the cultivation of the vine, and had specimens from Rondebosch, Boscheuvel, Tygerberg, and Constantia forwarded to Holland, to undergo analysis and comparison with the soils of France and the Rhine. The result was so decidedly in favour of the soil from Constantia, that he availed himself of the presence of the

Dutch Company's Commissioner, Baron Van Rheede Van Drakenstein (after whom the district of Drakenstein has derived its name), to obtain a formal grant of lands, comprising the whole of what are now known as the estates of Great and Little Constantia, Witteboom, Bergvleit, and other properties. He spared no trouble to procure vines of the choicest qualities, which he planted, and the first vintage from the blue muscadel or Catalonia grape as it was called, established the character of Constantia wines, which soon obtained great repute abroad. Van der Stell, the elder, in 1699, handed over the cares of Government to his son, and retired to this place to enjoy his *otium cum dignitate* until his death. But the political troubles which arose in 1700, from the arbitrary system of taxation, and other restrictions put upon the colonists, led to the younger Van der Stell's recall, and the issue of an order from Holland in October, 1706, that the lands of both father and son should be disposed of, and that civil functionaries should in future be disqualified from carrying on farming operations. This circumstance led to the sale of the Constantia estate in 1715,—the property on which Van der Stell had planted his vineyards and erected a princely mansion, retaining the original title deeds and name of Great and Hope Constantia. Great Constantia first fell into the possession of a Mr. Oloff Bergh; then into that of a Mr. J. Serrurier, and in the year 1778 into that of Mr. H. Cloete, in whose family it still continues. Hope Constantia again became the property of the family Colyn, now extinct, and is at present owned by Mr. Harwood. But the early proprietors of Great Constantia had, in common with the other colonists of those days, to submit to the tithes and restrictions imposed by the Dutch East India Company, who rigidly required an annual quantity of wine to be delivered, at what they considered "a

reasonable price,"* and which they forwarded to their public sales at Amsterdam, from whence every court on the Continent was supplied. A similar practice was continued even after the cession of the Colony to England—the Government laying claim to what was termed the rights and privileges of the old Company, and a functionary known as the "Fiscal," and some members of the Court of Justice, used yearly to repair to Constantia to taste and select the wines, some of which, it is said, were sent away as presents, "to soften the temper of Ministers, and to sweeten the lips of Royalty itself." But after 1826, when the Imperial Commissioners of Inquiry visited the Colony, and investigation was made into the matter, the system was discontinued. Prior to this time, an intelligent and enterprising colonist, Mr. Sebastian Van Reenen, obtained possession of Witteboom, adjoining Constantia; and convinced by reflection that the boundary which divided the two estates had not altered the nature of the soil or the climate, he planted extensive vineyards, which have been continued in the family, and are now equally as well known as the original Constantia.

These magnificent estates are a prominent attraction to passengers spending a few days at Cape Town. Situate about twelve miles from the city, and three or four from the Wynberg railway terminus, they are easily accessible, and in the course of each year are visited by many persons from every quarter of the globe, who all receive a courteous and hospitable welcome. Mr. Van Reenen's property, which is maintained in a high state of culture and perfect order, is nearest to Cape Town, and more generally

* While the public price of the Constantia wines was 80 rix-dollars per legger, the Company gave a "reasonable price" of only 25 rix-dollars per legger.

visited; but the senior establishment of Mr. Cloete, Great Constantia, retains its famous wine producing reputation, and has in addition the charms of old historic associations, with its quaint Dutch mansion, grand avenues, and vineclad hills, all bearing evidence of the munificent taste of its original founder.

There are no less than seven descriptions of Constantia wines produced there. The grapes from which the genuine sweet Constantias are made are the frontignac, red and white muscadels, and the pontac, or tenturer of France. The vineyards are situate on a slope of the Table Mountain facing south-east, where, from elevation and exposure to the sea breeze, the temperature is cooler in summer and milder in winter than other parts of the Cape peninsula. The vines are planted in rows four feet apart. The ground around them is dug from May to July and August—trenches, 13 inches deep and 9 inches broad, being made in each alternate row, and bone manure, in the proportion of 1 lb. to every vine, laid at the bottom, with farmyard manure, in the proportion of one bushel for eight vines, spread over it. The vines are pruned in August. About the 15th of February the leaves surrounding the grapes on those vines intended for sweet Constantia are stripped off, so as to expose each bunch to the sun to ensure their equal ripeness; the gathering, indeed, is commonly done twice, to secure as nearly as possible the uniform maturity of all the fruit. The vintage generally extends from the 1st to the 20th March. The grapes are first slightly tramped in a double pressing tub, the inner one being perforated with holes, through which the juice flows; they are then sifted or sorted on a platform or mat, and the husks separated from the stalks, the husks being again tramped until all are crushed. The husks and juice are afterwards put in a fermenting vat together, and when the first fermentation subsides, which is known

by the crust formed on the top cracking and also breaking loose from the sides of the vat, the juice or "must" is racked off from the bottom and put into casks of about 150 gallons, filled up three or four times a day, and allowed to ferment ten days. About twenty gallons of this must is taken off and put into clean casks, and sulphured and shaken, and then the former quantity (130 gallons) is added to it, which has the effect of checking fermentation. The wines so prepared remain sweet, but are always kept for four years before being exported. Their natural strength seldom exceeds 24 per cent. of spirit—the crucial test of genuine sweet Constantia. The dry white Constantia is made from the fruit of the vines known as the small Steen and ruyhaar Steen, in equal proportions, the grapes used being thoroughly, but not over-ripe. To this wine 2 per cent. of spirit is added, and it is sold when three years old. The dry red Constantia is prepared in the same way, but from the pontac grape. The hock is made from the Steen grape, and from the pure juice alone. Mr. Cloete has of late added a new wine to the productions of his Estate. This is a Constantia Lafitte, manufactured from grapes raised from vines imported from the Lafitte vineyards of France. This wine still retains the Lafitte bouquet and flavour modified by the Constantia; but whereas the genuine Lafitte wines contain only 13 to 15 per cent, of spirit, the produce of the grape from the Constantia soil gives 22 per cent. As the per centage of spirit in the genuine Constantia wine, above given, is from the mean of several years' experience, it can easily be ascertained by analysis whether spirits have been added to the qualities sold as "real Constantias."

By most of the wine-growers a quantity of raisins are annually produced. They are chiefly made in

the districts beyond the first range of mountains, —Worcester, Robertson, and Montagu,—the vintage seasons there being hot and dry. The large fleshy haanepoot grape is generally used for manufacture—being prepared either by cutting the stalk of the bunches half through when nearly ripe, and leaving them suspended on the vine till the watery part is evaporated and the sun dries and candies them; or when fully ripe, they are gathered in baskets, and dipped in a lye prepared from the "ganna" ash (common to the country), and then laid out in single bunches, on cane mats, or stones, to dry in the sun. Currants are made from the small-berried Corinth vine, which grows well, although it is much neglected, as it does not bear so plentifully as others; yet its produce is much more valued. The currants, too, require less trouble in making, no boiled lye being used, as for raisins. The bunches, when properly ripe, are gathered, and placed on mats, where they are exposed for two or three days to the heat of the sun, and during the night are either covered over with mats or brought inside; they are afterwards shaken from the bunches, and packed in boxes, jars, or bags. Raisin-making does not require the large capital in fustage and cellars necessary to wine making, and if care is taken to use the right kind of grape, and to produce the best qualities, remunerative prices are readily procurable. The Malaga and stone less Sultana grape should be more extensively cultivated for the purpose. The latter was introduced from Greece about ten years ago by Mr. M'Gibbon, of the Botanic Gardens, who says, "they succeed well in our vineyards, and bear moderately. The bunches are large, the berries oval; when ripe, of a beautiful amber colour, and about the size of a water haanepoot; the flavour, a combination of the frontignac and haanepoot, and very delicious; and the raisins from them realise a high price." Sun-dried dessert raisins of these varie-

ties, with the bloom upon the berries, will always be in good demand.*

The preparation of other dried fruits also gives occupation to those farmers who have extensive orchards. Apricots, peaches, pears, figs, plums, apples, walnuts, almonds—indeed every kind of fruit—is available in any quantity for this purpose. The preserves of the Cape—gooseberry, nartje, orange, lime, guava, quince, melon, citron, peach, fig, apricot, and other varieties—surpass any of the English manufactured fruits. Many of these colonial preserved fruits, as well as vegetables, are now being made and put up in hermetically-sealed tin cans for wholesale exportation. This industry has been started within the past year by Mr. John Merriman, in Cape Town. The process of preserving is conducted by skilled workmen, who have been trained in the English establishments, and the articles produced are beautiful in appearance and to the taste far purer than any imported, while their cost is much less.

Tobacco is in cultivation in several of the coast districts—Heidelberg, Riversdale, and Oudtshoorn, as well as parts of Kaffraria, producing a large quantity. There is a considerable home consumption for this product, some of it, under the name of "Boer's," being

* In California, raisin-making is now an established and promising industry. In making raisins they wait until the grape is fully ripe, and then carefully cut off the branches, and lay them either on a hard clay floor, formed in the open air, or on brown paper laid between the vine rows. The bunches require from 18 to 24 days of exposure in the sun to be cured. During that time they are gently turned from time to time, and such as are earliest cured are at once removed to a raisin house. This is fitted with shelves, on which the raisins are laid about a foot thick, and here they are allowed to sweat a little. If they sweat too much, the sugar candies on the outside, and this deteriorates the quality of the raisin. It is an object to keep the bloom on the berries. They are kept in the raisin house, I was told, 5 or 6 weeks, when they are ready to box.—*Vide* "Nordhoff's California," &c.

used for smoking; the general demand, however, is for sheep-washing purposes. The soil in many parts seems well adapted to the plant; but in the process of curing and preparing the leaf for export there is room for much improvement.

Cotton-growing has been tried with some success on the coast lands of Albany, Peddie, and East London. and if the natives can only be induced to engage in its cultivation it may become a valuable export in course of time.*

The average yield of the crops raised is estimated at about 240 lb. of clean or ginned cotton per acre. Mr Wright, of Bathurst, has obtained a return of from 500 lb. to 900 lb. per acre in seed, Sea Island sample; and some lands have yielded as high as 1,200 lb. Mr. Young, lately of Peddie, who has grown New Orleans, reckons the average yield to be about 500 lb. to 600 lb. of seed cotton per acre. But this, in the present state of our labour market, and with ginned cotton at 8d. per lb. in the English market, does not pay. The expenses to England are about 3d. per lb., leaving the grower only 5d. The export of cotton from the Colony in 1873 amounted to 49,376 lb., valued at £2,055; and in 1874, was only 15,117 lb., valued at £257.

Coffee is grown along the Buffalo River, as well as at the Kowie. Mr. Dredge, of East London district, has produced not only enough to supply his own table, but has had some little to sell, his crop last year being about 300 lb. Below Graham's Town, in the sheltered valleys of the Zuurberg, and in various other places about the country, coffee trees bear abundantly. There are also some tea plants, which, it is said, will stand the winds and the frosts even better than the coffee.

* Messrs. Cawood Brothers, of Graham's Town, have lately imported some table and sheeting, manufactured to their order from Cape-grown cotton.

There are numbers of other undeveloped products and resources in the Colony offering a profitable field to persons competent to enter upon them; although at present the ordinary occupations are sufficiently remunerative to most people without trying new openings. Sericulture has been mooted for years, and Dr. Hiddingh, of Newlands, and Mr. Kennelly, of Graham's Town, and others, have endeavoured to set the industry a foot, but there has been no continued effort on the part of the public to maintain it. Olive cultivation, which was first tried by one of the early Dutch Governors, has been strongly recommended, and European plants have been introduced, but few of the farmers have made any experiment with them. Yet in the Botanic Gardens there are rows of olives in full growth and bearing, showing that this valuable tree would answer, if planted on what are at present mere waste lands. Linseed also will do well, the yield of both seed and fibre being excellent. Mr. M. J. Louw, of Cape Town, who has erected machinery for manufacturing the oil and the oilcake, is prepared to take any quantity that may be raised; and if produced largely, the article would be invaluable for the feeding of stock. Lands that can be irrigated in summer, like those of Worcester, answer best for a crop, as by being sown late, say in September or October, it escapes the caterpillar, the chief enemy it has to contend with. The cultivation of chicory, of the sunflower, and of numerous other products, might also be undertaken. In fact, there is scarcely a valuable plant but can be grown here, except just such as are specially tropical, and even these are not altogether beyond our reach. There are localities in the Colony where anything will grow, if it gets plenty of *water;* and with water we may grow anything if we have *labour*. These are the great requirements of the country.

The ordinary labourers are for the most part natives,

—either Hottentot, Kafir, or Basuto, or some other of the aborigines or of the tribes immediately beyond us. They make careful herds, and pretty good ploughmen, and quickly master the long wagon whip of the "kurveyor," and so get employed on the roads as leaders and drivers of wagons. There is, however, a very scanty supply of field labourers; not but that there are plenty of men in the country, but the larger part of them being raw savages do not care to work, for their wants are few and easily supplied. In the Western districts permanent agricultural labourers of the coloured class receive about 15s. to 20s. per month, with food and quarters, and garden lands to cultivate all the year round; and occasional labourers, during the harvest and vintage season, get as high as 3s. 6d. a day, besides an allowance of wine. In the Eastern districts the wages to natives at the harvest time is from 1s. to 2s. a day, with rations. European servants are much better paid, generally occupying the places of overseers; and in most instances, if they are steady, active, and prudent men, they speedily rise to the position of masters and employers of labour.

New-comers will find that there are continually farms to be sold by private owners, at from 5s. to 20s. per acre, and in some parts of the Colony large landowners let out lands on "halves" — if pastoral, stocking them and charging a rent, and dividing the increase and yield; if arable, finding the land, and perhaps the seed and some parts of the necessary teams, the tenant supplying the labour, and the crops raised being equally divided. Many colonists who began the world in this manner have done very well, and have now good farms of their own. The plan may suit men coming into the country possessed of little capital, but with a will to work—for here, as elsewhere all over the world, industry, pluck, and perseverance are the keys to success.

COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL PROGRESS.

Governor Sir Henry Barkly, in one of his recent despatches to the Secretary of State for the Colonies, remarks that "it would scarcely be much exaggeration to say that the rapidity of the progress of South Africa during the last three or four years is paralleled only by that of Australia after the discovery of gold."

No doubt the opening up of the diamond-producing country on the northern border, in Griqualand West, with the consequent influx and migration of population there, deriving their chief supplies from the coast, largely stimulated trade transactions and also diffused a great deal of wealth, which has been applied to the development of new resources and industries. But, independently of these adventitious circumstances, the commerce of the Cape Colony and the yield of its staple productions have of late years been advancing in so marked a degree as to give every assurance of continued and permanent prosperity.

The retrospect of mercantile transactions shown in the annexed tables of imports and exports, prepared from returns furnished by the Hon. R. Graham, the Collector of Customs, proves the remarkable expansion of business in every direction,—and this, too, notwithstanding the drawbacks of drought at one time, of floods at another, of uncertain and inadequate labour, and of insufficient means of transport. Ten years ago the colonial produce raised and exported was valued at £2,395,673. Last year the produce shipped was considerably over £4,138,000, after supplying the colonial markets, a largely-increased population, and numerous vessels. The period of great mercantile activity

may, however, be said to date from 1870, and the progress since will be seen from the following comparison of the imports and exports for the last four years:—

IMPORTS.

	1871.	1872.	1873.	1874.
	£	£	£	£
Specie	522,540	1,800,515	321,862	167,197
Merchandise	2,585,298	4,388,728	5,130,065	5,558,215
Total	£3,107,838	£6,189,243	£5,451,927	£5,725,412

EXPORTS.

	1871.	1872.	1873.	1874.
	£	£	£	£
Specie	54,387	72,095	103,416	235,186
Produce	3,531,609	4,757,494	3,907,911	4,138,838
Total	£3,585,996	£4,829,589	£4,011,327	£4,374,024

These returns of produce exported include but an infinitesimal portion of the value of diamonds sent away, inasmuch as they were forwarded chiefly by registered letter through the Post-office, or by private hand, and not declared through the Customs. The official statement only accounted,in 1871,for £403,349; in 1872, for £306,041; in 1873, for £25,285; and in 1874, for £8,148; while there is good reason for believing that during these four years at least £4,000,000 worth of diamonds, in addition to the above, were sent away. If this estimate be correct, the discrepancy between the amount of imports and exports is approximately accounted for—a small difference always occurring, from the geographical position of the Colony as a place of call for shipping, and the supply of the military and naval establishments.

It is worthy of note, too, that the total imports of specie from 1871 to 1874 amounted to £2,812,114; while the exports of specie for the same period was only £465,084, leaving a balance of over two millions and a quarter in the Colony.

The most gratifying feature, however, is the satisfactory progress indicated by the multiplication of colonial articles exported—some of which, of course, include the produce of the Free State, Griqualand West, and part of the Interior. The following items show a great increase over the maximum of three or four years ago :—

	£		£	
Copper has advanced from	160,000	in 1871 to	321,424	in 1874.
Ostrich feathers „ „	87,000	„ 1870 „	205,640	„
Hair (Angora) „ „	43,000	„ 1871 „	107,139	„
Fish, cured „ „	18,837	„ 1871 „	34,339	„
Hides „ „	29,000	„ 1871 „	49,425	„
Ivory „ „	18,000	„ 1870 „	26,667	„
Skins (goat) „ „	172,000	„ 1871 „	194,324	„
Skins (sheep) „ „	87,000	„ 1870 „	144,538	
Wool „ „	1,669.518	„ 1870 „	2,948,571	

During the present year gold will be added to the list of exports—the first shipment of South African gold officially entered* having already been made at Port Elizabeth, consisting of gold dust, £5,735, and quartz and nuggets £880; total, £6,615—a small item, but one of important signification in regard to the future of this country.

The greater part of the Colonial productions, it will be seen consists of raw materials, which are sent to the home markets for manufacture; but there are many of them which in their preparation, or in their conversion into articles of domestic consumption, employ a great deal of local capital and labour. In Cape Town and its suburbs the manipulation of wines, the distilling of brandy, and the brewing of beer are industries of large proportions. There are also many extensive steam milling establishments for

* The exports of gold, as of diamonds, cannot be accurately ascertained, as it is not required to be entered as regular cargo, and is, therefore, never declared, although carried by passengers in their luggage or on their person.

converting wheat into flour of several descriptions, and for the manufacture of biscuits of first-class quality. The workshops of the harbour and railway departments are capable of executing any mechanical requirements. Boat building, foundries, and smiths' works are also carried on by private individuals. Coachbuilding and wagon making give continual occupation to many workmen; and besides these, there are the ordinary trades of cabinet making, building, plumbing, watchmaking, printing, bookbinding, saddlery and harness making, painting, shoemaking, tailoring, &c.

Leather manufacture has been in operation for some years, and there are several large tanneries, both in Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, and Graham's Town. The raw staple and the very best materials for preparing it are to be had in any quantity; yet the import tables show there is a colonial demand for the article far beyond anything hitherto supplied. The Cape goatskin is unsurpassed for conversion into the first quality of leather, and the Cape sheepskin supplies very superior kid gloves. There are numbers of indigenous plants which yield tannin, and some of them such as kreuppelboom, wagenboom, kliphout, wild plum,* assegai, and saffran as well as the mimosa and oak, are unequalled for tanning purposes. Fellmongering has lately been commenced, and many skins, formerly little valued, are bought up here, and by this process have the wool upon them

* The leaves of the wild plum, when ground and properly prepared, are quite equal to the Sicilian shumac, and used chiefly for tanning buck and sheep skins. The shrub from which they are gathered is locally known as the *wild pruimen* or *Khaamabesjes*, and is found in many places in the Cape district,—such as Hout's Bay, Muizenberg, and Zandvleit, as well as at Saldanha Bay, and also in some of the Eastern Districts, and in Kaffirland. The article might be made a considerable and valuable export. It is collected, in the green state, for about £6 per ton, and can be ground to powder for an additional £1; while the Sicilian costs fully double as much.

turned to account, as well as the felt preserved. Soap making has also been established, and the colonial article is supplanting the imported one.

Woollen manufactures have not hitherto been tried, although a beginning is now being made by a colonial benefactor (W. W. Dickson, Esq.), who is constructing a large establishment on the Breede River, Mitchell's Pass, Tulbagh district, for wool washing and fell-mongering, and where also, ere long, blankets and broad-cloths from our principal staple may be supplied.

Wool-washing, however, is an extensive business, carried on all over the country. From Cape Town, where Messrs. Marquard and Co. have their steam manufactory, on to Mr. Tudhope's, at Aliwal North, nearly every division has one or more at work. But the chief centre of this industry is on the Zwartkops River, at Uitenhage, and the extent to which it has been developed, as well as the contrast between the process of wool washing now and in former times, merits a brief description.

Twelve years ago, there were only three wool-washers on the Zwartkops River, and their manner of washing was of the most primitive character. The dirty wool was put into tubs of water, and stirred about with forked sticks or poles, till a great deal of dirt was separated from it, although it was very many shades darker than the present "Uitenhage snow white," so eagerly sought after by home buyers. A long stride towards perfection was made when square tanks, with bottoms of perforated zinc, were introduced. The clean water was made to flow into these tanks from sluices in a wooden water "shoot," and the dirty water escaped through the perforated bottoms of the tanks. In each of these tanks two Kafirs, men or women, stood, and kicked the wool about with their feet until it was sufficiently

clean. This was called "cold water foot-washing," although the wool was soaked in hot water previous to its being thrown into the tanks; it was then carried into the drying grounds, where it was tossed about with forked sticks, and spread out in the sun, over a floor of river pebbles, until sufficiently dried and bleached. This process raised the reputation of Uitenhage washing considerably; and it was by it that the first "snow whites" were produced. But this was soon to give way to cheaper, more perfect, and more expeditious steam washing, and foot-washing is no longer employed.

The machinery employed at these establishments vary in some minor particulars, but the general principle adopted is the same in all; and although visitors with a taste for machinery would find something fresh to interest them at each establishment, a general description of one establishment will serve for the present purpose. The establishment we select for description is that of Messrs. F. and P. Lange. A well-designed and substantially-built building, 150 feet long by 60 feet wide, contains the washing machinery. In the centre of this building is an engine of 25-horse power, which drives a shaft 145 feet long, setting in motion all the machinery, *i.e.*, "devils," "washers," "hydro-extractors," packing machines, pressing machines, centrifugal pumps, turning lathes, circular saws, &c. The first process to which the wool is submitted is "devilling." The "devil" is a closed circular box of about six feet diameter, inside of which revolve, with great rapidity, a spindle, from which radiate long metal teeth. The wool is so shaken and loosened by this process that a great deal of the dirt is thus extracted. This dirt falls through the bottom part of the "devil," which is made of perforated zinc. The wool is next put into tanks of hot water, varying in temperature from 100° to 170°,

according to the quality of the wool. It is next passed into the "washers," which work in cemented tanks 35 feet long, 6 feet wide, and 3 feet deep. There are six of these washers and tanks at Messrs. Lange's establishment. Each of the tanks is the channel for a powerful stream of cold water, which is admitted at the front of the tank through a sluice in an underground culvert, which runs the whole length of the building. The wool, as it passes through the machine, is worked up by the machinery against the current, and, as all the dirt is driven to the lower end of the stream, the progress of the wool is into purer water. When the wool is thrown into the washer from the soaking tank, it is first drawn into a box, or drum, similar in construction to the "devil" already described, the difference being that this works in the water, and, by a spiral arrangement of the teeth in the spindle, the wool is thrown out when sufficiently whirled about. It is then raked forward by a series of forks against the stream, and deposited in a second drum, from which it is taken by a second series of forks, and ultimately raised out of the further end of the tank by a beautiful mechanical contrivance called the "Belgian lift," and deposited on a perforated platform, where it drains, until placed on small wagons, which run on a tramway to what are called the "hydro-extractors," where nearly all the water is taken out of it by centrifugal force. It is then taken to the drying grounds, where it is bleached and dried. The packing and pressing is also performed by steam, and immensely powerful racks and cog-wheels are employed in that process. The bag is placed in a strong square box the size of a bale; the sides of this box all open on hinges at the bottom, and when the bag is being filled with wool they are closed with strong iron catches Above this box is a square wooden tube about 10 feet long, corresponding in its

other dimensions with the wool bale in the box beneath. Into this tube the wool is thrown from the warehouse above, and tramped down by a Kafir. When the whole, box and tube, are as full as the Kafir can tread them, the rack is applied, and squeezes the mass of wool into a nearly solid block the size of the bag, which is then sown up, branded, and rolled out ready for loading. The various plans employed for hoisting the bales on to the wagons are ingenious, but would make our description too long. The quantity of wool washed in the 24 hours at this establishment is 100 bales, and the quantity of water required for that number 500,000 gallons.

It would be unjust to conclude this notice of the Uitenhage establishments without making mention of that of Mr. Niven, which is as large, if not larger, than that we have described, and where many most ingenious contrivances are used for accomplishing by machinery what at other places is done by hand. Mr. Niven may be called the father of wool-washing by machinery, as he was the first to employ machinery; and all the processes now in use are more or less modifications of his inventions.

The woods of the Colony comprise upwards of a hundred different kinds; and many of them are extensively used for economic purposes, such as house building, wagon making, furniture, and cabinet work. The forests, however, are chiefly along the coast line, and the expense of transporting timber to the more inland parts is great. But there is no district where trees cannot be grown if irrigated and fenced in for the first few years. Some private individuals have found it to be very profitable to lay out young plantations of quick-growing timber like the blue gum and blackwood; and the same course might be profitably followed by Government with a good deal of the waste lands. Dr. Brown, the late Colonial Botanist,

strongly urged this matter upon public attention. His counsel was, plant any tree—any kind of tree which will grow, or any kind of tree for which there may be a fancy—oak, fir, poplar, blue gum, beefwood, blackwood—anything. Every tree that grows tends to prepare the climate for the growth of others, and we have yet to learn where is a district in which it would be vain to try the experiment. While during their growth they would contribute to increase the humidity of the climate, the revenue obtained from the sale of them, when fit to be cut as timber, would supply means of still more extensively carrying out the enterprise.

The mineral resources of the Colony are being more and more developed every year. Copper is the most important mining industry, and at present there appears no limit to the production—the old mines of Namaqualand yielding handsomely, and the new ones, near the Orange River, promising to be still richer in quantity and quality of ore. Coal, equal to some of the English varieties as a source of heat, exists over a large area in the Border districts, and may be found in other parts, as the country becomes more occupied. Diamonds have been picked up on the surface of the country, at various places along the basin of the Orange River, and there is a probability that spots may yet be hit upon containing marvellous treasures corresponding to the Kimberley mine. Besides diamonds, in the category of ornamental stones may also be included various coloured agates, garnets, amethysts, rose quartz, fibrous quartz, tourmaline, chalcedony, heliotrope or bloodstone, red and yellow jasper, steatite, &c., found along the north-western border from Hope Town to the Great Waterfall. Lead ore, manganese, hæmatite, and other iron ore, and similar valuable products likewise occur in many different localities. Building stone is abundant all over the country, and

also beds of clay, some of which could be used for the finest pottery. There are several qualities of free-stone, some being suitable for mill and grinding stones, as well as for architectural purposes. Marbles of different colours are found in many places—in Namaqualand, Clanwilliam, Tulbagh, Worcester, Oudtshoorn; and limestones of various ages occur along most of the coast districts, and on the Orange River below Hope Town. Numerous other substances of economic value may still be discovered, if a systematic examination of the country is made—for it is true of the Colony, as of Africa generally, that it is always rewarding search with something new.

Those who have followed us in this review of the industrial and productive capabilities of the Cape may be surprised that, with such natural resources, it has hitherto attracted so little attention as a field for immigration. Some of the causes may be briefly referred to. When Great Britain took over the Colony from the Batavian Republic, the districts beyond the range of mountains near the coast were almost shut out from communication with the world—rugged kloofs and rocky terraces presented obstacles which seemed too difficult to be encountered—and the inhabitants of those isolated parts were forced to a life of inaction. The Government made little effort to improve this condition of things, and for many years afterwards appeared quite contented with holding the extremity of the Cape peninsula and the south-eastern littoral line. Their experiment of planting the settlers of 1820 in the Albany district, where for a time they had to encounter a barbarous foe as well as the difficulties of a new and strange country, did not seem satisfactory enough to be repeated,—although in later years the results proved eminently successful. A barren promontory, a sterile desert, and a sparse population

surrounded by savages, and subject to recurring Kafir wars, then formed and until a very recent period, the ordinary English conception of South Africa. Even Lord (now Earl) Russell, in his instructions to the Land and Emigration Commissioners when they were first appointed, after dwelling on the advantages of other colonies, like Canada and Australia, passed over the Cape of Good Hope, with the remark that little land offered itself there; and yet, at that time, more than now, millions of acres were available, but unsurveyed and uncared for. The resources of the Colony were thus sealed up and lying dormant, and its comparatively thinly-scattered inhabitants idle spectators, during the great movements of labour and capital from the Old World to the New.

In course of time, however, efforts were made within the country itself to promote its advancement and prosperity. The construction of main lines of communication, devised and inaugurated by the late Mr. Montagu and Colonel Mitchell, removed the chief internal barriers to progress and civilisation. The "desert wilds" were opened up, and utilised by a progressive population. Towns and villages were multiplied, and there was increased production and industry. The people, under the influence of education, diffused by means of churches, schools, and a free press, and, trained in some degree by experience in the management of their own local affairs, acquired habits of self-help, self-reliance, and self-government. In 1854, the privileges of an elective Parliament were granted to them, and an era of unruffled peace and active progress entered upon. Public works were undertaken with an energy unknown before. Roads and bridges were constructed, harbours were improved, railways and telegraphs were introduced, the public lands were thrown open to public competition, and immigration en-

couraged. In a few years the action of the Legislature did more for the Colony than it would have been possible for the old Government to have accomplished in fifty. There have been temporary checks occasionally felt, arising from seasons of drought and low markets; but the spirit of progress and improvement has not slackened since. The past year, again, has witnessed the sanction by Parliament of several important undertakings—including the construction of lines of railway in various directions, extending in the aggregate over nearly 800 miles, and involving an eventual outlay of about five millions sterling. This large expenditure is fully justified by the flourishing condition of the revenue—now approaching to a million and a half sterling per annum—and by the consideration that such works will necessarily augment the value of public and private property, will materially diminish the burdens entailed on all classes by the present tedious and expensive mode of transport, and will also greatly contribute, by the introduction of European skill and labour, to the better occupation and development of the country.

Sir Henry Barkly, in the despatches already alluded to, truly observes: "It would be idle, of course, to attempt to predict the future destinies of the Colony; but nothing assuredly can be more apparently promising than its prospects at this moment. With unbounded stores of mineral wealth, and with a range of climate that fits it for the growth of most of the agricultural productions of the tropical as well as temperate zone, the natural resources of South Africa can hardly be surpassed by those of any other portion of the globe."

THE CENSUS OF 1875.

The first Census of the Cape Colony was taken in 1865, and the statistical information deduced therefrom has been embodied in the preceding pages. A second Census was taken at the end of the decennial period, in March of the present year 1875, and although the full details will not be published until the compilation of all the voluminous and complicated returns is completed by the Government statistician, we are enabled to give the principal results, as summarised from the reports of the official enumerators of each Division.

As compared with the previous Census, the population, property, and realised wealth of the colonists have made a considerable advance. The time at which the Census was taken, however, was most unfavourable for a representation of its agricultural and pastoral resources. The drought of 1873-4 in some parts, and the heavy floods at the close of 1874 in others, caused a diminution of produce as well as a reduction of stock. The returns therefore do not present in any way an exaggerated view of the industry of the people.

The Divisions are here arranged under the several "Provinces" into which the Colony is now divided by the Constitution Ordinance Amendment Act 18 of 1874, for the election of Members of the Legislative Council. The stock and produce embrace the principal articles contributing to our colonial productions; but for some of the Divisions these are omitted, as the results are as yet imperfectly ascertained. The population shows the number of inhabitants in the towns and villages, and in the rural parts of each District. The total population of the Colony now is 720,000, being an increase of 24 per cent. on the returns of 1865.

1. WESTERN PROVINCE.

Cape Town.—Population, Municipality, 32,907 ; *Greenpoint.*—1,426 ; *Robben Island*, 552. Total 34,885.

Cape Division.—Papendorp, Liesbeek, Rondebosch, Newlands, Wynberg, and Constantia, 12,076 ; Simon's Town, 2,554 ; Durban, 871 ; Other Rural Wards, 7,358. Total, 22,859. Wheat, 75,330 bushels ; Barley, 24,838 bushels ; Oats, 17,896 ; Vine Stocks, 3,204,645 ; Wine, 1,853 leggers ; Brandy, 288 leggers.

Stellenbosch and Somerset West.—Population, Urban 4,017 ; Rural 6,524.

Horses, 1,394 ; Mules and Asses, 692 ; Draught Oxen, 1,757 ; Other Cattle, 3,337 ; Wooled Sheep, 17,669 ; Other Sheep, 758 ; Angora Goats, 4,333 ; Common Goats, 3,942 ; Ostriches, 205 ; Wool, 40,422 lbs. ; Wheat, 17,868 bushels ; Barley, 8,806 bushels ; Oats, 12,461 bushels ; Vines, 15,887,610 ; Wine, 10,048 leggers ; Brandy, 1,017 leggers.

Paarl and Wellington.—Population, Urban 7,989 ; Rural 10,125.

Horses, 2,654 ; Mules and Asses, 1,628 ; Draught Oxen, 3,043 ; Other Cattle, 5,027 ; Wooled Sheep, 26,753 ; Other Sheep, 1,630 ; Angora Goats, 1,991 ; Common Goats, 10,491 ; Ostriches, 502 ; Wool, 28,896 lbs. ; Wheat, 49,830 bushels ; Barley, 13,766 bushels ; Oats, 66,812 bushels ; Vines, 25,548,175 ; Wine, 16,853 leggers ; Brandy, 1,362 leggers.

2. NORTH WESTERN PROVINCE.

Malmesbury.—Population, Urban 4,302 ; Rural 13,912.

Horses, 8,977 ; Mules and Asses, 3,649 ; Draught Oxen, 8,547 ; Other Cattle, 21,170 ; Wooled Sheep, 162,117 ; Other Sheep, 15,670 ; Angora Goats, 1,305 ; Common Goats, 44,536 ; Ostriches 111 ; Wool, 182,228 lbs. ; Vines, 1,896,000. Agricultural returns imperfect.

Piquetberg.—Population, Urban 1,500 ; Rural 6,718.

Horses, 3,312 ; Mules and Asses, 774 ; Draught Oxen, 5,125 ; Other Cattle, 11,277 ; Wooled Sheep, 56,467 ; Other Sheep, 11,797 ; Angora Goats, 80 ; Common Goats, 40,564 ; Ostriches, 230.

Worcester.—Population, Urban 3,863 ; Rural 5,938.

Horses, 2,950 ; Mules and Asses, 856 ; Draught Oxen, 4,858 ; Other Cattle, 9,237 ; Wooled Sheep, 115,150 ; Other Sheep, 25,894 ;

Angora Goats, 3,557; Common Goats, 37,944; Ostriches, 390; Wool, 631,444 lbs.; Wheat, 20,923 bushels; Barley, 26,137 bushels; oats, 2,473 bushels; Vine stocks, 5,414,526; Wine, 1,380 leggers; Brandy, 1,155 leggers.

Tulbagh.—Population, Urban 3,589; Rural 6,354.

Horses, 3,794; Mules and Asses, 1,033; Draught Oxen, 3,797; Other Cattle, 7,913; Wooled Sheep, 103,808; Other Sheep, 8,184; Angora Goats, 3,142; Common Goats, 28,378; Ostriches, 117.

Clanwilliam.—Population, Urban 1,607; Rural 6,797.

Horses, 3,193; Mules and Asses, 656; Draught Oxen, 5,313; Other Cattle, 11,662; Wooled Sheep, 28,196; Other Sheep, 42,018; Angora Goats, 675; Common Goats, 60,775; Ostriches, 358.

Calvinia.—Population, Urban 439; Rural 7,013.

Horses, 3,681; Mules and Asses, 942; Draught Oxen, 4,302; Other Cattle, 9,443; Wooled Sheep, 79,972; Other Sheep, 167,066; Angora Goats, 303; Common Goats, 66,765; Ostriches, 1,148; Wool, 227,377 lbs.

Namaqualand.—Population, Urban 5,703; Rural 6,648.

Horses, 3,507; Mules and Asses, 799; Draught Oxen, 5,539; Other Cattle, 8,323; Wooled Sheep, 4,546; Other Sheep, 111,458; Angora Goats, 956; Common Goats, 81,210; Ostriches, 73.

3. SOUTH WESTERN PROVINCE.

Caledon.—Population, Urban 1,362; Rural 9,941.

Horses, 3,522; Mules and Asses, 910; Draught Oxen, 4,974; Other Cattle, 3,264; Wooled Sheep, 259,621; Other Sheep, 1,002; Angora Goats, 510; Common Goats, 10,107; Ostriches, 310; Wool, 539,951 lbs.; Wheat, 102,058 bushels; Barley, 25,183 bushels; Oats, 67,188 bushels; Wine, 1,149 leggers; Brandy, 144 leggers.

Bredasdorp.—Population, Urban 2,184; Rural 2,101.

Horses, 1,526; Mules and Asses, 343; Draught Oxen, 783; Other Cattle, 649; Wooled Sheep, 127,090; Other Sheep, 436; Angora Goats, 1,058; Common Goats, 6,171; Ostriches, 86; Wool, 321,000 lbs.; Wheat, 14,851 bushels; Barley, 13,262 bushels; Oats, 5,974 bushels.

Swellendam.—Population, Urban 3,521 ; Rural 6,484.

Horses, 4,100 ; Mules and Asses, 511 ; Draught Oxen, 5,456 ; Other Cattle, 7,332 ; Wooled Sheep, 214,557 ; Other Sheep, 3,615 ; Angora Goats, 10,751 ; Common Goats, 44,410 ; Ostriches, 820 ; Wool, 484,413 lbs. ; Wheat, 26,301 bushels ; Barley, 28,000 bushels ; Oats, 37,876 bushels ; Wine, 78 leggers ; Brandy, 34 leggers.

Robertson.—Population, Urban 2,601 ; Rural 5,385.

Horses, 1,843 ; Mules and Asses, 1,048 ; Draught Oxen, 2,764 ; Other Cattle, 5,138 ; Wooled Sheep, 26,697 ; Other Sheep, 2,502 ; Angora Goats, 3,270 ; Common Goats, 53,885 ; Ostriches, 133 ; Wool, 56,000 lbs. ; wheat, 29,674 bushels ; barley, 35,997 bushels ; Oats, 2,547 bushels ; Vine stocks, 4,527,603 ; Wine, 1,173 leggers ; Brandy, 721 leggers.

Riversdale.—Population, Urban, 2,896 ; Rural, 9,829.

Horses, 4,004 ; Mules and Asses, 804 ; Draught Oxen, 7,707 ; Other Cattle, 14,766 ; Wooled Sheep, 105,859 ; Other Sheep, 4,177 ; Angora Goats, 6,415 ; Common Goats, 86,221 ; Ostriches, 2,892 ; Wool, 159,117 lbs. ; Wheat, 35,898 bushels ; Barley, 21,491 bushels ; Oats, 1,477 bushels ; Wine, 189 leggers ; Brandy, 655 leggers.

Oudtshoorn.—Population, Urban, 1,780 ; Rural, 13,349 ;

Horses, 2,881 ; Mules and Asses, 1,726 ; Draught Oxen, 10,226 ; Other Cattle, 6,227 ; Wooled Sheep, 11,078 ; Other Sheep, 5,905 ; Angora Goats, 4,699 ; Common Goats, 84,082 ; Ostriches, 2,519 ; Wool, 20,760 lbs. ; Wheat, 100,721 bushels ; Barley, 16,420 bushels ; Oats, 5,900 bushels ; Vine stocks, 6,042,174 ; Wine, 418 leggers ; Brandy, 1,237 leggers.

George.—Population, Urban, 1,915 ; Rural, 9,851.

Horses, 3,141 ; Mules and Asses, 690 ; Draught Oxen, 9,816 ; Other Cattle, 9,050 ; Wooled Sheep, 96,139 ; Other Sheep, 5,640 ; Angora Goats, 14,867 ; Common Goats, 44,217 ; Ostriches, 1,802 ; Wool, 214,000 lbs. ; Wheat, 57,864 bushels ; Barley, 24,418 bushels ; Oats, 19,937 bushels ; Wine, 23 leggers ; Brandy, 64 leggers.

Mossel Bay.—Population, Urban, 1,352 ; Rural, 3,707.

Horses, 1,442 ; Mules and Asses, 154 ; Draught Oxen, 3,599 Other Cattle, 4,538 ; Wooled Sheep, 88,762 ; Other Sheep, 56 Angora Goats, 3,471 ; Common Goats, 14,267 ; Ostriches, 1,015 Wool, 154,487 lbs. ; Wheat, 16,975 bushels ; Barley, 12,456 bushels ; Oats, 649 bushels.

Knysna.—Population, Urban, 529; Rural, 2,659.

Horses, 495; Mules and Asses, 38; Draught Oxen, 2,683; Other Cattle, 3,157; Wooled Sheep, 18,802; Other Sheep, 23; Angora Goats, 1,411; Common Goats, 1,245; Ostriches, 158.

4. MIDLAND PROVINCE.

Beaufort West.—Population, Urban, 1,575; Rural, 6,739.

Horses, 3,744; Mules and Asses, 1,264; Draught Oxen, 3,502; Other Cattle, 4,715; Wooled Sheep, 482,607; Other Sheep, 18,632; Angora Goats, 15,290; Common Goats, 102,995; Ostriches, 477; Clip of Wool, 1,629,799 lbs.

Prince Albert.—Population, Urban, 907; Rural, 5,035.

Willowmore.—Population, 245.

Horses, 1,637; Mules and Asses, 686; Draught Oxen, 3,405; Other Cattle, 2,782; Wooled Sheep, 163,420; Other Sheep, 12,434; Angora Goats, 10,601; Common Goats, 69,671; Ostriches, 1,053; Wool, 144,256 lbs.; Wheat, 17,036 bushels; Barley, 10,691 bushels; Oats, 1,659 bushels; Vine stocks, 911,603; Wine, 244 leggers; Brandy, 298 leggers.

Victoria West.—Population, Urban, 1,445; Rural, 11,806.

Horses, 6,829; Mules and Asses, 1,792; Draught Oxen, 6,778; Other Cattle, 8,583; Wooled Sheep, 874,635; Other Sheep, 89,284; Angora Goats, 15,629; Common Goats, 118,762; Ostriches, 339; Clip of Wool, 2,095 164 lbs.

Fraserburg.—Population, Urban, 873; Rural, 8,123.

Horses, 5,087; Mules and Asses, 966; Draught Oxen, 4,357, Other Cattle, 9,125; Wooled Sheep, 349,563; Other Sheep, 213,719; Angora Goats, 4,633; Common Goats, 121,177; Ostriches 598, Wool, 1,057,722 lbs.

Richmond.—Population, Urban, 990; Rural, 6,617.

Horses, 5,092; Mules and Asses, 915; Draught Oxen, 3,555; Other Cattle, 5,110; Wooled Sheep, 473,166; Other Sheep, 56,498; Angora Goats, 11,494; Common Goats, 58,443 Ostriches, 439; Wool, 1,823 128 lbs.; Wheat, 17,018 bushels.

Hope Town.—Population, Urban, 491; Rural, 5,653.

Horses, 4,348; Mules and Asses, 186; Draught Oxen, 5,080; Other Cattle, 8,400; Wooled Sheep, 345,290; Other Sheep, 15,641; Angora Goats, 10,790; Common Goats, 36,386; Ostriches, 30; Wool, 1,065,000 lbs.

Murraysburg.—Population, Urban, 699; Rural, 3,079.

Horses, 2,567; Mules and Asses, 699; Draught Oxen, 1,568; Other Cattle, 4,258; Wooled Sheep, 148,526; Other Sheep, 21,398; Angora Goats, 28,142; Common Goats, 20,392; Ostriches, 438; Wool, 605,779 lbs.; Wheat, 10,689 bushels; Barley, 8,138 bushels.

Graaff-Reinet.—Population, Urban, 5,322; Rural, 11,452.

Horses, 5,629; Mules and Asses, 841; Draught Oxen, 13,795; Other Cattle, 14,116; Wooled Sheep, 399,715; Other Sheep, 13,680; Angora Goats, 150,251; Common Goats, 78,975; Ostriches, 1,032.

5. SOUTH EASTERN PROVINCE.

Graham's Town.—Population, Urban, 6,912.

Albany.—Population, Rural, 9,529.

Horses, 2,408; Mules and Asses, 92; Draught Oxen, 17,489; Other Cattle, 17,189; Wooled Sheep, 151,394; Other Sheep, 1,889; Angora Goats, 33,596; Common Goats, 22,881; Ostriches, 637; Wool, 411,073 lbs.; Wheat, 5,619 bushels; Barley, 1,916 bushels; Oats, 966 bushels.

Bathurst—Population, Urban, 1,411; Rural, 4,392.

Horses, 365; Mules and Asses, 13; Draught Oxen, 8,780; Other Cattle, 7,482; Wooled Sheep, 2,660; Other Sheep, 27; Angora Goats, 80; Common Goats, 1,721; Wool, 18,250 lbs.; Wheat, 16,090 bushels; Barley, 7,267 bushels; Oats, 46,601 bushels.

Fort Elizabeth.—Population, Urban, 12,974; Rural, 1,476.

Horses, 818; Mules and Asses, 111; Draught Oxen, 2,291; Other Cattle, 2,051; Wooled Sheep, 1,559; Other Sheep, 3,068; Angora Goats, 206; Common Goats, 432; Ostriches, 10.

Uitenhage.—Population, Urban, 4,102; Rural, 17,365.

Horses, 3,500; Mules and Asses, 580; Draught Oxen, 24,657; Other Cattle, 25,202; Wooled Sheep, 249,683; Other Sheep, 6,930; Angora Goats, 59,808; Common Goats, 260,709; Ostriches, 976; Wool, 625,040 lbs.; Wheat, 17,464 bushels; Vines, 344,684.

Humansdorp.—Population, Urban, 377; Rural, 6,921.

Horses, 1,434; Mules and Asses, 181; Draught Oxen, 5,778; Other Cattle, 9,672; Wooled Sheep, 121,946; Other Sheep, 1,241; Angora Goats, 663; Common Goats, 12,721; Ostriches,

196; Wool, 264,670 lbs.; Wheat, 30,243 bushels; Barley, 10,481 bushels; Oats, 1,258 bushels.

Alexandria.—Population, Urban, 351; Rural, 5,669.

Horses, 772; Mules and Asses, 9; Draught Oxen, 13,440; Other Cattle, 11,079; Wooled Sheep, 13,823; Other Sheep, 2,479; Angora Goats, 946; Common Goats, 3,776; Wool, 31 426 lbs.; Wheat, 38 998 bushels; Barley, 10,872 bushels; Oats, 15,925 bushels; Ostriches, 81.

Victoria East.—Population, Urban, 1,284; Rural, 6,686.

Horses, 869; Mules and Asses, nil; Draught Oxen, 6,989; Other Cattle, 10,039; Wooled Sheep, 52,421; Other Sheep, nil; Angora Goats, 12,330; Common Goats, nil, Ostriches, nil; Wool, 201,578 lbs.

Peddie.—Population, Urban, 516; Rural, 16,022.

Horses, 573; Mules and Asses, 10; Draught Oxen, 11,885; Other Cattle, 24,283; Wooled Sheep, 25,413; Other Sheep, 839; Angora Goats, 2,228; Common Goats, 17,936.

6. NORTH EASTERN PROVINCE.

Fort Beaufort.—Population, Urban, 3,936; Rural, 11,721.

Horses, 1,827; Mules and Asses, 14; Draught Oxen, 9,158; Other Cattle, 15,507; Wooled Sheep, 151,102; Other Sheep, 811; Angora Goats, 17,574; Common Goats, 19,012; Ostriches, 13; Wool, 430,244 lbs.; Wheat, 23,587 bushels; Barley, 2,025 bushels; Oats, 1,190 bushels.

Stockenstrom.—Population, Urban, 232; Rural, 6,267.

Horses, 772; Mules and Asses, 24; Draught Oxen, 5,528; Other Cattle, 4,229; Wooled Sheep, 63,713; Other Sheep, 5; Angora Goats, 8,861; Common Goats, 8,512; Wool, 147,675 lbs.; Wheat, 11,000 bushels.

Somerset East.—Population, Urban, 2,444; Rural, 8,414.

Horses, 3,591; Mules and Asses, 121; Draught Oxen, 9,433; Other Cattle, 10,513; Wooled Sheep, 315,762; Other Sheep, 4,926; Angora Goats, 131,500; Common Goats, 66,596; Ostriches, 219 Wool, 688,342 lbs.; Wheat, 7,842 bushels; Barley, 6,391 bushels Oats, 27,726 bushels.

Bedford.—Population, Urban, 814; Rural, 7,822.

Horses, 2,135; Mules and Asses, 34; Draught Oxen, 7,321; Other Cattle, 11,739; Wooled Sheep, 217,765; Other Sheep, 1,071; Angora Goats, 59,229; Common Goats, 14,586; Ostriches, 169; Wool, 747,829 lbs.; Wheat, 21,140 bushels.

Cradock.—Population, Urban, 1,696; Rural, 9,617.

Horses, 9,617; Mules and Asses, 520; Draught Oxen, 9,467; Other Cattle, 19,316; Wooled Sheep, 475,399; Other Sheep, 16,204; Angora Goats, 95,783; Common Goats, 36,648; Ostriches 1,045; Wool, 1,141,560 lbs.; Wheat, 28,311 bushels; Barley, 6,067 bushels; Oats, 1,238 bushels.

Albert.—Population, Urban, 1,526; Rural, 9,996.

Horses, 14,356; Mules and Asses, 297; Draught Oxen, 9,267; Other Cattle, 30,745; Wooled Sheep, 468,482; Other Sheep, 26,072; Angora Goats, 25,186; Common Goats, 33,016; Ostriches, 49.

Middleburg.—Population, Urban, 1,135; Rural, 4,803.

Horses, 5,158; Mules and Asses, 170; Draught Oxen, 4,258; Other Cattle, 9,752; Wooled Sheep, 223,388; Other Sheep, 6,917; Angora Goats, 11,487; Common Goats, 23,299; Ostriches, 339; Wool, 679,588 lbs.; Wheat, 17,505 bushels; Barley, 5,046 bushels; Oats, 1,386 bushels.

Colesberg.—Population, Urban, 2,240; Rural, 7,947.

Horses, 9,308; Mules and Asses, 506; Draught Oxen, 6,624; Other Cattle, 16,593; Wooled Sheep, 496,141; Other Sheep, 15,063; Angora Goats, 20,600; Common Goats, 42,387; Ostriches, 893; Wool, 2,372,366 lbs.; Wheat, 32,114 bushels; Barley, 5,270; Oats, 4,591 bushels.

7. EASTERN PROVINCE.

East London.—Population, Urban, 2,818; Rural, 12,648.

Horses, 1,014; Mules and Asses, nil; Draught Oxen, 14,539; Other Cattle, 22,442; Wooled Sheep, 80,607; Other Sheep, nil; Angora Goats, 10,557.

King William's Town.—Population, Urban, 3,533; Rural, 104,508.

Horses, 9,984; Mules and Asses, 24; Draught Oxen, 33,975; Other Cattle, 102,626; Wooled Sheep, 441,714; Other Sheep, 323; Angora Goats, 9,739; Common Goats, 115,941; Ostriches, 57.

Queen's Town.—Population, Urban, 3,067; Rural, 47,644.

Horses, 14,789; Mules and Asses, 70; Draught Oxen, 28,670; Other Cattle, 52,749; Wooled Sheep, 698,154; Other Sheep, 2,145; Angora Goats, 41,810; Common Goats, 85,965; Ostriches, 161; Wool, 2,713,325 lbs.; Wheat, 58,841 bushels; Barley, 4,325 bushels; Oats, 1,449 bushels.

Aliwal North.—Population, Urban, 1,237; Rural, 6,870.

Horses, 12,761; Mules and Asses, 87; Draught Oxen, 16,760; Other Cattle, 47,556; Wooled Sheep, 433,365; Other Sheep, 4,240; Angora Goats, 42,486; Common Goats, 23,903.

Wodehouse.—Population, Urban, 656; Rural, 7469; Tambookie Location, 18,445.

Horses, 15,971; Mules, 97; Draught Oxen, 16,834; Other Cattle, 42,621; Sheep, 569,332; Goats, 77,273.

Herschel.—Population, 22,664.

Horses, 6,747; Draught Oxen, 10,549; Other Cattle, 30,966; Sheep, 58,065; Goats, 28,709; Wheat, 16,436 bushels; Maize, 48,000 bushels; Wool, 151,212 lbs.

Comparison of Total Stock in the Colony in 1865 and 1875.

	1865.	1875.
Horses	228,465	207,318
Mules and Asses	24,267	29,517
Draught Oxen	249,291	398,825
Other Cattle	443,004	698,681
Wooled Sheep	8,426,619	10,064,289
Other Sheep	1,465,883	944,050
Angora Goats	121,432	972,733
Common Goats	2,147,807	2,122,808
Pigs	78,578	110,489
Ostriches	80	22,257

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CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.—TRADE RETURNS.

TABLE I.—EXPORTS.

SHOWING the Minimum and Maximum Quantities and Values of the Principal and other Articles, the Produce of this Colony, Exported during the Ten Years ended 31st December, 1871, and also the Quantity and Value Exported in the Years 1872, 1873, and 1874.

EXPORTS.—ARTICLES.	Minimum quantity and value exported during the ten years ended 31st December, 1871.		Maximum quantity and value exported during the ten years ended 31st December, 1871.		Quantity and value exported in 1872.		Quantity and value exported in 1873.		Quantity and value exported in 1874.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Aloes ... ... lbs.	(1862) 289,632	£3,218	(1865) 846,160	£9,481	lbs. 484,532	£3,221	lbs. 230,351	£1,623	lbs. 614,272	£5,526
Argol (wine stone) ... ... ,,	(1868) 38,280	980	(1862) 128,464	4,530	,, 133,189	3,633	,, 58,708	1,666	,, 75,598	2,268
Copper Ore ... ... tons	,, 2,900	60,985	(1871) 7,851	160,956	tons 13,240	328,458	tons 11,570	312,221	tons 13,646	321,434
Corn, Grain, and Meal:										
Barley ... ... lbs.	(1862) 264,240	1,751	(1868) 1,553,679	4,317	lbs. 285,923	896	lbs. 88,960	287	lbs. 148,260	747
Beans and Peas ... ... ,,	(1866) 16,320	112	(1870) 580,083	2,188	,, 107,948	563	,, 39,044	197	,, 70,443	469
Bran ... ... ,,	,, 27,537	109	,, 1,483,705	4,384	,, 1,342,332	3,752	,, 532,638	1,798	,, 94,500	520
Flour ... ... ,,	(1867) 358,730	3,379	,, 1,299,724	37,190	,, 1,108,324	9,760	,, 285,530	2,930	,, 303,827	3,202
Maize ... ... ,,	(1865) 1,590	8	,, 1,431,932	3,252	,, 179,105	724	,, 1,080	6	,, 710,766	2,197
Oats ... ... ,,	(1862) 378,820	2,584	(1871) 2,598,965	7,541	,, 1,868,228	6,144	,, 1,301,093	6,410	,, 679,596	5,337
Wheat ... ... ,,	(1867) 400	3	,, 7,235,628	29,006	,, 4,422,651	20,108	,, 41,390	254	,, 35,411	496
Cotton ... ... ,,		Nil		Nil	Nil	Nil	,, 49,376	2,055	,, 15,117	257
Diamonds ... . number.		Nil		Nil	Nil	Nil	,, 35,169	403,349	No. 45,890	306,041	No. 13,450	25,285	No. 2,893	8,148
Feathers (ostrich) ... ... lbs.	(1862) 7,061	40,487	(1870) 28,768	87,074	lbs. 26,695	158,024	lbs. 31,581	159,677	lbs. 36,829	205,640
Fish, cured ... ... ,,	,, 1,919,538	11,945	,, 5,393,327	25,976	,, 3,248,241	17,408	,, 2,867,243	28,157	,, 4,872,814	34,339
Fruit, dried ... ... ,,	(1866) 324,637	3,960	(1868) 1,983,027	24,424	,, 695,343	7,188	,, 319,145	3,371	,, 332,762	5,078
Hair, Angora ... ... ,,	...	...	(1871) 536,292	43,059	,, 871,891	58,457	,, 765,719	45,913	,, 1,036,570	107,139
Hides, Ox and Cow ... ... number.	(1865) 14,036	9,724	,, 45,934	29,943	No. 72,937	45,771	No. 51,075	42,624	No. 68,458	49,425
Horns ... ... ,,	,, 59,186	821	(1863) 103,315	2,198	,, 136,775	1,912	,, 139,763	1,826	,, 134,154	1,900
Horses ... ... ,,	(1867) 25	770	(1868) 257	7,450	,, 199	3,200	,, 107	4,102	,, 48	1,925
Ivory ... ... lbs.	(1864) 11,609	2,444	(1870) 52,945	13,746	lbs. 87,389	23,976	lbs. 90,872	32,339	lbs. 73,747	26,667
Skins, Goat ... ... number.	,, 450,247	55,716	(1871) 1,233,976	172,055	No. 1,351,918	191,503	No. 1,373,278	188,826	No. 1,478,761	194,323
,, Sheep ... ... ,,	(1862) 827,894	65,929	(1870) 1,484,076	87,240	,, 1,436,857	140,011	,, 1,481,635	143,648	,, 1,462,367	144,588
Spirits, Brandy ... ... casks	(1870) 304	77	(1863) 43,451	12,566	galls. 660	137	galls. 1,045	228	galls. 718	245
	(1865) nil									
Wine, Constantia ... ... ,,	(1871) 203	192	(1866) 3,201	1,693	,, 371	248	,, 778	597	,, 1,655	1,272
,, Ordinary ... ... ,,	,, 61,689	10,742	(1863) 319,146	46,054	,, 77,999	14,861	,, 75,199	14,488	,, 77,802	15,876
Wool ... ... lbs.	(1867) 25,038,218	1,276,542	(1871) 46,279,639	2,191,233	lbs. 48,822,562	3,275,150	lbs. 40,393,746	2,710,481	lbs. 42,620,481	2,948,571
Other Articles ... ... value of	...	(1865) 24,988	...	(1870) 210 196	...	44,925	...	30,306	...	51,299

TABLE II.—IMPORTS.

SHOWING the Minimum and Maximum Quantities and Values of the principal Articles of Merchandize imported into this Colony during the Ten Years ended 31st December, 1871; and also the Quantity or Value imported in the Years 1872, 1873, and 1874.

IMPORTS.—ARTICLES.	Minimum quantity or value imported during the ten years ended 31st December, 1871.	Maximum quantity or value imported during the ten years ended 31st December, 1874.	Quantity or value imported in 1872.	Quantity or value imported in 1873.	Quantity or value imported in 1874.
Agricultural Implements	£ (1866) 5,607	£ (1871) 23,778	£ 36,751	£ 58,515	£ 38,178
Ale and Beer	galls. (1863) 323,449	galls. (1865) 497,556	galls. 664,069	galls. 449,222	galls. 614,270
Apparel and Slops	£ (1866) 105,228	£ (1871) 162,695	£ 312,616	£ 346,937	£ 292,036
Coffee	lbs. (1865) 3,035,312	lbs. (1866) 9,228,576	lbs. 7,854,616	lbs. 4,242,217	lbs. 7,969,473
Corn, Grain, Meal :—					
Barley	„ (1870) 600	„ (1863) 180,360	lbs. nil	lbs. 1,250	„ 8,233
Beans and Peas	„ (1871) 128	„ (1867) 37,620	„ nil	„ nil	„ 3,360
Bran	„ (1871) 306	„ (1863) 1,066,882	„ 40,390	„ nil	„ 210,515
Flour	„ (1871) 28,697	„ (1863) 19,324,228	„ 2,302,455	„ 8,862,234	„ 19,199,264
Maize	„ (3870) 2,000	„ (1863) 3,555,240	„ 56,530	„ 140,309	„ 1,086,251
Oats	„ (1871) nil (1869) 1,217	„ (1865) 539,760	„ 200	„ 17,300	„ 563,104
Wheat	„ (1870 & 1871) nil (1869) 234,747	„ (1863) 17,308,740	„ 329,897	„ 2,942,165	„ 22,513,585
Cotton Manufactures	£ (1863) 137,661	£ (1867) 489,874	£ 666,599	£ 596,087	£ 505,791
Gunpowder	lbs. (1863) 176,793	lbs. (1865) 258,295	lbs. 270,310	lbs. 479,518	lbs. 496,654
Guns	No. (1869) 2,186	No. (1871) 7,225	No. 36,480	No. 63,206	No. 33,777
Haberdashery and Millinery ...	£ (1863) 191,230	£ (1871) 284,686	£ 474,325	£ 631,041	£ 574,438
Hardware and Ironmongery ...	„ (1866) 65,773	„ (1871) 174,960	„ 306,475	„ 428,764	„ 353,135
Iron—Bars	„ (1866) 6,804	„ (1863) 16,506	„ 21,275	„ 40,915	„ 50,803
Leather Manufactures	„ (1866) 47,092	„ (1871) 102,415	„ 306,290	„ 264,870	„ 247,814
Linen „	„ (1863) 9,937	„ (1871) 38,217	„ 79,270	„ 46,058	„ 48,772
Rice	lbs. (1865) 4,777,360	lbs. (1867) 14,654,235	lbs. 9,514,095	lbs. 7,830,172	lbs. 13,677,343
Saddlery and Harness	£ (1866) 9,190	£ (1871) 24,132	£ 52,030	£ 80,133	£ 67,128
Silk Manufactures	„ (1866) 1,753	„ (1874) 6,050	„ 8,889	„ 16,713	„ 14,177
Spirits, all sorts	galls. (1866) 39,927	galls. (1863) 131,455	galls. 176,727	galls. 116,498	galls. 183,868
Sugar, not refined	lbs. (1865) 10,940,496	lbs. (1870) 15,504,822	lbs. 16,413,348	lbs. 20,482,524	lbs. 21,820,145
„ refined...	„ (1866) 361,424	„ (1867) 723,702	„ 1,101,867	„ 674,466	„ 786,681
„ Molasses	„ (1868) 129,309	„ (1864) 887,264	„ 370,400	„ 431,944	„ 703,134
Tea	„ (1864) 137,540	„ (1870) 869,186	„ 778,651	„ 908,462	„ 915,816
Tobacco, not manufactured ...	„ (1869) 36,510	„ (1867) 373,675	„ 83,241	„ 41,726	„ 182,711
„ manufactured ...	„ (1865) 24,055	„ (1863) 644,893	„ 194,123	„ 314,951	„ 277,937
„ Cigars	No. (1868) 952,070 lbs. (1868) 352	No. (1862) 5,917,450 lbs. (1862) nil	No. 9,566,682 lbs. 18,421	No. 7,978,276 lbs. 16,879	No. 4,888,179 lbs. 6,745
Wine	galls. (1867) 14,446	galls. (1862) 38,586	galls. 73,333	galls. 66,220	galls. 510,177
Wood, unmanufactured	c. ft. (1866) 92,788	c. ft. (1862) 1,064,301	c. ft. 513,837	c. ft. 546,325	c. ft. 1,181,274
Woollen Manufactures	£ (1866) 64,729	£ (1871) 162,284	£ 204,860	£ 310,827	£ 295,680
Other Items	„ (1866) 424,864	„ (1862) 877,377	„ 1,162,382	„ 1,398,649	„ 1,678,269