

HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE  
HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 96

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KENYA, UGANDA  
AND ZANZIBAR

LONDON:  
PUBLISHED BY H.M. STATIONERY OFFICE.

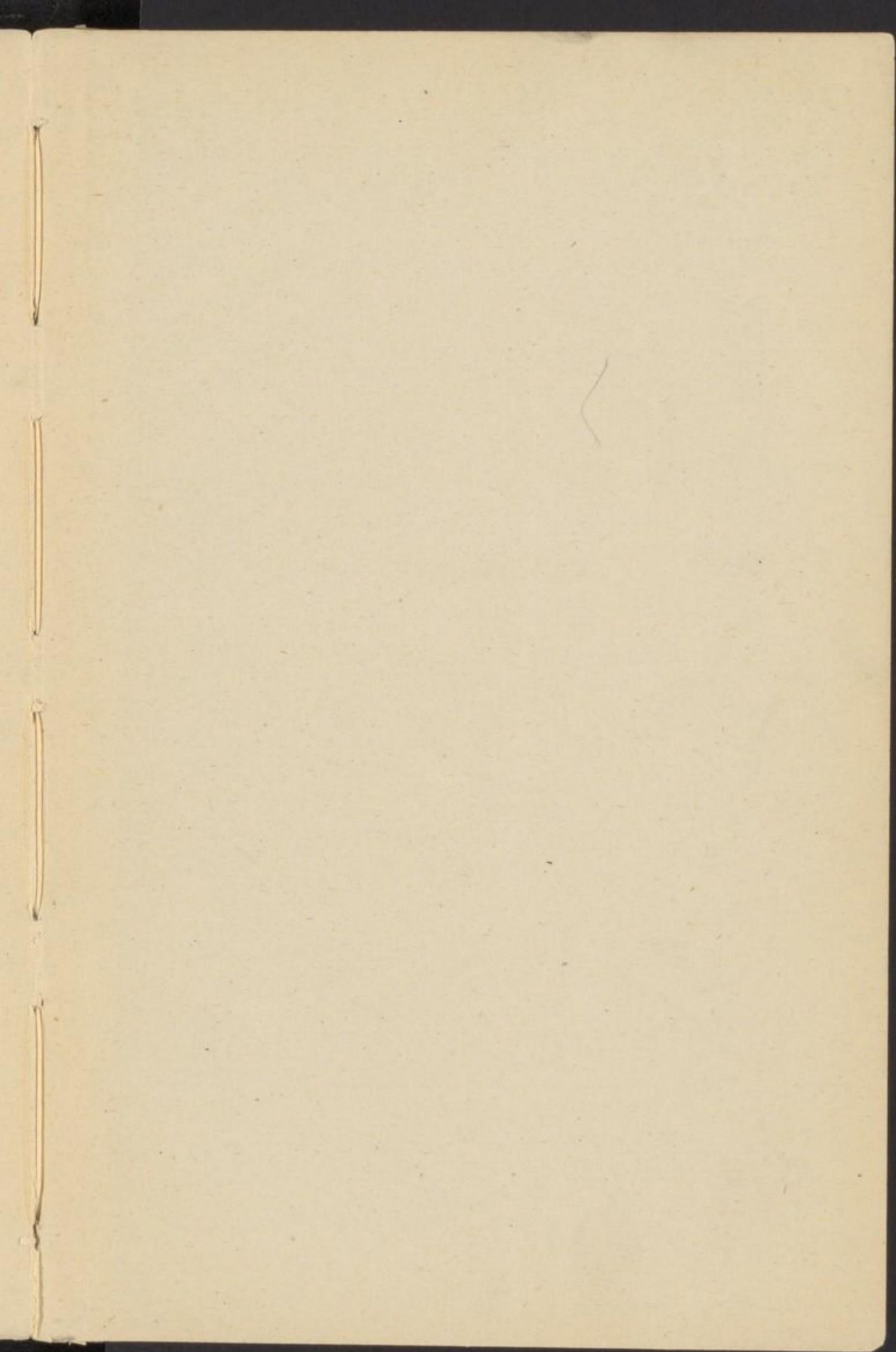
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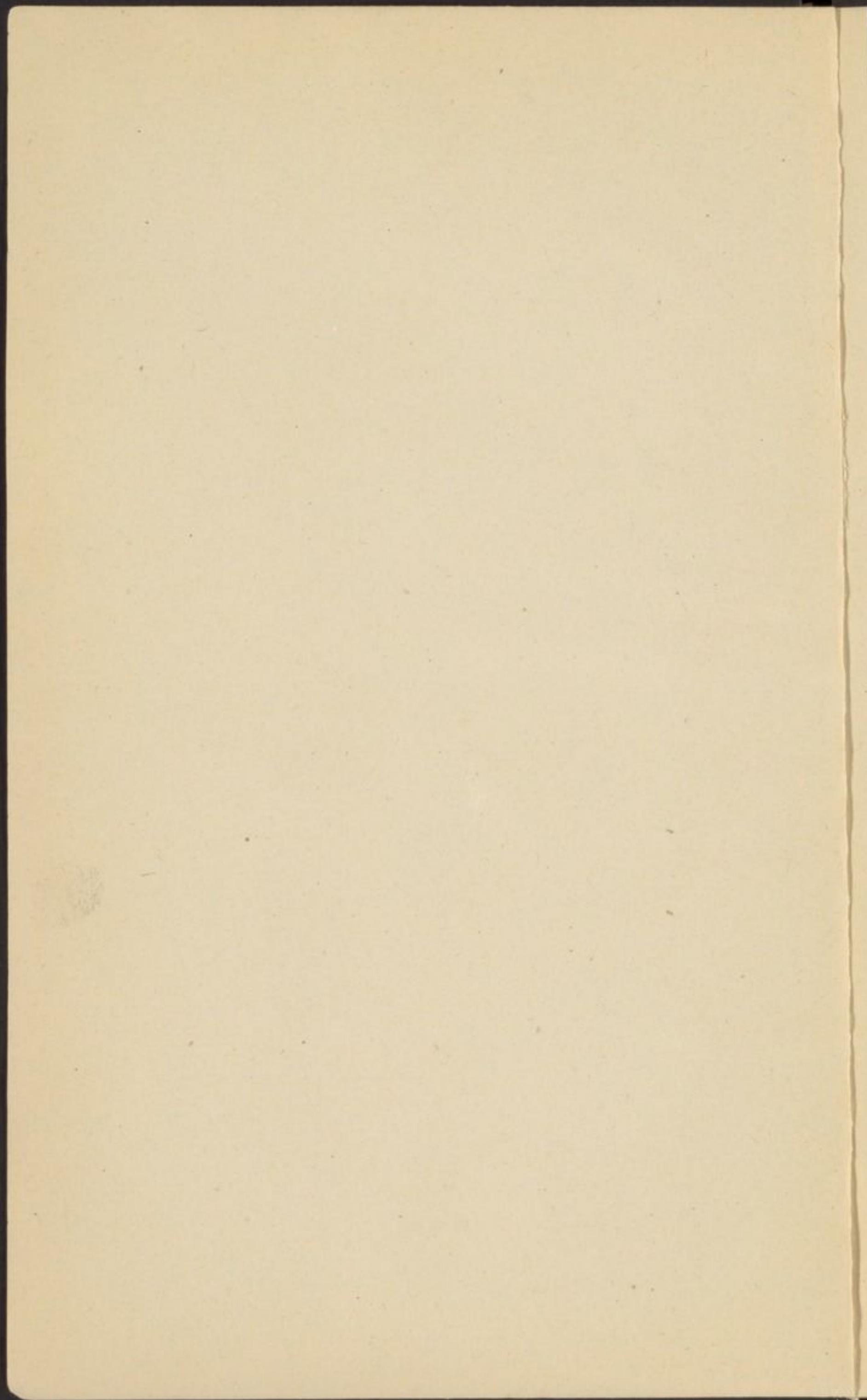


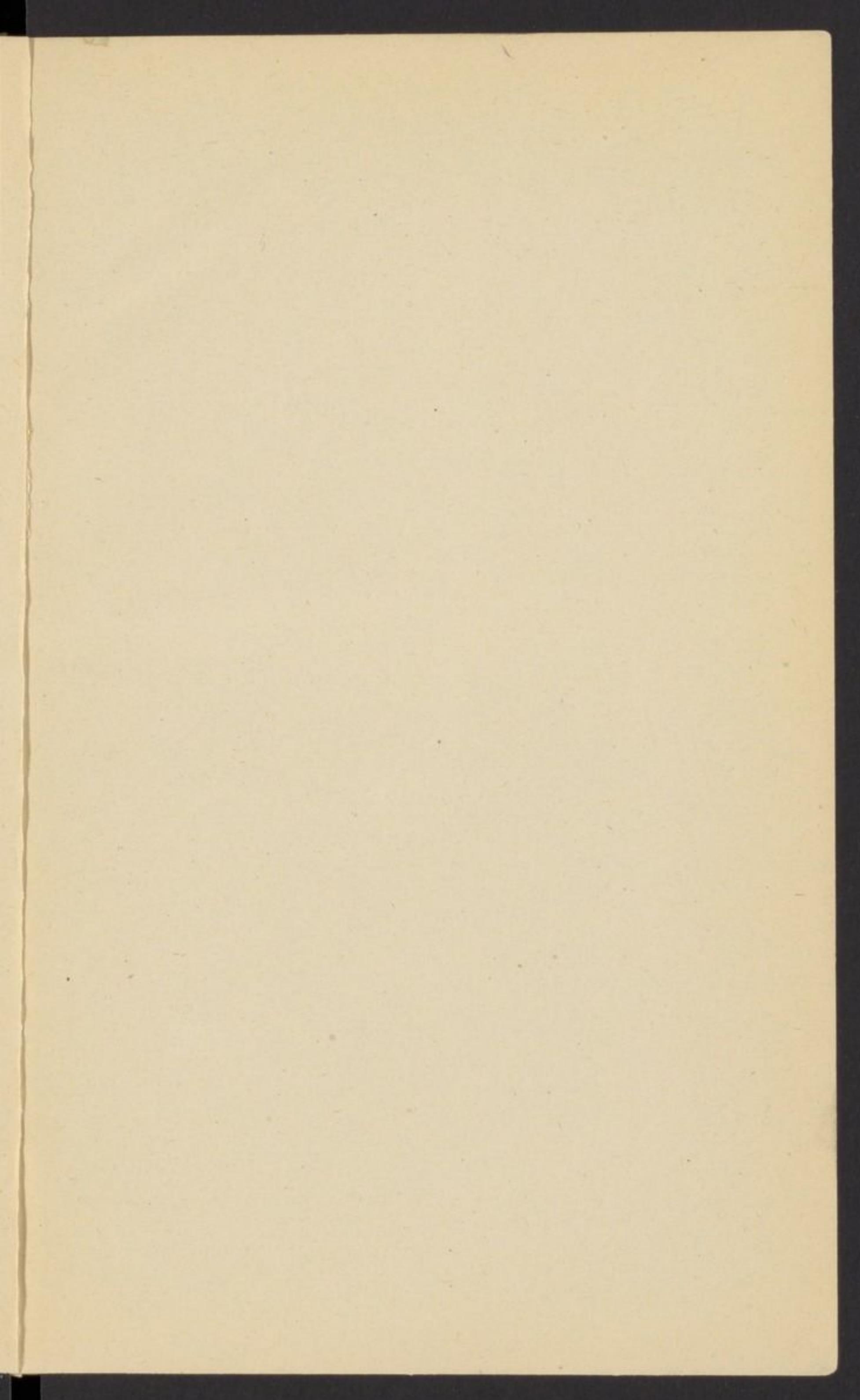


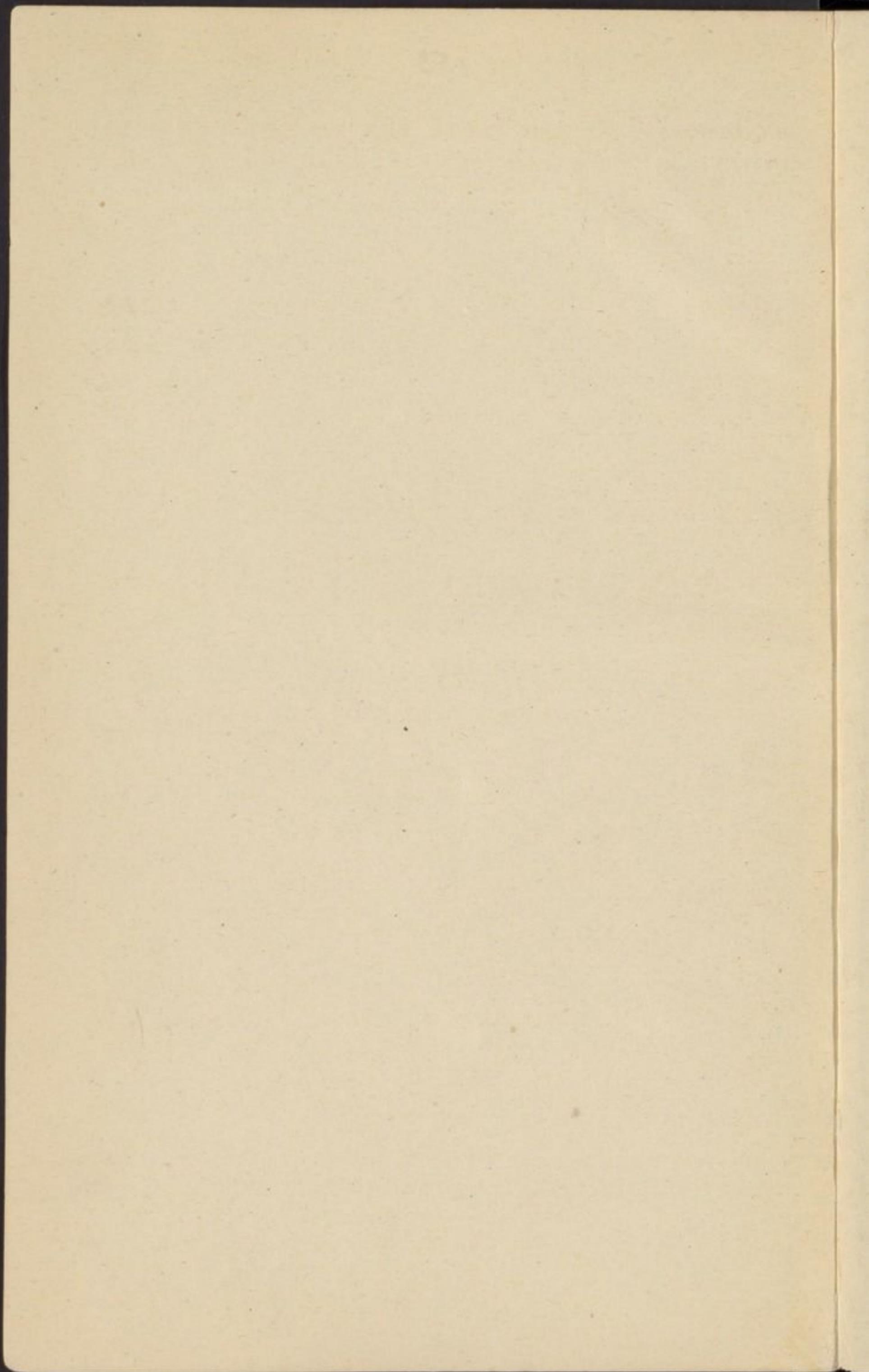
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HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE <sup>Gr. Brit.</sup> FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 96

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# KENYA, UGANDA AND ZANZIBAR

LONDON:

PUBLISHED BY H.M. STATIONERY OFFICE.

1920

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The name "Kenya" has now been officially adopted as a collective title for the new Kenya Colony and the Kenya Protectorate (the mainland dominions of the Sultan of Zanzibar), which together constituted the former East Africa Protectorate. But, as this book was prepared for publication before the adoption of the collective title, and as the territories concerned are sufficiently indicated by the older names, it has not been thought advisable to incur the additional expense of altering them in the text so as to correspond exactly with the new nomenclature.

EDITOR.

n. of D.

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## Editorial Note.

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IN the spring of 1917 the Foreign Office, in connection with the preparation which they were making for the work of the Peace Conference, established a special section whose duty it should be to provide the British Delegates to the Peace Conference with information in the most convenient form—geographical, economic, historical, social, religious and political—respecting the different countries, districts, islands, &c., with which they might have to deal. In addition, volumes were prepared on certain general subjects, mostly of an historical nature, concerning which it appeared that a special study would be useful.

The historical information was compiled by trained writers on historical subjects, who (in most cases) gave their services without any remuneration. For the geographical sections valuable assistance was given by the Intelligence Division (Naval Staff) of the Admiralty; and for the economic sections, by the War Trade Intelligence Department, which had been established by the Foreign Office. Of the maps accompanying the series, some were prepared by the above-mentioned department of the Admiralty, but the bulk of them were the work of the Geographical Section of the General Staff (Military Intelligence Division) of the War Office.

Now that the Conference has nearly completed its task, the Foreign Office, in response to numerous enquiries and requests, has decided to issue the books for public use, believing that they will be useful to students of history, politics, economics and foreign affairs, to publicists generally and to business men and travellers. It is hardly necessary to say that some of the subjects dealt with in the series have not in fact come under discussion at the Peace Conference; but, as the books treating of them contain valuable information, it has been thought advisable to include them.

It must be understood that, although the series of volumes was prepared under the authority, and is now issued with the sanction, of the Foreign Office, that Office is not to be regarded as guaranteeing the accuracy of every statement which they contain or as identifying itself with all the opinions expressed in the several volumes; the books were not prepared in the Foreign Office itself, but are in the nature of information provided for the Foreign Office and the British Delegation.

The books are now published, with a few exceptions, substantially as they were issued for the use of the Delegates. No attempt has been made to bring them up to date, for, in the first place, such a process would have entailed a great loss of time and a prohibitive expense; and, in the second, the political and other conditions of a great part of Europe and of the Nearer and Middle East are still unsettled and in such a state of flux that any attempt to describe them would have been incorrect or misleading. The books are therefore to be taken as describing, in general, *ante-bellum* conditions, though in a few cases, where it seemed specially desirable, the account has been brought down to a later date.

G. W. PROTHERO,

*General Editor and formerly*

*Director of the Historical Section.*

*January 1920.*

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

PAGE

### I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

#### *EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE*

(1) Position and Frontiers	...	...	...	...	...	1
(2) Surface, Coast, Rivers, and Lakes						
Surface and Coast	...	...	...	...	...	2
Rivers and Lakes	...	...	...	...	...	6
(3) Climate						
Temperature	...	...	...	...	...	7
Rainfall	...	...	...	...	...	7
(4) Sanitary Conditions	...	...	...	...	...	8
(5) Race and Language						
Race	...	...	...	...	...	9
Language	...	...	...	...	...	11
(6) Population						
Distribution	...	...	...	...	...	12
Towns	...	...	...	...	...	13
Movement	...	...	...	...	...	13

#### *UGANDA*

(1) Position and Frontiers	...	...	...	...	...	13
(2) Surface and River System						
Surface	...	...	...	...	...	14
River System	...	...	...	...	...	18
(3) Climate	...	...	...	...	...	19
(4) Sanitary Conditions	...	...	...	...	...	20
(5) Race and Language...	...	...	...	...	...	20
(6) Population						
Distribution	...	...	...	...	...	22
Towns and Villages	...	...	...	...	...	23
Movement	...	...	...	...	...	24

#### *ZANZIBAR*

(1) Position and Extent	...	...	...	...	...	24
(2) Coast, Surface, and Streams	...	...	...	...	...	25
(3) Climate	...	...	...	...	...	26
(4) Sanitary Conditions	...	...	...	...	...	26
(5) Race and Language	...	...	...	...	...	27
(6) Population	...	...	...	...	...	28

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

[No. 96

	PAGE
<b>II. POLITICAL HISTORY</b>	
Chronological Summary ... ..	30
<i>EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE AND UGANDA</i>	
(a) Great Britain, Germany, and the British East Africa Company, 1885—1891 ... ..	31
(b) The East Africa Protectorate and Uganda since 1891 ... ..	37
<i>ZANZIBAR</i>	
(a) History to the close of the Portuguese Domination ... ..	40
(b) Zanzibar under Oman (Muscat), A.D. 1698—1861 ... ..	40
(c) Zanzibar an independent Sultanate, A.D. 1861—1890 ... ..	42
(d) Zanzibar a British Protectorate, A.D. 1890—1918 ... ..	49
 <b>III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS</b>	
(1) RELIGIOUS	
(a) <i>East Africa Protectorate</i> ... ..	52
(b) <i>Uganda</i> ... ..	52
(c) <i>Zanzibar</i> ... ..	52
(2) POLITICAL	
(a) <i>East Africa Protectorate</i> ... ..	53
(b) <i>Uganda</i> ... ..	54
(c) <i>Zanzibar</i> ... ..	55
(3) EDUCATIONAL	
(a) <i>East Africa Protectorate</i> ... ..	57
(b) <i>Uganda</i> ... ..	57
(c) <i>Zanzibar</i> ... ..	57
 <b>IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS</b>	
<i>EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE AND UGANDA</i>	
(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION	
(1) Internal	
(a) Roads and Paths ... ..	59
(b) Waterways ... ..	60

	PAGE
(c) Railways	
The System in General ... ..	61
Particulars of Construction ... ..	63
Finance ... ..	64
Adequacy to Economic Needs; Possibilities of Expansion ... ..	66
(d) Posts, Telegraphs, Telephones ... ..	68
(2) External	
(a) Ports	
Accommodation, &c. ... ..	68
Tonnage ... ..	70
Harbour Development ... ..	70
(b) Shipping Lines ... ..	71
(c) Telegraphic Communications ... ..	71
(B) INDUSTRY	
(1) Labour	
Supply ... ..	72
Conditions ... ..	74
(2) Agriculture	
Products of Commercial Value ... ..	74
Methods of Cultivation ; Irrigation ... ..	76
Forestry ... ..	77
(3) Fisheries ... ..	77
(4) Minerals ... ..	78
(5) Manufactures ... ..	78
(6) Power ... ..	78
(C) COMMERCE	
(1) Domestic	
Principal Branches of Trade ... ..	79
Towns, Markets, Fairs ... ..	79
Organizations to promote Trade and Commerce	79
Foreign Firms and Companies ... ..	80
Methods of Economic Penetration ... ..	80
(2) Foreign	
Exports ... ..	81
Imports ... ..	83
Customs and Tariffs ... ..	83
Commercial Treaties ... ..	84
(D) FINANCE	
Public Finance ... ..	84
Banking ... ..	85
Influence of Foreign Capital ... ..	86
Principal Fields of Investment ... ..	86
(E) GENERAL REMARKS ... ..	87

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

[No. 96

	PAGE
<i>ZANZIBAR</i>	
(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION ... ..	89
(B) INDUSTRY ... ..	91
(C) COMMERCE ... ..	93
(D) FINANCE ... ..	95
 <b>APPENDIX</b>	
EXTRACTS FROM TREATIES	
I. Anglo-German Agreement, October 29/November 1, 1886 ... ..	97
II. Anglo-German Agreement, July 1, 1890, Articles I, II, XI, XII ... ..	98
TABLES	
I. Uganda Railway Revenue, 1904-1917 ... ..	101
II. Uganda Railway and Marine Statistics, 1907-1917	102
III. East Africa Protectorate: Export and Import Trade, 1896-1916 ... ..	103
IV. East Africa Protectorate: Exports (Countries of Origin), 1907-1916 ... ..	104
V. East Africa Protectorate: Exports (Countries of Destination), 1907-1916... ..	105
VI. East Africa Protectorate: Imports (Varieties and Values), 1912-1916 ... ..	105
VII. East Africa Protectorate: Imports (Countries of Origin), 1907-1916 ... ..	106
VIII. Zanzibar Protectorate: Exports and Imports, 1913	106
AUTHORITIES ... ..	108
MAPS ... ..	110

## I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

### *EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE*

#### (1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

THE East Africa Protectorate extends from the Indian Ocean to Lakes Rudolf and Victoria Nyanza. It marches on the north with Abyssinia, on the south with the Tanganyika Territory (German East Africa), on the east with Italian Somaliland, and on the west with the Uganda Protectorate. It lies between  $4^{\circ} 40'$  S. and  $4^{\circ} 30'$  N. latitude, and between  $34^{\circ}$  and  $42^{\circ} 40'$  E. longitude, and has an area of some 247,000 square miles.

The southern boundary follows a straight line north-west from the mouth of the River Umba to Lake Jipe, the east shore of which it ascends; thence it proceeds northwards, leaving Mount Kilimanjaro in German territory, to about  $3^{\circ}$  south latitude, whence it again follows a straight line north-west to Mohuru Bay on Victoria Nyanza, in  $1^{\circ}$  south latitude. In the east the boundary between British East Africa and Italian Somaliland is the River Juba, from its mouth to the confluence of the Daua. From this point the boundary between British East Africa and Abyssinia follows the River Daua as far as Malka Murri. Thence it runs roughly west-south-west, and again west, following tribal boundaries, to the eastern end of the Goro escarpment, which it follows for some distance, afterwards turning in a north-westerly direction to near the southern end of Lake Stefanie, and thence directly west to Lake Rudolf. Between the East Africa Protectorate and Uganda the boundary passes down the middle of Lake Rudolf to the mouth of the River Turkwel, the course of which

it follows to its source. It then crosses the summit of Mount Elgon, and, striking the River Sio, follows it to Victoria Nyanza, and passes west of the islands of Sumba, Mageta, and Mfwanganu, to the point on Mohuru Bay at which the former German frontier reaches the lake.

## (2) SURFACE, COAST, RIVERS, AND LAKES

### *Surface and Coast*

Apart from a narrow belt of coast-land and the plains of Jubaland and Tanaland, the whole territory forms part of the East African Plateau. The country is traversed from north to south by the Eastern Rift valley, which forms a series of lake basins from Lake Rudolf in the north to Lake Natron on the southern frontier.

The highland region in the south-west, which extends far into the Tanganyika Territory, lies at an altitude of between 5,000 and 8,000 feet. Northwards to Lake Rudolf, beyond the region of high mountains, the general level declines rapidly, though there are mountains south-east of the lake. Farther east a steppe region, bounded on the north by the escarpment of the Abyssinian highlands, slopes downwards towards the south-east, passing into the plains of Jubaland. West of the Rift valley the Nandi and Mau escarpments fall sharply to the great depression of Victoria Nyanza.

The whole territory may be divided roughly into five regions: (1) the coast and coastal plain, (2) the slopes of the south-western plateau, (3) the largely volcanic highlands rising therefrom, (4) the depression of Victoria Nyanza, and (5) the northern steppes and the plains of Jubaland and Tanaland. Of these regions the third is by far the most important and characteristic.

(1) *The Coast*.—From the River Uмба, as far north as Formosa Bay, the coast consists of sandy beaches and low coral cliffs, broken by mangrove-fringed creeks and protected by a barrier reef. Farther north it be-

comes lower and more sandy, and in the neighbourhood of the Lamu group consists of a maze of creeks and islands. North of Kwaihu Bay it is low and unbroken, though small islands and reefs are still numerous.

It is well provided with natural harbours, of which Mombasa is the most important. Port Durnford and Kismayu, in Jubaland, have some importance owing to the lack of harbours further north along the Benadir coast.

The islands, Wasin (near the mouth of the Uмба), the Lamu group, and the Bajun islands north of Port Durnford, are the site of the chief Arab towns on the coast, and still possess a considerable population.

*The Coastal Plain.*—The section furthest south between the River Uмба and the River Sabaki consists of a narrow strip between the sea and the Shimba and Giriama Hills (600 to 1,500 ft.). Sandhills also rise in places to a height of several hundred feet.

This zone is fertile and well cultivated, and southwest of Malindi there is a large tract of forest. North of the River Sabaki the coast plain widens greatly, being joined by the inland plains of the Tana. In the Witu and Lamu districts the soil is especially fertile. Further north, in Jubaland, the coast plain is completely merged in the great plains of the interior. In this section it is covered with bush, and there is little cultivation. A line of sandhills about 200 ft. high here follows the coast, not far inland.

(2) *The Plateau Slopes.*—The southern part of the coast plain is bounded on the west by a range of sandstone hills, and behind these are the thinly peopled steppes of Nyika or Taru, which rise gradually westward to a height of 3,000 ft. The soil of these plains is a characteristic red earth, which is fertile when irrigated, and the vegetation consists of a dense thorn scrub. To the south and west of Voi the plains are broken by a number of lofty summits, ranging from 4,000 to 7,000 ft. high, among them being Bura and Kadiaro. Between Tsavo and Taveta, the country is well watered and fertile.

(3) *The Volcanic Highlands.*—The plateau rises towards the west in a series of ridges running roughly north and south, and having a general altitude of some 5,000 ft. Beyond these ridges rise Mount Kenya and the great ranges of the south-western plateau, which are mainly of volcanic origin. This highland region is divided into two parts by the Eastern Rift valley. Kenya, the Laikipia plateau, the Kikuyu uplands and the Masai plains lie to the east of the valley, and Mount Elgon, the Gwas Ngishu (Uasin Gishu) plateau, and the Nandi, Mau and Lumbwa districts to the west.

The great volcanic mass of Kenya, which lies north of Kikuyu, facing the northern end of the Aberdare Mountains, rises to a height of 17,040 ft., and its slopes are thickly wooded.

The Laikipia plateau lies north-west of Mount Kenya, and consists for the most part of rolling grass plains with an altitude of 6,000 to 7,000 ft. The Lorogai Mountains form the northern scarp of the plateau, and on the east it shelves downwards towards the Jubaland plains and the Lorian swamp. The district is badly watered, save near the River Gwaso Nyiro, and is very difficult of access.

The Kikuyu uplands, which slope westwards from the wall of the Eastern Rift valley, are one of the most fertile and thickly peopled regions of British East Africa. The Kikuyu country proper lies at an altitude of 4,500 to 6,500 ft., and consists of a succession of well-watered valleys, which were originally covered by forests, but have now been cleared. The zone of cultivation is extending far up the slopes of the Kikuyu escarpment and the Aberdare Mountains, which attain in places an altitude of 12,000 to 13,000 ft. The Masai plains, which have an altitude of 5,000 to 6,000 ft., run southwards from Kikuyu towards the former German frontier and Mt. Kilimanjaro, and, with the exception of the Athi and part of the Kapiti plains, south and east of Nairobi, are now included in the Masai reserve. They consist of flat and open grass-lands, badly

watered, but nevertheless affording good grazing, except in the Nyiri district in the south-east.

The Eastern Rift valley crosses the entire territory from north to south, and in the region of Lake Baringo is bounded on the west by the double line of the Elgeyo and Kamasia escarpments. In its central portion, where the escarpment walls are most clearly defined, and where its floor is highest, it has a width of 20 to 30 miles, and lies at a depth of 800 ft. below the general level of the highlands, and 1,500 to 3,000 ft. below the heights of the neighbouring escarpments. The valley floor is divided by a series of transverse folds, which form many lake basins. (See section on "Lakes" below.) The high central portion of this region is well watered and affords excellent pasturage and fertile agricultural land, but north and south of this the valley becomes arid and the climate hot.

The great Gwas Ngishu plateau is bounded on the east by the Elgeyo escarpment, on the north by the Suk Mountains, on the west by Mount Elgon, and on the south by the Nandi escarpment. It consists mainly of level grass-covered plains, with an altitude of 6,000 to 8,000 ft., but there are large tracts of forest.

The Nandi and Mau escarpments are clothed in dense forest, which continues through the broken Lumbwa and Sotik hill country, westward to the Victoria Nyanza depression and southward to the former German frontier.

(4) *The Depression of Victoria Nyanza.*—That portion of the territory which borders Victoria Nyanza belongs naturally rather to the Uganda Protectorate than to British East Africa. East of the Kavirondo Gulf the shore of the lake is low and swampy, and the country here consists of open plains. Farther south the surface is high and broken, and there is much forest and bush.

(5) *The Northern Steppes and the Plains of Jubaland and Tanaland.*—This district is a northerly continuation of the coastal plain described in (1). The whole of the territory between Lake Rudolf and the

River Juba consists of arid thorn-covered steppe (mostly under 2,000 ft. above sea-level), which slopes eastwards and south-eastwards from the region of the Laikipia plateau. This steppe region is in some places almost a desert, although there are occasional wells and oases.

### *Rivers and Lakes*

Owing to the comparative closeness of the eastern water-parting to the sea, there are no very large rivers. The most important are those of the coast area—the Juba, the Tana, and the Sabaki. There are three drainage areas: (*a*) that of the coast, (*b*) that of the Rift Valley, and (*c*) that of Victoria Nyanza.

(*a*) The River Juba rises in the Abyssinian highlands, and touches British East Africa at about 42° east longitude and 4° 10' north latitude, from this point forming the frontier between British East Africa and Italian Somaliland. It is navigable to light draught river steamers as far as Yonte all the year round, and in the wet season as far as Bardera. The Gwaso Nyiro River, which drains the Laikipia plateau and the northern slopes of Mount Kenya, flows into the Lorian swamp; it belongs to the Juba system, with which it is connected in very wet seasons by the Deshek Wama swamp and the Lakdera.

The River Tana rises in the Aberdare Mountains, and drains the eastern and southern slopes of Mount Kenya, the Kikuyu country, and the plains of Tanaland. Its principal tributary is the Thika.

The valleys of the Juba and Tana have a rich alluvial soil and abundant vegetation. On both rivers there are large tracts of forest, and on the Upper Juba there is a considerable amount of cultivation.

The River Sabaki, which is known in its upper course as the Athi, drains the Ukamba country and the plains south of Nairobi. Its principal tributary is the Tsavo, on the right bank.

(*b*) The drainage area of the Rift Valley contains no important rivers, since it is very narrow in the only

part where there is any rain. The southern affluents of Lake Rudolf, the Kerio and Turkwel rivers, are the largest, but these usually dry up in their lower course.

(c) Only a small part of the basin of Victoria Nyanza is in the East Africa Protectorate, but its rivers are fairly large in consequence of the heavy rainfall of that region. The most important rivers are: the Nzoia, which drains the Gwas Ngishu plateau, the Nyando, the Sondo, and the Kuja.

There are numerous lakes in the Rift valley. The largest is Lake Rudolf, the southern and eastern parts of which lie within the territory, and which has a total area of about 3,500 square miles. Next in size are Baringo (13 miles by 5 miles), Naivasha (the highest—6,165 ft. above sea-level), Nakuru, and Magadi. Smaller ones are Elmenteita, Hannington, and Bollossat (El-Bor Lossat).

### (3) CLIMATE

#### *Temperature*

Owing to the high elevation of the central part of the Protectorate, a large part of the country enjoys a temperate and bracing climate. The maximum temperature of this highland region is about 80° F. (26.6° C.), and the minimum about 50° F. (10° C.). The low-lying coastal region has naturally a higher average temperature, ranging from 90° F. (32° C.) to 70° F. (21° C.). It will thus be seen that the seasonal variation is not great.

A high degree of heat prevails in the regions south and east of Lake Rudolf, especially in the neighbourhood of the Lorian swamp, while the plains of Jubaland are the hottest part of the Protectorate.

#### *Rainfall*

There are two rainy seasons, the greater rains falling between March and June and the lesser between October and December. Local variations, however,

exist, as in Jubaland the lesser rains fall somewhat earlier, while in the Nyanza Province, at the other extremity of the country, they are almost continuous from March to December.

In the southern coastal districts there is a high but irregular rainfall, which varies between 45 and 70 in. (1,140 and 1,780 mm.). A considerable rainfall, about 30-70 in. (760-1,780 mm.), prevails in the lake shore district, and also in the Kikuyu and Kenya districts. The rainfall of the central highland region is irregular, and varies between 25 and 50 in. (635 and 1,270 mm.).

The regions of smallest rainfall are the southern plains, the Rift valley north of Lake Baringo, the Laikipia plateau, and the districts south and east of Lake Rudolf.

#### (4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

Owing to the high elevation and consequent temperate climate of the central parts of the territory, the Protectorate is more suitable for European residence than any other part of tropical Africa. Moreover, the coastal regions, with the exception of the district immediately north of the River Uмба, compare favourably with other African coast-lands, Kismayu in particular being fairly healthy.

Malaria is, however, very prevalent, and appears to be increasing in highland districts, such as Naivasha, where it was at first unknown. Blackwater fever, a common sequel of neglected malaria, also causes some mortality, and dysentery is on the increase; there is much enteric, due probably to the pollution of the water supply of the towns. Measures are being taken to remove this source of infection at Kisumu, Nakuru and Mombasa.

Plague, both bubonic and pneumonic, frequently occurs in different parts of the Protectorate. It is endemic on the shore of Victoria Nyanza and is fairly common in the Asiatic quarter of Nairobi. It also occurs on the coast, especially at Mombasa.

Other prevalent diseases are small-pox; cerebro-spinal meningitis; sleeping sickness, which is common in the Victoria Province; venereal diseases; beri-beri, which is endemic on the upper Juba; and leprosy, which is found in the Victoria Province and near the coast, especially in the towns of Mombasa and Malindi.

Bilharzia, filariasis and ankylostomiasis also occur, especially in the coast regions.

There are Government hospitals at Nairobi and Mombasa.

#### (5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

##### *Race*

Ethnologically the Protectorate forms an intermediate zone between the negro and the Hamitic races. The north-eastern districts are inhabited by pure Hamites such as the Somali and the Galla; Bantu tribes are found scattered through the whole territory, and the central highlands are occupied by peoples of a mixed race, the most important and characteristic of which are the Masai. In addition to these natives, the coast and its islands were colonised in very early times by Asiatic settlers. The latter consisted of Arabs and Persians, and their descendants still form a considerable part of the population of the coast towns, especially in the Lamu group.

The following are the chief divisions of the population.

(1) *Arabs and Swahili*.—The Arabs of Mombasa, and, to a lesser extent, those of the rest of the coast, are mostly immigrants from Muscat during the Zanzibari period, the original Arabs of Mombasa—the Mazrui—having retired at Takaungu. The original Arab and Persian settlers are represented by the Bajuns northwards from Patta and by the Swahili south of that point. In the Lamu Islands the latter are as pure in blood as the Muscat Arabs, but elsewhere they are much mixed with the Bantu, and the name is commonly extended to all coast natives who use the Swahili tongue.

(2) *Hamites*.—The Somali are by far the most important Hamitic race in the Protectorate, and now extend as far south as the left bank of the River Tana, and as far west as the Lorian swamp, Wajheir and El Wak. They are a handsome and intelligent people, resembling the Galla in physical type, but taller and of a slighter build.

The most important Somali tribes in the territory are the Herti on the coast, and the Ogaden and Marehan in the interior, while closely allied tribes are the Adjuran and the Shurri, Gurre or Garre, who inhabit north-west Jubaland and the Moyale district.

The Galla belong to two distinct stocks, the Wurde of Tanaland and the Borana of the northern plains. The Wurde Galla have long inhabited the coast region of Tanaland, but are now confined to the right bank of the Tana and to Witu. The Borana are found in the plains east of Lake Rudolf and west of Jubaland. The Galla of Tanaland have intermixed to some extent with negroes, but the Borana are light in colour and pure in race.

(3) *Hamitic negroid group*.—This group is represented by the Masai, the Samburu, the Nandi, Suk and Turkana. It appears to have originated in the steppe country south of the Abyssinian Highlands by the intermixture of Galla and Somali with Nilotic negroes. Thus it is essentially a transitional type, and examples may be found ranging from pure Hamitic to pure negro.

The Masai are the most important of these races, and show the greatest signs of Hamitic blood. Since the British occupation they have been removed to the Southern Reserve in order to leave room for European settlement. Closely allied to the Masai and speaking the same language are the Samburu of the Northern Plains.

The Nandi, with whom are allied the Elgeyo, Kamasia, Sotik and Lumbwa, inhabit the western escarpment of the central highlands. They have been greatly influenced by the Masai, whom they resemble in

physical type. The Suk are a tribe of mixed origin who live north and east of the Gwas Ngishu plateau.

The Turkana are a very large and important tribe who inhabit the plains west of Lake Rudolf and have recently pressed south-eastwards across the River Kerio and the River Sugeta. They are an extremely tall race, flat-faced and negroid in feature, and are of a much more massive build than the Masai.

The Dorobbo or Ogiek may be included in this group, since they have strong affinities to the Nandi. They are a people of hunters, who are looked down upon by the other tribes. It is probable that they represent an aboriginal race of Bushman type, but they have intermingled with the surrounding peoples and the Nandi-Masai strain is now dominant.

(4) *Negro group*.—The negro peoples of the Protectorate all belong to the Bantu family, with the exception of the Jalu, or Nilotic Kavirondo, who inhabit the eastern shores of Victoria Nyanza, alongside of the Bantu Kavirondo. The three most important Bantu peoples are the Wakikuyu, who have been much influenced by the Masai, the Wakamba and the Kavirondo. In the east of the Protectorate the Wagosha inhabit the lower Juba Valley, and the Wapokomo are found in the Tana. Further south dwell the restless and backward Wanyika tribes, of which the most important is the Giriama.

Other Bantu peoples, the Meru and the Embu, are found in the district of Mount Kenya.

### *Language*

The language which is in most common use in the Protectorate is Swahili, which is held to have originated in the district of Lamu. It is a blend of Bantu and Arabic, and has become a *lingua franca* far into the interior.

Of the languages spoken by the Hamitic group of peoples by far the purest and most widespread is Galla. The Somali speech has affinities with Galla, but has been much more influenced by Arabic.

The languages spoken by the Hamitic-Negroid tribes, (Masai, Nandi, &c.), are of exceptional interest to the student of African languages owing to their peculiarities of structure. The negroes of the Protectorate all speak regular Bantu tongues.

### (6) POPULATION

#### *Distribution*

The population of the different provinces of the Protectorate was estimated as follows in the years 1915-16:—

Province.	Europeans.	Asiatics.	Natives.	Total.
Seyidie .. ..	366	7,677	195,000*	203,043*
Ukamba .. ..	2,875	5,679	372,948	381,502
Kenya .. ..	361	266	867,152	867,779
Masai Reserve ..	—	—	36,000	36,000
Naivasha .. ..	1,541	498	156,734	158,773
Nyanza .. ..	431	2,052	1,116,655*	1,119,138*
Tanaland .. ..	19	699	40,000*	40,718*
Jubaland <sup>1</sup> .. ..	39	367	17,000*	17,406*
Totals .. ..	5,632	17,238	2,801,489*	2,824,359*

\* Approximate.

The greater part of the population of the Protectorate is concentrated in four thickly peopled districts. These are (1) the Kavirondo district to the east of Victoria Nyanza; (2) the Kikuyu and Kenya districts; (3) the Machakos and Kitui districts of Ukamba; (4) the southern part of the coast region.

The thinness of the population elsewhere is due in the northern districts to the aridity of the country. In the central highlands it is, however, mainly due to

<sup>1</sup> It must be noted, however, that the above estimate of the native population of Jubaland apparently refers only to the settled population and excludes the nomadic tribes, and the *Statesman's Yearbook* for 1918, containing the officially revised figures, gives the total population of the Protectorate as 4,038,000.

the predominance of the warlike Masai, who monopolised all the open grass-lands of that region and were checked in their raids only by forest country.

### *Towns*

The largest town is Mombasa, the chief port, which has a population of about 30,000, 130 of whom are Europeans. The other towns of the coast, all of which except Witu are very ancient, are now much decayed. The most important are Lamu, Takaungu, Malindi and Kismayu, of which the last two have each about 5,000 inhabitants.

The towns of the interior are all of recent growth. Nairobi, the capital of the Protectorate, has about 14,000 inhabitants, including 800 Europeans and 3,000 Indians. Naivasha and Nakuru in the Rift valley and Eldoret on the Gwas Ngishu plateau are centres of the chief areas of European settlement, and Kisumu on Victoria Nyanza is the terminus of the Uganda Railway.

### *Movement*

Although birth and death statistics are not obtainable, there is reason to believe that the former dominant races of the Protectorate are declining. The new conditions are unfavourable on the one hand to the Arabs and Swahili and on the other to the Masai. In addition to this, disease and immorality probably account for the infecundity of these races, while the same is said to be true of some of the negro tribes such as the Wapokomo and the Wanyika.

The Somali, on the other hand, are an advancing race, and the Turkana are also said to be increasing at the expense of the Suk and the Samburu.

## UGANDA

### (1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

The Uganda Protectorate, lying between  $1^{\circ} 30'$  south and  $4^{\circ} 35'$  north latitude, and  $29^{\circ} 30'$  and  $36^{\circ} 5'$  east

longitude, has an area of about 109,000 square miles, including over 16,000 square miles of water. It marches in the north with the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, in the west with the Belgian Congo, in the south with the Tanganyika Territory, and in the east with the British East Africa Protectorate.

The northern boundary, which is provisional, from the shore of the Sanderson Gulf of Lake Rudolf, in about  $4^{\circ} 34'$  north latitude, crossing the Nile (Bahr el-Jebel) at Nimule, to the frontier of the Belgian Congo in about  $3^{\circ} 30'$  north latitude and  $30^{\circ} 50'$  east longitude, is more fully described in *The Anglo-Egyptian Sudan*, No. 98 of this series.

The western boundary follows the water-parting between the basins of the Welle and the Nile to the north-west corner of Lake Albert, whence it passes down the centre of the lake to the mouth of the Semliki River, the course of which it ascends for about 50 miles. It then crosses the Ruwenzori range and Lake Edward to the summit of Mount Sabinio (see *Belgian Congo*, No. 99 of this series).

Starting from this point, the southern boundary skirts the Mfumbiro district to the Lower Kagera, the course of which it then follows as far as its second point of intersection with latitude  $1^{\circ}$  south. It then follows this parallel to Victoria Nyanza, and across the lake itself to Mohuru Bay on the east shore.

The eastern boundary has already been described in treating of the East Africa Protectorate (p. 1).

## (2) SURFACE AND RIVER SYSTEM

### *Surface*

The Uganda Protectorate is predominantly a lake country. More than one-seventh of the whole area consists of water, and by far the most important part of the territory from a social and economic point of view is that which borders the lakes.

The greater part of the country lies at an altitude of between 3,000 and 4,000 ft. There are extensive

highland districts, especially in the south-west, but the three great mountain regions—Mount Elgon (14,698 or 14,140 ft.) on the east and Ruwenzori (16,795 ft.) and Mfumbiro (14,500 ft.) on the south-west—are all situated actually on the frontiers of the Protectorate.

The territory may be divided into three regions: (1) the depression of Victoria Nyanza; (2) the western lakes and highlands; and (3) the eastern plains.

(1) *The Depression of Victoria Nyanza.*—Victoria Nyanza, the largest of the African lakes, has a total area of about 27,000 square miles. Its maximum length from north to south is about 270 miles, and its maximum breadth from east to west about 225 miles. The northern coast is low and much broken by reed-fringed creeks. There are numerous groups of islands, most of which are included in the Uganda Protectorate. The lake is of great importance as a means of communication between Uganda, British East Africa, and the former German territories.

The region of Victoria Nyanza includes the old kingdom of Buganda or the southern parts of the present Buganda province, and the district of Busoga, east of the Victoria Nile. The surface consists of alternate hill and valley, the latter being generally occupied by papyrus swamps or dense forest. The whole of this region is fertile and well watered, although the rivers are for the most part not running streams but stretches of swamp. There are large tracts of tropical forest in Buddu, on the west side of the lake, in Kiagwe, west of the Victoria Nile, and in Busoga. The rest of the country is well cultivated, save in Busoga, where depopulation has caused many districts to revert to bush.

The Sese Islands—which consist of one large island, several smaller ones, and a multitude of islets—and the island of Buvuma, south of the Nile outlet, share in the general characteristics of this region, and contain much dense forest. The inhabitants of the islands have been removed to the mainland, owing to the prevalence of sleeping sickness.

(2) *The Western Lakes and Highlands.*—The western lakes of the Protectorate, Lake Albert, Lake Edward and Lake George, belong to the system of the Western Rift. This is broken south of Lake Edward by the intrusion of the great volcanic mass of the Mfumbiro Mountains; while north of Lake Edward the western shoulder of the Ruwenzori range protrudes into the depression. Only in the case of Lake Albert are both walls of the Rift valley regular and clearly defined.

This region includes the districts of Kigezi, Ankole, Toro, the north-west portion of the Buganda province, and Bunyoro.

*Kigezi.*—This district is bounded on the north by Lake Edward (830 square miles). A clearly-defined escarpment runs east of this lake and of Lake George (114 square miles), and there is a strip of low grass- and forest-covered country along the lake shores. In the extreme south-west lie the Mfumbiro Mountains, the loftiest of which—Muhavura—has an altitude of 13,547 ft. North-east of Mfumbiro lies the mountain district of Kayonsa, which is covered by dense virgin forest. South-east, towards the former German frontier, the country is more open, the general level sinking from 7,000 to 5,000 ft. There are a number of small lakes in this south-west frontier region.

*Ankole.*—East of Kigezi and of Lake Edward lie the lofty, rolling uplands of Ankole, at an altitude of between 4,500 and 6,000 ft. They are mostly open pasture lands which support great herds of Bahima cattle. The north-western part is rich in forest, and there are numerous crater lakes.

*Toro* is bounded on the west by the great isolated range of Ruwenzori. It is a well-watered highland region, and exceptionally fertile. There are large tracts of forest on the Mpanga River, and in the Semliki Valley. East and Central Toro, together with the north-western districts of Buganda and Central Bunyoro, is an open country of rocky and grassy hills.

*Bunyoro* is traversed from north-east to south-west

by a range of open rocky hills rising to about 4,800 ft. North and west of these lie the great Budonga and Bugoma forests. North-west, towards Lake Albert, (2,064 square miles), which lies at an altitude of 2,028 ft. above the sea, the ground falls abruptly about 1,000 ft. The plains at the foot of this escarpment are salt and barren. North of Lake Albert, along the Bahr el-Jebel, the country is mainly a thinly-inhabited, grassy plain, with strips of forest in the tributary valleys. On the west it rises rapidly to the broken highlands of the Congo-Nile watershed, which have an altitude of between 4,500 and 6,000 ft. The Nile trough and also that portion of East Bunyoro which lies between Masindi and the Victoria Nile are decidedly arid.

(3) *The Eastern Plains.*—This region consists of open plains which rise gradually from the Nile Valley to the edge of the Lake Rudolf escarpment, thence dropping to the arid Turkana plains. The south-eastern corner of this region, on the border of the East Africa Protectorate, is occupied by the isolated volcanic mass of Mount Elgon. Further west the country sinks to the rolling plains of Budama. The country is well watered and fertile, and supports a dense agricultural population.

Further north also, in the district of Teso, there is much cultivation. The land here slopes westward to Lake Kioga in a succession of low ridges and swamps. West of Teso and north of Lake Kioga and Lake Kwania lies the district of Lango, a region of flat grass and bush-covered plains with numerous granite outcrops. The soil is fertile, and the district, like Bukedi and Teso, supports a very large population.

To the north of these districts the country is much more arid. Thinly-peopled, bush-covered plains rise gradually eastward from the Nile trough to the hilly region which runs southward from Mount Agoro (9,400 ft.) to the Lobar-Nakwai Hills. These separate the Acholi country on the west from the Dodosi-Karamojo country to the east. The latter is a plateau

broken by isolated granite peaks, and opening out southwards into wide cotton-soil plains. It is badly watered, but much grain is grown near the hills.

In the south rises Mount Debasien (about 10,000 ft.), and on the east the country is bounded by the escarpment of the Turkwel-Lake Rudolf depression. The lofty Moruasokor and Pelegech Mountains, on the east, are inhabited, like the whole of the arid thorn-covered plains west of Lake Rudolf, by the Turkana and their numerous flocks.

### *River System*

The whole territory, with the exception of the eastern frontier districts which border Lake Rudolf, forms a single drainage area. Lake Albert and the valley of the White Nile are connected on the one hand with Lake Kioga and Victoria Nyanza by the Victoria Nile, and on the other with Lake Edward by the River Semliki.

The whole system may be divided into three sections: (1) the basin of Victoria Nyanza; (2) the Victoria Nile and Lake Kioga; (3) the Western Rift valley.

(1) The most important river flowing into Victoria Nyanza, namely, the Kagera, which drains the highlands of Karagwe and Ruanda, lies south of the frontier for almost its entire course, and enters Buganda a few miles above its mouth. The River Katonga, which enters the lake at its north-western corner, consists of a chain of swamps and lakes. East of this there are no affluents of the slightest importance until the eastern frontier is reached at the River Sio.

(2) The Victoria Nile, which forms the outlet to Victoria Nyanza, leaves the lake at the northern end of the Napoleon Gulf. For 61 miles, as far as Kakindu, it is unnavigable, but thence to Foweira, a distance of 160 miles (part of which lies through Lake Kioga), it is an important waterway. Below Foweira is a series of rapids which terminate above Fajao in the Murchison Falls, where the river descends 140 ft. in a single fall. From here to Lake Albert it is broad and

navigable. The chief tributary of the Victoria Nile is the River Kafu, the basin of which includes a great part of Buganda and Bunyoro.

The many-branching system of Lake Kioga and Lake Kwania, through which the Victoria Nile runs for part of its course, is much obstructed by *sudd*, through which all the navigable channels have to be cut. It is connected on the north-east with Lake Salisbury by a channel 120 miles long, choked by papyrus.

(3) The principal affluents of Lake Edward, the Ishasha and the Ruchuru, drain the mountain country to the south. Lake George, which is connected with Lake Edward by a broad channel, is fed by the River Mpanga, which drains the eastern slopes of Ruwenzori. The River Semliki, which connects Lake Edward with Lake Albert, flows through Belgian territory for the greater part of its course, but south of Lake Albert it forms the western frontier of Buganda.

The White Nile leaves Lake Albert at its northern extremity. It continues broad and navigable as far as Nimule, where the rapids commence. Its only important tributary is the Assua, which drains the Chua and Lolor country.

### (3) CLIMATE

The climate is tropical, save in the higher part of Toro and Ankole, where the average minimum temperature falls as low as  $40^{\circ}$  F. ( $4\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  C.). In Buganda the average maximum temperature is  $78^{\circ}$  to  $83^{\circ}$  F. ( $25\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  to  $28\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  C.), and the average minimum is about  $62^{\circ}$  F. ( $16\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  C.). The Nile Valley is considerably hotter and drier than Buganda, the average maximum at Nimule being  $94^{\circ}$  F. ( $34\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  C.).

There are two rainy seasons, which are somewhat irregular in their occurrence. The heavy rains usually fall between March and May, and the lesser rains in November and December. The average annual rainfall is about 58 in. (1,470 mm.), but it is much less than this in the Nile Valley and in the north-east of the territory.

Winds are light and variable in Buganda and Bunyoro, though heavy squalls occur on Victoria Nyanza and Lake Albert. In the region of the White Nile and the north-eastern plains the winds are strong and continuous.

#### (4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

Plague, sleeping sickness, and small-pox are endemic in the Protectorate. Owing to drastic measures, the progress of sleeping sickness has been stopped, and the mortality from that source is now small. Plague has also diminished considerably, but it is still common in the eastern province.

Leprosy is common, especially in the districts east of Lake Kioga, and any general measure for segregation has not yet proved possible. Venereal diseases are very often met with in Buganda, and are on the increase among the natives of the eastern districts. Spirillum fever, ankylostomiasis, bilharzia, and other parasitic diseases are frequent. Guinea-worm is found chiefly in the Nile Valley and the Rudolf province.

Europeans suffer chiefly from malaria and black-water fever. Dysentery is common, and epidemics of enteric sometimes occur.

#### (5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

The Uganda Protectorate is divided ethnologically between the Bantu in the south-west and the Nilotic negroes in the north-east. On the whole, the Victoria Nile may be taken as the dividing-line between the two races, but the shore of Victoria Nyanza across the frontier of the East Africa Protectorate and the whole region west of Mount Elgon and south of Lake Kioga is racially very mixed.

In addition to these two great races, two other widely different stocks, the aboriginal-pygmy type and the Hamitic Bahima, are also found in the Protectorate.

(1) The forest-dwelling *Pygmies* are found in very small numbers in the Semliki Valley and in the forests in the extreme south-west corner of the Protectorate. Connected with these racially are several other tribes, such as the Buhiga of Ruhiga, who probably represent a mixture of Bantu negro and pygmy. The same name, Batwa, is given to the pygmies or semi-pygmies of the Mfumbiro forests and to a degraded race in Ruanda.

(2) The *Bahima* belong to a Hamitic stock which occupied the highlands east of Victoria Nyanza at least 400 years ago, and enslaved the Bantu population which they found there. They are still found as a ruling pastoral people in Ankole, Mpororo, and Karagwe. The other branch of the race, the *Batussi*, are still the dominant race in Ruanda and Urundi.

The Bahima speak the Bantu Nyoro tongue, or one of its dialects.

(3) The *Bantu*.—The most important of the Bantu peoples are the *Baganda*. Their language, Luganda, is much spoken in the Protectorate. The *Basoga* closely resemble the Baganda, and speak a similar language.

The *Banyoro*, with whom are allied the *Batoro*, are a much less civilised and intelligent race than the Baganda, although they possess a larger infusion of Bahima blood. Their language, Urunyoro, is spoken in various dialects throughout the Western Province, and across the frontier in Ruanda and Urundi.

The *Bairo* form the agricultural population of Ankole, and, like the *Bahutu* of Ruanda, occupy a semi-servile position under the Hamitic ruling race. They speak dialects of Urunyoro.

Three important Bantu tribes are found in the Bukedi district north of Busoga. The *Bagweri* are closely allied to the Basoga; their language is now being superseded by Luganda. The *Bunyuli* represent an intermediate type between the Bagishu and the Basoga. Their language is also tending to give way before a dialect of Luganda.

The *Bagishu* are the most important people of the Bukedi district. Among the sections of the tribe who

inhabit the slopes of Elgon, a short, long-armed, bearded type is found which probably represents an aboriginal strain. They speak a very archaic form of Bantu.

(4) The *Nilotic negroes* of the Protectorate are all characterized by great height and length of limb. The most important tribes are the very numerous *Bateso* or *Bakedi* round Lake Kioga, and the *Acholi* of the White Nile. The *Badama*, south of Lake Kioga, form a link between the Acholi and the Nilotic Kavirondo on Victoria Nyanza. The *Lango* and *Miro* are found between the Bateso and the Acholi.

Further to the north-east, the natives show signs of Hamitic blood. This is especially the case with the *Turkana*, who may be considered the most negroid member of the Hamitic negroid group. Their language is also spoken by the *Jiwe*, the *Dabossa*, and the *Karamojo*. It is allied to the Teso tongue, and shows considerable signs of Masai and Hamitic influence. The Acholi language, on the other hand, is a typical Nilotic tongue. The *Karamojo* tribe is said to be fundamentally of Bantu type, and to have been modified by Turkana influence.

The *Madi* stand apart from the other races of the Protectorate by reason of their peculiar language. Physically, they resemble the Acholi and other Nilotic peoples.

## (6) POPULATION

### *Distribution*

The total population of the Protectorate was estimated in March 1917 at 2,954,861. Of these 809 were Europeans (555 males and 254 females), and 3,548 Asiatics (over one-fourth females). The population of the Rudolf province and of the unadministered portions of the eastern province is calculated in this return to be 150,000, but the actual numbers are very doubtful.

In 1913 the population of the Buganda province was 698,573, of which 439,173 inhabited the district

of Mengo. Here the density of the population to the square mile was 43·59, while in the district of Entebbe, which includes many districts evacuated on account of sleeping sickness, it was only 8·29. In the same year the population of the administered portion (four districts) of the eastern province was 1,111,901. It was thin in Busoga ( $19\frac{1}{2}$  to the square mile), but comparatively dense elsewhere ( $86\frac{1}{2}$  in Bukedi, 67 in Teso, and 65 in Lango).

In the western part of the Protectorate, the district of Ankole had a population of 266,772 or  $62\frac{1}{2}$  to the square mile; Bunyoro 131,032, or nearly 28 to the square mile; and Toro 115,116, or 20 to the square mile.

The population of the small Kigezi district in the south-west is dense, save in the great forests; while that of the West Nile and Gulu and Chua districts in the north is not large.

The climate of the Protectorate renders it unsuitable for European settlement, and the number of European planters is not large. Asiatic immigration is more important, and most of the trade of the Protectorate is in the hands of Indians, together with a few Arabs and Baluchis. There is also a considerable number of Swahili and Somali traders in the territory.

### *Towns and Villages*

The Baganda, owing to their numbers and the strength of their government, always possessed large towns and villages. The native capital, Mengo, or, as it is now called, Kampala, was stated in 1902 to have a population of 77,000.

The administrative capital of Buganda, Entebbe, on Victoria Nyanza, has a considerable official population; its importance as a native centre has, however, decreased in consequence of the removal of the lake-side population on account of sleeping sickness.

The chief port of Victoria Nyanza is Jinja, which is the starting-point of the Busoga Railway and of the road to Mbala, the capital of the Bukedi district. Other places on the Nile route are Port Masindi.

Masindi, which lies on the road from Port Masindi to Butiaba on Lake Albert, and Wadelai on the White Nile.

In the eastern province, the towns are all of recent foundation, and are simply Government and missionary stations with a few Indian or Swahili traders.

To the west of Victoria Nyanza the principal settlements are Masaka and Kubendi in Buganda, and Fort Portal in Toro.

### *Movement*

During the last 30 years, the population of the central and western districts seems to have considerably diminished.

Birth and death rate statistics are very incomplete. In the districts under closer administration, comprising nearly half of the whole territory, 33,100 births and 29,697 deaths were registered in 1914, amounting to a birth-rate of 23·4 per 1,000, and a death-rate of 20·5 per 1,000. This shows a decrease of 1·53 for the birth-rate, and 1·91 for the death-rate on the figures for the previous year. The birth-rate is lowest in Buganda, where it was 12·87 per 1,000 in 1913, and it seems that the Buganda population is rapidly decreasing.

## ZANZIBAR

### (1) POSITION AND EXTENT

The dominions of the Sultan of Zanzibar, when they were delimited in 1886, included not only Zanzibar and Pemba, but also Mafia Island, a coastal strip 10 miles wide extending from Tunghi Bay to Kipini, the islands of the Lamu Archipelago, and the northern towns of Kismayu, Brava, Merca, Mogadishu, and Warsheikh. With the exception of the first, these ports have passed by purchase to Italy, and the southern part of the coastal belt, along with the island of Mafia, was bought by Germany and incorporated in German East Africa. The rest of the continental possessions are leased by Britain and administered as part of the East

Africa Protectorate, although they are still, in fact, part of the Dominions of the Sultan of Zanzibar. The Zanzibar Protectorate is thus practically confined to Zanzibar and Pemba, with the adjacent smaller islands.

The islands of Zanzibar and Pemba lie some 20 to 30 miles from the mainland between Dar es-Salaam and the Uмба River. Pemba, the smaller island, is the more northerly of the two (Chaki Chaki  $5^{\circ} 15' S.$ ,  $39^{\circ} 46' E.$ ). Its extreme length is 38 miles, its breadth 13 miles; and its area covers about 380 square miles. The length of Zanzibar is about 50 miles; and its breadth about 20, while its area is roughly 640 square miles (Zanzibar Town  $6^{\circ} 10' S.$ ,  $39^{\circ} 11' 30'' E.$ ).

Pemba is separated from the mainland by an open channel, but Zanzibar lies rather closer in, facing a long concave curve of the coast line, and the channel, which is comparatively shallow, is so much encumbered with islets and coral reefs that the navigable fairway narrows in places to less than 4 miles.

## (2) COAST, SURFACE, AND STREAMS

The east coasts of both islands are little indented, and afford no anchorages for large vessels. The west coast of Pemba is faced by irregular groups of islets and reefs, while Zanzibar is similarly indented on its western side, and fringed with reefs and small islands, of which the most considerable is Tumbatu. Among the western bays and behind the shelter of islets and reefs there are in Pemba as well as in Zanzibar several anchorages able to accommodate ocean-going vessels, and a larger number suitable for dhows.

The surface of Zanzibar is undulating, with a series of small hills running from north to south, the highest being Masingini (440 ft.). Much of the island consists of open park-like country; elsewhere there is a thick but low forest growth. The soil in general supports an abundant tropical vegetation.

In Pemba the surface, broken into many steep ridges and valleys, is mainly composed of a sandy clay reten-

tive of moisture. Palms and clove trees thrive on the higher ground; rice is cultivated in the swampy hollows.

None of the streams of either island are of any considerable size or length, but in wet weather many of them swell to torrents and flood the lower valleys, this being especially the case in Pemba.

### (3) CLIMATE

In the islands, as on the coast, there are two rainy seasons. The greater rains usually occur between the middle of March and the end of May, the lesser in November and December, though sometimes not till January. The rainfall on Zanzibar island in average years ranges from 60 to 70 ins.; in Pemba it is usually somewhat higher. The rains in Pemba are generally a few weeks later than in Zanzibar.

The south-west monsoon begins in April or May and blows steadily till September; it is followed by a period of variable winds. The north-east monsoon begins in December, continuing till March, and is also succeeded by a similar period of varying winds. The prevalent winds are not violent.

The extreme range of temperatures in Zanzibar Island is from 60° to 98° F. (15½° to 36½° C.). In Zanzibar Town the absolute maximum and minimum temperatures in 1916 were 93° and 69° F. (34° and 20½° C.), while the means of maxima and of minima for the year were 85° and 76° F. (29½° and 24½° C.). The range of temperatures in Pemba averages a few degrees less than in Zanzibar. The hottest part of the year is from January to March, but November, December, and April are also trying months.

### (4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

The climate of Zanzibar thirty years ago had an evil reputation. In recent years, however, the general health of the inhabitants has certainly improved, in

consequence, it may be presumed, of precautionary and remedial measures adopted by the authorities. But the prevalence of malaria and the risk of blackwater fever still render the climate unsuitable for the permanent residence of Europeans.

A few cases of plague still occur sporadically. Tetanus, beri-beri, cerebro-spinal meningitis, small-pox, enteric, and other infective diseases claim a few victims from year to year. Dysentery, venereal diseases and rheumatism are common, and more widespread still is tuberculosis.

Lepers, to the number of over 300, are segregated in settlements, three on Pemba, one on Zanzibar. Hospitals and dispensaries for natives are established in both islands, and there is a hospital for Europeans in Zanzibar.

#### (5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

The remarkable mixture of nationalities and fusion of races in Zanzibar is due to the position the island held for centuries as the chief entrepot for trade with the East and the slave market of East Africa, also to its existing trade connections with the mainland, with Arabia, and with India.

The bulk of the population is described as Swahili, and appears to be descended on one side from the dominant Arab race, and on the other from negroes belonging to tribes of the mainland.

The Wahadimu, who occupy the eastern side of the island, are of a more purely African type, and probably represent the negro tribes found on the island and subjugated or overawed by the Arab invaders. Akin to the Wahadimu are the Watumbatu, of Tumbatu Island, and the eastern side of Pemba is occupied by a cognate race, the Wapemba. The purely Arab population forms only about 5 per cent. of the whole, but is important as constituting the landed class who own most of the plantations. These Arabs came originally from Oman, and retain the courtesy and dignity of their race.

The immigration of Indian traders into Zanzibar has been continuous for over a century, and the natives of India, or people of Indian origin, who are mostly engaged in commerce, now number about 15,000. There are also many Baluchis, Goanese, and Cingalese. In the floating population of Zanzibar a number of the mainland African tribes are represented—Wanyamwezi, Wamanyema, and others. Comoro Islanders have settled in some numbers, and there are Malagasies from Madagascar.

Of the white population of Zanzibar, estimated at about 250 before the war, half was British, and the other half comprised representatives of nine different nationalities.

There are a great many different languages spoken in the islands, but Swahili, which is a mixture of Bantu and Arabic, serves as the *lingua franca* of Zanzibar and the east coast of Africa generally.

#### (6) POPULATION

The census returns of 1910 gave the following figures:—

	Adults.		Children.	Total.
	Males.	Females.		
Zanzibar Island ..	43,416	49,230	21,423	114,069
Pemba Island..	28,480	31,899	22,751	83,130
Total .. ..	71,896	81,129	44,174	197,199

The density of population per square mile was estimated at 175 in Zanzibar, 219 in Pemba.

It was supposed till recently that the population of the Protectorate was dwindling, but it is now believed that, if complete records were obtainable, they would show that in recent years births have outnumbered deaths.

Zanzibar is the only town of importance. Its population in 1910 was 35,262, of whom Arabs numbered 3,639, Swahili 20,285, Indians 7,720, Comoro Islanders 2,175, Goanese 440, the balance being made up by smaller numbers of many other races.

Most of the villages are situated on the coast-line, but some are found in the interior, on higher ground. The chief Arab and negro villages are at Dunga, Kokotoni, Chwaka, and Kizimkazi. The chief villages in Pemba are Chaki Chaki and Weti.

## II. POLITICAL HISTORY

### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1505 Portuguese conquest of East African coast and Zanzibar.
- 1698 Expulsion of Portuguese : Zanzibar under rulers of Muscat (Oman).
- 1832 Said, ruler of Oman, transfers his capital to Zanzibar.
- 1839 First Commercial Treaty with Great Britain.
- 1841 First English consul appointed at Zanzibar.
- 1845 Anti-Slave Trade Treaty.
- 1856 Death of Said.
- 1859 Commercial Treaty with Hanse Towns.
- 1861 Lord Canning's Award : Zanzibar separated from Muscat.
- 1862 Independence of Zanzibar recognised by Great Britain and France.
- Speke and Grant in Uganda.
- 1864 Universities' Mission established at Zanzibar.
- 1866-87 (Sir) John Kirk at Zanzibar.
- 1873 Sir Bartle Frere's Mission : Anti-Slave Trade Treaty.
- 1875 Stanley in Uganda.
- 1883 Joseph Thomson explores Mombasa-Uganda route.
- 1884-85 German expeditions to the Interior.
- 1885 Sultan acknowledges German Protectorate over Usagara and Witu.
- 1886 Anglo-German Agreement.
- 1887 Peters in Uganda.
- 1888 Imperial British East Africa Company's Charter.
- 1890 Second Anglo-German Agreement (Heligoland ceded).  
Zanzibar a British Protectorate under the Foreign Office.
- 1891 Frontier of British East Africa with Italian Somaliland delimited.
- 1894 Uganda Protectorate established.
- 1895 Imperial British East Africa Company surrenders its Charter. East Africa Protectorate and Uganda under Foreign Office.
- 1896 Usurpation of Khalid at Zanzibar. Bombardment of Zanzibar.
- 1896-1903 Mombasa-Victoria Nyanza railway constructed.
- 1897 Abolition of legal status of slavery at Zanzibar.
- 1900-1 East Africa Protectorate enlarged.

- 1905 East Africa Protectorate and Uganda transferred to Colonial Office.  
1910-11 Boundary adjustments with German East Africa and Belgian Congo.  
1913 Zanzibar transferred to Colonial Office.

*" Sultans " <sup>1</sup> of Muscat with Zanzibar*

- 1741-85 Ahmed bin Said.  
1785-1802 Said bin Ahmed and Sultan bin Ahmed jointly.  
1802-4 Sultan bin Ahmed (sole ruler).  
1804-21 Salim bin Sultan and Said bin Sultan jointly.  
1821-56 Said bin Sultan (sole ruler).

*" Sultans " <sup>1</sup> of Zanzibar*

- 1856-70 Majid bin Said.  
1870-88 Bargash bin Said.  
1888-90 Khalifa bin Said.  
1890-94 Ali bin Said.  
1894-96 Hamed bin Thwain.  
1896-1902 Hamed bin Mohammed bin Said  
1902-11 Ali bin Hamed bin Mahommed.  
1911 Khalifa bin Harub.

*EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE AND  
UGANDA*

*(a) Great Britain, Germany, and the British East  
Africa Company, 1885-1891*

OVER the territories in East Africa which, towards the end of the nineteenth century, were divided between Great Britain and Germany, the Sultan of

<sup>1</sup> The ruler's proper title is *Seyyid* (meaning " Lord "), first taken by the sons of Ahmed bin Said. The title *Imâm* (meaning " Leader of prayers ") was for centuries that of the ruler of Muscat, but was not taken by Seyyid Said in 1804, and has never been adopted by any of his descendants at Zanzibar. The title *Sultan* is strictly a misnomer, the English who came to Muscat at the end of the seventeenth century mistaking the ruler's personal name for a title. The name has clung to the rulers of Zanzibar ever since, but the Arab chiefs never give this title to the Seyyid.

Zanzibar had for many years previously claimed sovereignty. It was in the year 1885 that the German pretensions to the mainland first obtained Government support.<sup>1</sup> In the beginning of this year, on February 12, the German Emperor granted a charter of protection to the Society for German Colonization in respect of acquisitions made by it in the East of Africa between the territory of the Sultan of Zanzibar and Lake Tanganyika.<sup>2</sup> The Sultan protested, but in vain; and Lord Granville wrote:

“The supposition that H.M.’s Government have no intention of opposing the German schemes of colonization in the neighbourhood of Zanzibar is absolutely correct. H.M.’s Government, on the contrary, view with favour these schemes, the realization of which will entail the civilization of large tracts, over which hitherto no European influence has been exercised, the co-operation of Germany with Great Britain in the work of the suppression of the slave gangs, and the encouragement of the efforts of the Sultan both in the extinction of the slave trade and in the commercial development of his dominions.”<sup>3</sup>

At the same time British individual enterprise had no intention of leaving East Africa entirely to the Germans; and in the same letter Lord Granville referred to the plans of what afterwards became the Imperial British East Africa Company.

“You will explain,” he added, “that some prominent capitalists have originated a plan for a British settlement in the country between the coast and the lakes, which are the sources of the White Nile, and for its connection with the coast by a railway. . . . H.M.’s Government have the scheme under their consideration, but they would not support it unless they were fully satisfied that every precaution were taken to ensure that it would in no way conflict with the interests of the territory that has been taken under German protectorate. . . . Their wish would be to avoid any clashing of interests such as might have taken place, had it not been averted, on the Gulf of Guinea.”

<sup>1</sup> For the whole history of Zanzibar and of German activity up to 1885, see below, pp. 40-51.

<sup>2</sup> Africa, No. 1 (1886) [Cd. 4609], p. 4.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, May 25, 1885, p. 17.

With regard to this Lord Granville was requested to "defer" his decision until the German Government had been able to consult maps of the protected territory.<sup>1</sup>

On June 2 Bismarck affirmed: "We have no intention . . . to demand any surrender of territories which are indubitably his" (belonging to the Sultan of Zanzibar).<sup>2</sup> On September 3 Sir E. Malet reported that Bismarck had explained to him that what the German Government wanted was not a naval port, but that their vessels should have free access to and the use of the Sultan's ports. Nevertheless, in August, the German Government asked the Sultan "for a station on the coast of the mainland to be used as a German port, and as a base for the undertakings likely to follow upon her recent annexations in the interior";<sup>3</sup> and, as the result of the German Commodore's report, Dar es-Salaam was, in September 1885, selected as a naval depot.<sup>4</sup>

The Anglo-German Agreement of October/November 1886<sup>5</sup> finally left to Zanzibar only a continuous strip of territory on the coast from Tunghi Bay, on the south, to Kipini at the mouth of the Tana River, on the north, and certain stations, Kismayu, Brava, Merca, Mogadishu, and Warsheikh, on the Benadir coast beyond. The vast hinterland, with the Umba River as boundary, was divided between the German Commercial Company (to the south) and the British East Africa Company (to the north). The British Company, the work of the "prominent capitalists" alluded to in Lord Granville's letter quoted above, chief among them Sir William Mackinnon, obtained in May 1887 from the Sultan of Zanzibar a 50 years' lease of the strip of coast from the Umba River as far as

<sup>1</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 26-7.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 25.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 66.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 78.

<sup>5</sup> See below, Appendix I, p. 97

Kipini,<sup>1</sup> and concluded also a number of agreements with native chiefs in the interior, giving the company sovereign rights for a distance of some 200 miles from the coast. It then applied for a charter, and on September 3, 1888, was incorporated as the Imperial British East Africa Company. On March 4, 1890, it received from the Sultan a concession of the coast between Kipini and Mruti, and the islands and places on the Benadir coast belonging to him.<sup>2</sup>

In the spring of 1888, under a concession from the Sultan, the German East Africa Company took over the administration of the coast-line and customs in the German sphere of influence; and its high-handed and drastic methods led, in the summer, to disturbances at Pangani and Bagamoyo which, but for the tact and discretion of the British agent, Col. Euan-Smith, might have developed into a serious rising against all Europeans.<sup>3</sup> Col. Euan-Smith explained to his German colleague that

“It was my intention to discourage to the utmost, on the part of the British East Africa Company, any attempt to interfere for some time to come, save in such small details as were absolutely necessary, with the daily life and customs of the people. . . . I would advise them to displace none of the old and well-known local authorities, and to introduce no new and unintelligible regulations. Lastly, I would discountenance any attempt (even if such were contemplated, which was unlikely) to interfere with the Sultan's flag.”<sup>4</sup> “This flag question,” he insisted, “has really been at the bottom of all these troubles.”<sup>5</sup>

At all places on the coast, save only at Bagamoyo and Dar es-Salaam, the Sultan's authority was in abeyance; and at these places the German officials only held their ground owing to the presence of German men-of-war. The hatred of the Germans was very great and bitter all along the coast, and showed no

<sup>1</sup> Hertslet, *Map of Africa by Treaty*, p. 339.

<sup>2</sup> Hertslet, *Map of Africa by Treaty*, pp. 362-365.

<sup>3</sup> *Africa*, No. 10 (1888) [Cd. 5603], *passim*.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 67-8.

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 95.

signs of diminution; while there was a marked and very noticeable absence of any sort of hostile feeling or demonstration against the British. The outbreak was directed solely against the German Company.

The loyal assistance given by the British Government and its officials to Germany in her dealings with the Sultan of Zanzibar was recognized by the German authorities. At the same time a new field of possible friction was opening out. Under the agreement with regard to the respective spheres of influence concluded in October/November 1886,<sup>1</sup> not only was the country north of the River Tana left free to German enterprise but also the country to the north-west of the British sphere, including Uganda, "so that England might have been entirely shut out from the Interior."<sup>2</sup> The Germans were under the impression that the British Company was intending to work behind their sphere of influence on the west; and Baron von Plessen explained that, although it was true that no special geographical line had been expressly fixed by agreement for the delimitation on the west, the Imperial Government had started from the idea that Great Britain would leave to Germany a free hand in the territories south of the Victoria Nyanza, and, avoiding the territory lying to the east of Lakes Tanganyika and Nyasa at the back of the German Protectorate, would confine herself to opening up the territory lying to the north of the agreed line. An agreement was accordingly made in July 1887 between Great Britain and Germany respecting the discouragement of annexations in the rear of their respective spheres of influence.<sup>3</sup>

Germany had annexed Witu at the mouth of the Tana River; and from this starting-point, notwithstanding the agreement of July 1887, the notorious Dr. Peters set out to secure concessions which should

<sup>1</sup> See Appendix I.

<sup>2</sup> Scott Keltie, *Partition of Africa*, p. 345.

<sup>3</sup> Hertslet, *Map of Africa by Treaty*, p. 888.

shut out the British Company from the interior. He succeeded in reaching Uganda, where he obtained concessions from King Mwanga. Fortunately the Anglo-German agreement of July 1, 1890, put an end to his activities. Under this agreement Germany withdrew in favour of Great Britain her Protectorate over Witu, and her Protectorate over the adjoining coast up to Kismayu; she also surrendered her claims to all other territories on the mainland north of the Tana, and to the islands of Patta and Manda. She further agreed to recognise a British Protectorate over the remaining dominions of the Sultan of Zanzibar; and a western boundary to the two spheres of influence was defined by this and subsequent agreements.

The consideration for this was the cession of Heligoland to Germany.<sup>1</sup>

The Anglo-German Agreement of July 1, 1890, settled the outstanding questions at issue in East Africa between Great Britain and Germany.

The delimitation of the Anglo-German boundaries was carried out by various protocols and agreements ranging from 1892 to 1910.

In 1889 the British East Africa Company had transferred its lease of the Benadir ports to Italy, and these were definitely granted to Italy on August 12, 1892, by the Sultan of Zanzibar.<sup>2</sup> On March 24, 1891, an Anglo-Italian Protocol settled the boundary between British East Africa and Italian Somaliland. The mid-channel of the Juba River was taken as the boundary up to the 6th degree of north latitude; it followed that parallel to its intersection with the meridian of longitude 35 degrees east of Greenwich, and that meridian to the Blue Nile. Kismayu remained in British possession.<sup>3</sup>

Thus freed from foreign complications, the Imperial British East Africa Company could turn its undivided

<sup>1</sup> See Appendix II, p. 98

<sup>2</sup> Hertslet, *Map of Africa by Treaty*, p. 1094.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 948.

attention to the problems of the administration of its possessions from the sea to Victoria Nyanza.

(b) *The East Africa Protectorate and Uganda since 1891*

Nominally the company possessed Uganda; but there were special difficulties in the way of the development of this country.

Uganda had been first made known to Europe by the Speke and Grant Expedition of 1862. It was visited by Stanley in 1875; and, in response to an appeal from King Mtesa, British missionaries were sent thither in the following year. In 1883 Joseph Thomson explored the route from Mombasa to the Victoria Nyanza now followed by the Uganda Railway. In 1892 the native Government was in the throes of a civil war between Roman Catholics, Protestants, and Mohammedans. Circumstances obliged Captain Lugard, the agent of the Company, to intervene in this war, which was bringing the country to utter ruin. For this purpose he engaged the Sudanese soldiers, formerly employed by Emin Pasha in the Equatorial Province.

In these circumstances it was no wonder that the Company soon realized that it had undertaken a task above its capacities; and notice was given to the Imperial Government of its inability to carry out a work involving such grave responsibility and expenditure.<sup>1</sup> Sir Gerald Portal was commissioned to report on the whole situation, and he visited Uganda and reported in 1893. He recognised that

“As a political corporation, with powers of government, whether over British subjects or natives of Africa, the work of the Imperial East Africa Company may now be looked upon as ended. . . . The experiment of combining administration and trade in the same hands has proved a failure.”

Colonel Rhodes wrote:

“From what one saw on the road I should say that the endeavour of the British East Africa Company to develop the interior of East Africa has been a failure from want of funds.”<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Africa, No. 7 (1901), Sir H. Johnston's Report [Cd. 671].

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, No. 2 (1894) [Cd. 7303].

At the same time, according to Sir G. Portal,

“ An evacuation of Uganda means practically the renunciation of the whole of that vast territory reserved by the Anglo-German convention for the sphere of British influence. The country lying between Lake Victoria and the east coast is chiefly valuable as being the road to Uganda, and the evacuation of the latter would soon be recognized as being equivalent to the restriction of British influence and British commerce to the coast line.”<sup>1</sup>

On May 29, 1893, Sir G. Portal had concluded a provisional agreement with Mwanga, the King of Uganda, binding him to make no treaty or agreement of any kind with any European without the consent and approval of the British; and a Protectorate over the kingdom of Uganda was declared on June 18, 1894. In 1895 the Imperial British East Africa Company, being bought out by the Government, surrendered their charter, and a British Protectorate was proclaimed over the territories in East Africa (June 15, 1895). The name “ East Africa Protectorate ” was officially given to it (Aug. 31, 1896). In 1896 the Uganda Protectorate was extended over Unyoro, and in 1900 and 1901, by agreements with native kabakas or chieftains, its area was further enlarged. Some 800 miles of difficult country separated the kingdom of Uganda from the nearest port, Mombasa; whilst in 1894 the route to Khartum and Egypt, by the Nile, was completely closed. It became manifest, therefore, that, if Uganda was to be held with any certainty against a native uprising or an invasion from the Sudan or Abyssinia, a railway must be constructed from Mombasa to the east coast of the Victoria Nyanza. The railway was begun in 1896 and was completed in 1903.

Sir H. Johnston says that “ the railway, telegraph, and steamers had entirely altered the conditions of European life in Uganda, and had made the country relatively easy to administer.”<sup>2</sup> Since the end of last

<sup>1</sup> Africa, No. 2 (1894) [C. 7303].

<sup>2</sup> Africa, No. 7 (1901), Sir H. Johnston's Report [Cd. 671], p. 6.

century there has been no history to record of Uganda, in the sense of wars or native troubles. Great loss of life was caused some years ago by sleeping sickness, but it has been latterly much more under control; while, in spite of a climate not healthy for Europeans, planting industries have made much progress.

The success of British administration has been shown by the fact that the outbreak of war in Europe was followed by widespread expressions of loyalty to the British Government and by offers of service and assistance from the chiefs and people. Valuable help has been rendered to the military authorities, and praiseworthy activity evinced in the mobilization of a force of native levies, and the collection of recruits and transport carriers. Carriers from Buangoro behaved splendidly while employed on military operations in the adjoining Protectorate and in German East Africa, and showed courage and steadiness under fire.<sup>1</sup>

As was the case with Uganda, so the history of the British East Africa Protectorate in this century has been one of steady development, in spite of all the various obstacles which arise in a large area where there are white settlers and native races of different kinds. The presence of European immigrants has, almost inevitably, led to difficulties for the Government, measures taken in the interests of the natives seeming to conflict with the development of the country. The problem has been in part solved by the creation of reserves for certain native tribes. It may be noted that, so far as the highlands of East Africa are concerned, Sir C. Eliot differs from Sir H. Johnston's view that East Africa should be the America of the Hindu.<sup>2</sup>

The general prosperity of the Protectorate has been well maintained in the exceptional circumstances

<sup>1</sup> [Cd. 7622, 64], Annual Report, 1914-15.

<sup>2</sup> Sir C. Eliot, *The East Africa Protectorate*, p. 305. Other observers appear to be less confident with regard to the future of East Africa as a *permanent* white man's land.

caused by the war, and the native tribes have, without exception, proved loyal.<sup>1</sup>

The latest adjustments of the boundary with German East Africa and the Belgian Congo were made in 1910 and 1911.

## ZANZIBAR

### (a) *To the Close of the Portuguese Domination*

In the early years of the sixteenth century the Portuguese made themselves masters of the coast of East Africa, including the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba.

On their arrival they found many flourishing cities, which owned a doubtful allegiance to the Sultanate of Kilwa (200 miles south of Zanzibar), itself founded A.D. 975 by Ali ibn Hasan, a Persian prince from Shiraz. To this so-called "Zenj Empire" Zanzibar belonged. But the cities were practically independent. The Arab influence predominated in all, and a flourishing trade was carried on with India and the Persian Gulf.

### (b) *Zanzibar under Oman (A.D. 1698-1861)*

In A.D. 1698 the then Imâm of Muscat (Oman), Saif bin Sultan, sent a naval force which expelled the Portuguese and took Zanzibar, Pemba, Mombasa, and Kilwa. These now became dependencies of Muscat. The governors (valis) were, however, in practice largely independent of the Imâm, and at times openly defied him (e.g., the Mazrui, in 1746). In 1788 the Imâm, Sultan bin Ahmed, re-took Zanzibar (Pemba remained in the hands of the Mazrui till 1822). In 1832 the most famous of the rulers of Oman, Said bin Sultan (born 1790, joint ruler of Oman with his brother from 1804; sole ruler from 1821), transferred the capital of all his dominions from Muscat to Zanzibar, and the most prosperous chapter in the island's history begins.

<sup>1</sup> [Cd. 8434. 8], Annual Report for 1915-16.

On the collapse of the Portuguese power an anarchic period of piracy had ensued in the Indian Ocean. Said—warrior, shipbuilder, merchant, and cultivator, “probably as enlightened a prince as Arabia ever produced”<sup>1</sup>—co-operated with the naval forces of the East India Company to restore order on the seas.

From Zanzibar, which he purchased from the Swahili chief then in possession of it, Said extended his rule, by conquest and diplomacy, till it stretched from Moga-dishu on the north ( $2^{\circ} 10' N.$ ) to Cape Delgado on the south ( $10^{\circ} 42' S.$ ). Indian and European traders were attracted to Zanzibar in ever-increasing numbers. A commercial treaty with the United States was concluded in 1833, and a United States consulate established in 1837. France secured a similar treaty, and established her consulate in 1844. By this time the British were on the scene. Since the visit of the first Englishman to Zanzibar in 1591 no British vessel is recorded as having paid the island a visit until 1799, the time of the first treaties of the East India Company with Muscat (in 1798 and 1800). It was not, however, until 1841 that the first British consul and East India Company agent was appointed to Zanzibar, though a commercial treaty with Great Britain had been concluded two years previously. Throughout his rule, however, Said was a firm friend of the British, who alone had actively aided him to establish his authority.

After a noteworthy reign of fifty-two years, Said died, late in 1856, leaving instructions for the division of his territories between the eldest of his thirteen surviving sons, Thuwainy, and the fourth son, Majid (born 1835). To the former he bequeathed his possessions in Oman, Arabia, and the Persian Gulf; to the latter the whole of his African dominions. Thuwainy, discontented with this arrangement, threatened to invade Zanzibar, but was checked by the fear of British cruisers. The two princes finally agreed to submit their dispute to the arbitration of Lord Canning, Governor-General of India.

<sup>1</sup> Burton.

(c) *Zanzibar an Independent Sultanate* (1861-1890)

The Canning Award (April 2, 1861) ratified the division of Said's dominions, but directed the ruler of Zanzibar to pay henceforth to the ruler of Muscat an annual subsidy of 40,000 crowns (£8,500). This subsidy was not to be considered as implying the dependence of Zanzibar on Muscat, but as a compensation to the latter for the abandonment of all claims on the territory of the former, and as adjusting the inequality between the two inheritances. Neither was it personal to the two then rulers, but it was intended to be a final and permanent arrangement of the relations between the two powers.

The Award was accepted by both Thuwainy and Majid, and the latter paid the subsidy regularly until his brother was murdered by Salim, his son. He then promptly discontinued payment, in spite of protests from the Indian Government. The claim was still outstanding on his death (October, 1870). His successor, Bargash bin Said, fifth son of Said, still declined to pay the subsidy, even when next year another brother, Toorkee, became Sultan of Muscat. In 1873 Toorkee, as a reward for his prompt acceptance of an Anti-slave Trade Treaty presented to him by Sir Bartle Frere in April of that year, received the Zanzibar subsidy (with arrears from 1871) from the Political Agent at Muscat, with the sanction of the Viceroy of India. From that date the charge has never been borne by the Zanzibar Treasury.

Under Sultan Bargash (1870-1888) in other respects also the prosperity of Zanzibar continued for many years to increase, in spite of sore damage caused to the island by a cyclone in 1872, which left only one tree standing. His personal authority was great, and his friendship for Great Britain sincere. Both prosperity and friendship were due mainly to the extraordinary influence with the Sultan of the British representative at Zanzibar, Dr. (later Sir) John Kirk. In 1866 Kirk had been appointed surgeon to the Political

Agency at Zanzibar. In 1868 he became Assistant Political Agent, and in 1873 he was raised to the rank of Consul-General. Thanks to him, up to the time of Germany's intervention in 1884-5, British influence was paramount at Zanzibar. Under Bargash Zanzibar maintained its position as the capital of Negro Africa and became the gate of civilization for Eastern Equatorial Africa, and the focus for all exploring and missionary work in the interior. Its language, Swahili, became the language of Central African trade, and penetrated everywhere on the lines of the trade routes, which radiated from and converged upon Zanzibar. A lively interest came to be taken in the island and its Sultan by both the British and the Indian Governments. Towards the end of the period a more ominous cause of such interest made its appearance in the shape of German ambitions. The determining factors in the relations of Great Britain with Zanzibar may now be briefly described.

(1) *Trade*.—Direct British trade with the dominions of the Sultan was never very lively, and was exceeded in amount by German, American, and French together. The Germans, too, were the first to send steamers direct to the East African coast. But all European trade, even when stimulated by the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869, was of infinitesimal proportion compared with that of the Indian merchants, both Hindu and Mohammedan, known comprehensively as "Banians." For the forty years before Sir Bartle Frere's Mission in 1873 Indian immigration had gone on at a constantly increasing rate. "Their silent occupation of the coast from Sokotra to Cape Colony," wrote Frere, "is one of the most curious things I know." Their monopoly of trade on Zanzibar was practically complete. All European merchants employed them as agents and intermediaries. In 1870 their numbers on Zanzibar alone were reckoned as 3,710, and the amount of British-Indian capital invested there was over a million and a half pounds. It was only the trade with the interior which remained in Arab and

Swahili hands, and this was largely financed by Indians. Besides trading themselves, the Indians on Zanzibar had acquired exclusive control of banking and mercantile business. The Arabs, who had sunk to the position of feudal landowners, were in a financial sense completely subject to them. Hardly an Arab estate but was encumbered by mortgages to Indian capitalists, and a large proportion were so deeply mortgaged as virtually to belong to the Indian mortgagee. The customs dues were farmed by an Indian house. India's interest in Zanzibar was, and still to some extent remains, vital, her traders always expecting the support and protection of the Government.

(2) *Slavery*.—The growth of the East African slave trade to the great proportions attained by it in the nineteenth century was due in part to the security of the seas achieved by Said. Zanzibar rapidly became the chief centre and clearing-house for the traffic, to the great financial advantage of its ruler, who, e.g., in 1873 derived 40,000 dollars from customs dues levied on slaves.

But the policy of the British Government was unswervingly directed first to the limitation, and finally to the entire abolition, of slavery in all its forms. There were many difficulties hampering this crusade at Zanzibar. The Sultan was far from being master in his own house, and the Arab chiefs, on whose support he, but a *primus inter pares*, relied, were bitterly hostile to it. He himself sympathised with their views. The very Indians, subjects of the crusading power, if refraining from the actual traffic itself (when it became too risky), undoubtedly provided the capital on which its operations depended. But British pressure and naval activity triumphed in the end. The stages of its victory were three in number. The slave trade by sea and the sale of slaves in Zanzibar market were the subject of treaties concluded with Sultans Said in 1845, Majid in 1868, and finally with Bargash in 1873. This last treaty, which put an end to the sea-borne traffic, was wrung with great difficulty from the Sultan, who refused it

when proffered by Sir Bartle Frere in his Mission of January to March, but eventually gave way in June to a threat of naval action and Sir John Kirk's influence.

The slave traffic by land was prohibited by the Sultan in 1876. There still remained the hardest problem of all, that of domestic slavery. An institution so rooted in all Mohammedan life could not, either in Zanzibar or any other Moslem country be abolished by a stroke of the pen. Decrees of Sultan Khalifa in 1889 and Ali in 1890 tended to check the system, as did the diminution of supply. But domestic slavery survived the independence of the country.

(3) *Zanzibar, Great Britain, and Germany.*—In East Africa, as in South-west Africa, Germany in due course seized territories previously refused by Great Britain. For many years the British Government declined to exercise any direct control over Zanzibar. In March, 1862, both Great Britain and France engaged definitely to respect its independence. Accordingly, when Bargash in 1873 offered France the Protectorate of his dominions, the proposal fell through. In 1877, the Sultan offered a seventy-year lease of the customs and administration of all his mainland possessions to Mr. (afterwards Sir) William Mackinnon, who for some years past had practically controlled and developed all British commerce between India, the Persian Gulf, and the East African coast. In 1872 Mackinnon had established a mail service between Aden and Zanzibar, and he had gained the Sultan's entire confidence. But when the offer of 1877 was referred to the British Government the latter refused to sanction the concession or to declare a British Protectorate over Zanzibar. Lord Beaconsfield also ignored a declaration which Bargash had given to the British Consul binding himself not to cede territory to any Power other than Great Britain. The fruit was long since ripe, but it was left to Germany first definitely to attempt to pluck it.

German trade with Zanzibar dated back to the middle of the century. A German firm was established there in 1844. In 1859 the Hanseatic Consul concluded

a commercial treaty with the Sultan. But German trade, like other European trade, was conducted through the medium of the Banians, and the German flag was much more rarely hoisted by native vessels (endeavouring to elude British naval vigilance) than was the French. In 1874 the Sultan made overtures to Germany, which Bismarck refused. But next year German political aspirations first took shape.

In 1875 Vice-Admiral Livonius wrote a memorandum urging a German Protectorate over Zanzibar and East Africa. Bismarck prevented its publication. Similar German schemes were promulgated in 1879 and 1882. Towards the end of 1884 the new German Consul, Rohlf, was sent to Zanzibar in a man-of-war, and the British Government became uneasy. But Bismarck, in answer to enquiries, assured it that Germany was not endeavouring to obtain a Protectorate over Zanzibar. In a few months the German intention to appropriate the mainland possessions of the Sultan became manifest. Count Münster, in a Note to Lord Granville (Feb. 6, 1885) stated that he was "unacquainted with the amount of direct influence which the United Kingdom and the Indian Governments have exercised over Zanzibar during the present century." And the German Government claimed precisely the same rights in Zanzibar as were exercised by Great Britain.

Finding the attitude of the British Government sympathetic, Germany proceeded to apply the doctrine of "effective occupation" (as enunciated in the Berlin Act of Feb. 24, 1885) to the Sultan's mainland possessions, and with great success. That Zanzibar was not a signatory to the Act made little difference. The Sultan's pretensions to sovereignty reached as far as Tanganyika. His actual authority hardly reached beyond a coastal strip, and, at least in the northern section, was not continuous even there. The German penetration of the interior, actively pursued in 1884 and 1885, reaped its reward when the German East Africa Company, founded by Dr. Peters, obtained, on Feb. 12, 1885, a *Schutzbrief* from the Emperor, who placed

under his Imperial protection some 60,000 square miles of territory claimed by the Sultan of Zanzibar as part of his inherited dominions. Protests and military expeditions despatched by Bargash were alike vain. On Aug. 14, 1885, he yielded to the inevitable (in the shape of a German squadron) so far as to acknowledge German Protectorates over Usagara, &c., and Witu.<sup>1</sup> In October, 1885, three commissioners (a British, French, and German) were appointed to ascertain the precise limits of the Sultan's claims to sovereignty on the East Coast of Africa. A resulting Agreement (Oct. 29-Nov. 1, 1886) between the German and British Governments was accepted by Bargash on Dec. 4, 1886, and ended the competition for the mainland so far as he was concerned. France also accepted it. Germany then gave her adhesion to the Anglo-French Agreement of 1862 respecting the independence of Zanzibar.

This Agreement of 1886 gave to the Sultan of Zanzibar the islands of Zanzibar, Pemba, Lamu, Mafia, and a number of other smaller islands. On the mainland he was awarded nothing but a continuous strip of territory, ten sea-miles in depth, from the south bank of the Minengani River in the centre of Tunghi Bay<sup>2</sup> to Kipini at the mouth of the Tana River, a distance of some 600 miles. North of Kipini, on the Benadir coast, he retained the stations of Kismayu, Brava, Merca, and Mogadishu, with radii landwards of 10 sea-miles, and Warsheikh, with a radius of 5 sea-miles. He was further allowed to lease to the German East Africa Company the custom dues of Dar es-Salaam and Pangani in return for an annual payment.

In the next few years the Sultans of Zanzibar disposed of the whole of these coastal possessions by lease or by sale.

In May, 1887, Sultan Bargash gave a fifty years'

<sup>1</sup> A German Protectorate over the East Coast of Africa from Witu to Kismayu was officially notified on October 22, 1889.

<sup>2</sup> Portuguese action subsequently substituted the Rovuma River.

lease of his strip of coast from the Umba River as far as Kipini to Sir William Mackinnon, a grant which led to the formation of the Imperial British East Africa Company (Charter, Sept. 3, 1888).

On April 28, 1888, Sultan Khalifa (who succeeded his brother Bargash on the latter's death on March 26) gave a fifty years' lease of his strip of coast-line lying between the German sphere and the sea (i.e., all that was left of Zanzibar's coastal territory south of that granted to Sir W. Mackinnon), together with Mafia Island, to the Imperial German East African Association (Charter, March, 1887). The Germans took over the administration on Aug. 16, hoisted their flag at the chief ports, and at once provoked a native and Arab rising, which was quelled only in 1890.

In 1889 the British East Africa Company transferred the Benadir ports to Italy, and Sultan Ali (who succeeded his brother Khalifa in February, 1890) agreed to lease them to Italy for fifty years in 1892. Italy bought these ports outright in January, 1905, for £144,000, and on Jan. 13, 1905, granted Great Britain the right of pre-emption over them.

In 1890 Germany bought outright for four million marks (£200,000) the territory leased in 1888. Finally, to complete the history of Zanzibar's coastal possessions, an agreement was concluded on Dec. 14, 1895, between Great Britain and Zanzibar, whereby the administration of the Sultan's possessions on the mainland and adjacent islands, exclusive of Zanzibar and Pemba, was entrusted to officers appointed by the British Government in return for an annual payment of £11,000. Further, the sum of £200,000 recently paid the Sultan by Germany was lent to the British Government to buy out the rights of the Imperial British East Africa Company, and British East Africa now came under direct administration by the Foreign Office. £6,000 interest on this loan is annually paid to the Sultan, who retains his sovereignty over these districts. This agreement was declared terminable at six months' notice given to him by the British Government.

Five years before this agreement the Sultan's remaining dominions had passed under the direct control of Great Britain.

(d) *Zanzibar a British Protectorate (1890-1918)*

On July 1, 1890, an agreement was concluded between Great Britain and Germany of the most comprehensive character, defining their spheres of influence in East, West, and South-west Africa.<sup>1</sup>

In East Africa Germany recognised a Protectorate by Great Britain over the dominions of the Sultan of Zanzibar, excluding the territory leased to Germany two years' previously (and subsequently sold to her outright). She withdrew her own Protectorate over Witu and the adjoining coast up to Kismayu and other claims north of the River Tana in favour of Great Britain. In return Great Britain ceded Heligoland to Germany.

On August 5, 1890, Great Britain recognised the Protectorate by France over Madagascar and French influence in the whole of the Central Sahara in return for the French recognition of the British Protectorate over Zanzibar and Pemba (as soon as notified), agreed to on the same day by a separate Declaration.

On November 4, 1890, the British Protectorate over Zanzibar was formally proclaimed.

In October 1891 the system of government was framed. A British representative became first Minister. Responsible officers were placed in charge of regular departments. A budget was drawn up, and no unauthorised expenditure could be incurred without the sanction of the First Minister and of Her Majesty's Agent and Consul-General. This form of Government remained unchanged until 1906, when the Imperial Government assumed more control over both internal

<sup>1</sup> See Appendix II.

and external affairs of the Protectorate, and new officials and a Council were created. On July 1, 1913, the control of the Protectorate was transferred to the Colonial Office, with legal effect from 1914, and a Zanzibar Order in Council (January 21, 1914) determined the existing system of administration (see below).

On February 1, 1892, Zanzibar was declared a free port, but this worked badly, and a 5 per cent. duty on imports was reimposed in 1899, and raised to  $7\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. 10 years later.

In March 1894 Sultan Ali died, and was succeeded by his grand-nephew, Hamed bin Thwain. On the latter's death on August 25, 1896, his cousin Khalid usurped the power and defied the British representative. His palace was bombarded two days later. Khalid fled to the German Consulate, whence he was removed to the mainland, and Hamed bin Mohammed, brother of the dead Sultan, was installed in his stead.

The institution of domestic slavery now received final attention. In April 1907 the legal status of slavery was abolished in the Protectorate, and all slaves could henceforth claim their freedom if and when they liked. A more direct and instant abolition of all slavery would certainly have entailed consequences disastrous to the peace and economic stability of the Protectorate. As it is, emancipation has proceeded gradually and smoothly, without exciting resentment among the Arabs or seriously disturbing economic conditions. Those who voluntarily remained slaves enjoyed all the better treatment at the hands of masters who knew that otherwise they could not hope to retain the slaves' services. Up to the end of 1907, however, 11,000 slaves had claimed their freedom, and 6,000 had been liberated voluntarily by their masters.

Hamed bin Mohammed died in July 1902, and was succeeded by Ali bin Hamed. In 1907 the local army was disbanded, and two companies of the King's African Rifles garrisoned Zanzibar in its stead. In this year also the consular jurisdiction exercised by other European Powers was abolished. In 1910 direct

steamship communication with London was established. Ali abdicated in December 1911, and was succeeded by his brother-in-law, Khalifa bin Harub, the present Sultan.

### III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

#### (1) RELIGIOUS

##### (a) *East Africa Protectorate*

MOHAMMEDANISM is reported to have made much progress on the coast, but not in the interior; in other words, it accompanies the Arab. The very large majority of the population of the Protectorate are pagans, among whom many Christian missions are at work—Protestant and Roman Catholic, British, American, French, Italian, and Swedish.

##### (b) *Uganda*

The population of the Protectorate is stated to consist of nearly 2,000,000 pagans, 73,000 Mohammedans, 200,000 Protestants, and 230,000 Roman Catholics. It has been a great field of missionary effort, and Christianity has been much more potent than Mohammedanism. There are three missionary societies at work—the Church Missionary Society and two Roman Catholic bodies, the White Fathers of Algeria, and the Mill Hill Mission.

##### (c) *Zanzibar*

The majority of the natives are Mohammedans (Sunnis of the Shafi school). The Swahili combine much superstition with their Mohammedanism. The Sultan and his relatives belong by long family tradition to the Ibadhi (or I-badiyah) sect of Islam (founded by Abdallah bin I-bâdh in A.D. 744 in Oman, and always counting the Imâms of that country among its adherents). This divergence of creed seems never to have

affected the Sultan's relations with the orthodox at Zanzibar, and the sect for its part has always been tolerant and merciful.

The Government pays much attention to the repair and upkeep of mosques.

There are three Christian Missions in the Protectorate :

- (1) The Universities' Mission to Central Africa (Church of England), established at Zanzibar town in 1864, with a hospital and a cathedral (opened in 1879). This also carries on work in Pemba. Conversion of the natives on any large scale is not rapid, but the Zanzibar station is invaluable as a base of operations for mission work on the mainland.
- (2) The Congrégation des Pères du Saint-Esprit (Roman Catholic), already at Zanzibar town in 1856.
- (3) The Friends' Industrial Mission, established at Banani on Pemba in 1897.

The educational work of all three missions has been valuable, though not as popular with the natives as could be wished.

In general, Christian missions in the Protectorate have presented to the Civil Administration none of the political difficulties familiar in countries where Islam is of a more fanatical type.

## (2) POLITICAL

### (a) *East Africa Protectorate*

In 1905 the East Africa and Uganda Protectorates were removed from the control of the Foreign Office to that of the Colonial Office. Prior to 1906 the Protectorate was administered under the East Africa Order in Council, 1902, which placed administrative and legislative powers in the hands of a Commissioner. In 1906, by an Order in Council of October 22, a Governor was substituted for a Commissioner, and an Executive and a Legislative Council were set on foot. The

Legislative Council was to consist of the Governor and such persons, not being less than two, as might be appointed during His Majesty's pleasure. It should be noted that the Governor of British East Africa acts also as High Commissioner for Zanzibar. By the 1902 Order in Council a High Court of East Africa was created, and by another Order in Council, passed at the same time, a Court of Appeal was established for the East Africa, Uganda, and Nyasaland Protectorates.

(b) *Uganda*

The Uganda Protectorate, after being taken over by the Government from the Chartered Company, was under the control of the Foreign Office till 1905, when, together with East Africa, Nyasaland, and Somaliland, it was transferred to the charge of the Colonial Office. The Protectorate includes provinces which are not all on precisely the same footing; Uganda proper, for instance, is a native kingdom, whose king is fully recognized by the British Government. But both the administrative and the legislative authority on the spot are, under the Uganda Order in Council of 1902, vested in the principal British officer, at first known as Commissioner, now as Governor. The courts of justice and the judicial procedure are regulated by this Order in Council, as amended by a later Order in Council of 1911.

The system of administration by means of native chiefs has given excellent results. Under the Land Settlement, introduced by Sir H. Johnston, the ruler of the kingdom and his chiefs were paid fixed allowances and received definite estates. Sir C. Eliot writes of the Uganda Protectorate:—

“ In few parts of the world inhabited by dark races will the missionary, schoolmaster, and engineer find so good a reception, for it has a large and unusually intelligent native population, who show a striking readiness to adopt European ideas and inventions. For the same reason it offers an extensive market for European goods, and the prospects of creating a considerable trade are encouraging. Though it is not as un-

healthy as the west coast of the continent, it contains few, if any, localities which in their present condition are suited to the permanent residence or long sojourn of Europeans, and it is likely to become a native State placed under European supervision and guidance."

The provinces of the Protectorate of Uganda are as follows: (1) Buganda, (2) Eastern, (3) Northern, (4) Western, and (5) Rudolf. Some new territory on the west bank of the Nile came under the administration of the Protectorate in the latter part of 1913-14. The Busoga railway, 62 miles in length, connects Lake Victoria with the navigable waters of the Nile and Lake Kioga.

(c) *Zanzibar*

The Sultan receives a fixed sum annually and retains his private estates. But the public revenues are wholly administered by British officers. In 1902 the Sultan, on the advice of the British Government, first appointed a financial adviser, to the great benefit of his finances.

The Government of the Protectorate is administered by a High Commissioner and a British Resident, who are appointed by Commissioners under His Majesty's Sign Manual and Signet, and exercise their functions under the Zanzibar Order in Council (1914). The office of High Commissioner is held by the Governor of British East Africa.

Legislation consists of certain British and Indian Statutes, and also of Decrees of the Sultan, which latter are binding on all persons when countersigned by the British Resident. They are notified to the Secretary of State, and if the Resident revokes his signature to any Decree it ceases to be binding. There is a Council, with advisory and consultative functions, consisting of the Sultan as President, the British Resident as Vice-President, and six members (three official and three non-official).

The Civil Service is composed mainly of European, with a few Indian, officials. There are some eighteen

Departments of Administration. Natives are not yet employed in the Central Administration, though their use is regarded as an ideal to be attained when possible. There are Arab governors, however, in the towns, and in the Wahadimu and Wapemba villages the *masheba* (headmen) collect the hut tax and assist the authorities, though unpaid by Government.

In Pemba the chief official is a collector at Chaki Chaki. The island is kept in close touch with the Zanzibar Administration by a weekly steamer service and wireless telegraphy.

The Indian Penal Code and Codes of Civil and Criminal Procedure are applicable in the Protectorate, due regard being paid to the general principles of Mohammedan law, and to any native law or custom not repugnant to justice or morality. The fundamental law in civil matters is that of Islam.

In jurisdiction, His Britannic Majesty's Court, consisting of one judge and one or more assistant judges, deals with all actions, civil or criminal, to which a British or British-protected person or the subject of a foreign Power is a party. It has also certain Admiralty jurisdiction. The Sultan's local courts deal with cases where the subjects of the Sultan alone are concerned. They are under the general supervision of His Majesty's Judge. In the town of Zanzibar these courts are composed of two European magistrates, assisted by Arab kadis. In the country districts and in Pemba cases are tried by a magistrate or a district or assistant district commissioner. The final appeal in all cases lies to the British Judge, sitting as Sultan's Judge.

Appeal from His Britannic Majesty's Court in certain criminal and civil cases lies to His Majesty's Court of Appeal for Eastern Africa. Up to 1914 such appeal lay to the High Court of Bombay.

## (3) EDUCATIONAL.

*(a) East Africa Protectorate*

The missions have done sound educational work, including industrial training. There are in addition some half-dozen Government schools, including three schools for Europeans, one for East Indians, and one for Arabs.

*(b) Uganda*

The schools are all mission schools, which receive grants-in-aid from the Government. A large number of natives are educated at these schools, in which agricultural and technical education is not overlooked. The natives are said to avail themselves eagerly of the opportunities offered, and to have shown that they appreciate the value of elementary education.<sup>1</sup>

*(c) Zanzibar*

The schools in the Protectorate are of four kinds : (1) Government, (2) Mission, (3) Indian, (4) Private.

- (1) The Government schools comprise (i) the Central School at Zanzibar town, divided into three sections, viz., elementary, primary, and industrial. In the industrial section carpentry, printing, and tailoring are taught. To the first two sections (only) a limited number of Indians are admitted. Instruction in the primary section is given in English. (ii) District schools, *Kut-tabs*, mainly for Moslems. The whole course of instruction is intended to last seven years, during the first three of which instruction is given in Swahili, and during the last four in English or Arabic. Education in Government schools is voluntary and free. It is for boys only.

<sup>1</sup> [Cd. 8434. 1], Annual Report, 1915-16, p. 16.

- (2) All three missions maintain schools for both boys and girls. The Universities' Mission has a Teachers' Training College and a High School in Zanzibar town, besides schools in villages. Industrial education receives most attention from the Friends' Mission on Pemba.
- (3) There are five Indian schools, assisted by voluntary contributions or annual grants by communities, for both boys and girls. The Government has no kind of control over these, and does not inspect them.
- (4) There are three private schools for Indians, and an indefinite number of private Moslem schools in the hands of local teachers, where little but an unintelligent repetition of the Koran is taught.

The total number of pupils receiving instruction in all the schools together (exclusive of the Koran schools, for which no figures exist) was 1985 in 1913 (1526 boys, 459 girls), made up as follows:—

Government schools, 632 (488 Africans, 144 Indians).

Mission schools, 419.

Indian (including private Indian) schools, 934.

Education being voluntary, the bulk of the children, at least of the native Swahili population, remains uneducated, save for the Koran schools. Attendance of those enrolled is irregular, especially in the clove-picking season. In spite of official and missionary encouragement, regrettable indifference to educational facilities is shown by the inhabitants of the Protectorate. This is the more to be deplored as the employment, whether of Arabs, of Swahili, or of Indians, in Government service must depend on educational progress.

## IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

### *EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE AND UGANDA*<sup>1</sup>

#### (A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

##### (1) INTERNAL

##### (a) *Roads and Paths*

IN the Arab trading days of last century certain clearly defined routes led from the ports of Eastern Africa into the heart of the continent, and were usually followed by the Arab and Swahili expeditions in quest of slaves and ivory. Such caravan routes were never more than mere tracks, sufficient for the passage of porters and traders marching in single file. One of them led north-west from Mombasa, and pointed the way for the railway which has superseded it. In the central and northern portions of the East Africa Protectorate the trade routes are still for the most part caravan tracks, but roads are now being pushed out to connect the chief Government stations. Further south the tendency is to throw out new roads from the railway into the districts which are being settled and developed. As traffic increases, the necessity arises to give the road a metalled surface; eventually the growing trade of a particular district warrants the construction of a branch railway. Further from the railway the roads are sometimes engineered and surfaced, but are generally of the nature of paths and tracks. Of roads

<sup>1</sup> For the sake of convenience, the economic conditions of the two contiguous mainland Protectorates are discussed together, while the Zanzibar Protectorate receives separate treatment.

fit for motor traffic at most seasons of the year there are approximately 800 miles in the East Africa Protectorate.

In Uganda the main roads again are intimately connected with the railway. Designed to bring the produce of the country districts and of the Belgian Congo across to Victoria Nyanza, and thence to the railway, the chief routes and best roads radiate from Kampala south-west to Mbarara, west to Fort Portal and the Ruwenzori region, north-west to Hoima and Butiaba, and east to Jinja. Another important trade route is the motor road from Port Masindi, extended recently almost to Butiaba, and serving to connect Lake Albert and the Nile Basin with Lakes Kioga and Victoria.

There are now in Uganda 400 miles of good motor roads, about 800 miles suitable for light motor traffic in dry weather, and a very large mileage of cleared tracks forming minor channels of communication all over the country.

#### (b) *Waterways*

The navigable waterways of Uganda, like the road system, serve to feed the railway. While most of the lakes and rivers of the Protectorate offer small facilities for trading, there are two notable exceptions. The Nile is navigable from Nimule southward to Lake Albert, and thence eastward to Fajao; across the lake and along the Nile a traffic, to which the war has given an impetus, is carried on by the small vessels of the Albert flotilla. Further south, between Port Masindi and Namasagali, there occurs a second navigable section, where the Nile expands in its course and forms two lakes, Kwania and Kioga. From the many widespread branches of these lakes a considerable and rapidly increasing volume of cotton and other native products is brought to the head of the Busoga Railway by the three sternwheelers of the Kioga flotilla. The river traffic of the Nile, however, is dwarfed by comparison with the work of the Lake Victoria Marine, which transmits to and from the Uganda Railway terminus at Kisumu

nearly all the export and import trade of the Protectorate. The lake flotilla consists of six steamers, of 700 to 1,200 tons displacement, five smaller steamers and tugs, and a number of lighters and small boats. For such vessels the lake is navigable over its whole area of 26,828 square miles, and the Uganda steamers can visit 17 ports, four of which lie within what was German East Africa. In 1913-14 the mileage run was 95,338, and the traffic handled amounted to 59,759 tons.

In the East Africa Protectorate the only possible waterways are the Rivers Juba and Tana, which have both been navigated by light-draught steamers for a distance of 400 miles. Two small river steamers are engaged in trading on the Juba River, but the Tana presents obstacles and difficulties which have hitherto precluded any regular service.

### (c) Railways

*The System in General.*—The Uganda Railway has in the last two decades been the dominant material factor in the political and economic development of East Africa. In this brief time it has fully realized the aims and hopes of its promoters. The slave trade has been exterminated and the safety of Uganda Christians ensured; mechanical traction, with infinitely greater carrying capacity, has superseded human portage over the main trade routes; British authority has been firmly and quietly established; the country has been pacified and partly colonized, and is now assured of financial independence and economic prosperity. Incidentally the railway has conditioned almost the whole system of subsidiary communications, which by roads and paths, rivers and lake routes, posts and telegraphs, now spreads over most of Uganda and over the southern and more fertile portion of the East Africa Protectorate.

The term Uganda Railway is, in a sense, a misnomer; for, although the traffic of Uganda passes over it, the line itself, with a length of 587 miles between its termini at Mombasa and the Victoria Nyanza, lies wholly

within the East Africa Protectorate. On the map the existing railway system resembles the skeleton of a gigantic dinosaur lying in a north-westerly direction between ocean and lake, with legs stretching westward to Kilimanjaro and Lake Magadi, and an upper jaw planned to arch over the north-east end of Lake Victoria. The Kilimanjaro branch, extending a hundred miles from Voi (mile 104), has recently been linked up by the military authorities with the German line from Tanga and the Usambara highlands. Further north, at m. 287, the Magadi Railway branches off, running 91 miles down steep gradients to serve the soda deposits of Lake Magadi. Nairobi (m. 330) is the starting-point of a short line which reaches out to Thika, 32 miles north, and which may in the future be carried on through the agricultural district of Fort Hall towards the wooded slopes of Mount Kenya. From Nakuru (m. 452) the projected extension, for which the preliminary surveys have been completed and the necessary grants voted, will run out in a north-westerly curve towards Mumias. This, the Uasin Gishu (Gwas Ngishu) Railway, will open up an agricultural district, and may in the future be carried westward to Uganda and the Congo, so as to offer an easier and continuous passage for the traffic from these regions. A proposal has recently been mooted for the construction of another line, to run south from the neighbourhood of Lumbwa (m. 521) for about 150 miles to Ikoma, in what was German East Africa, traversing a district said to be well watered, suitable for agriculture and cattle-raising, and healthy for Europeans.

Two offshoots of the Uganda Railway are found in the Uganda Protectorate. The Busoga Railway, 61 miles long, connects Lake Victoria with Lakes Kioga and Kwania. The embryo line, six miles long, which now links Port Bell and Kampala, seems destined in course of time to extend westward to the Congo border. These two railways convey a large proportion of the traffic of Uganda and Eastern Congo down to Lake Victoria, whence it is shipped across to the Uganda Railway for transmission to distant markets.

*Particulars of Construction.*—All the railways of the two Protectorates belong to a single administrative system, and are uniform in gauge and in method of traction. There is in every case a single line of one-metre gauge, laid with 50-lb. rails. The tractive power is supplied by locomotive steam engines of various classes, using as fuel either coal or wood. The best engines appear to be those of the Mastodon type (Class "G"), which might well be adopted, with little modification, as the standard type for the future, to replace the large number of inferior and outworn engines that have been in use since 1900.

The average speed of goods trains is 13 miles per hour, of mail trains 16 miles. This low speed is due partly to the limitations of the rolling-stock and the narrow gauge, partly to the curves and gradients of the line. The longitudinal section of the railway shows that from sea-level the line ascends in three great steps to a height of 7,800 feet, falls to 6,000, climbs again to 8,330 at Mau Summit, and thence drops to the lake level of 3,750 feet. Over this varied contour, with ascents totalling 15,000 feet between ocean and lake, the maximum gradient of 1 in 33 is encountered on stretches amounting to less than three miles in all; grades of 1 in 33-50 occur on a total of 90 miles; 219 miles range between 1 in 50 and 1 in 100; while the remaining mileage varies from 1 in 100 to level. The gradients of the projected Uasin Gishu Railway will not exceed 1 in 66, which is also the ruling grade of the Busoga Railway in Uganda.

The longest bridge on the main line is the Salisbury Bridge, which connects Mombasa Island with the mainland and is composed of five 12-ft. spans and twenty-one spans of 60-ft. girders carried on iron screw piles. The Tsavo and Stov Athi bridges have each four spans, with 60-ft. girders, while the Athi River and Morendat bridges have centre girders of 100 ft., flanked in each case by smaller spans. The deep ravines of the Kikuyu escarpment and the many channels cutting the downward slope from Mau to Kisumu are

crossed by viaducts of an aggregate length of over  $2\frac{1}{2}$  miles. There are 68 smaller viaducts, 326 small culverts, and one tunnel, 200 yards long.

Railways in tropical and semi-tropical zones are subject to special difficulties of water supply. The Uganda Railway has some 20 watering stations between coast and lake, but in at least half of these the supply is either scanty and uncertain in amount or defective in quality. In most instances recourse has to be had to pumping, a gravity supply not being practicable.

The full load of an average train is 100 tons; the average load carried has increased in the last six years from 52 to 71 tons. An average passenger train can carry 400 third-class passengers. There is a daily service between Mombasa and the lake; it would be possible to run two trains daily each way. The journey from Mombasa to Kisumu takes 43 hours.

*Finance.*—The railways, with their subsidiary marine systems, are owned by the Protectorate Governments, and their profits or losses swell or diminish the Protectorates' revenues. The Magadi Railway was built by the Magadi Soda Company, and is now worked by the Uganda Railway Administration, which by agreement is to receive half of any profits, but take entire responsibility for any losses that may occur. For the year 1916-1917 the loss on working amounted to £7,491.

The capital outlay upon the railways and steamship services to March 1917 was £6,497,279. No interest is payable on the greater part of this total, as an amount of £5,692,009 represents grants made by the Imperial Government for the construction of the main line and the Magadi branch line. An item of £376,302 consists of sums already charged against the ordinary revenues of the Protectorates; while the remainder, a total of £428,968, is composed of the payments made to March 1917 against four loans sanctioned by the Imperial Parliament for the Thika Railway (£250,000), the Kilindini Pier (£250,000), and railway extensions (£375,000 and £1,868,000). On these capital pay-

ments annual interest charges, amounting to more than £21,000, are met not from railway receipts but from the general revenue of the country, which, on the other hand, receives the whole of the net earnings of the railway.

Tables I and II (Appendix, pp. 106-7) show that for the six years ending March 1917 the average annual profits have been in excess of £228,000; during three years of war the figures had risen to £273,000 from £184,000, the average for the preceding triennium. While the returns for the last three years are abnormal, and influenced largely by special war conditions, the net earnings have risen since 1905 proportionately faster than either revenue or expenditure, increasing from a ratio of three-tenths to one of four-tenths of the revenue, and from two-fifths to more than two-thirds of expenditure. At the same time the earnings of the tonnage carried have fallen from £134 to £107 per 100 tons, a drop due in part to a decrease in the average distance of carriage, but very largely to the concessions made for certain classes of freight, whose import or export is economically advantageous to the country.

The railway tariffs are fixed on a sliding scale on the principle that the cheapest rates are allowed for articles of prime importance for the development of agriculture and industries within the Protectorates, while the heavier charges are imposed for the carriage of articles of luxury. Thus, over the 330 miles between Mombasa and Nairobi, agricultural implements are conveyed for 1s. 3d. (93 cents) per 100-lb. weight; china, glass, and electric goods for 4s. 5d. (330 cents); and ivory, perfumery, and champagne for 24s. 2d. (1,815 cents).

To encourage export trade, very light rates are charged on country produce such as potatoes, beans, peas, grain of various sorts, and wattle-bark, when these are forwarded to the coast in bulk for export; the relatively valuable consignments of fibre, flax or hemp, and of cocoa and coffee-beans bear slightly heavier charges. Over the same distance of 330 miles the rates for the former varieties of produce are only 6d. (37 to

40 cents) per 100 lb., whereas the latter classes are charged 1s. (74 cents) and 1s. 10d. (135 cents) respectively. These charges are equivalent to about  $2\frac{1}{2}$ , 5, and 9 cents (or 0.4d., 0.8d., and 1.5d.) per ton per mile.

Passenger fares are approximately as follows:—  
First class: single 3d., return  $4\frac{1}{2}$ d. per mile; second class: single  $1\frac{1}{2}$ d., return  $2\frac{1}{4}$ d.; intermediate class: single 1d., return  $1\frac{1}{2}$ d.; third class, single: short distances 4d., longest distances 3d. Similar fares obtain on the marine services of Lakes Victoria and Kioga, but the rate for third-class passengers is only .25d.

*Adequacy to Economic Needs; Possibilities of Expansion.*—The influence which the Uganda Railway, in the sixteen years since it reached Lake Victoria, has exercised upon the development of British East Africa is comparable to the influence of the Canadian Pacific Railway upon Western Canada. Whether the railway is equal to the requirements of the Protectorates is a matter on which a difference of opinion has existed between the railway authorities and the settlers and business men, the latter complaining of the congestion of traffic even under peace conditions. All are agreed, however, that the question of railway expansion is of the utmost importance for the future of the country, and demands the most careful study.

The traffic and financial returns for the last three years have, of course, been affected by the special conditions of the war. Expenditure has been reduced to the lowest possible limit, and revenue has perhaps gained as much by the military use of the line as it has lost by interruptions of commercial traffic. Even so, the advance in net earnings has not been exceptional, and the rise in tonnage carried has not exceeded the rate of increase of previous years. Since 1904, each seventh year hitherto has seen the tonnage tripled and profits at least doubled. It is impossible to predict when this rate of progress will be checked by the economic saturation of the territory served, but a continuous and rapid increase of traffic for a number of years may safely be anticipated. New roads are opening up new districts and bringing in more produce. The traffic from tribu-

tary lines, constructed or projected, will help to fill the main channel of trade. The native population is realizing the advantages of the comforts and conveniences of civilization, desiring them more and working for them, and thus increasing the labour power. The immigration of settlers is constantly introducing more capital and developing the country's resources. Agriculture and industries are progressing, not merely steadily but rapidly; sisal plantations and flax areas promise a largely increased output year by year; soda will prove a valuable export; cotton, coffee, cocoa, hides and skins, grain, pulse, copra, and rubber should all show greatly enhanced returns.

To these special considerations, which seem to favour a bold policy of railway expansion, others of a more general character may be added. In a new country a railway serves political and social, as well as commercial, ends. It is a more effective instrument of pacification than military expeditions. In periods of partial drought or famine or economic distress it tends to stabilize the country and to maintain its own financial position; it transports the necessities of life to famine districts; and, not being wholly dependent on any single province or industry, is not unduly disturbed by local fluctuations. For the white settler it is a prime necessity; it brings himself and his stores, his live-stock and implements, to the farm he proposes to occupy, and it carries to market the products of his industry.

In East Africa railway extensions would open up for settlement large districts, such as Nakuru to Mumias, Lumbwa to Ikoma, and Nairobi to Fort Hall, suitable for European occupation and development. It is true that new branch lines run out to such districts would increase the chances of congestion on the main line, and might raise the question of doubling the existing line or constructing an alternative railway to the coast. Hitherto railway development has neglected the central and northern portions of the East Africa Protectorate, where the opportunities for agricultural or mineral industries are not known to be favourable; and

although railways elsewhere have frequently induced the desert to blossom and bear, any ambitious schemes for a central or northern system are for the present effectively barred by the prohibitive cost, the lack of capital, and the absence of a first-class harbour north of Mombasa. It therefore seems probable that expansion will proceed from the existing railway system, and that congestion will be avoided by the provision of a large number of new and powerful engines and of freight and passenger vehicles, by additional crossing stations, and by the development of the terminus port of Kilindini (see pp. 69, 71).

(d) *Posts, Telegraphs, Telephones*

The post and telegraph services of the two Protectorates include 111 telegraph offices and 127 post offices and agencies, of which 40 are also money order offices. The postal system not only embraces all railway, steamer, and motor routes, but also reaches out by relays of runners to the more remote district stations. Telegraph lines similarly escort and outstrip the railway. In Uganda in 1915 there were 1,045 miles of telegraph line, and in East Africa 3,043 miles. Telephone exchanges are established at Nairobi, Mombasa, Kisumu, Entebbe, Kampala, and Jinja, with over 750 miles of wire.

(2) EXTERNAL

(a) *Ports*

*Accommodation, &c.*—The barrier of reefs and narrow islands which extends along the coast of the East Africa Protectorate is cut at many points by gaps opening into sheltered bays and creeks, where the smaller coasting vessels may lie in safety. There are some 34 recorded anchorages; but these, with few exceptions, are unsuitable for ocean-going ships, and incapable of large development. Kismayu Bay, the port of the Juba River, which enters the sea a few miles further north, is accessible at all seasons, is provided with an iron-work pier 325 ft. long, and has anchorage in 3½

fathoms. Manda Bay, between Manda and Patta Islands, has deep-water approaches and capacious anchorage in 6 fathoms, but offers little prospect of extensive trade; whereas the narrow and shoal-encumbered harbour of Lamu owes a considerable coasting traffic to the proximity of the provincial capital. Further south, the Tana River, diverted by the Belaso Canal, finds an outlet by way of the Ozi River, and delivers the produce of the Tana Valley to dhows in the anchorage behind Ozi Reefs. Malindi Road, with anchorage in six fathoms over sand and coral, is the harbour of the most productive district on the coast. Kilifi River and Wasin Channel are the only other anchorages calling for mention, with the exception of the important harbours of Mombasa.

While the other islands along the coast lie well off the shore, Mombasa is close to the mainland, which it faces on three sides across narrow channels. Those east, north, and west of the island constitute the harbours of Port Mombasa, Port Tudor, and Port Kilindini respectively. A large creek opening out westward from the northern extremity of the Kilindini Channel forms a fourth harbour, called Port Reitz, with extensive anchorage in depths ranging from 3 to 15 fathoms.

Port Mombasa and Port Tudor have narrow channels, with anchorage in 7 to 12 fathoms. Port Mombasa is still frequented by all kinds of smaller vessels; it is provided with two iron piers, and offers facilities for coaling by lighters, though at present the provision for towing, as at Kilindini, is quite inadequate. The larger ocean-going vessels prefer Port Kilindini, a harbour over two miles long, a quarter of a mile wide, and 8 to 25 fathoms deep. This is the finest natural harbour on the coast, and has already displaced Port Mombasa as the chief terminus port of the Uganda Railway. It has a railway wharf, 550 ft. long, with considerable warehouse accommodation, and cranes capable of dealing with weights up to 20 tons.

Ten miles off the shore of East Africa the current runs towards the north-east at 1 to 2 knots in the north.

east monsoon, and at 2 to 4 knots in the south-west. The north-east monsoon commences about the middle of December, and ends at the end of February. The south-west monsoon lasts from May to October. Between these periods light variable winds occur, with occasional showers and sharp squalls.

Spring tides along the coast rise between 10 and 13 ft., while neaps rise 6 to 9 ft. On either side of Mombasa Island, where the rise of spring tides is 12 ft. and of neap tides 8 ft., the tidal streams, running sometimes 4 knots, render mooring advisable, and at spring tides necessitate careful navigation at the point where they meet off Ras Serani.

*Tonnage.*—As the Uganda Railway, the main artery of East Africa trade, starts from Mombasa Island, practically the whole volume of imports and exports passes through the two harbours of Mombasa and Kilindini. The tonnage handled at Kilindini since the pier was opened was 95,183 in 1912-13, followed in successive years by 100,586, 80,850, 124,434, and 210,278. These figures show the disturbing influence of the war and of the military occupation of railway and harbour between November 1915 and November 1917. The tonnage of shipping entering the two ports amounted before the war to about a million and a quarter per annum. In 1913-14 there were 287 entries of steamships, of a gross tonnage of 1,311,906, which landed cargoes of 150,433 tons and shipped 67,628 tons. The vessels of the Deutsche Ost-Afrika Linie, which called at Kilindini, recorded 112 visits and a gross tonnage of 607,263 tons, and landed and cleared respectively 49,868 and 29,325 tons. The German line thus owned 45 per cent. of the visiting ships and carried 35 per cent. of the foreign trade of British East Africa, to which German East Africa contributed 30 per cent. of the value of produce exported.

*Harbour Development.*—The foreign trade has expanded so rapidly in recent years that not only railway but harbour facilities, which were sufficient ten years ago, are inadequate for present requirements. The pressing need of better conveniences is fully realized by

the Protectorate Government, which, after careful investigation, has authorized a scheme of improvements for Port Kilindini to enable it to deal easily and quickly with all the traffic that offers. The scheme, which is temporarily suspended owing to the war, contemplates the provision of deep-water piers, at which over a dozen of the largest ships may lie simultaneously and discharge or load cargo to or from the railway trucks, and of all the necessary sheds, cranes, sidings, shunting yards, offices, and appliances that are the indispensable equipment of an up-to-date harbour. It further includes the erection of a roomy Customs House, the arrangement and development of godown plots and sidings, and the construction of all necessary roads and approaches to the harbour.

#### *(b) Shipping Lines*

The shipping lines which served British East Africa in peace time were the Union Castle, British India, Messageries Maritimes, and the Marittima Italiana, each of which supplied a regular monthly service of mail steamers, while the vessels of the Deutsche Ost-Afrika Linie called twice a month. The Clan-Ellerman-Harrison Joint Line provided cargo steamers calling once a month. With India trade was carried on by the fortnightly services of the Deutsche Ost-Afrika Linie and the British India Line. Coast traffic was conducted by the small steamers belonging to Messrs. Cowasji, Dinshaw Brothers and Messrs. Esmailji, Jivanji and Co. Since the outbreak of war a monthly service of cargo steamers with timber and building materials from Norway and Sweden has been initiated by the Scandinavia—East Africa Line.

#### *(c) Telegraphic Communications*

The Eastern Telegraph Company has cable lines connecting Mombasa with Zanzibar, and thence with the coast ports of East and South Africa; with Aden, Egypt, and Europe; with Aden, India, China, and

Australia; and with the Seychelles, Mauritius, Cocos, Java, Australia, and New Zealand.

In 1914 a proposal had been made for the erection in British East Africa of a large wireless station capable of exchanging messages with Egypt, South Africa, and India, and with the existing stations on Zanzibar and Pemba. The war has not prevented the execution of this project, and British East Africa has now two wireless stations—one at Nairobi, the second at Mombasa.

## (B) INDUSTRY

### (1) LABOUR

*Supply of Labour.*—The labour supply presents some difficulty everywhere in East Africa. The primitive native dislikes work in the sense of long periods of full labouring days; in a land of plenty his wants are satisfied by occasional spells of hoeing or by the unexacting pastime of cattle-herding, supplemented by the real exertions of his women folk. In the poll-tax he sees, not his reasonable contribution to the expense of settled government, but a measure of coercion to work, and, if he were given the chance of repudiating the new system of European order and security, he would likely enough prefer the old conditions of bloodshed, slave raids, and insecurity of life and property. As time goes on, however, the native adapts himself to his new environment, and even the more recalcitrant tribes feel the effect of civilizing influences. The Masai are now beginning to trade, the more enterprising tribes sell and buy freely, and the supply of voluntary labour automatically increases. By the extension of internal commerce, in which Indian traders take an active part, the natives are gradually familiarized with European products, and are led to work, of their own free will, in order to find means to purchase such luxuries and conveniences. Many tribes of Uganda provide a large volume of labour, more especially for the cotton and grain fields of native chiefs and owners, but also for the coffee and cacao plantations managed by Europeans. The more

remote districts offer the best chances of new labour recruits, though these have, of course, to be trained to their work. Up till now the labour question has been less pressing in Uganda than in the areas of the East Africa Protectorate which are occupied by the farms and plantations of European settlers.

Perhaps the most satisfactory agricultural labourer is the Kikuyu, who is moderately intelligent and has a natural aptitude for machinery. The Kavirondo and Wakamba also provide labour for general farm work. The Somali or Swahili is useful as houseboy or as caravan-leader. The Wanyamwezi are said to be the best porters. The Nandi and Masai are good cattle-herds, and can be trained as grooms for horses. Indians are employed for house-building, carpentry, and artisan work. Near the coast the plantations are mainly worked by Teita and Swahili labour.

The quality of the labour available varies greatly. The raw native has usually to be trained in the simplest forms of work, and to be kept under careful supervision afterwards. But it is generally admitted that the East African native is adaptable and quick to pick up details of work. For instance, the general manager of the Uganda Railway, in the Administration Report for 1916-17, records his opinion that natives can, by training and experience, become skilled and useful workmen, and are already proving of great service in the railway and other industries of the Protectorate.

The general conclusions, therefore, which can be fairly drawn are that, although native labourers almost always require training and supervision, and although in certain localities and for certain classes of work the demand for labour at present exceeds the supply, the natural aptitude of the East African native for both agricultural and industrial work is above the average, and is capable of considerable development; while the supply of labour available will grow with the natural increase of the population under good government, with the opening up of remoter districts, and with the growing appreciation by the natives of the conveniences and refinements of civilization.

Wages show a tendency to rise, but the usual rate for unskilled labourers in the highlands has hitherto been from 6 to 8 rupees per month, with rations costing about 2 rupees included for men sleeping on the farm. In the Kavirondo country 3 to 5 rupees has been the customary rate. Near the coast unskilled labourers are paid between 8 and 12 rupees, overseers between 15 and 25. House servants are more expensive; their wages range between 15 and 60 rupees per month, the latter sum being the cost of a good Goanese cook.

*Labour Conditions.*—Labour conditions in East Africa present no such complicated and serious problems as those of European countries. Forced labour is forbidden, and provision is made that every native employed knows the character of the work, the period of service, and the rate of pay at which he undertakes to serve.

## (2) AGRICULTURE

*Products of Commercial Value.*—The coast belt, highlands, and inland lake districts of East Africa provide three main types of agricultural conditions, with a very wide range of products. In Uganda there are 120,000 acres under cotton; smaller areas are cultivated in the sister Protectorate, near Lake Victoria, and also near the coast and along the Juba and Tana Rivers. Another leading industry which is expanding rapidly in both Protectorates is coffee-growing. Cacao is being cultivated on a large scale in Uganda, and tea-planting might succeed in the highlands of East Africa, were labour conditions more favourable. Flax-growing in East Africa is a nascent industry of exceptional promise. The staple food of many Uganda tribes is provided by the plantain and banana trees, which occupy approximately three-quarters of a million acres. The other native foods, such as millet, maize, rice, pulse, sesame, sweet potatoes, ground-nuts, and cassava, are produced extensively in both Protectorates; of millet, maize, sesame, ground-nuts, and pulse there is a surplus available for export. Wheat is grown mainly

in the highlands of the East Africa Protectorate, but also in the higher and cooler portions of Uganda. Potatoes are prolific and of excellent quality. The tobacco grown satisfies native taste, but is not yet of a quality suitable for the European market. There appears to be an opening for sugar-cane, which can be grown freely in both Protectorates. A rapidly extending industry is the cultivation of sisal, which promises satisfactory profits for co-operative enterprise. Raphia fibre provides useful material for tying and for basket-making. Bark for tanning is stripped from the mangroves which grow wild along the coast, and from the black-wattle plantations established in recent years in the highlands. The value of wild rubber has fallen below the point at which profit is possible, and that of Ceará rubber shows a like tendency; but the Pará rubber plantations of both Protectorates have reasonable prospects of success. Coconut plantations are receiving attention in the coastal belt. The highlands are specially suitable for all sorts of European vegetables, and almost all European fruits; tropical fruits grow freely near the coast. Citrus fruits, especially limes and lemons, are attracting special attention.

The native varieties of horned cattle and of sheep and goats, which thrive everywhere in the inland districts, are specially useful to European settlers as providing low-priced stock for breeding up by crosses with imported animals. The numbers of cattle, sheep, and goats in the two colonies at the beginning of 1917 were approximately one and a quarter, five and a quarter, and four millions respectively. Donkeys, mules, and even horses can be kept in health on the highlands and the Gwas Ngishu plateau. The Turkana, Rendile, Borana, and other northern tribes own large numbers of camels. Pigs thrive in the highlands, and a bacon-curing factory is established near Nairobi. Ostrich-farming has made little progress latterly, owing to the fall in the price of feathers. Poultry of European origin are widely distributed and thrive well.

Government exercises a measure of supervision over the agricultural industries of both Protectorates. In Uganda it controls the issue of cottonseed to the native growers, so as to ensure crops of uniform high quality, and through native instructors trains the native in correct methods of cultivation. Regulations are issued for the dipping of live-stock and for other measures for combating stock diseases. The Government farms breed and sell useful varieties of cattle and sheep, conduct experiments to find improved varieties of known plants, and introduce or advertise others which give promise of profitable culture.

The abundant big game of East Africa is an asset of undoubted value, as it attracts from all parts of the world a large number of sportsmen, some of whom eventually decide to settle in the country. The species of game to be found in the Protectorates include the lion, cheetah, elephant, rhinoceros, hippopotamus, buffalo, giraffe, zebra, eland, kudu, water-buck, hartebeest, and many other antelopes and gazelles. Two immense tracts of country, one lying between the railway and the southern boundary of British East Africa, the other north of the upper reaches of the (northern) Gwaso Nyiro river, constitute the two game reserves. Sportsmen's yearly licences, residents' yearly, residents' fortnightly, and travellers' monthly licences cost £50, £10, £2, and £1 respectively, and authorize the shooting or capture of various numbers of specified sorts of game. Elephants and giraffes are protected by special licences. Bird licences cost 5 rupees per annum.

*Methods of Cultivation; Irrigation.*—Native methods of cultivation are simple. The hoe is the universal implement of agriculture. The Government Departments of Agriculture take pains to educate the natives in correct ways of growing and marketing cotton, coffee, and cocoa. European settlers introduce modern methods of ploughing and cultivating, and of harvesting their crops of grain, sisal, potatoes, coffee, and other products.

The method of irrigation employed in the cultivation of rice in India, China, and Japan is unknown in East

Africa, and except for a modest canal system at Kibwezi, irrigation is employed only in the water furrows constructed by individual settlers. There are, however, said to be possibilities for irrigation works on the Juba and Tana Rivers, whereby extensive tracts of black soil, now unproductive, might be brought under cotton cultivation.

*Forestry.*—The forest areas of the East Africa Protectorate cover about 3,000 square miles; those of Uganda nearly 1,000 square miles. Useful timber for house-building is furnished by yellow-wood trees from Tero forest and nsambya from the Mabira forest. Mvuli is a hard and prettily marked wood, good for furniture. Besides mvuli, African ebony, mahogany, cedar, bamboo, and rattan canes are found in the forests of Uganda. In East Africa the chief forest tracts are those of the Mau escarpment and Aberdare Range, and the girdle forests of Mount Elgon and Mount Kenya. On Mount Kenya a wide range of valuable woods is found, including cedar, yellow-wood, camphor, jarrah, cork, ironwood, pillarwood, and olive. M'hugu, or sandalwood, grows near the coast.

All forests are under Government control, and the conservation and development of forest resources is the care of the Forestry Departments. The exotic trees now planted in reforestation areas include varieties of eucalyptus, cypress, and pines. Teak, mahogany, and other hardwood trees have been planted in the coast belt.

### (3) FISHERIES

The natives of the coast are largely occupied with sea-fishing, and in Mombasa and other coast towns fish is cheap and good. The marine mammals, nguvas, or dugongs, are a greatly prized delicacy. In Lake Victoria there is good fishing, and with the advent of a cold-storage installation a small fresh-fish industry has been established. The European angler may enjoy good sport among the large fish of the lake and Ripon Falls, or try for the trout that are now acclimatized in a number of the highland streams of both Protectorates.

#### (4) MINERALS

The mineral resources of British East Africa include deposits of gold, iron, coal-shale, marble, graphite, manganese, opals, and alum, all of small value. There are indications of silver, copper, and tin. Salt is found in many places, and large quantities of diatomite occur in the Rift valley and near Lake Magadi. Limestone is quarried in various localities for building purposes. Mica has been mined experimentally. By far the most valuable mineral so far discovered is the carbonate of soda found in Lake Magadi, where the supply is fed by springs, and is apparently inexhaustible. An annual output of 50,000 tons is expected when normal conditions are re-established; trial and sample exports in 1914-15 and 1915-16 were 256 and 77 tons respectively.

The Governments issue prospecting licences, and, at a later stage, mining and mineral leases, and, further, levy royalties on any gold, silver, diamonds, coal or other valuable ore or mineral that may be extracted.

#### (5) MANUFACTURES

Pottery, iron spear-blades, hatchets, knives and hoes, barkcloth, mats and basketwork are the commonest products of native workmanship. The natives construct and thatch their own huts. A number of Indians are employed in house- and boat-building, smithy work, furniture- and waggon-making. The cotton ginneries, dairies, flour-mills, bacon-curing establishments, sisal decorticators, and sawmills are run mainly by native labour under European supervision. Possibilities of the future are factories for matches, for jam and preserved vegetables, for paper, and for extract of tannin.

#### (6) POWER

The water power of East Africa has not yet been harnessed for industrial uses. Potential sources of great power exist in the Ripon Falls and Murchison Falls on the Nile.

## (C) COMMERCE

## (1) DOMESTIC

*Principal Branches of Trade.*—In Mombasa and Nairobi there are shops and stores under European management; these deal in groceries, confectionery, wine and spirits, clothing and tailoring, boots and shoes, safari outfits, arms and ammunition, motors, cycles, agricultural machinery, farm requisites, and building materials. In the same towns and in all centres where they are allowed to set up business Indian shopkeepers conduct bazaar operations on a less ambitious scale. They are the usual intermediaries between the natives and the big firms, and not only sell imported goods such as cotton piece-goods, brass and copper wire, beads, provisions, soap, sugar, and tobacco, but also purchase for export the native products of cotton, hides and skins, grain and oil seeds. Near the coast a portion of the trade passes through the hands of Arabs, and in the northern districts Somalis and Swahilis trade in sheep and cattle.

*Towns, Markets, Fairs.*—The larger towns, Nairobi, Mombasa, and Kampala, are the more important centres of domestic trade, but a considerable business is conducted in the native produce market at Kisumu and in a number of markets and bazaars elsewhere. Trading posts are established here and there throughout the country, and under safeguards Government allows traders to set up stores at selected sites, even in native reserves. It is hoped that the more backward tribes, such as the Masai, may thus have opportunities of economic and commercial development, and may in time take the same active part in the barter of commodities as is now taken by the enterprising Kavirondo and Baganda.

*Organizations to promote Trade and Commerce.*—The Chambers of Commerce of Mombasa and Nairobi and the Uganda Chamber of Commerce at Kampala represent the leading business activities of the Protectorates, discuss the commercial problems, and take

action to promote trade, internal and foreign. Domestic trade, though not the primary concern of the settlers' societies, is nevertheless fostered by the Farmers' Associations of Naivasha, Lumbwa, Limoru, Kyambu, Ruiru, Ulu, and Gwas Ngishu (Uasin Gishu); the Planters' Associations of Busoga, Singo District, and Uganda; and the Associations of Coffee Planters, Coast Planters, Sisal Growers, Maize Growers, Beekeepers, and Pigbreeders.

*Foreign Firms and Companies.*—The capital invested in the banks, the lands and townships companies, the plantations, the hotels, engineering works and motor garages, trading syndicates, trust associations, insurance companies, and shipping and forwarding firms was found partly in India and other British possessions, but mainly in Great Britain. French, Portuguese, and Italian interests are not extensive. The German firms before the war, though comparatively few in number, had powerful backing and influential connexions: Hansing and Co., who acted as agents for the Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China, and O'swald & Co. were specially remarkable for the extent of their business throughout all East Africa.

*Methods of Economic Penetration.*—The most effective method of commercial penetration of a distant country like British East Africa is to secure a monopoly of the shipping lines serving it, and thus bar, or at least penalize, the import of goods of foreign manufacture. Such a monopoly existed before the war in German East Africa; for British lines serving that country had, under pressure of a politico-commercial character, been forced to withdraw from German ports. The method, however, found no favour in British East Africa, which, true to the principle of unrestricted trade, welcomed the Deutsche Ost-Afrika Linie, and gave equal facilities to German and British import and export firms. In addition to free entry to the British Protectorates, German trade had the benefit of reduced freights on German State railways, of through bills of lading from the interior of Germany, of rebates allowed by German firms on East Africa produce shipped by the

Deutsche Ost-Afrika Linie and of the large State subsidy granted to this line. English trade had no such privileges.

Further, in commercial competition with German firms, British manufacturers were handicapped by the long terms of credit which were offered, even to distributors of uncertain standing, by the German importers, supported by the German Government and German banks. That other methods were employed to increase the handicap would appear from the report, which there is reason to credit, that complaisant Indian traders who showed a partiality for wares of German origin have found themselves provided with a motor bicycle or a free return passage to Mecca. It is estimated that 60 per cent. of the "bazaar" import trade of the East Africa Protectorate used to be in the hands of the German firms. Now that these are closed down, the British importers appreciate the relief from this incubus of unscrupulous and heavily subsidized rivalry.

## (2) FOREIGN<sup>1</sup>

The records of the value of the export and import trade of British East Africa from 1896 to 1916 (Table III) show the remarkable expansion which has taken place during this period, and which, though checked by the war, will doubtless be resumed, and probably accelerated, on the re-establishment of peace. As the whole foreign trade of Uganda passes through the East Africa Protectorate, and is included in the East Africa figures, it is unnecessary to give the Uganda returns separately.

*Exports.*—The principal export products of the East Africa Protectorate are hides and skins, fibre, coffee, copra, maize, millet and sesame, beans, pulse and ground-nuts, live-stock, wool, bark and bories, rubber, beeswax, ivory, potatoes, and ghee. The export of most of these may be expected to increase in the future; but ivory shows a falling-off, due to the depletion of

<sup>1</sup> See Tables III-VII in Appendix, pp. 103-6.

old stores and to regulations now enforced for the preservation of elephants; wild rubber is dwindling, and plantation rubber has a somewhat uncertain future. On the other hand, sisal and flax give promise of great expansion, and carbonate of soda is likely to take a leading place on the list. Cotton is the chief article of export from Uganda, and is followed in order of value by hides and skins, coffee, sesame, cotton-seeds, chillies, ivory, and rubber. Small consignments of cocoa are promising. Re-exports from the Sudan and Italian East Africa are negligible. The Congo Free State before the war used to send considerable quantities of ivory and small lots of other products; in 1916 it exported, besides ivory and rubber, consignments of gold valued at £395,723, a sum representing 35 per cent. of the value of exports for the year. The average annual contribution of German East Africa in recent years was about 30 per cent. of the total export trade of the East Africa Protectorate, and consisted mainly of hides and skins, and, in less degree, of ground-nuts, coffee, rubber, cotton, beeswax, ghee, and other commodities. Table IV shows the values during the last ten years of the exports passing through British East Africa from the six East African territories.

Of exports from East Africa rather more than half were consigned, even in pre-war days, to Great Britain and British possessions. The products which the United Kingdom purchased, and still purchases, to the extent of at least 80 per cent., are cotton, coffee, wool, rubber, sisal, and other fibres. France still claims the greater part of the copra export. Grain and oil-seeds are widely distributed to Zanzibar, France, Italy and her East African possessions, India, Arabia, Egypt, and other countries. The place which the United States formerly held as chief customer of East African skins is now taken by the United Kingdom, which also buys about one-third of the hides; most of the hides have gone to Italy since the first year of war. Germany used to take an interest in wattlebark and in cotton.

Table V shows how the exports, comprising produce

of British East Africa, Uganda, the Congo Free State, the Sudan, and German East Africa were distributed among foreign countries during the ten years 1907-1916.

*Imports.*—Table VI shows the values of the chief articles imported into the two Protectorates during the five years 1912 to 1916. Cotton piece-goods constitute the largest individual item, and represent on the average 27 per cent. of the total import. During the years immediately before the war the cotton goods imported came in the proportion of 25 per cent. from the United Kingdom, 25 per cent. from the United States, 15 per cent. from India, 15 per cent. from Holland, 9 per cent. from Germany, and 11 per cent. from other countries. The United Kingdom provides practically all the whiskey, soap, canvas, bags and sacks, and galvanized iron, and about three-fourths of the leather wares, machinery, vehicles and parts, iron and steel manufactures, haberdashery and wearing apparel, cement, and building materials other than timber. India with Burma sends almost all the imported grain, teak, and tea, over one-fourth of the leather manufactures and cigars, and minor quantities of haberdashery. The Union of South Africa contributes coal, ale and beer, Capè carts, and small consignments of brandy and tobacco. Salt comes from Aden and Egypt; sugar from Java and Mauritius. America furnishes, besides cotton piece-goods, kerosene, vehicles, agricultural implements, and machinery. Kerosene is also sent from Egypt; almost all the petrol is from Sumatra. France contributes brandy, wine and liqueurs; Holland, cotton piece-goods, tobacco, cigars, and gin. Matches are brought from Sweden. Norway and Sweden supply timber for building.

The proportions in which Great Britain and other countries shared in the total import trade of East Africa during the last ten years are shown in Table VII.

*Customs and Tariffs.*—The only export duties levied on produce of the Protectorates are duties of 15 per cent. *ad valorem* on ivory, 10 per cent. on mangrove

poles, chillies, hides and skins, rhinoceros horns, hippopotamus teeth and tortoiseshells, 6 per cent. on gum copal, 5 per cent. on ebony and on cowrie and other sea-shells, and 4 per cent. on wild rubber. An export charge of 21 rupees (28s.) is made on each horse, 4 rupees (5s. 4d.) on each camel, and 2 rupees (2s. 8d.) on each donkey.

Imported merchandise generally pays an import duty of 10 per cent. *ad valorem*; but exemption from this charge is given to all Government imports; railway, tramway, and road materials; ships or vessels; trees, plants, and seeds for cultivation; agricultural implements; agricultural and industrial machinery and apparatus; electric and telegraph materials and apparatus; printed matter, photographs, and pictures; motor lorries, petrol, coal, coin and gold bullion; and various other classes of goods. Spirituous liquors pay at the rate of 5 rupees per gallon at 50 degrees of Gay Lussac's alcoholometer at 15° Centigrade.

*Commercial Treaties.*—The commercial clauses in the Berlin Act of 1885, Brussels Act of 1890, Anglo-German Convention of 1890 and later supplementary agreements, provide for unrestricted trade over the Congo basin and its conventional extension to the East Coast. Within this area differential treatment for the subjects of any nation is disallowed, but sanction is given for the imposition of customs duties on imports to and exports from protectorate territories, goods in transit not being liable to any duty. As between German and British East Africa there was, therefore, before the war, a nominal parity of trading opportunities, impaired in practice, as has been shown, by the handicap under which British merchants were placed in British as well as in German territory.

#### (D) FINANCE

*Public Finance.*—The public revenue of the East Africa Protectorate in the last few years has averaged one million pounds, and has balanced expenditure; so that the grant-in-aid from the Imperial Exchequer,

which stood at £130,000 in 1911 and £115,000 in 1912, has been discontinued since the latter year. The revenue is derived chiefly from Government railways and from licences and internal revenue (including poll-tax), and in a less degree from customs, posts and telegraphs, fees of court, rents, sales, and interest. The public debt in 1915 amounted to £569,840.

The finances of Uganda have shown the same advance in recent years to a position of independence of Imperial assistance. The grant-in-aid fell gradually from £103,262 in 1910 to £35,000 in 1914, and in 1915 and 1916 no grant was required or given. Revenue, which in 1915 amounted to £287,025, is drawn chiefly from poll-tax, customs, game licences, land rents, telegraph receipts, motor-transport services, municipal receipts, and market dues.

Taxation in the East Africa Protectorate takes the form of a native hut-tax or poll-tax of 5 rupees per annum, and a non-native poll-tax of 15 rupees. In Uganda a poll-tax of 5 rupees is levied in Buganda, Busoga, Toro, and Ankole; in more remote districts the tax is reduced to 3 rupees.

The two Protectorates have in recent years been granted by the Imperial Government loans bearing interest at  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. for road, railway, marine, and harbour development. The sum total of amounts lent or voted is £2,573,000 to the East Africa Protectorate, and £295,000 to Uganda. The grants-in-aid since 1893 have totalled £2,843,383 to East Africa and £2,548,512 to Uganda. Free grants for the Uganda and Magadi Railways represented a total, in 1917, of £5,692,009. It thus appears that the contribution of the British Government to the economic independence of the two Protectorates has now amounted to gifts of eleven millions and authorized loans of nearly three millions.

*Banking.*—The banks represented in East Africa are the National Bank of India, the Standard Bank of South Africa, and the National Bank of South Africa. Each of these has branches at Mombasa and Nairobi. The National Bank of India is also established at

Kisumu and Entebbe; the Standard Bank of South Africa at Eldoret; both have branches at Kampala, Jinja, and Nakuru.

*Influence of Foreign Capital.*—The influence of the German capital invested in British East Africa has been to develop the trade with Germany and German East Africa through German importing firms and the shipping service of the Deutsche Ost-Afrika Linie. There would be no reason to object to such a tendency if, in the past, facilities had been reciprocated, and a similar British connection encouraged in German East Africa. There was, however, as has been shown above, no real equality of trading opportunity as between the adjacent British and German possessions, in spite of the nominal reciprocity established by commercial treaties.

*Principal Fields of Investment.*—There are obviously opportunities for the profitable investment of capital in such important industries as flax-growing, sisal, coffee and coconut cultivation, stock-raising, grain and food production. It is a matter of importance that development of all such resources should be carried on upon some co-operative scheme, and, if possible, with some State guarantee. The cotton industry of Uganda has proved immensely useful to that Protectorate because of the Government control exercised, the uniformity of the product, and the fairly constant level of prices secured. The sisal industry of German East Africa owed its success in large measure to the monopoly that its product enjoyed for the use of the German Navy. With similar encouragement (short of monopolies) the industries of British East Africa would serve to further the development of the country's natural resources, and would materially contribute to the economic independence of the Empire.

The danger of labour shortage for new enterprises is far from negligible, and would appear to suggest that the greatest possible encouragement should be given to the European colonist of modest means to settle in the large areas which after twenty years' experience have been found to be entirely suitable and healthy for

Europeans. It is chiefly the labour difficulty that imperils the success of plantation enterprise; and in view of this the prospective investor will do well to be shy of ambitious new ventures, and to pay more attention to the well-established companies, which are familiar with the economic conditions of the country.

### (E) GENERAL REMARKS

Of the three requisites for economic prosperity the East Africa Protectorates possess the first, useful products, in abundance; the second, labour, in bare sufficiency; the third, transport facilities, in a measure inadequate for progress.

Of experimental industries, some, as for example those of sansevieria fibre and wild rubber, have proved failures, while the success of others is still doubtful, at least in competition with other domestic cultures. Thus, in Uganda, other branches of agriculture have been overshadowed by cotton-growing, an industry which is an instructive instance of native co-operation under Government control and guidance. Whether by individual effort or by combination many other industries afford excellent prospects and are practically sure of success. In respect of its products the future of East Africa is very bright.

With regard to labour, the Governments are faced with the problem of holding the balance between opposing influences. The uncivilized native desires a life of indolence complete and undisturbed; the missionaries, who have done much to educate him for agricultural and industrial work, would prefer to see him farm his own small property; while the settlers and plantation-owners depend on him for the labour which will give them a reasonable profit and in the aggregate secure the country's prosperity. There are abundant opportunities for both hired and independent, skilled and unskilled labour; the one attitude that cannot command sympathy is the refusal to work at all.

The transport problem deserves immediate and careful consideration. The extension of the railway to the Congo border would do much to facilitate and develop the trade of Uganda, and other extensions are little less urgent. These, as well as measures to avoid congestion, have been mentioned above, in connection with the Uganda Railway. In particular, the development of Kilindini Harbour is urgently necessary, as the delay to which cargo and vessels are subject under existing conditions is a handicap which imperils the export of lower-priced commodities.

As regards cost of transport, the Uganda Railway authorities claim to have reduced export freight charges to the lowest possible rates, while the shipping lines are said to have run their services in the past at an actual loss. A proposal has been made that the British lines should be subsidized by the Imperial Government, after the German precedent. The growing revenues of the Colony might contribute to such a measure; or, following a suggestion made in Mr. B. Cave's report on Zanzibar (1909), joint action might even be taken by all the East African colonies to secure lower freights and improved services in return for certain concessions or subsidies. The Protectorates singly may not be able to negotiate with effect, but collectively they would be likely to obtain favourable terms. Whatever action may eventually be taken, it is obvious that cheap freights are a prime necessity, if the produce of the country is to be placed on the market at an outlay low enough to repay enterprise and stimulate production.

British East Africa faces towards the east, and an eastward expansion of trade is a probability of the future. Uganda cotton is now beginning to find a market in India; and, in addition to cotton, the coffee, cocoa, copra, rubber, sisal hemp, flax, hides and skins of East Africa may yet figure on the import lists of India, Australia, America, and even China and Japan, while all these countries can supply products suitable to the needs of the Colony.

Attention is sometimes drawn to the adverse trade

balance in British East Africa. The excess of imports over exports is a feature whose significance can easily be exaggerated; for in a country the civilization of which began only twenty years ago production cannot be expected to balance outlay. A large proportion of the imports represents capital expenditure on such things as machinery, houses, and live-stock. For a long time to come the country will require further capital of this description to enable it to develop its resources. The excess of such imports, within limits, will not impoverish but enrich the Colony, and will actually provide the means by which an equilibrium of trade may be established in the course of a few years. The average adverse balance for quinquennial periods has already fallen from 78 and 64 per cent. in 1901 and 1906 respectively to 30 and 31 per cent. in 1911 and 1916.

## ZANZIBAR<sup>1</sup>

### (A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

Most of the country roads of Zanzibar and Pemba are still no better than narrow, devious, and difficult paths. But in recent years 75 miles of motor roads have been constructed, connecting the town of Zanzibar with Mkokotoni in the north, Chwaka in the east, and Fumba in the south-west. In Pemba a start has been made on a metalled road to run the whole length of the island. Between the two islands a regular weekly connection is maintained by the Government steamers *Cupid* and *Khalifa*, vessels of 600 tons.

A light railway, seven miles long, runs from Zanzibar town northward to Bububu. This is now Government property, and yields an annual revenue of a few hundred pounds. There is no evidence to show that for the economic development of the island railway expansion would serve better than the judicious extension of

<sup>1</sup> The Zanzibar Protectorate is taken as including Zanzibar, Pemba, and the neighbouring smaller islands.

the road system, supplemented by the existing service of coasting vessels.

The Post Office, with its seven branches in the two islands, deals not only with foreign, transit, and inland letters, but also with parcels, money and postal orders, and savings bank deposits. In each island the Government telephone system, with headquarters in the capital, is connected with the district and agricultural stations. Between Zanzibar and Pemba communications can be carried on by wireless telegraphy.

The coasts of Zanzibar and Pemba are indented with numerous creeks, and fringed, especially on the western side, with groups of islets, which provide nearly a score of natural harbours, suitable for dhows and small craft. Of this description are the Pemba harbours of Msuka Bay, Port Cockburn, Port George, and Chaki Chaki; and, in Zanzibar Island, Menai Bay and Mkokotoni Harbour. None of these, however, is comparable, in the combination of natural shelter, geographical situation, and commercial prestige, with the harbour of the capital. For three centuries Zanzibar held a commanding position as the entrepot for the trade of the East African mainland and of Europe with Arabia and India; and, although its relative importance has declined in consequence of the development of the mainland harbours, it remains a port of call for all East African liners. The harbour is approximately five miles long, with good anchorage everywhere in 7 to 12 fathoms. It is provided with several piers, but all larger vessels load and discharge cargo from lighters. The need for deep-water wharves and proper landing facilities is now appreciated. In 1913 the gross tonnage of ocean-going ships was 1,355,628, of coasting vessels 84,426, and of dhows 62,866. The same shipping lines serve Zanzibar and East Africa.

The two wireless installations on Zanzibar and Pemba are in communication with the continental stations. Cables connect Zanzibar with Mombasa, with Aden, Egypt, and Europe, with India and Australia, and with the coast ports of East and South Africa.

## (B) INDUSTRY

Clove-growing is an industry of prime importance, as nine-tenths of the clove crop of the world is produced in Pemba and Zanzibar. Little trouble is taken with the cultivation of the trees and the gathering of the harvest; yet from the 60,000 acres of plantations an average annual yield of 18,000,000 lbs. of cloves is collected. Copra cultivation ranks second to cloves. About 45,000 acres on the two islands are under coconut palms; these produced, in 1915, 8,585 tons and, in 1916, 5,472 tons of copra. The quality and value of both copra and cloves would be greatly enhanced by scientific and careful methods of drying.

Cloves and copra are the only products grown in large quantities for export. Experiments with wild rubber and with cultivated Ceará rubber and cotton have proved unsuccessful, and the cultivation of chillies has declined owing to the natives' objection to the irritation they cause to skin and eyes. Nor has the culture of cinnamon, nutmegs, vanilla, cacao, or sisal, although a demonstrated possibility, as yet attracted the attention of the plantation-owners. Even the sugar plantations have been neglected, and irrigation has never been utilized for the production of larger rice crops. For his own use the native is satisfied with easy harvests of maize, sorghum, rice, cassava, and ground-nuts, and with the tropical fruits, coconuts, oranges, mangoes, pineapples, and bananas, growing everywhere.

Pemba possesses a good stock of native cattle, and a large tract of grazing ground, which, if the menace of East Coast fever were eliminated, would offer possibilities of extensive cattle-breeding on modern methods.

Communal tenure of land is found in some native villages, but the plantations generally are freehold properties. Many of these are heavily mortgaged to Indian traders by the Arab owners, who found themselves embarrassed by the loss of cheap labour caused by the abolition of slavery in 1897.

Interspersed with the plantations are *wakf* lands, properties dedicated to sacred and other special pur-

poses. Plantations to the extent of 16,000 acres, which formerly belonged to the Sultans of Zanzibar, are now owned and cultivated by the Government.

The natives of the coast villages are largely occupied with fishing. The outrigger canoes which they employ are unsuitable for heavy seas; and, consequently, during the south-west and north-east monsoons the fishing population usually migrates northward and southward in turn. Canoe fishing is carried on chiefly with hooks and lines. Nets, with or without fishing stakes, are used inshore, and basket-traps are common.

There are no mines in the Protectorate, and only unimportant manufactures of Indian jewellery, gold and silver work, Indian and native pottery, native ropes and mats. There are a few oil-mills for expressing the oil of copra and simsim, and in conjunction with two of these are found two factories having an annual output of 800 tons of soap.

With its abundant rainfall, its profusion of tropical plants, and in particular its rich clove and coconut plantations, the Zanzibar Protectorate holds a position of great agricultural and economic strength. But great as its resources are, its production falls far short of its capacity. The native population is indolent and improvident, and is said to be dwindling in numbers; while the Arab race, no longer recruited by immigrants from Arabia or supported by cheap slave labour, is losing vitality, and is heavily mortgaged to the Indian moneylenders. Thus the supply of labour and of energetic control is declining rather than improving, while development is impeded by lack of capital as well as labour. Hopes have been expressed that European capital and management may be introduced. The importation of Indian ryots has been suggested as a means of supplementing the native labour supply. Facilities are offered for the freehold purchase of Government and private properties, the latter requiring a careful scrutiny of title before acquisition. The climate of Zanzibar is not, for a tropical island, unhealthy, and risk to the health of Europeans has, in recent years, been reduced by the progress of medical knowledge of tropical

diseases, and by local improvements effected in sanitation and in road-making. But in the meantime the labour difficulty remains a serious deterrent to European enterprise.

### (C) COMMERCE

The retail trade of the Protectorate is mainly in the hands of Indians, who purchase cloves and copra from the plantations, and dispose of the dried products to the larger produce firms in Zanzibar. Zanzibar is the only commercial centre of importance, and before the war contained all the export firms—British, Indian, German, and Portuguese—which traded with the mainland. The number and commercial standing of the foreign firms were, speaking generally, commensurate with the trade between their countries and Zanzibar, but the German firms, with the same advantages as they enjoyed in British East Africa, had secured a disproportionate percentage of import and export trade.

For several years before the war exports had exceeded a million sterling per annum, and although for 1914 and 1915 there was a drop in value of 20 per cent., the figures for 1916 showed a recovery to the pre-war average. The total of exports is composed, to the extent of 60 per cent., of the produce of the Protectorate, and to the remaining 40 per cent. of goods imported and afterwards consigned to a further destination. In domestic produce the chief item is cloves and clove-stems, which have attained, in the last six years, an average annual value of over £400,000. Second on the list comes copra, with an average pre-war value of £200,000, one-fourth of this representing re-export. These branches of export trade show no signs of falling off, but may be regarded as likely to maintain their position as the mainstay of Zanzibar's prosperity. Other exports include only small quantities of domestic products; among others, hides and skins, chillies, soap, and gum copal. Of re-exports to the mainland, the

chief are cotton piece-goods, rice, groceries and provisions, petroleum, and soap.

The clove export finds its way to many markets. In recent years British India received over 40 per cent., Germany 20, Great Britain, Holland, and the United States each about 10 per cent., while the remainder was distributed between Italy, Austria, and other countries. Under war conditions in 1915 British India, the United Kingdom, the United States, and Continental Europe absorbed respectively 46, 30, 18, and 6 per cent. of the year's output. Practically the whole copra export has hitherto gone to France. German East Africa used to take most of the rice, petroleum, dried fish, soap, and sugar, and nearly half of the cotton piece-goods.

The commercial returns for a long series of years have shown a remarkable equilibrium of imports and exports, with a consequent absence of adverse trade balance. From the recent average of over a million sterling, the value of imports declined in the first two years of war, but in 1916 rose again and passed the pre-war figure. The total of imports, £1,259,829, in this year for the first time showed a considerable excess over exports, which were valued at £1,052,167; the temporary surplus is probably due to conditions arising from the war.

In peace time Zanzibar imports from the African continent a considerable quantity of copra, ivory, hides, skins, and gum copal, destined for the United Kingdom and Continental Europe, India, and the United States. The chief products intended for domestic use are grains and foods of various sorts, and cotton piece-goods, representing respectively 35 and 20 per cent. of the total value of imports.

Of foreign countries British India normally makes the largest individual contribution to the trade of the Protectorate, taking cloves and ivory, and sending rice, grain, flour, sugar, tea, hardware, crockery and cutlery, timber, bags and kandas, and cotton piece-goods. Second to India, which conducts 30 per cent. of the exchange of products, comes the United Kingdom, with over 12

per cent.; Great Britain buys cloves and clove-stems, ivory, gum copal, hides and skins, and sells piece-goods, building materials, crockery, hardware and cutlery, provisions, furniture, machinery, tobacco, spirits, beer and wine. German East Africa and Germany together, in pre-war years, handled about 20 per cent. of the Protectorate's trade, the Fatherland exchanging beads, piece-goods, crockery, glass, machinery, hardware, beer, wine and sugar for cloves and clove-stems, copra, hides and skins. The trade with France, amounting to over 10 per cent. of the whole, was chiefly remarkable for the French purchase of nearly the whole export of copra and the comparative insignificance of French imports into Zanzibar. The Netherlands and the United States send consignments of piece-goods. Coal is imported from South Africa. Figures of export and import are given in Table VIII (Appendix, pp. 106-7).

Most of the customs duties call for no special remark, but the export duty of 25 per cent. on the value of cloves and clove-stems is one of the main sources of Protectorate revenue. Practically all imports pay a duty of  $7\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. of their value.

#### (D) FINANCE

The chief item in the revenue of the Protectorate is customs, which contributes close on 60 per cent. of the total. British East Africa pays £11,000 per annum as rent for the coast possessions of Zanzibar on the mainland. Revenue approximately balances expenditure in the case of the Agriculture and Railway and Electricity Departments, whereas the Port Service and Shipping Departments have expenses exceeding receipts. The chief charges under expenditure are for the Public Works Department, Civil List, Police and Armed Constabulary, Judicial and Medical Departments. Gifts of £10,000 in 1915 and £20,000 in 1916 were made by the Protectorate to the Imperial Government for the purposes of the war. The totals of revenue and expenditure for eight years were as follows:—

Year.	Revenue.	Expenditure.
	£	£
1909	204,863	189,014
1910	181,705	192,925
1911	237,422	207,951
1912	242,483	334,679 <sup>1</sup>
1913	275,126	248,356
1914	234,701	213,091
1915	267,405	203,968
1916	281,162	280,203

The gold coins of the Royal Mint in England or of any Mint established as a branch of the Royal Mint are legal tender to an unlimited amount at the rate of 15 rupees to a sovereign. The British India rupee is the standard coin of Zanzibar, while the smaller silver coins—the half, quarter, and eighth rupee—are legal tender for sums up to 5 rupees. Seyidie copper pice, at the rate of 60 to 1 rupee, may be used for payments not exceeding 1 rupee. Government notes of 5, 10, 20, 30, 50, and 100 rupees were in circulation in December, 1916, to the value of Rs. 1,665,715. This issue of notes is secured by cash held in the proportion of 60 per cent. and by War Loan, Indian Rupee Paper, and Colonial Government securities covering the remaining 40 per cent. of the face value of the notes.

Before the war three banks were represented in Zanzibar—the National Bank of India, the Standard Bank of South Africa, and the Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China.

While, generally speaking, there is no great scope for commercial investment within the Protectorate, individual or joint enterprise has opportunities in the acquisition and development of plantations of cloves, coconuts, and possibly sisal, rubber, and cacao.

<sup>1</sup> Includes purchase price of railway, telephones, and electric-lighting works.

## APPENDIX

### EXTRACTS FROM TREATIES

#### I

#### ANGLO-GERMAN AGREEMENT, OCTOBER 29/NOVEMBER 1, 1886.

1. GERMANY and Great Britain recognize the sovereignty of the Sultan of Zanzibar over the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba, and over the smaller islands which lie in the neighbourhood of the above within a radius of 12 sea miles, as well as over the Islands of Lamu and Mafia.

On the mainland they likewise recognize as possessions of the Sultan a line of coast which stretches without interruption from the Minengani River at the head of Tunghi Bay to Kipini. This line commences on the south of the Minengani River, follows the course of that river for 5 sea miles, and continues thence on the line of latitude to the point where it strikes the right bank of the Rovuma River, crosses the Rovuma, and runs down its left bank.

The coast-line has an internal depth of 10 sea miles measured from the coast direct into the Interior from high-water mark.

The northern limit includes Kau.

To the north of Kipini the said Governments recognize as belonging to the Sultan the stations of Kismayu, Brawa, Meurka, and Magadisho, with radii landwards of 10 sea miles, and of Warsheik with a radius of 5 sea miles.

2. Great Britain engages to support negotiations of Germany with the Sultan for the leasing to the German African Company of the customs duties at the ports of Dar-es-Salaam and Pangani, in return for an annual payment to the Sultan by the Company.

3. Both Powers agree to establish a delimitation of their respective spheres of influence on this portion of the East African Continent of the same character as that to which they have agreed as regards the territories on the Gulf of Guinea.

The territory to which this arrangement applies is bounded on the south by the Rovuma River, and on the north by a line which, starting from the mouth of the Tana River, follows the course of

that river or its affluents to the point of intersection of the Equator and the 38th degree of east longitude, thence strikes direct to the point of intersection of the 1st degree of north latitude with the 37th degree of east longitude, where the line terminates.

The line of demarcation starts from the mouth of the River Wanga or Umbe, runs direct to Lake Jipé, passes thence along the eastern side and round the northern side of the lake and crosses the Lumi River;

After which it passes midway between the territories of Taveita and Chagga, skirts the northern base of the Kilimanjaro range, and thence is drawn direct to the point on the eastern side of Lake Victoria Nyanza which is intersected by the 1st degree of south latitude.

Germany engages not to make acquisitions of territory, accept Protectorates, or interfere with the extension of British influence to the north of this line; and Great Britain makes the same engagement as regards the territories lying to the south of this line.

4. Great Britain will use her good offices to promote a friendly arrangement of the rival claims of the Sultan and the German East African Company to the Kilimanjaro districts.

5. Both Powers recognize as belonging to Witu the coast-line which commences to the north of Kipini and continues to the northern extremity of Manda Bay.

6. Great Britain and Germany will jointly invite the Sultan to accede to the Act of Berlin, February 26, 1885, with reservation of His Highness' existing rights under the 1st Article of the Act.<sup>1</sup>

7. Germany engages to adhere to the Declaration signed by Great Britain and France on March 10, 1862, with regard to the recognition of the independence of Zanzibar.

## II

### ANGLO-GERMAN AGREEMENT, JULY 1, 1890, ARTICLES I, II, XI, XII.<sup>2</sup>

#### ARTICLE I

IN East Africa the sphere in which the exercise of influence is reserved to Germany is bounded—

1. To the north by a line which, commencing on the coast at the north bank of the mouth of the River Umba, runs direct to

<sup>1</sup> The Sultan's adhesion followed on November 8, 1886.

<sup>2</sup> The other Articles of this Agreement do not concern East Africa.

Lake Jipé; passes thence along the eastern side and round the northern side of the lake, and crosses the River Lumé; after which it passes midway between the territories of Taveita and Chagga, skirts the northern base of the Kilimanjaro range, and thence is drawn direct to the point on the eastern side of Lake Victoria Nyanza which is intersected by the 1st parallel of south latitude; thence, crossing the lake on that parallel, it follows the parallel to the frontier of the Congo Free State, where it terminates.

It is, however, understood that, on the west side of the lake, the sphere does not comprise Mount Mfumbiro; if that mountain shall prove to lie to the south of the selected parallel, the line shall be deflected so as to exclude it, but shall, nevertheless, return so as to terminate at the above-named point.

2. To the south by a line which, starting on the coast at the northern limit of the Province of Mozambique, follows the course of the River Rovuma to the point of confluence of the Msinje; thence it runs westward along the parallel of that point till it reaches Lake Nyassa; thence striking northward, it follows the eastern, northern, and western shores of the lake to the northern bank of the mouth of the River Songwe; it ascends that river to the point of its intersection by the 33rd degree of east longitude; thence it follows the river to the point where it approaches most nearly the boundary of the geographical Congo Basin defined in the 1st Article of the Act of Berlin, as marked in the map attached to the 9th Protocol of the Conference.

From that point it strikes direct to the above-named boundary; and follows it to the point of its intersection by the 32nd degree of east longitude; from which point it strikes direct to the point of confluence of the northern and southern branches of the River Kilambo, and thence follows that river till it enters Lake Tanganyika.

The course of the above boundary is traced in general accordance with a map of the Nyassa-Tanganyika Plateau, officially prepared for the British Government in 1889.

3. To the west by a line which, from the mouth of the River Kilambo to the 1st parallel of south latitude, is conterminous with the Congo Free State.

The sphere in which the exercise of influence is reserved to Great Britain is bounded—

1. To the south by the above-mentioned line running from the mouth of the River Umba to the point where the 1st parallel of south latitude reaches the Congo Free State. Mount Mfumbiro is included in the sphere.

2. To the north by a line commencing on the coast at the north bank of the mouth of the River Juba; thence it ascends that bank of the river and is conterminous with the territory reserved to the influence of Italy in Gallaland and Abyssinia, as far as the confines of Egypt.

3. To the west by the Congo Free State, and by the western watershed of the basin of the Upper Nile.

#### ARTICLE II

In order to render effective the delimitation recorded in the preceding Article, Germany withdraws in favour of Great Britain her Protectorate over Witu. Great Britain engages to recognize the sovereignty of the Sultan of Witu over the territory extending from Kipini to the point opposite the Island of Kwyhoo, fixed as the boundary in 1887.

Germany also withdraws her Protectorate over the adjoining coast up to Kismayu, as well as her claims to all other territories on the mainland, to the north of the River Tana, and to the Islands of Patta and Manda.

#### ARTICLE XI

Great Britain engages to use all her influence to facilitate a friendly arrangement, by which the Sultan of Zanzibar shall cede absolutely to Germany his possessions on the mainland comprised in existing Concessions to the German East African Company, and their dependencies, as well as the Island of Mafia.

It is understood that His Highness will, at the same time, receive an equitable indemnity for the loss of revenue resulting from such cession.

Germany engages to recognize a Protectorate of Great Britain over the remaining dominions of the Sultan of Zanzibar, including the Islands of Zanzibar and Pemba, as well as over the dominions of the Sultan of Witu, and the adjacent territory up to Kismayu, from which her Protectorate is withdrawn. It is understood that if the cession of the German coast has not taken place before the assumption by Great Britain of the Protectorate of Zanzibar, Her Majesty's Government will, in assuming the Protectorate, accept the obligation to use all their influence with the Sultan to induce him to make that cession at the earliest possible period in consideration of an equitable indemnity.

#### ARTICLE XII

Subject to the assent of the British Parliament, the sovereignty over the Island of Heligoland, together with its dependencies, is ceded by Her Britannic Majesty to His Majesty the Emperor of Germany.

[NOTE.—An Act of Parliament was passed on August 4, 1890, to carry this Agreement into effect. 53 and 54 Vict., c. 32.]

TABLE I.—UGANDA RAILWAY REVENUE, 1904-1917

Year.	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Net Revenue.
	£	£	£
1903-4	131,567	191,668	-60,101
1904-5	153,794	151,155	2,639
1905-6	204,928	148,250	56,678
1906-7	241,211	164,448	76,763
1907-8	232,069	167,356	64,713
1908-9	232,660	167,822	64,838
1909-10	246,146	180,279	65,867
1910-11	300,116	201,597	98,519
1911-12	360,223	228,852	131,371
1912-13	489,213	280,186	209,027
1913-14	546,345	332,862	213,483
—War line—			
1914-15	515,924	335,324	180,600
1915-16	629,994	342,694	287,300
1916-17	780,688	428,863	351,825

TABLE II.—UGANDA RAILWAY AND MARINE STATISTICS, 1907-1917.

Year.	No. of Passengers.	No. of Train Miles.	Tonnage of Trade Goods.	Earnings from Coaching Traffic.	Earnings from Goods Traffic.	Earnings from Telegraphs.	Miscellaneous Earnings.	Earnings from Steamer Service.	Total Earnings.	Total Working Expenses.	Percentage of Total Expenses to Receipts.
1907-8	339,933	705,656	54,855	804,330	2,211,503	9,735	31,368	424,112	3,481,048	2,510,350	72.11
1908-9	284,871	702,856	57,226	788,215	2,199,106	9,387	31,742	461,463	3,489,913	2,517,338	72.13
1909-10	293,052	747,770	60,213	785,740	2,386,479	9,739	49,452	460,785	3,692,195	2,704,190	73.24
1910-11	403,224	967,305	77,478	887,876	2,924,132	10,726	44,828	634,180	4,501,742	3,023,947	67.17
1911-12	442,479	1,208,065	115,767	1,010,168	3,584,037	14,324	57,875	736,954	5,403,358	3,432,781	63.53
1912-13	500,304	1,491,896	172,694	1,183,305	5,093,320	20,327	72,313	969,200	7,338,465	4,202,781	57.27
1913-14	616,197	1,631,685	189,556	1,411,073	5,618,491	18,664	85,910	1,061,044	8,195,182	4,992,923	60.93
1914-15	561,468	1,342,221	203,158	2,191,978	4,605,250	48,601	160,392	732,650	7,738,871	5,029,869	64.99
1915-16	586,428	1,354,398	255,316	2,750,995	5,582,690	55,323	554,612	506,286	9,449,906	5,140,404	54.40
1916-17	764,045	1,592,348	328,130	3,499,651	6,761,060	28,431	700,871	720,304	11,710,317	6,432,944	54.93

TABLE III.—EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE: EXPORT AND  
IMPORT TRADE, 1896-1916

Year ended March 31.	Export Trade (including produce from Uganda, German East Africa, Congo, Sudan, and Italian East Africa).	Import Trade (excluding Government imports, specie, railway and telegraph materials, and goods in transit to foreign territory).	Total of Exports and Imports (including Government imports, specie, &c., &c.).
	£	£	£
1896	73,764	176,933	..
1897	78,135	261,706	..
1898	72,618	297,655	..
1899	71,145	472,369	..
1900	121,686	446,612	..
1901	71,327	450,004	..
1902	96,339	421,260	..
1903	134,530	443,032	..
1904	134,158	436,947	..
1905	214,577	518,143	..
1906	316,141	672,360	..
1907	440,705	753,647	1,679,114
1908	515,052	799,717	1,766,079
1909	436,313	797,158	1,610,327
1910	590,057	775,246	1,769,695
1911	962,911	997,983	2,569,436
1912	1,016,898	1,247,260	3,086,969
1913	1,203,201	1,808,343	4,094,693
1914	1,482,876	2,147,937	4,880,267
1915	1,004,796	1,469,210	3,602,955 <sup>1</sup>
1916	1,111,424	1,708,333	3,739,118 <sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Including imports by Expeditionary Force, £300,936.<sup>2</sup> Including imports by Expeditionary Force, £429,198.

TABLE IV.—EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE: EXPORTS (COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN), 1907-1916.

	Year ended 31st March—									
	1907.	1908.	1909.	1910.	1911.	1912.	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.
East Africa Protectorate	£ 163,749	£ 157,097	£ 140,418	£ 190,668	£ 276,480	£ 333,670	£ 421,084	£ 443,624	£ 314,804	£ 329,519
Uganda Protectorate..	.. 126,491	.. 140,277	.. 140,370	.. 211,796	.. 371,513	.. 377,074	.. 427,228	.. 564,244	.. 506,878	.. 356,642
German East Africa..	.. 138,030	.. 173,236	.. 102,119	.. 169,241	.. 285,538	.. 280,113	.. 331,292	.. 448,103	.. 150,941	.. 872
Italian East Africa ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. 343	.. 82	.. 457	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..
Sudan..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. 1,688	.. 3,634	.. 1,655	.. 778	.. 187	.. 182
Congo Free State ..	.. 12,435	.. 44,442	.. 53,406	.. 18,352	.. 27,349	.. 22,325	.. 21,485	.. 26,127	.. 31,986	.. 424,209
Total ..	440,705	515,052	436,313	590,057	962,911	1,016,898	1,203,201	1,482,876	1,004,796	1,111,424

TABLE V.—EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE: EXPORTS  
(COUNTRIES OF DESTINATION), 1907-1916

## PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL VALUE OF EXPORTS

Countries.	Year ended 31st March—									
	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916
United Kingdom ..	13·3	20·4	22·2	32·4	36·8	40·3	40·8	46·3	59·8	67·9
British Possessions ..	15·1	15·5	18·9	13·5	8·9	10·3	11·6	8·0	8·1	16·1
Austria-Hungary ..	3·3	2·5	0·5	0·8	1·2	1·4	1·3	0·5	0·1	..
Belgium ..	1·3	5·8	7·9	0·4	0·7	1·0	1·0	2·0	0·6	..
France ..	12·8	12·0	15·3	14·0	11·7	14·3	19·1	14·0	7·8	2·6
Germany ..	13·3	16·0	10·7	12·8	19·2	14·6	9·7	14·8	10·1	..
U.S.A. ..	31·2	19·5	15·6	19·1	13·8	9·0	7·8	6·5	5·0	..
Italy ..	..	..	..	..	..	1·6	2·3	2·5	3·5	10·3
Other countries ..	9·7	8·3	8·9	7·0	7·7	7·5	6·4	5·4	5·0	3·1

TABLE VI.—EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE: IMPORTS  
(VARIETIES AND VALUES), 1912-1916

Articles.	Year ended 31st March—				
	1912.	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.
Agricultural implements	£ 27,384	£ 35,419	£ 47,717	£ 21,132	£ 14,370
Arms and ammunition	19,151	27,396	27,253	11,902	6,668
Apparel, &c. ..	40,932	60,223	80,743	43,768	45,050
Building materials ..	52,603	124,089	134,148	65,996	46,028
Cotton piece-goods ..	394,715	522,331	570,598	269,244	451,022
Furniture ..	7,868	10,829	15,274	8,476	5,398
Grain and flour ..	100,903	115,437	130,092	147,452	113,202
Iron and steel wares ..	40,652	58,205	84,670	40,869	37,702
Kerosene oil ..	15,086	16,806	23,276	26,976	35,957
Machinery and parts ..	50,392	80,506	104,708	56,694	44,724
Provisions ..	76,878	95,600	128,307	140,430	159,848
Spirits and wines ..	33,293	51,162	57,866	64,988	97,340
Sugar ..	42,571	60,376	61,806	69,309	95,033
Tobacco ..	26,527	34,182	45,531	46,589	90,596
All other sorts ..	318,305	515,782	635,948	455,385	465,365
Total trade imports	1,247,260	1,808,343	2,147,937	1,469,210	1,708,333

TABLE VII.—EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE: IMPORTS  
(COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN), 1907-1916

PERCENTAGES OF TOTAL TRADE IMPORTS

Countries.	Year ended 31st March—									
	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916
United Kingdom ..	40·1	41·2	37·5	34·8	36·0	41·3	40·0	42·3	43·4	40·06
British Possessions..	24·9	25·8	27·0	26·7	25·0	20·5	21·3	20·2	26·3	26·18
Austria-Hungary ..	2·8	2·7	2·4	3·7	2·7	2·2	1·7	3·1	3·9	0·43
France .. ..	1·5	2·3	2·0	2·1	1·8	1·3	1·4	1·4	1·6	1·80
Germany .. ..	7·0	7·9	7·6	10·2	10·5	9·6	8·7	9·0	4·7	0·65
Holland .. ..	5·0	6·1	6·0	5·3	6·7	6·3	5·7	4·7	3·9	7·49
U.S.A. .. ..	7·7	4·0	8·0	8·7	7·0	9·9	9·4	8·6	5·9	9·89
Italy .. ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3·1	1·6	1·0	0·97
Other countries ..	11·0	10·0	9·5	8·5	10·3	8·9	8·7	9·1	9·3	12·53

TABLE VIII.—ZANZIBAR PROTECTORATE: EXPORTS AND  
IMPORTS, 1913

	EXPORTS				£
Cloves	...	...	...	...	412,547
Clove-stems	...	...	...	...	16,146
Copra	...	...	...	...	216,842
Ghee	...	...	...	...	8,409
Groceries	...	...	...	...	23,820
Gum copal	...	...	...	...	8,390
Hides and skins	...	...	...	...	12,596
Ivory	...	...	...	...	39,857
Petroleum	...	...	...	...	20,359
Piece-goods	...	...	...	...	85,149
Rice	...	...	...	...	24,386
Soap	...	...	...	...	8,871
Specie	...	...	...	...	58,698
Other articles	...	...	...	...	112,796
Total	...	...	...	...	£1,048,866

## IMPORTS

£

## 1. For domestic use mainly :

Bags and kandas	...	...	...	16,068
Beads	...	...	...	4,031
Beer, spirits, and wine	...	...	...	8,448
Cement and lime	...	...	...	5,766
Coal	...	...	...	29,156
Crockery and glassware	...	...	...	6,567
Dried fish	...	...	...	12,742
Grain and flour	...	...	...	56,275
Hardware	...	...	...	28,308
Live-stock	...	...	...	17,004
Machinery, motors, &c.	...	...	...	8,482
Rubber	...	...	...	5,313
Simsim	...	...	...	11,863
Sugar	...	...	...	31,143
Tea	...	...	...	7,702
Tobacco	...	...	...	19,666

## 2. For re-export, wholly or largely :

Copra	...	...	...	46,240
Ghee	...	...	...	31,515
Groceries	...	...	...	38,656
Gum copal	...	...	...	5,859
Hides and skins	...	...	...	5,997
Ivory	...	...	...	34,273
Petroleum	...	...	...	16,455
Piece-goods	...	...	...	191,023
Rice	...	...	...	177,076
Soap	...	...	...	7,820
Specie	...	...	...	161,012
Other articles	...	...	...	118,887

Total ... .. £1,103,347

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#### MAPS

A "Sketch Map of the Uganda Protectorate," on the scale of 1:3,500,000 (G.S.G.S., No. 2911) was issued by the War Office, in January 1919, in connexion with this Series.

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