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Catechism and several hymns, thereby laying the foundations for the development of these languages as written languages and the creation of a distinctive Christian literature.

The Rhenish missionaries were the pioneers of the subsequent colonisation of the country by White men. The occupation of South-West Africa by Germany in 1884 served to facilitate missionary work by introducing peace and order. On the other hand, the detrimental side-effects of civilisation and the increasing tension which led to the tribal revolts hampered their work. The Herero and Nama wars (1904-07) destroyed some of their stations and institutions. After the conclusion of peace the tribal unity of the Hereros was destroyed. The Rhenish missionaries took action to save the defeated tribe from ruin and set about teaching them to change their way of life. The former nomads had to become workers and day-labourers. The old tribal boundaries were abolished and the various native peoples afterwards dwelt together. This made every missionary's task more difficult; but the Rhenish Missionary Society stuck to its guns, as in the past. In spite of the adverse effects of two world wars, which included the banishment of some of the missionaries to Germany, development and expansion continued. Political agitation caused some members of the mission church to desert it. The great majority, however, remained faithful and eventually reached a cultural level which made it possible for the mission to achieve independence in 1957. It was then registered as the Evangelical Lutheran Church. 100 000 of the 450 000 aborigines of South-West Africa were then members, being served by 30 ministers, 45 evangelists and 22 missionaries. Their children attended 75 schools with 237 teachers. Members of all racial groups of the country – Herero, Nama, Bushmen, Coloured, Ovambo, Damara, as well as smaller tribes – were eventually united in the faith of this Church. (*See also* Bantu education; Lutheran Churches.)

G. P. J. TRÜMPELMANN

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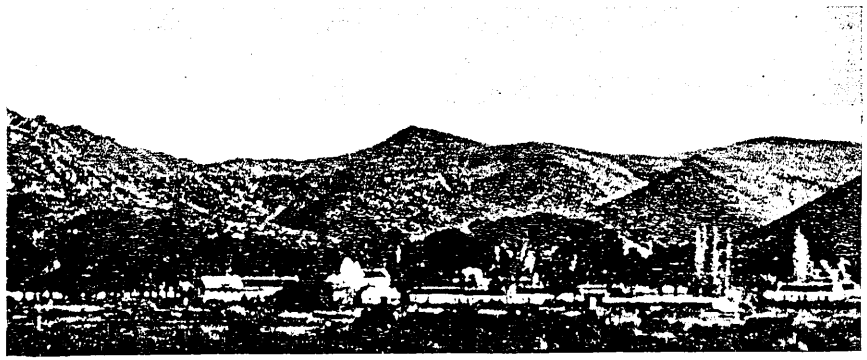
RHENISH MISSION CHURCH, C.P. One of the oldest mission churches in South Africa, built in 1823 on the southern side of the Braak, the main square of Stellenbosch. The building was erected by Het Stellenbossche Meedewerkende Zendelings Genootschap, founded in 1801 to do mission work among the slaves. Construction began in 1823 on a site presented by the Stellenbosch Turf Club. It was built in the shape of an incomplete T, with the main entrance facing east, and consisted originally merely of the portion lying east-west. The original gable, bearing the date 1823, is an imitation of the then existing front gable of the Dutch Reformed church built in 1814 and furnishes one of the most correct examples of neo-classicism in Cape Dutch architecture. The Governor (Lord Charles Somerset), the Rev. Abraham Faure and the Wesleyan missionary James Archbell attended the consecration by the Rev. Meent Borcherds on 5 Feb. 1824. In 1830 the Rhenish Missionary Society took over the congregation. As the building soon became overcrowded, the wall between the vestry and the church was removed in 1838. In 1840 the northern wing was added, with the date on this gable. It was consecrated by the Rev. T. J. Herold on 1 Dec. 1840. The detached double bell-arch adjacent to the new entrance was tastefully designed to match the gable. The two bells



Mission buildings, Wuppertal.

were donated by the Sunday-school pupils of Barmen, headquarters of the Rhenish Missionary Society in Germany. The building is still intact and on 6 Sept. 1963 was proclaimed a historical monument.

The pulpit is a splendid example of the woodcarver's craft and was made for the Dutch Reformed church of Stellenbosch in 1853 by Simon Pieter Christoffel Londt, a Cape Town cabinet-maker. When this 'mother church' was rebuilt in the Gothic style in 1862-63, it was felt that the Baroque pulpit would be out of place in it and it was presented to the Rhenish congregation. Because of its typically 18th-century design it was for many years wrongly attributed to Anton Anreith. The pulpit was proclaimed a historical monument in 1948. The original pulpit which preceded it was made in 1703 and was used in the Groote Kerk, Cape Town, for a long time.

RHENIUS, Johan Isaac. Cape official. Oct. 1750 – Germany 27.7.1808. Having been Secunde or deputy Governor of the Cape of Good Hope, after the departure of C. J. van de Graaff he acted as Governor from 24 June 1791 to 3 July 1792. He did not have a strong personality, and the Commissioners-General Nederburgh and Frijkenius decided to leave A. J. Sluysken in charge of the administration after their departure. Rhenius was the grandson of the explorer Johannes Tobias Rhenius and the son of Johannes Theophilus Rhenius, the first landdrost of Swellendam. Johan Isaac joined the public service after the first British occupation. He did not undertake journeys of exploration himself, but Willem van Reenen named a mountain near Walvis Bay Mount Rhenius, now known as Auasberg. Rhenius is the Latin form of the family-name Rhee.

A. J. BÖESEKEN

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RHEUMATIC DISEASES. This term embraces a variety of acute, chronic and intermittent disorders involving joints of limbs and spine, ligaments or fibromuscular tissue. Although they have a world-wide distribution, the frequency of at least some of these diseases in Southern Africa is governed by climatic, racial and socio-economic factors. Acute rheumatic fever, the commonest rheumatic disease in childhood, is relatively more prevalent and severe among the Cape Coloured and Indian communities and, to a lesser extent, the Bantu than among Whites. Poor hygiene and wet climatic conditions predispose to recurrent streptococcal sore throat and this produces a sensitivity reaction affecting the joints, heart and occasionally other organs.

Governor J. I. Rhenius.

Malta fever (brucellosis), a relatively common disease in some pastoral countries, is rare in South Africa. Rheumatoid arthritis, osteo-arthritis, fibrositis and gout are extremely uncommon among the Bantu, but are prevalent in the White and other non-White racial groups. Genetic factors may be responsible for this difference. It is of interest that the various forms of musculo-skeletal strain and slipped lumbar disc are virtually unknown in Bantu labourers, despite the heavy manual labour carried out by them. There is a high incidence of gout among the Indians and in them it is often associated with hypertension and diabetes.

RHINOCEROS. The rhinoceros (family *Rhinocerotidae*) is the surviving remnant of a once prominent group of odd-toed hoofed animals (order *Perissodactyla*). The five extant species, nowhere abundant, are today confined to the Old World, but in prehistoric times the rhinoceros was also present in North America. *Baluchitherium*, a giant hornless rhinoceros from the Oligocene Age of Central Asia, reached a height of about 5 metres, and the woolly rhinoceros was an inhabitant of Europe during the Ice Age. The existing forms are large, three-toed mammals with short, pillar-like legs and one or two 'horns' on the muzzle. The so-called horns are not true horns, but compacted keratinous fibres. The head is elongated and the eyes, situated between the short, prominent ears and the nostrils, are small. Incisors, peculiarly modified in the three Oriental species, are absent in the two African forms, which use their mobile lips for plucking their food. Although large and awkward in appearance, they are

White (square-lipped) rhinoceros (left); black rhinoceros.

fairly good runners. Their droppings are usually deposited at specific spots.

The two African forms are the black or prehensile-lipped rhinoceros *(Diceros bicornis)* and the white or square-lipped rhinoceros *(Ceratotherium simum)*. The black rhinoceros is the smaller and stands about 1½ metres at the shoulder. It is further easily distinguished by its darker colour and small head, and by the pointed, prehensile tip of the upper lip. Essentially a browser, it lives mainly on leaves and twigs. It feeds by night and sleeps by day. When disturbed it trots away, its head and tail held high. Unlike that of the white rhinoceros, the calf always runs behind its mother. The black rhinoceros is mainly solitary in habit and has a reputation of being very aggressive. Although it usually has two horns, there are records of abnormal specimens with three and even five. Formerly distributed over the greater part of Africa, from Ethiopia and Somaliland in the north to the Cape Colony in the south, it is now extinct over the more southern parts of its former range; in South Africa it is now confined to the game reserves of Zululand.

The white rhinoceros, after the elephant the largest living land mammal, reaches a shoulder-height of over 2 metres and an estimated weight of over 2700 kg. Characteristic is the long, massive head, the broad, square upper lip and the long front horn (record length 158 cm). The head is carried low, so that the front horn is almost parallel to the ground; the basal part of the horn is often flattened from rubbing on stones and stumps. The calf usually precedes the mother (cf. black rhinoceros). More sociable than the black rhinoceros, it is often found in small parties. It is a grazer, feeding in the late evening, through the night, and in the early morning.

Formerly widely distributed between the Orange and Zambezi Rivers, the southern race *(C. s. simum)* is now confined to the game reserves of Zululand and has been introduced recently into certain other reserves and parks. The northern subspecies *(C.s. cottoni)* is confined to the Southern Sudan and adjacent parts of Central Equatorial Africa.

C. M. VAN DER WESTHUIZEN

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RHODES, Cecil John. Statesman and financier. Bishop's Stortford (Hertfordshire) 5.7.1853 – Muizenberg 26.3.1902. He was the fifth son of Francis William Rhodes, the local parson. The family came from old English yeoman stock. Cecil was a thin and rather delicate boy and at the grammar school was regarded as a steady rather than a brilliant scholar. When he undertook a task he carried it out with great tenacity of purpose. Shy and reserved, he was inclined to wander into the country and sit immersed in his thoughts. He had ideas far in advance of his years. In later life he called them his 'thoughts', and they had a dominant influence on his career. From his youth he was intensely interested in the progress of the British people. His eldest brother, Herbert, who was of a roving disposition, talked of emigrating to a British colony, and Cecil entered heartily into these plans. He wished 'to be useful to my country' and vaguely associated his ambition with the future of the British race. Long afterwards he put his early thoughts into words in a letter to W. T. Stead: 'I desire to act for the benefit of those I think are the greatest people the world has ever seen, but whose fault is they do not know their strength and greatness, and their destiny'. Preoccupied with these dreams, he could not decide upon a career for himself, though he was entered at Oxford in case he should desire to follow his father into the Church. Then a severe chill launched him upon the path that gave him the one purpose that was to inspire his whole life. His doctor advised him to take a long sea trip and he decided to join Herbert, who had obtained a grant of 200 acres

Natal and was experimenting in growing cotton. After a voyage lasting seventy days the lad landed in Durban on 1 Sept. 1870 and proceeded to his brother's plantation in the Umkomaas valley near Pietermaritzburg.

The work was hard and the living conditions primitive, for the ground was uncleared veld, but Cecil undertook the roughest tasks with his customary determination. The first cotton crop was a failure, and Herbert lost his capital and went to the diggings on the newly discovered diamond-field at Colesberg Kopje, later to be known as Kimberley. Cecil followed him and made the 640-kilometre journey alone in a scotch-cart drawn by oxen. Herbert had pegged a claim, and the two brothers settled down in the heat and dust of the pioneer settlement, where the dry air restored Cecil's health. The diggers saw in him a tall, carelessly dressed Englishman who seemed to be lost in thought, and yet mastered the diamond business quickly and began to acquire more claims. Cecil's brother Frank, who was waiting for a commission in the army, arrived in Kimberley, and Herbert and Cecil went on a long journey by ox-wagon through the Northern Transvaal. Cecil saw a beautiful country in which the high ground was suitable for European settlement. His love of Africa increased and he dreamed of the British people founding a new empire in the Dark Continent. On his return he made his first will, dated 19 Sept. 1877, in which he left all his possessions to the Secretary of State for the Colonies in trust for the extension of the British Empire – a notable document for a man of 24. Herbert sold his diamond claims to Cecil, went on a hunting trip into the interior, and was burnt to death when a camp fire ignited his grass-roofed hut. Cecil made money rapidly and was able to realise his ambition of going to Oxford. With some difficulty he was accepted by Oriel College in 1873, and he returned at intervals to

Cecil John Rhodes (left); Rhodes statue in the Company's Garden, Cape Town.

The Woolsack (Rondebosch) built for Rhodes's guests. Among visitors was Rudyard Kipling.

keep his terms until he took his degree in 1881. At Oxford he had long discussions about the future of the British Empire and his ideas began to take a more tangible shape. Meanwhile he extended his interests in the diamond-fields and in 1880 formed the De Beers Mining Co. He was becoming rich enough to make tangible his visions of Imperial expansion.

To further his plans, he decided to enter politics. In Oct. 1880 the district of Griqualand West, in which Kimberley was situated, was formally annexed to the Cape Colony, and in 1881 Rhodes was elected as its representative in the House of Assembly, a position he held for the rest of his life. He confessed that he entered Parliament in order to use political power to obtain the unclaimed territories in the subcontinent for the British Empire. It was the year of Majuba, which resulted in independence for the Transvaal. Many of the Afrikaners in the Cape were jubilant at the defeat of the British and began to talk of a United States of South Africa under its own flag. Rhodes set himself to the task of persuading them to accept another ideal. He was personally popular with them, for he held the view that the Afrikaners were the coming race in South Africa and that it was impossible to run the country without them. His formula was: the government of South Africa by the people of South Africa, with the Imperial flag for defence. He convinced J. H. Hofmeyr, the leader of the Afrikaner Bond, that his aim of expansion to the North need not interfere with the aspirations of the Afrikaners and would be of great value to the Cape Colony. Pointing to the North, he told Hofmeyr: 'Your hinterland is there', and offered to Afrikaners and English a South African federation governing itself within the Empire and extending far into Africa.

Rhodes realised that the high plateau of Central Africa was the key to the vast continent. He said: 'Give me the centre and let who will have the swamps

Rhodes in the Matopos in 1897, on the site where he was to be buried.

that skirt the coast.' But access to the central plateau from the Cape Colony was being threatened. The scramble for Africa had begun. German traders were buying land in Damaraland, which the Cape politicians had refused to annex. The Portuguese had vague claims to all the country between Angola on the west coast and Mozambique on the east. The Transvaal Boers were trekking into the unclaimed country on their western borders. North of the Cape lay Bechuanaland, where the quarrels of rival native chiefs were being fomented by White adventurers who were looking for opportunities to acquire land. One chief, Mankoroane of the Batlapin, desired to have the protection of the British. Another, Montsioa (Montshiwa of the Barolong), preferred the Transvaal Afrikaners and had allowed Boer pioneers to establish in his territory the small republics of Stellaland and Goshen, whose recognition would bar the road to the North to the British. Rhodes was determined that the road to the interior – it was known as 'the missionary road' – should be kept open. In May 1882 he persuaded the Cape government to appoint a commission to delimit the northern boundaries of Griqualand West in Bechuanaland, and he served on it himself. While doing this work he obtained from Mankoroane, who ruled Lower Bechuanaland, a cession of his territory to the Cape Colony. The Cape government, however, refused to accept it even with the co-operation of the British government. In Sept. 1884 President Kruger issued a proclamation annexing the whole of Montsioa's territory, thus cutting off the Cape from the North. The British government regarded this as a contravention of the recently signed Convention of London and sent out Sir Charles Warren to restore order and hold the territory for the Crown. Warren had a force of 4000 men, and upon his arrival Kruger withdrew his proclamation. In Sept. 1885 all Bechuanaland south of the Molopo River was declared a British colony, and the northern area was proclaimed a British protectorate. The route to the North was thus preserved by Rhodes's intervention.

In 1886 gold was discovered on the Witwatersrand. Rhodes joined in the rush to the new field and formed the Consolidated Gold Fields of South Africa Company, which added to his wealth and to his reputation in Britain as a coming man. North of Bechuanaland lay the territory of Lobengula, king of the Matabele and Mashona tribes, which the Transvaal Boers still hoped to add to their territory. They sent agents to the royal kraal at Bulawayo and secured some concessions. Rhodes saw that the road to the North was again in danger and also sent agents to Lobengula, in the hope of securing concessions which would enable him to move farther north. He had succeeded in merging all the diamond interests in Kimberley in the De Beers Consolidated Company, and he persuaded his uncomprehending partners to agree to a trust deed of a remarkable character. Under it the company could acquire 'tracts of land' in Africa or elsewhere, undertake the government of any territory, and do practically anything it wished. The lawyer who drew up the deed was appalled at its comprehensiveness.

Endowed with these powers, Rhodes saw that the way was open to realise his dream of extending the British Empire far into the interior of Africa and that his next step must be to secure control of Lobengula's extensive territory. He persuaded Dr. L. S. Jameson, his medical adviser at Kimberley, to give up his profession and join him in the great task of empire-building. Jameson went to the royal kraal, where he cured Lobengula of his gout and won his confidence. There were other concession-hunters, and Rhodes sent a party headed by his partner C. D. Rudd to obtain a concession of all the mineral rights in the territory. On 30 Oct. 1888 Lobengula signed the famous Rudd concession by which, in return for a thousand Martini-Henry rifles, 100 000 rounds of ammunition, £1200 annually, and a steamboat with guns to ply on the Zambezi, Lobengula gave its holders a monopoly of the metals and minerals in his kingdom.

Rhodes bought up all other concessions which might interfere with his plans for the development of the territory. He decided to begin operations in Mashonaland and secured Lobengula's permission for the passage of a column of pioneers to that region.

He had conceived the idea of forming a British chartered company to occupy the territory for mining and trading purposes and bring the whole country under the protection of Great Britain. In May 1889 he addressed letters to the British government outlining a scheme for the formation of a company for the development of Bechuanaland, Matabeleland and Mashonaland, and undertaking to extend railways and the telegraph to the Zambezi, to encourage colonisation and to push British trade. On 29 Oct. 1889 the charter was granted. It confirmed the Rudd concession and gave the British South Africa Company (Chartered Company) gigantic powers and an immense field of action over a huge area, which was not defined until 1905.

With this foothold in the North, Rhodes dreamed of a chain of British settlements extending possibly to Cairo. A 'Pioneer Column' of 200 men set out on 28 June 1890, with the famous explorer and hunter F. C. Selous as guide, accompanied by 500 men of the Bechuanaland Police. The Pioneers covered over 480 kilometres in three months, mainly through dense bush, and Salisbury was founded on 11 Sept. 1890. The Pioneers were then disbanded and became settlers in the new country.

Meanwhile, in July 1890, Rhodes had become Prime Minister of the Cape Colony. This was the zenith of his career. Besides being Premier of the Cape, he controlled De Beers Company in Kimberley, the Gold Fields Company in Johannesburg, and as far as Africa was concerned, the Chartered Company itself. He was lionised in Britain and could obtain almost unlimited capital for his enterprises. Notwithstanding his vast interests in the North, he took an active part in affairs in the Cape. One of his first acts as Premier was to raise the property qualification for the franchise and impose an education test, in order to prevent 'blanket Kafirs' from entering the register. He was, however, well disposed toward the Bantu and got on very well with them. He regarded them as children who should be segregated until they had advanced a further stage in civilisation. He declared his policy as 'equal rights for all civilised men south of the Zambezi'.

In 1894 he added the portfolio of Native Affairs to that of Prime Minister and drafted the famous Glen Grey Act, which he called 'a Native Bill for Africa' and would have liked to see applied to the whole subcontinent. The Act was based upon four principles: work, segregation in Native reserves, individual property, and local self-government. It was opposed by many of the Afrikaners, but with Hofmeyr's aid was placed on the statute book and was soon extended to the Transkei as a whole.

Although he was becoming more and more immersed in his schemes in the North, Rhodes did much to develop the Cape Colony. He annexed Pondoland, established the fruit industry in the Western Province, and built the great explosives factory at Somerset West. As a restful home for himself he bought the Groote Schuur estate of 1300 acres on the slopes of Table Mountain where the Dutch East India Company had built a granary. Although he failed to carry out his plan for a teaching college on the slopes of the mountain, his vision eventually led to the establishment there of the University of Cape Town.

While busy with affairs in the Cape, he had to turn his attention to Mashonaland, where the settlers were running into trouble. Lobengula's Matabele had begun to raid the Mashonas, as they had long been accustomed to do. They ignored Jameson's warnings and he raised an armed force, defeated the Matabele in two engagements, and entered the royal kraal in Nov. 1892 to find that Lobengula had fled. The Matabele War added 1 162 000 sq km to the British Empire, most of it suitable for White settlement. Within six months Bulawayo had a population of 1200. At first all the new territory controlled by the Chartered Company was known as Zambesia. At a meeting in Cape Town in Oct. 1894 Jameson called it Rhodesia; and in the following year the British Colonial Office announced that it had been resolved henceforth to use that name. Rhodes was delighted. He remarked: 'to have a bit of a country named after one is one of those things a man might be proud of.'

Southern Rhodesia now became the keystone of Rhodes's dream of forming a federation of South African states under the British flag. He had had two heart attacks and he felt that unless he moved faster he would not live to complete his great project. At the end of 1890 he had visited Kruger in Pretoria and

Rhodes Cottage, Muizenberg.

tried to interest him in his federation scheme. He left convinced that the old President would never allow the Transvaal to form part of a united South Africa under the Imperial flag. Impatient at opposition, he turned to other ways of achieving his aim. With failing health he grew more arrogant and less scrupulous about the methods by which to attain his ends. He saw that Netherlands and German influence was increasing in the Transvaal, where Kruger was doing all he could to bring traffic to the railway from Delagoa Bay, while boycotting the line from the Cape. The Uitlanders in the Republic were protesting more vigorously against their treatment, and Rhodes decided to support them in their efforts to secure a change of government. A Conservative government had come into power in Britain, and Rhodes felt he could rely upon a certain amount of assistance from that quarter.

It was the headstrong Jameson who devised a plan for overthrowing the Kruger regime. Some Uitlanders (the 'Reformers') were to present Kruger with an ultimatum, and when it was rejected were to seize Johannesburg, declare a provisional government and with a surprise raid capture the State arsenal at Pretoria and then issue an appeal to South Africa and the world, offering to submit their grievances to the vote of the entire White population. There would thus be an excuse for the entry of an organised British force which would be ready within two days' striking distance of the Witwatersrand. Although he was Premier of the Cape, Rhodes became a party to the plot. Through various channels he sent arms and money to the Reformers, while Jameson placed a force of some 800 men in camp at Pitsani on the western border of the Transvaal, ostensibly to protect some railway construction works. The Reformers provided Jameson with an undated letter inviting him to come to the Rand to protect 'thousands of men, women and children of our race' who would be in danger, and prevent the shedding of blood. One of the signatories of this letter was Frank Rhodes, who had arrived in Johannesburg to work with the Reformers.

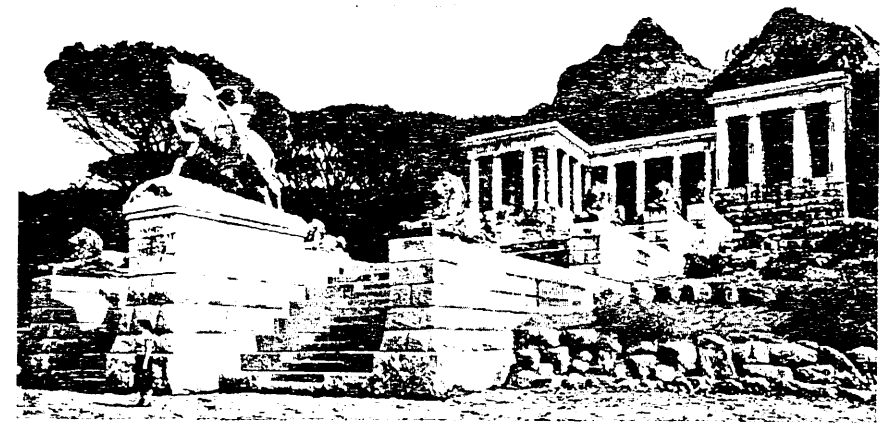
In spite of a last-minute effort by Rhodes to call off the raid, Jameson, who had not received Rhodes's wire, moved his force into the Transvaal on 29 Dec. 1895, and on 2 Jan. 1896 had to surrender to the Boer forces opposing his advance. Kruger arrested sixty of the Reformers and handed over Jameson and his men to be punished by the Imperial authorities. The British government at once repudiated Jameson's actions, and the Attorney-General at the Cape went to his Prime Minister with a sheaf of telegrams about the raid. Rhodes said: 'Yes, it is all true. Jameson has upset my apple-cart'. He immediately resigned the premiership, shut himself up in Groote Schuur, and for a time was inaccessible save to his staff. The Reformers were tried in Pretoria and the leaders sentenced to death, but later released on payment of heavy fines. No charge was brought against Cecil Rhodes, but he was submitted to stiff cross-examination by a select committee of the Cape House of Assembly and a similar committee in England. Both found that he had assisted in the organisation of the Raid, but had not given direct sanction for Jameson's invasion of the Transvaal.

The raid ended Rhodes's political career. He kept his parliamentary seat, but took little part in the debates and had to listen to bitter attacks on his policy by his former Afrikaner friends. He did not defend his actions. Later he told J. G. Macdonald: 'I ought to have known better. I should have discountenanced the idea from the very first, but I was in too great a hurry and forgot what I had learned in the diamond-fields, that short cuts never lead to success, the only roads leading to that being generally hard and steep and often full of pitfalls'. He resolved to devote his energies to the development of the North. (*See also* Jameson Raid.)

He proceeded to Rhodesia in March 1896. Two days after his arrival the Matabele rose and slew every White Rhodesian they could lay their hands on. The rebels were defeated by Imperial forces from Bechuanaland with the help of volunteers, but many took to the hills and maintained a guerrilla warfare which the impoverished country could ill afford. It seemed that the conflict might be prolonged indefinitely, and Rhodes made up his mind to get in touch with their leaders and attempt to bring about peace. The military authorities opposed the idea, for it appeared certain that any White person approaching the Matabele would be killed. But Rhodes persisted, and a meeting-place was fixed. Some 500 armed warriors assembled. At the risk of his life Rhodes walked alone, unarmed, among them and told them to lay down their arms. This they did, and a long palaver ensued. Finally Rhodes said: 'Is it peace?' and the chiefs agreed it was peace. The Matabele stood by their word, and one by one all the rebel chiefs came in to pay their respects to Rhodes and explain their grievances. He did his utmost to improve the conditions of the settlers and hasten the progress of the country. He arranged that the railway should bridge the Zambezi at the Victoria Falls. He bought large estates and had them developed as model farms for the instruction of agriculturists.

Returning to the Cape, he tried to ease the racial ill-feeling. On the evening of the day the Transvaal ultimatum expired – 11 Oct. 1899 – he slipped out of Groote Schuur and at a wayside station took a train to Kimberley, but owing to an accident *en route* did not reach there until after war had been declared, escaping capture by the Boers, who were closing in on the town. During the four months' siege he quarrelled with the military, but did a great deal to maintain the spirits of the inhabitants. He raised the Kimberley Light Horse to supplement the garrison, had a long-range gun constructed, and provided underground shelters for the women and children.

In 1901 he visited England, but returned hurriedly in Jan. 1902 to give evidence in the Princess Radziwill case (*see* Radziwill, Princess C. M.). On reaching Cape Town he was very ill, and as the summer was extremely hot he was moved to his seaside cottage at Muizenberg, where he died. The cottage, proclaimed a historical monument in 1938 after having been transferred by the government of Northern Rhodesia to the city of Cape Town, is now a Rhodes museum. Rhodes's last words were: 'So little done, so much to do'. In his will he had asked to be buried in the Matopos, in Rhodesia, on the hill he called 'View of the World'. His wish was fulfilled, and his rock grave bears the simple inscription: 'Here lies the body of Cecil John Rhodes'. His will, which was dated 1 July 1899, set a seal upon his completed life. The bulk of his vast fortune was dedicated to the public service. This silenced detractors who had ranked him as a mere money-maker. The will was based on his dream of a British-American alliance which would eventually dominate the world. It provided for the education at Oxford of young British colonists and Americans.



Rhodes Memorial, Rondebosch.

The Rhodes scholarships were worth £300 a year, and the conditions under which they were to be granted had been drawn up in detail by himself. His vast estates in Rhodesia were left to the people of that territory, to be cultivated for their benefit. He gave £100 000 to Oriel College, and left Groote Schuur as a residence for the prime minister of a united South Africa.

Rhodes was a man of restless energy, dynamic force and illimitable ambition, not for himself, but for the realisation of his ideals. During his short but dramatic career he was often bitterly attacked; but after his will revealed his great purpose there was a more generous appraisal of the man who had added nearly two million square kilometres to Britain's possessions in Africa. In achieving his aims he sometimes used his wealth and power with small consideration for others, and his impatience plunged him into grave mistakes. On the slopes of Devil's Peak, overlooking his Groote Schuur estate (which by his will is preserved as open ground), stands the Rhodes Memorial, a large and impressive structure designed by Herbert Baker and built of white granite. It includes G. F. Watts's famous work, *Physical energy*, and a bust of Rhodes by J. M. Swan. Another statue of Rhodes, showing him seated, is in front of the main building of the University of Cape Town at Groote Schuur. In Bulawayo there is a statue by John Tweed, the only one made of Rhodes during his life. In Salisbury there is a full-length statue, as also in the Gardens, Cape Town. L. E. NEAME

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