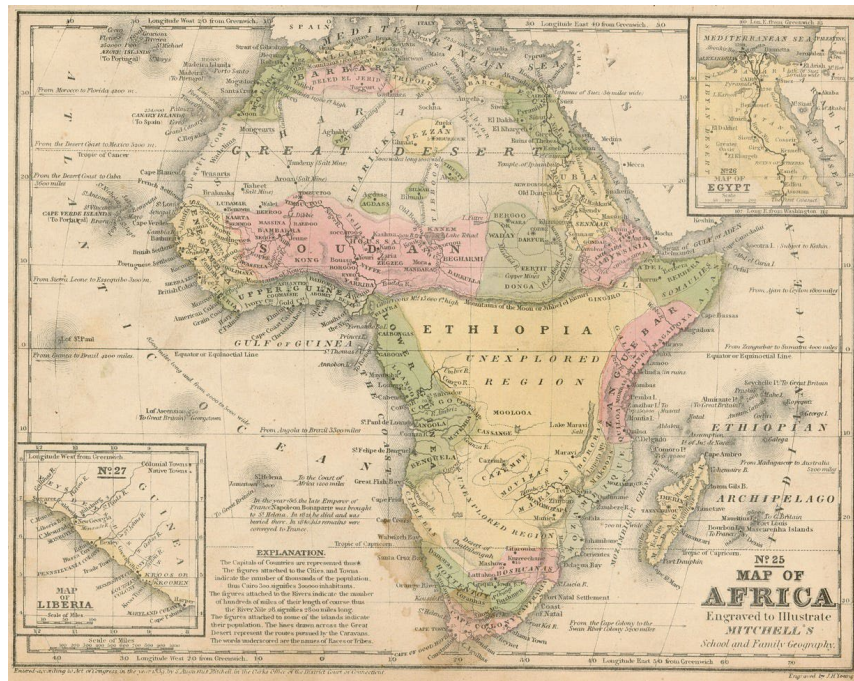


RGSSA Rare Books Group

DISCOVERING AFRICA, FROM PLINY TO THE TRAVELS OF DR. LIVINGSTONE

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“Map of Africa,” (1839) Designed to Illustrate Mitchell’s School and Family Geography, a standard resource in American classrooms during the late 19th century.

TIMELINE OF EXPLORATION NOTES ON THE BOOKS DISPLAYED MAP OF EXPLORATIONS

TIMELINE FOR EXPLORATION OF AFRICA (Events included in this presentation highlighted)

ca. 425 BC Herodotus: wrote "The Histories"

330 -30 BC Part of Egypt and present-day Libya belonged to Greek Empire

ca 146 BC – 697 AD Region adjacent to Mediterranean became part of Roman Empire

ca 40 – 70 AD Periplus of the Erythrean Sea written

ca 77 AD Pliny wrote "Natural History".

ca. 150 AD. Ptolemy (100-170 AD) produced "Cosmographia" (Geographia)

1100-1165 Al Idrisi travelled widely. Created "Tabula Rogerina", first world map in 1154.

1349-1353 Ibn Battuta travelled across the Sahara through Morocco to the Niger and Timbuctoo

1406 Ptolemy's Geographia rediscovered and translated into Latin.

1415 Portuguese took over Ceuta in Morocco

1430 Portuguese began exploring west African coast

1477 Ptolemy's Geographia printed in Bologna with 27 maps

1482 Portuguese established Fort El Mina (in Ghana), first European settlement in central Africa

1488 Bartholomew Diaz rounded Cape of Good Hope but didn't continue further

1498 Vasco da Gama rounded the Cape and continued along the East African coast

1510-1518 "Leo Africanus" travelled through northern Africa. "Travels" published in 1526.

1520-1527 Portuguese priest Francisco Alvarez travels Ethiopia in search of Prester John

1557-1635 Jesuit missions to Ethiopia. Pedro Paez visits source of Blue Nile

ca 1575 Portuguese began encroaching into Angola and Mozambique

1578-1584 Duarte Lopez travelled in the Congo

1595 Mercator's Atlas first published

1600-1602 English and Dutch East India Companies established

1652 First Dutch settlement (Cape Colony) founded at Cape of Good Hope

1768-1773 Scotsman James Bruce travelled in Ethiopia

1788 – 1831 Association for the promotion of the discovery of the interior parts of Africa

1788 John Ledyard: Assigned Red Sea to Atlantic. Died before leaving Cairo.

1788-1789 Simon Lucas: Assigned Tripoli to Gambia. Delayed in Tripoli. Gave up!

1795, 96, 97, 1805 Mungo Park: reached Niger from Gambia. Ascertained it flows east.

1798-1799 Daniel Houghton reached Niger, confirmed that it flows east)

1798-1800 Friedrich Hornemann: Attempted Cairo to Timbuctoo. Never heard of again!

1809 Ludwig Burckhardt. Attempted Cairo to Timbuctoo. Died before leaving Cairo.

1804 Henry Nicholls. Searched for Niger from south. Successful but didn't realise it.

1822-23, 1824 Hugh Clapperton expedition crossed the Sahara, discovered Lake Chad.

1830-1831, 1834 Richard and John Lander. Followed the course of the Niger to the Atlantic.

1850-1855 Richardson, Barth, Overweg . Crossed Sahara to Timbuctoo. Explored Lake Chad.

1856-1859 Richard Burton and John Speke explored the Great Lakes region

1852-1873 David Livingstone. Explored and crossed central Africa

1874-1877 Henry Stanley. Travelled central Africa east to west.

1860-1863 Speke and Grant confirm the source of the (White) Nile

1861 British annex Lagos (Nigeria) as a crown colony

1868 British annex Basutoland

1884-1885 Berlin Conference defines European territorial claims

By 1914 the whole continent (except Ethiopia and Liberia) had been divided among European nations.

Pliny, the Elder Ca. 77AD. The historie of the world, commonly called the Naturall historie of C. Plinius Secundus. Tome 2. Translated into English by Philemon Holland. Adam Islip, London. rsgp 500 P 728 c 1601.

The strip of land between the Mediterranean Sea and the Sahara Desert was well known to the Greeks and Romans of antiquity. A small part of present-day Egypt and an even smaller part of present-day Libya was part of the Greek (Ptolemaic) Empire from about 330 BC to 30 BC. It was not however known as Africa, but as Libya. The part of Egypt east of the Nile was considered to be in Asia.

The Romans conquered Carthage (now Tunis) in 146 BC and Egypt in 30 BC and expanded their territory from Egypt to what is now Morocco. It was still known as Libya; Africa was the name given to the province that corresponds roughly to today's Tunisia and part of today's Libya.

Gaius Plinius Secundus (23-79 AD), known in English as Pliny the Elder, was a Roman author, naturalist, scientist, geographer, procurator and naval and army commander of the early Roman Empire. His Natural Historie attempted to cover all available information about the then-known world. It consists of 37 "books" or sections. Africa is described in the first part of Book 5. He discusses the origin of the name (which he uses interchangeably with Libya), followed by detailed descriptions of topography, animals, plants, people in the various regions. There is a great deal of information, some rather exotic and speculative, but it is not easy to follow as it is not possible to locate most of the many places he refers to. He himself notes that "the names of its peoples and towns are absolutely unpronounceable except by the natives".

Ptolemy (ca.150AD). Cosmography: maps from Ptolemy's geography with Introduction by Lelio Pagani. Magna Books, Leicester, England. 1990. Rg 912 P975 d 1990._

Ptolemy (Claudius Ptolomaeus, ca 100-170 AD) was a Roman citizen of Greek origin. Like Pliny he was a polymath: mathematician, astronomer, musician, geographer. He worked in the library at Alexandria, which at that time belonged to Rome and was the cultural centre of the world. His "Geographia", also known as "Geographike Hyphegesis" (Guide to Geography) and later as "Cosmographia" was completed around 150 AD. It consisted of 8 volumes summarizing the current knowledge of geography. Volume 1 explained how to use his coordinate system to draw maps. In Ptolemy's system the latitude of a locality was expressed as the length of its longest day, which varies from 12 hrs at the equator to 24 hrs at the poles. Longitude was measured from the "Blessed Islands" in the Atlantic Ocean (probably the Canary Islands) to the middle of China, these being the most westerly and easterly places known at the time. Volumes 2 to 7 consisted of a catalogue of over 8000 localities with their geographical coordinates and Volume 8 listed the maps which could be created using this data.

Ptolemy's books were "lost" for about 1000 years but in the 14th century a Greek copy was found in Constantinople and brought to Italy where it was translated into Latin by Jacopo d'Angelo in 1406. Ptolemy had designed 27 maps: a world map, 10 maps for Europe, 12 for Asia and 4 for Africa; but the maps themselves, if they existed, have not survived. It is thought that Ptolemy never actually drew them and that the information he provided was intended as "word maps", that is descriptions and geographical coordinates that would enable maps to be constructed.

Cartographers have been able to construct maps using Ptolemy's information, and there are numerous editions of his book and of his maps, drawn at different times and by different cartographers with additions made according to the knowledge at the time. The first printed edition was by Leinhart Hollin Ulm (Germany) in 1482.

Most of the region shown on Ptolemy's "Africa" map is designated as Libya, the unknown regions around the edges are variations of Ethiopia, and "Affrica (minor)" is just a small region north of the Libyan Desert. To the south the map stops at the Sahara Desert, but the full length of the Nile is shown, albeit it much shortened, arising from two lakes.

Ptolemy's information and the maps produced from it formed the basis for subsequent maps of the 16th century.

The travels of Ibn Battuta, A.D. 1325-1354. Translated and edited by H.A.R. Gibb. Published by Cambridge University Press for the Hakluyt Society. Volume 4. rg 910.4 I13 a 1994 (Note: This book has not been marked with the call number.)

The Islamic religion and Islamic law were established in the early 7th century and quickly spread. By 750 AD what was the Roman Empire in north Africa had become part of an Islamic caliphate that extended from the Indus Valley in the East to the Iberian Peninsula in the west. There were some intrepid Arab (Muslim) explorers and travellers, notably Mohammed **al Idrisi** who travelled widely and in 1154 AD wrote a geographical treatise whose title translates as “A Diversion for the Man Longing to Travel to Far-Off Places”, accompanied by a map of the world, the Tabula Rogeriana. In Africa he travelled only in the region north of the Sahara, but obtained information about the region further south from merchants, desert nomads and pilgrims. An abridged version of Al Idrisi’s travels was translated into Latin in 1619, but only recently have parts of his book been published in English. I could not find these in the RGSSA library.

Ibn Battuta (full name Shams al-Din Abu ’Abdallah Muhammad ibn ’Abdallah ibn Muhammad ibn Ibrahim ibn Muhammad ibn Yusuf Lawati al-Tanji ibn Battuta) (1304-1377) was another Arab traveller who, like al Idrisi, travelled for the love of travelling. He made incredible journeys, including across Asia as far as China and Indonesia. In Africa, during his final journey between 1349 and 1354, he crossed the Sahara from Tangier to the River Niger and Timbuctoo. This journey is described in Volume 4 of his travels: “Journey to the Land of the Blacks”, which referred to part of the then kingdom of Mali. He remarks that the people here adopted Islam long ago, and warns of the dangers of white men travelling there as “they may kill him before he gets there.” He notes however they don’t eat white men because they are “unripe”!

On return from his travels he wrote, or rather dictated, a description of them under a title which translates as “A Masterpiece to Those Who Contemplate the Wonders of Cities and the Marvels of Travelling”.

Ibn Battuta’s work was however little known outside the Arab world until the beginning of the 19th century, and was not published in English until 1829.

Leo Africanus (with John Pory, translator, and Robert Brown, editor) 1600.
The history and description of Africa and of the notable things therein
contained. Impensis Georg Bishop, London. rgsp 916.1576 b.

Al-Ḥassan ibn Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad al-Wazzān al-Zayyātī al-Fasī (ca 1494 – 1554), also known as Johannes Leo de Medici (by his own admission he changed his name – and his religion - according to circumstances!) was an Arab scholar, lawyer, diplomat - and above all a traveller. More briefly, he came to be known as **Leo Africanus**. He travelled widely (largely as a diplomat and lawyer) in north Africa (including a number of places across the Sahara Desert), Arabia and southern Europe and had many adventures, including being captured by Spanish pirates in the Mediterranean Sea. They were impressed by his wisdom and instead of submitting him to slavery as was their custom they sent him to Rome. Here he was befriended by the Pope, Leo X and baptised as a Christian, thus becoming Johannes Leo de Medici.

During this time in Italy he wrote the book of his travels which was published in 1550 under the name Giovan Lioni Africano by the Venetian publisher Giovanni Battista Ramusio. First published in Italian, it was soon translated into other languages including Latin. The Latin version which, according to sources (Wikipedia!) contained many mistranslations and errors, was used as the basis of the English translation in 1600 by John Pory. Pory almost certainly took further liberties with it, including introducing a long chapter on the parts of Africa which Leo did not describe.

This English translation, despite its shortcomings, was very accessible to the British and Leo's glowing descriptions of Timbuctoo and other places along the Niger aroused their interest to know more about those fabulous places.

It is uncertain what became of Leo after his sojourn in Italy. He may have remained there or returned to North Africa and re-converted to Islam. He had no qualms about changing his identity according to circumstances: *"For my owne part, when I heare the Africans evill spoken of, I will affirme my selfe to be one of Granada: and when I perceive the nation of Granada to be discommended, then will I profess my selfe to be an African"*.

Richard Henry Major. 1868. The life of Prince Henry of Portugal, surnamed the Navigator, and its results: comprising the discovery within one century of half the world, with new facts in the discovery of the Atlantic Islands, a refutation of French claims to priority in discovery, Portuguese knowledge (subsequently lost) of the Nile lakes and the history of the naming of America, from authentic and contemporary documents. John Boyd Thatcher collection (Library of Congress). Publ. A. Asher. rg 920 H b (24 cm)

During the 15th and 16th centuries the Portuguese were the greatest seafarers in Europe. They had established ports and garrisons around the northwest African coast by the 1420s, and wanted to find a sea route to the east in order to access the lucrative Asian spice trade, currently dominated by the Ottoman and Venetian Empires via a difficult and dangerous overland route.

Prince Henry, known as “the Navigator” (1394-1460) was the third son of King John the First of Portugal. He personally explored part of the west coast of Africa by sea, but his main contribution was to organise and direct expeditions to gather data and prepare charts. He set up an observatory on the Promontory of Sacres from which he could organise voyages and collect information. In 1424 Cape Bojador was the most southerly point known to Europeans on the west coast of Africa. Superstitious seafarers believed that beyond it lay sea monsters and the edge of the world. It was known as “The Sea of Darkness”. Prince Henry was determined to know the truth. He sent 15 expeditions over a ten-year period to attempt to pass the Cape. Each returned unsuccessful, the captains giving various excuses for having failed. It wasn’t until March 1488, well after Prince Henry died, that Bartholomew Dias reached the Cape of Good Hope and showed that Africa extended far into southern latitudes, and in 1498 Vasco da Gama rounded the Cape and sailed up the east coast of Africa.

This book, published in 1868 over 200 years after the Prince’s death, not only tells of Prince Henry’s life but discusses evidence that the Portuguese were not in fact the first to discover that Africa was surrounded by ocean.

(i) It was reported by the Greek historian Herodotus that in the reign of Pharoah Necho (ca. 617-601 BC) Phoenician sailors had sailed around Africa from the Red Sea to the Mediterranean

(ii) A map from the Laurentian Portulano, an anonymous collection of maps dating from 1351 AD, shows the entire coastline of Africa.

The book contains a map of Africa, compiled in 1591 AD from the descriptions by Duarte Lopez, a Portuguese merchant and explorer and Portuguese ambassador to the Congo ca. 1578-1584. It shows the equatorial African great lakes, which would be visited by Richard Burton and John Speke two and a half centuries later.

Once the coast of Africa had been delineated and charted it became possible to make much more realistic maps. It just remained to fill in the interior!

This book was gifted to William Silver by the author in 1971 (inscription on flyleaf)

Thomas Edward Bowditch.1824. An account of the discoveries of the Portuguese in the interior of Angola and Mozambique. rg 967.3 T a 1824.

As they sailed around the coast of Africa the Portuguese established trading posts (termed “factories”), forts and garrisons. Some expanded into settlements, particularly around Congo, Angola and Mozambique. According to the author of this book the Portuguese were very secretive about their African settlements thereby “hindering improvement and civilisation of that great continent”, and it was only through a chance friendship with the Portuguese Charge d’Affaires at Vienna that he was able to obtain the information provided in the book. By the middle of the 17th century the Portuguese had penetrated a considerable distance (over 1000 km) into the interior from their base at St Paulo (now Luanda), establishing garrisons and Catholic missions. Settlers arrived and exploratory expeditions were sent further into the interior. The book describes much about the country, the native and Arab peoples that the Portuguese had to negotiate with, their efforts to mine iron and possibilities of mining copper and sulphur and the expeditions they sent to try to cross the continent to their other smaller settlement in Mozambique. The longest expedition reached Tete on the Zambezi River but was prevented by local bureaucracy from proceeding further. The explorers learned that there was a great lake north of Tete – this is probably Lake Nyasa.

Bowditch’s account shows how the very early stages of colonisation of an African region took place: at first insidiously through trade, making friends with local rulers, then treaties backed up by force. In the “Scramble for Africa” in the late 19th century both Angola and Mozambique were officially recognised as Portuguese colonies.

NOTE:

The Portuguese also did a considerable amount of exploration in Ethiopia, starting from 1520 when the priest Francisco Alvarez visited in search of Prester John, followed by Jesuit missions between 1557 and 1632. I have not included this in my presentation as it is a topic in itself – but it may explain why, in 16th, 17th and even 18th century maps of Africa, names of Ethiopian places and provinces and Ethiopia itself are often scattered across the map. It seems as though Ethiopia was thought to be more extensive than it actually is.

Gerhard Mercator. Historia Mundi (or Mercator's Atlas). Containing his cosmographical description of the fabricke and figure of the world. Lately rectified in divers places, as also beautified and enlarged with new mappes and tables by the studious industry of Iodocus Hondy. Englished by W.S. Generosus. Printed by T. Cotes for Michael Sparke and Samuel Cartwright. 1635. rgsp 910 M553b 1635.

Gerhard Mercator (1512-1594) lived in the Netherlands and later in Germany. He was born Gerhard Kramer but changed his name to Mercator which means merchant. He had many challenges during his life, including being persecuted and imprisoned for having Lutheran sympathies. Like many other scholars of his time he was multi-talented, being a philosopher, historian, theologian, mathematician and linguist as well as a geographer. He devised the Mercator projection as a way of representing a curved surface on a flat diagram. He also prepared a compendium of "modern" maps and was the first person to use the word "Atlas" for a collection of maps. He died however before his Atlas was completed and his family (wife, son and grandsons) prepared it for publication and included 28 additional maps. It was published in Latin in 1595, a year after Mercator's death, with a total of 107 maps.

In the early 1600s Mercator's Atlas was republished by Jodocus Hondius, a Flemish engraver and cartographer. Hondius purchased Mercator's plates from his grandson and added 36 maps to the 107 original ones. Hondius gave Mercator full credit for authorship of the work and listed himself only as publisher. This Mercator / Hondius Atlas was first published in 1606 and was very popular. It went through several editions, with new maps being added. Hondius's son Henricus continued publication of the Atlas, which went through over 50 editions in the main European languages.

This edition belonging to the RGSSA was published in English in 1635.

**THIS BOOK IS VERY FRAGILE – PLEASE TREAT IT
WITH GREAT CARE, JUST LOOK AT THE MAP OF
AFRICA AND DON'T TURN THE PAGES.**

Proceedings of the Association for promoting the discovery of the interior parts of Africa in two volumes. 1810. Printed by W. Bulmer and Co. Cleveland Row, St. James's, London 1810. Rg 960 T a 1810. VOLUME 1.

The British begin to explore Africa!

In 1788 a group of London's upper-class dignitaries, led by Sir Joseph Banks, felt that it was a disgrace that, in the “Age of Enlightenment”, the geography of Africa remained almost entirely uncharted. To remedy this, on the 9th June that year they founded the Association for Promoting the Discovery of the Interior Parts of Africa, known briefly as the African Association. Its purpose was to sponsor expeditions to explore the interior of Africa, more specifically western Africa and the River Niger*.

The Association's main objectives were to determine the source, mouth and direction of flow of the Niger River, which was still confused with the Gambia, the Senegal and even the Nile, and to locate the city of Timbuctoo, reported to be the source of fabulous wealth. The Association's Board appeared to have little idea of what the lands to be traversed were like, of the perils of travel in Africa or of the magnitude of the tasks which they assigned their explorers.

Volume 1 of the Proceedings includes the reports of the first two candidates for exploration: **John Ledyard** and **Simon Lucas**. Both had extensive previous exploration experience, but not in Africa. Ledyard was assigned to traverse the continent from east to west at the latitude of the Niger, that is at the continent's greatest width. He was to go from Cairo to Sennar then head west in the general direction of the Niger. Lucas was allocated the passage of the desert of “Zahara” from Tripoli to Fezzan, then to return by way of the Gambia River to the coast of Guinea. But neither of them really got started.

Ledyard set off on 9th June 1788 but only got as far as Cairo where he died of a “bilious complaint”. This was probably not helped by his taking “a powerful dose of the acid of vitriol” (sulphuric acid!) as a cure.

Lucas set off on 30th June 1788 but was delayed in Tripoli by revolts along his intended route. After waiting 4 months he managed to get as far as Mesurata (Mesrata), about 150 km along the coast SE of Tripoli. Here he waited 7 weeks, using his time in to make a rough map of the region from information received from a widely travelled Arab trader. It became clear that further travel would not be possible and he returned to England. Back in London Major James Rennell was able to use Lucas's information, together with that of another Arab traveller, to make a map of much of north Africa.

The next candidate was **Major Daniel Houghton** who was to travel up the Gambia River, locate Timbuctoo and chart the course of the Niger. He set off in November 1790. His last communication was dated 1st Sept 1791 from Bambouk (in present-day Mali). It is not known whether he was murdered or died of starvation and thirst.

A more successful candidate **Mungo Park** set off in 1795 to explore the Niger, also via the Gambia. The Proceedings include a summary of Park's first journey, but see separate volumes for a full account of his adventures.

***Another aim was “...that the conveniences of civil life, the benefit of the mechanic and manufacturing arts, the attainments of science, the energies of the cultivated mind, and the elevation of the human character should in some degrees be imparted to nations hitherto consigned to hopeless barbarism and uniform contempt.”**

Proceedings of the Association for promoting the discovery of the interior parts of Africa in two volumes. 1810. Printed by W. Bulmer and Co. Cleveland Row, ST. James's, London 1810. Rg 960 T a 1810. VOLUME 2.

Much of Volume 2 is concerned with the more successful journey of **Friedrich Hornemann**. Hornemann was assigned to proceed from Cairo to Murzuk, capital of the Fezzan province, then to Bornou south of Lake Chad. He set off in August 1798. He disguised himself as a Muslim merchant, on the basis that Christians were hated in Africa. This was a good idea. He travelled with a caravan of merchants and pilgrims apparently without major incident, from Cairo to Murzuk. He could not speak Arabic (he took a translator with him), so pretended (successfully!) that he was a Turkish Muslim. He reached Murzuk and while he was waiting to travel on made a side trip to Tripoli (a distance of about 800 miles!) to send the Association an interim report on his travels as well as much information he had gathered by questioning other travellers, merchants and local people. He then returned to Murzuk on 20th January 1800. A letter to Sir Joseph Banks dated 6th April informed him that he was about to set off that evening for Bornou.

After that nothing was heard from him for 8 years, after which the Association began to wonder what had happened to him! It was not till 1817 that reports arrived telling that he had died of fever near Bokani. It was not known whether he ever reached the Niger.

Henry Nicholls was assigned to explore the Niger from the south, from the Gulf of Guinea. He set off in 1804 from a British trading post near a large river delta but did not realise that this was actually the mouth of the Niger. He had discovered what he was looking for without recognising it! Nicholls died in 1805, probably from malaria.

The "African Association" was dissolved in 1813, becoming part of the Royal Geographical Society. Despite its planned expeditions being dogged by, and in most cases curtailed by, misfortunes, sufficient information was obtained for a reasonably detailed and accurate map of northern Africa to be compiled. It was confirmed that the Niger flowed from west to east. The only one of the African Association explorers known to have reached Timbuctoo was Mungo Park, who never returned to tell the tale.

Mungo Park 1816. Travels in the interior districts of Africa performed in the years 1795, 1796 and 1797. 2 volumes. With an account of a subsequent mission to that country in 1805. By MUNGO PARK, Surgeon, to which is added an account of the life of Mr. Park. A new edition in 2 volumes. With an Appendix containing geographical illustrations of Africa; by Major Rennell. 2nd edition published 1816 rg 960 Tb. 1816. VOLUME 1.

Mungo Park was one of the more successful African Association explorers. His first expedition, begun in May 1795 three years before that of Hornemann, started like his from the mouth of the Gambia in order to avoid a traverse of the Sahara. On the whole he met with friendly reception along the way, though much negotiation was needed with local rulers. But things were not easy – thievery was a problem and on one occasion he was imprisoned by an Arab chief for four months, eventually escaping with nothing but his horse and pocket compass. He reached the Niger, being the first European known to do so, and established that it flowed from west to east. He followed the river downstream for 130 km but ran out of resources and had to turn back. His return journey was plagued by misfortunes and sickness. Rumour had spread that he was a spy with plans to take over trade routes, and some of those who had been friendly to him on the outward journey were now hostile. He returned to Scotland in December 1797 having been away for two and a half years and thought dead. His book of travels was a best seller. Mungo was sympathetic to the African people, commenting that the only difference was in the colour of their skin; they shared with white people the same sympathies and feelings.

Mungo Park 1815. The journal of a mission to the interior of Africa in the year 1805 by MUNGO PARK together with other documents, official and private, relating to the same mission. To which is appended an account of the life of Mr. Park. By Major James Rennell*. The second edition revised and corrected with additions. John Murray, London 1815. rg 966Tb 1815. VOLUME 2.

Not discouraged by his experiences in his first journey, in 1805 Park agreed to lead another expedition to the Niger and follow it downstream. He believed that it connected with the Congo. He was accompanied by about 45 other Europeans including 35 soldiers. The trip was a disaster, largely because they set off in the rainy season. By the time they reached the Niger only 11 Europeans remained, the rest having succumbed to fever or dysentery. By the time they embarked (by boat which they constructed on site) to explore the Niger only 9 people remained: Park, a European lieutenant and three soldiers (one of whom had gone mad), a guide and three slaves. They kept to the centre of the river to avoid the local Muslim traders who suspected them of exploring for trading routes. This caused hostility from local chieftains who were unable to collect the expected tributes from them, resulting in shooting episodes. After January 1806 nothing more was heard of the party. In 1810 the Society sent Isaaco, a guide who had travelled with Park on part of his journey, to search for him. After an eventful journey Isaaco learned from another local guide, Amadi Fatouma, that the remaining members of Park's party had been attacked by hostile natives, jumped into the river to avoid spears and drowned. Isaaco's and Amadi's accounts are included in Volume 2.

* It is not entirely clear who edited this volume and wrote the account of Park's life, but most likely it was Major Rennell.

Mungo Park, 1847. Life and travels of Mungo Park. rg 968 T.

This tiny book appears to be a later and posthumous “pocket” edition of the first volume of Mungo Park’s travels, published by Thomas Nelson, Edinburgh. It is not clear who the editor is or who wrote the introduction (presumably the editor?). Note the Benham bookplate and signature, and the newspaper cuttings pasted in at the back. rg 966 T a.

VERY FRAGILE, HANDLE WITH GREAT CARE!!

NOTE: I have omitted important expeditions by Hugh Clapperton and Richard and John Lander, made between 1822 and 1832 under the auspices of the British Government, as the RGSSA books describing these are not in good condition and are extremely fragile. In brief: Clapperton, together with Dixon Denham and Walter Oudney crossed the Sahara and in 1823 were the first Europeans to see Lake Chad. A second expedition by Clapperton, begun in 1825 with Richard Lander as a “servant”, aimed to reach the mouth of the Niger but Clapperton died of malaria and dysentery before reaching his goal. Lander was the only European survivor of the expedition. In 1830 Lander returned to Africa with his brother John and they followed the River Niger to the sea. In 1832 Richard Lander returned to Africa a third time, for the purpose of establishing a trading settlement on the Niger but was attacked by natives and died of gangrene from a bullet wound. John Lander, who did not accompany his brother on this last expedition died a few years after he returned to England, probably from a disease contracted in Africa.

Augustus Petermann, 1854. An account of the progress of the expedition to Central Africa, performed by order of Her Majesty's Foreign Office under Messrs. Richardson, Barth, Overweg and Vogel, in the years 1850, 1851, 1852 and 1853. Maps, illustrations and descriptive notes. rgsp 916.7 P479 d

Slavery had existed in Africa in some form for time immemorial. The Africans themselves used slaves – in fact they had no word for “servant” and as currency did not generally exist there was no system of payment for services. A servant/slave received board and lodging and was treated kindly or not depending on their master; it was the normal situation. Exploitation of slaves probably began with the Muslim invasions in the 7th century and trading of slaves with the setting up of Portuguese trading posts in the 15th and 16th centuries. As the trade became lucrative raids were carried out by Muslim and African traders to bring slaves to the coast to trade to Europeans. This cruel trade aroused the indignation of many in Britain. Although the slave trade from west and east Africa was officially abolished in 1808, it continued to operate across the Sahara.

James Richardson (1809-1851) was a British evangelist and a passionate opponent of the slave trade. He convinced the British Government to equip an expedition into “Sudan” (a general term for Central-West Africa) as “a journey of discovery and philanthropy through the great desert of Sahara to Central Africa”. His solutions to the slave trade problem were to replace it by trade of legitimate goods, and to establish Christian missions and a network of British consulates from “which could radiate the light of British Christian civilisation”. He also wanted to promote the sciences of geography, ethnology and general knowledge.

The instructions from the Government were to explore Lake Chad, after which Richardson should return to England while Barth and Overweg went on to Mombasa!

Richardson chose to travel across the Sahara because he believed it to be “healthy and free from pestiferous maladies”. He took with him Heinrich Barth, an expert in languages including Arabic, and Adolf Overweg, a geologist and astronomer. They left Tripoli in March 1850, carrying among other gear a boat on the backs of camels. At Dhamergou they split up: Barth to travel on to Kano, Overweg to Gobir and Richardson to Zinder. They were to rendezvous west of Lake Chad, in August 1851. Richardson however died of fatigue and fever before they met. Barth managed to find Lake Chad after a difficult search through the swamps surrounding it, and he and Overweg continued to explore it by boat. Overweg died of an unknown illness on 4 March 1851. Eduard Vogel was sent two years later to replace Richardson and bring supplies to Barth. He met Barth but they didn't get along and Vogel went off to explore on his own. In southern Sudan he offended local people by climbing a sacred mountain and was beaten to death by iron-tipped cudgels. Barth was the only survivor of the expedition.

**THIS BOOK IS VERY FRAGILE – PLEASE EXAMINE
THE FRONTISPIECE AND TITLE PAGE ONLY**

Richard Burton. 1860. The lake regions of central Africa. pg 967 T a

Since Greek and Roman times the Nile and its source had fascinated anyone with curiosity. Emperor Nero had sent two centurions to discover it in the first century AD, but they were blocked by the Sudd swamps in southern Sudan. Early maps such as that of Ptolemy in 150 AD showed it rising from two lakes somewhere to the south. It was rumoured to rise in the mysterious “Mountains of the Moon”.

In the mid-19th century there was a burst of interest in finding the source of the Nile. In 1618 the source of the Blue Nile had been discovered in Ethiopia by the Jesuit priest Pedro Paez and “re-discovered” by the Scottish explorer James Bruce in 1770. There were reports of the existence of great lakes in Central Africa, and it was suspected that these could be the source of the White Nile.

This book describes Richard Burton’s attempt to find the source of the White Nile, under the auspices of the Royal Geographical Society. Burton was already an experienced explorer, having explored parts of Arabia and Ethiopia disguised as a Muslim. Accompanied by John Speke, another experienced traveller, plus 130 porters, guides and soldiers, he set off from Zanzibar on 5th June 1857. Burton hated Speke (and vice versa) and only took him along from a sense of obligation. Throughout the book he never refers to him by name but only as “my companion”. From the start they suffered greatly from the usual problems of travel in Africa in those days: disease (probably malaria), pack animals dying, porters absconding with their supplies and equipment, intransigence of local chieftains. They arrived at Ujiji on Lake Tanganyika on 13th February 1858, being the first Europeans to see the lake, but didn’t realise it was over 400 miles (ca. 675 km) long! Speke was temporarily blind so was unable to see it properly, but on the return journey Burton fell ill, and Speke went on to explore Lake Victoria, which he thought was the source of the Nile. He was unable to prove this as he only reached its southern end. They returned to England in May 1859.

In 1862 Speke took a second expedition to Lake Victoria in company of James Grant, but was still unable to prove conclusively that it is the source of the Nile.

However, the explorations of Burton and Speke enabled the central lakes of Africa to be mapped.

On 16 September 1864, Burton and Speke were scheduled to debate the source of the Nile at a meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, but unfortunately Speke accidentally shot himself while hunting partridges the day before the meeting.

John S. Roberts 187? The life and explorations of David Livingstone, the great missionary traveller, carefully compiled from reliable sources. J.G. Murdoch, London. rg 920 L c.

David Livingstone, a Scottish doctor, came to Africa as a missionary in 1841, but later became an explorer. He never lost his zeal for spreading Christianity and set an example of it in his patience and kindness to the African people. Like Richardson he was anxious to end the slave trade which still existed despite having been officially abolished.

Livingstone's early explorations began from Cape Town. Hie first major expedition began in 1849 and took him, in company of another explorer William Cotton Oswell, across the Kalahari Desert to the Zambesi River. They followed the Zambesi upstream for about 300 km then headed north and west, accompanied by 27 Kololo warriors as guides. They arrived at Luanda on the west coast of Africa in May 1854, having undergone many difficulties including theft, desertion, unreliable attendants, bureaucracy and above all sickness. Livingstone was near death from fever when they arrived in Luanda. The return journey took Livingstone across the continent from west to east, returning to the Zambesi which he then followed, arriving at Quelimane on the coast of Mozambique in May 1856. On the way he way he visited a waterfall known to the Africans as Mosi-oa-Tunya (the Smoke that Thunders) and named it the Victoria Falls after Queen Victoria. He was the first European to see the Falls and the first to cross the continent of Africa. Livingstone's motto "Christianity, Commerce and Civilization" is inscribed on his statue which has been erected at Victoria Falls.

Back in Britain Livingstone was hailed as having opened up Africa and was awarded the Royal Geographic Society's Patron's Medal.

Livingstone's second expedition (the "Zambesi expedition") from 1858 to 1864 was designed to examine trade routes under the auspices of the British Foreign Office. It was beset by even more problems than usual including the death of his wife Mary who accompanied him. Despite this he gathered a great deal of information.

It was on his last journey, commenced in 1866, that Livingstone disappeared. Enthused by the quest for the source of the Nile he set out from Zanzibar in search of it. He believed that it was not located in the Great Lakes, but somewhere further to the south. The journey was terrible: Porters and assistants deserted him, absconded with his supplies and medicines, and his health was failing. He reached the Lualaba River and thought that it was an upper reach of the Nile, but was too ill and short of supplies to explore further. Worst of all he witnessed a terrible massacre of Africans by Arab slavers and lost heart to go on. He returned to Ujiji on the east side of Lake Tanganyika where local people cared for him. Too ill to move and lacking any resources he remained there.

The outside world had no news of Livingstone and it was rumoured that he was dead.

THE BEAUTIFUL COVER OF THIS BOOK IS LOOSE AND HAS BEEN PLACED SEPARATELY. PLEASE HANDLE IT AND THE REST OF THE BOOK CAREFULLY.

**Henry Morton Stanley. 1872. How I found Dr. Livingstone in Central Africa. rg
967 T a**

When Livingstone had been missing for six years, the editor of the New York Herald decided that it would be a great publicity stunt if one of its journalists could find him. Henry Morton Stanley, an experienced adventurer who had previously travelled in Ethiopia as a war correspondent was assigned the task. He set off from Zanzibar on the 21st March 1871. He discovered that Livingstone had been last heard of at the village of Ujiji on the east shore of Lake Tanganyika, and that there was a white man still living there. Stanley travelled along established trade routes – but getting to Ujiji involved all the normal hassles of African travel. He prepared well, by taking bales of cloth, barrels of beads etc which are required as payment for passing tribal lands and for supplies, plus the usual stocks of medicine and ammunition. Nevertheless travel wasn't easy; as well as the normal trials of sickness, theft and obstruction he was delayed for 51 days at Unyanyembe by becoming involved in a tribal war. Eventually he reached Ujiji where he found Livingstone and greeted him with the famous words "Dr. Livingstone I presume". When Livingstone had recovered his health sufficiently, they took a trip together by canoe to the northern end of Lake Tanganyika.

Stanley tried to persuade Livingstone to return with him to the coast, and to England, but Livingstone was determined to continue his exploration and return to the Lualaba river to prove that it connected with the Nile. He died however before he could do so, on 1st May 1873 at Chipundu in what is now Zambia. The Lualaba is actually a tributary of the Congo.

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T. Baines 1865. The Victoria Falls, Zambesi River, sketched on the spot during the journey of J. Chapman and T. Baines. rgspb 916.891 B162 d 1865

Thomas Baines was an English artist. He had already accompanied Augustus Gregory's 1855–1857 expedition across northern Australia, sponsored by the Royal Geographical Society, as official artist and storekeeper. In 1858 he started out with David Livingstone's unsuccessful Zambesi expedition but was dismissed by Livingstone's brother Charles on (vehemently denied) charges of appropriating provisions from the expedition store for his own use.

James Chapman was a trader, hunter and explorer from Cape Colony (South Africa). He had already explored the Zambesi River two years before Livingstone, but did not get as far as the Victoria Falls. He and Baines met in Cape Town and in 1860 they teamed up, together with Chapman's brother Henry, to visit the Falls and then explore the Zambesi to its mouth. As usual the expedition was marred by sickness and other misfortunes and they never reached the mouth, but they did reach the Falls on 23rd July 1862.

Baines painted the beautiful pictures shown in this book, while Chapman recorded the trip in a series of stereoscopic photographs.

MAP SHOWING EXPLORATIONS DISCUSSED IN THIS PRESENTATION

