INTRODUCTION

Created in 1883 under the instruction of the Geographical Society of Lisbon, the Portuguese Commission of Cartography (PCC) was assigned to produce a collection of credible and accurate maps of all of Portugal’s overseas territories.1 Its subsequent scope, however, extended far beyond this initial purpose. Today, the PCC’s legacy has become an important corpus of information on Portuguese colonial policy and on Portugal’s former overseas territories. Yet, it is only recently that the highly diverse collection of the PCC has become the object of systematic scrutiny.

However, there has been no overall assessment of the importance of the PCC archives. First of all, until recently most of them remained unknown—with only very few exceptions. Second, the PCC archives were dispersed across several research units in the Tropical Research Institute (Instituto de Investigação Científica Tropical, IICT) in Lisbon.
A third element is that what we now call the archives of the Portuguese Commission of Cartography is a wide and heterogeneous collection of documents and equipment produced or used by the PCC between 1883 and 1936, when it was abolished. These documents concern all former Portuguese colonies, and along with equipment used during the PCC’s survey missions, they include: scientific findings, official and diplomatic documents, correspondence, proceedings of the meetings held by the joint commissions, reports, field notes, geographic coordinates, topographic and geodesic works, sketches, maps, photographs, and detailed descriptions of the various landscapes and beacons. These materials can be grouped under three headings. These are: first, the Map Collection (10 folders with 481 manuscript maps and sketches on Mozambique as well as some printed copies and a few maps used but not produced by the PCC); second, the Archive of the Frontiers (the record of the daily works of the commissions involved in the demarcation and delimitation of the frontiers); and third, the Geographic Registries (relating to the fieldwork by members of the Geographic Survey Mission).  

For more than half a century, this collection was only accessible via old catalogues. These, however, were not kept as part of the IICT’s central archive but, instead, entrusted to the Centro de Estudos de Historia e Cartografia Antiga (Centre for the study of History and Antique Cartography, CEHCA), one of the research centres of the Institute. Researchers here and at the Department of Human Sciences made sporadic use of this collection, but a systematic scrutiny of these materials did not take place until there was a recent reorganization of the IICT. The need for such a critical examination resulted in —amongst other things— the project on Political Cartography and Colonial Territories. This and other projects reflect the strategic objectives of the IICT with regard to the members of the Community of Portuguese Language Countries (CPLP), namely to “[facilitate] access of CPLP countries to its vast historic and scientific heritage, as recommended by the CPLP Ministers of Science and Technology in 2003.” Also, these projects are a response to the recent demand of the Portuguese-Speaking African Countries (Países Africanos de Língua Oficial Portuguesa, PALOP) to access the official documents on borders and provide the necessary support to the border demarcation process which is presently in progress, in order to observe the resolutions of the African Union Border Declaration Programme. A recent report by the Instituto do Mar e das Fronteiras from Mozambique (IMAF 2009) indeed, states, with regard to Mozambique, that the lack of these documents has been a major restriction in settling the country’s international boundaries: Mozambique has 2,685 kilometres of terrestrial and 2,700 kilometres of maritime borders, which they share, respectively, with six and four other.
countries. Therefore, the project on political cartography also became a starting point from which to address the PALOP’s concerns. Maps and other documents were scanned to create a cartographic database that was subsequently cross-referenced with the reports, photographs, and other materials, whether within the PCC collection or not. That way, the collection was made available for future studies (Santos 2006).

Creating this database and adapting it to the specific history and situation of each country constituted the bulk of the work. In the case of Cape Verde, Angola and Mozambique, it immediately began to function as a base for further research and ensuing deployment studies. In Mozambique, the project began with a study of the PCC maps, in order to evaluate their importance in understanding the physical evolution of the coastal areas and its consequences (Roque and Ferrão 2006a, 2006b and 2007). The results suggested that climate change, for instance, was already affecting the Mozambican coast long before the impact of humanity in the late 20th century. This resulted in an ensuing research project that broadened our scope to include the more inland areas of Mozambique.

THE PCC AND THE DEFINITION OF THE MOZAMBIAN BORDER

In the past, the PCC documents relating to border delimitation and demarcation were classified under the title Archive of the Frontiers. Apart from the maps, this archive contains hundreds of photos and thousands of handwritten entries. For central and southern Mozambique, most of these materials were produced in the late 19th century, following the Berlin Conference of 1885. These documents shed new light on the particular history of this region: they demonstrate that, in some cases, the occupation and demarcation of territories did not necessarily occur in accordance with the decisions taken in Berlin.

The Mozambique-Transvaal borderline, for instance, was already laid down some 15 years before the conference, and, in 1885, the Governments of Lourenço Marques and the Transvaal were setting up commissions to carry out the fieldwork needed for its physical demarcation. As José Machado’s sketch illustrates, negotiations and construction works for the road and railway connection between Pretoria and Lourenço Marques were already well on their way on the eve of the Berlin Conference (see figure 1). Defining this border (and having it recognized), however, was dependent upon finding an agreement with regard to all the southern borders of Mozambique, which, at the time, corresponded to the area of the Lourenço Marques District, regardless of any international decision. Indeed, while it solved the question of the Mozambique-Transvaal border, this particular demarcation process created a problem elsewhere —where Mozambique bordered Swaziland and Thongaland (Roque 2010; see below).

Nevertheless, the process of dividing and occupying Africa must be considered within the broader scope of European presence and interest. By the end of the 19th century, in the full scramble for Africa, Portugal felt pushed to define the borders of the African territories it had claimed since the 1500s. The possibility of a new, redesigned, map of Africa —following the decisions made in Berlin— combined with the need for an effective occupation of the claimed territory, fuelled the Portuguese fear that the small and scattered Portuguese settlements along the Mozambican coast (from Lourenço Marques Bay up to Cape Delgado) would not suffice to substantiate the pretense of Portuguese sovereignty over a wider territory of which nobody knew its true extent (Botelho 1936:269).

For more than three centuries, the Portuguese had not given consideration to any border other than the Indian Ocean. This was the only frontier separating the known and the unknown, dividing between “two states of the geographical
space” (Gadal and Jeansoulin 2000:14). This distinction is crucial for the understanding of Portuguese expansion and settlement: the coastal area was the borderland that could (and, in view of Portugal’s pretense to mediate between Africa and the Orient, should) be occupied, regardless of the existing Muslim settlements along the coast, and regardless of any African political or territorial division at the time. For the Portuguese administration, any borders except the so-called natural barriers, were temporary: every itinerary brought another limen, and any new border that might result from these travels was just an adjustment to a changing reality.

During this period, Portuguese explorers, missionaries, travellers, and traders were travelling across Africa, from Mozambique to Angola, entering into the interior and extending their contacts and commercial influence.12 Establishing trade networks and influence, though, was completely different from exerting political control. The acceptance of Portuguese authority was laid down in agreements and treaties with the local authorities, but they meant different things to the various actors involved — even if these treaties included the payment of tribute. Like the Portuguese, African rulers were quick to identify the benefits of commercial relations but, unlike them, they did not consider such relations to be a political compromise of any kind, and felt free to rule their subjects and territories as they had always done. As Landow (2001) suggests, these African agents perceived the border in a completely different way than did the Portuguese: African rulers were concerned with people, not with territories, and the basis for prosperity, political power and stability was networks of kinship. In this sense, the state as a bounded, well-defined geographical entity was an alien concept: borders were useless and meaningless, as power was negotiated between people. As Landow (2001:1) writes: “where the people went, there the state went.” No wonder then that the colonial history of Mozambique is rife with reports of broken treaties, conventions or agreements between Portugal and the local chiefdoms: the different parties differed considerably in their understanding of the relationship between people, state, and territory (Roque 2012). We will probably never know to what extent the Portuguese authorities were conscious of this situation or to what extent Portuguese officials even cared — as long as the crown could continue to collect taxes and the Portuguese explorers and merchants could keep safely travelling in the interior whilst expanding their trading networks.

These diverging perceptions are reflected in the maps from this period. The African ideas on political space and shifting borders, and the sheer multitude of local chiefdoms, were impossible to graphically represent on European maps. This resulted in a lack of descriptions and graphic representations of the interior. This lack, however, also reflected Portuguese ideas on political control and colonial rule (see above). By the middle of the 19th century, however, the Portuguese Government was compelled to invest in cartographical, geographical and hydrographical surveys (Fig. 2.2) or to go ahead with a military occupation of the territories it claimed (Santos
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Border Area</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Fieldwork</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Incomãti-Metinga tinga</td>
<td>1887</td>
<td>Border delimitation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singuedézi-Incomãti-Pafuri</td>
<td>1890</td>
<td>Border delimitation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singuedézi-Pafuri</td>
<td>1894</td>
<td>Borderline definition (agreement)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Border demarcation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Transvaal-Mozambique (Lourenço Marques District)</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Swaziland-Mozambique</td>
<td>1894</td>
<td>Border delimitation</td>
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<td>1900</td>
<td>and demarcation</td>
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<td>1898</td>
<td>Border demarcation (readjustments)</td>
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<td>1900</td>
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<tr>
<td>Confluence of the Rivers</td>
<td>1894</td>
<td>Determination of the geographic</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pongolo and Maputo</td>
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<td>position of the point of confluence</td>
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<td>Delimitation (confirmation of the</td>
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<td>Thongaland-Mozambique</td>
<td>1895</td>
<td>Border delimitation</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1896</td>
<td>and demarcation</td>
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<td>1897</td>
<td>Border demarcation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1898</td>
<td>(readjustments)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Southern Mozambique: Portuguese Commission of Cartography / Commission of Delimitation of Frontiers (late 19th century).

Fig. 2.4. Wagon with supplies: Caravan of the Portuguese Commission for the Delimitation of the Mozambique-Transvaal Border (1890-91). AHU Photo Archive of the Portuguese Commission of Cartography, Album 10-3280.

1997): an effective territorial presence was the only criterion by which one's political claims on a given territory could be internationally recognized, and by which one might ward off rivals in the scramble for Africa. Maps like the one by Augusto de Castilho were indispensable in substantiating Portuguese claims in Africa.

Created in 1883 under the rule of the State Department for the Navy and Overseas Affairs, and closely connected to the Portuguese Geographic Society, the PCC was charged with drawing up an atlas of the Portuguese colonial territories as well as with developing a cartographical discipline to support the creation of maps. PCC members were carefully chosen. Most of them were reputed military or naval officers with long experience of survey missions in the area. The first five mem...
bers chosen for the PCC included Hermenegildo Capelo and Roberto Ivens, the first Portuguese explorers to cross the interior of Africa from Angola to Mozambique in 1884–85 (Capelo and Ivens 1886). Their knowledge and experience justified their involvement in the most important operations in the region and their participation in the special commissions dealing with the definition of the borders of the Portuguese territories in Africa. Between 1887 and 1900 PCC members were not only instrumental in carrying out several cartographic surveys, they were also directly involved in the commissions which had been created for the purpose of delimiting and demarcating the southern borders of Mozambique with the territories of Transvaal, Swaziland, and Thongaland (see Table 1). In this, the PCC was either directly involved (through conducting fieldwork and negotiations), or indirectly (through its role as an expert body on cartographic and geographic issues). Therefore, PCC members turned out to be of crucial importance not only for increasing the knowledge on Portuguese colonial territories and the progressive recognition of Portugal’s claims to them, but also for the implementation of Portuguese colonial policy there.

THE ARCHIVE OF THE FRONTIERS: AN OVERVIEW

The Archive of the Frontiers is a collection of the daily accounts of several Portuguese commissions created for the purpose of border delimitation and demarcation of Portuguese overseas territories in Africa and Timor, and of their dealings with a range of European and African commissions involved in the same process, such as the British Commission (Thongaland-Mozambique), the Boer Commission of Transvaal (Transvaal-Mozambique), or the British Commission representing the Protectorate of Swaziland (Mussuaté-Mozambique). The work of these joint commissions operating all over southeastern Africa in the late 19th century resulted in

a considerable corpus of documents that provides ample information on the region and on the particulars of the border-making process that established the boundaries of present-day Mozambique, Swaziland, and part of South Africa. The facticity of these particular borders may lead us to forget that, prior to their final demarcation, long discussions and negotiations had to take place, and that the outcome of these negotiations had a profound impact on European policy—not to mention their influence on local kingdoms and chieftaincies, which were not involved in the talks. Still, the sheer number of subjects, the specific information on the technical and scientific aspects of fieldwork or on the nature of the discussions and negotiations, and the amount of detail on the surveyed territories and their populations (including their attitudes towards the division of their lands) contained within these documents is astonishing.

Fieldwork: logistic, technical and scientific work

The Archive of the Frontiers testifies to the number of people, scientific instruments, groceries, cattle, transportation (see Fig. 2.3) and equipment that needed to be mobilized in order to get the work done. Survey missions also required camping facilities in the areas under surveillance, requiring additional logistics. Conversely, these logistics often required additional surveys of the region to be undertaken, in order to locate local resources (namely water, wood and game) in order to maintain each commission’s caravan (see Fig. 2.4). Details on the composition of each caravan, or on what it carried, inform us about its capacity to move through the region, on the specific needs of each camp, or (even) on each commission’s particular attitude toward the region they were traversing. According, for instance, to a preliminary report by Freire de Andrade, the different composition of the Boer and Portuguese caravans reflected the capacity for quick movement of the Boers compared to the Portuguese, but imposed special condi
tions that their camping area needed to be near good hunting ground. A daily hunting trip guaranteed them their food, and this was also the reason why one of the Boer commissioners was a reputed hunter. This, however, also meant that they could not venture for long in areas without game (Roque 2009).

The need for rigorous and systematic work to update the topographic and geodetic registries, to determine the coordinates of the beacons to be built, or to draw precise maps, compelled the use of accurate instruments and techniques, and the presence of experts in using them (see Fig.5). Both were indispensable, and the work often needed to be interrupted or postponed because one or other of them was unavailable. The extensive notes on procedures used and on the technicalities of the instruments deployed, and on the way they met the requirements (or not) of the different situations encountered in the field, resulted in a better understanding of their possibilities, but also necessitated new experiments. Hence, the border process became a campus for the development and application of new scientific methods: the border was also a scientific frontier.

The definition of the borderlines: discussions, agreements and impositions

One of the most revealing aspects of the information provided by the Archive of the Frontiers concerns details of the discussions and previous agreements on the definition of the borders of Mozambique. Final decisions often came as a result of a long period of meetings involving the commissions officially appointed to discuss the technical problems related to the delimitation and demarcation of the African territories. For southern Mozambique these commissions involved two European colonial powers (Britain and Portugal), and one Afrikaner (Transvaal) working together in joint commissions (Fig. 2.6) As already mentioned, African rulers were never considered as partners in these discussions, and their petitions or their will were always disregarded. The notes on the proceedings of these joint commissions clarify what were the real interests at stake. Predefined lines (rectilinear or not) were not always possible to apply in the field, and readjustments had to be made. Also, individual interests sometimes interfered. These adjustments, indeed, constitute an important part of the work of the joint commissions.

The long discussion on the borderline along the Limoombo’s mountain crest clearly illustrates these difficulties. This border was agreed upon in a treaty between the Governments of Portugal and the Transvaal in 1869, and ratified in 1871, but it turned out to be the most difficult one to settle. Its negotiation and implementation also affected the negotiation process on the rest of southern Mozambique’s borders with the Transvaal and Swaziland.
For a start, there was no agreement on exactly where the mountain crest was on the Mozambican side, nor on the position of some of the hills mentioned. Also, it was almost impossible to reconcile the existing definition of the border with the very geographic orientation of these mountains and the toponymy of the most relevant geographic features considered—even after the 1869 treaty had been corrected in 1875 with, among other things, a more precise circumscription of the borderline.21 And if this problem (the location of the mountain range) could be solved with new observations and a registration of the precise geographic coordinates, the problem of the toponymy, was even more difficult to solve as it depended upon information given by local people as well as upon local knowledge.

Local toponymy reflected the social organization of local societies, which was largely unknown to the PCC. This discrepancy reflected the lack of cognisance of the region and exposed deficiencies in the way that information had been collected. This necessitated the importance of verifying all the data in situ, as it was the only way to have the border accepted by the parties involved in the negotiation process.

Moreover, after the borderline was defined, in 1887, it had direct implications for the demarcation of the Mozambique-Swaziland border, as it was going to divide land areas that the Swazi king had recently granted to individuals and industrial companies. The petitions presented to the Luso-Swazi Commission in 1899 clearly illustrate this situation. Also, they highlight the position of both the Transvaal and Swaziland commissioners towards the owners of the concessions.22

On the one hand, there were the missionaries and inhabitants of “Lebombo Portuguese South East Africa.”23 They defended the position that the area under discussion “always has been recognized as Portuguese territory,” and expressed the hope that the joint commission “will not consent to the present boundary being altered” as they had all built their houses there, “expended much money and opened up the country to trade” and that even the local population, “a mixture of all types of kaffirs with some kaffir refugees,”24 considered themselves not Swazi but to be under Portuguese sovereignty. On the other hand, there were the petitions asking that the land between the two countries not be divided. These requests were filed by industrial and commercial enterprises25 and by important farmers who owned vast stretches of land in the region, most of them recently acquired by concession in an area they knew was disputed.26 Several meetings to solve this dispute were organized between 1897 and 1899. In October 1899, however, the war between the British and the Boers broke out. As a result, negotiations were suspended, and at the beginning of the 20th century the borderline remained undefined.27
These demarcation problems resulted from the conflicts between colonizing powers, and their strategies to expand and consolidate their possessions in Africa. Nevertheless, the border-making process also affected local, African, kingdoms and chieftaincies, at least indirectly. Even though information on land disputes involving local communities is relatively scarce in the PCC archives, the few exceptions in southern Mozambique concern areas (Thongaland and some areas located in today’s Kruger Park) that were considered crucial for British claims in the region, and it probably is no coincidence that these cases are documented in the reports and minutes by members of the Commission (Roque 2009).

Northern Thongaland bordered southern Lourenço Marques Bay (Delagoa Bay) and was historically coveted by the British. The possibility of creating a British Thonga Protectorate would have provided Britain with the opportunity to define a buffer zone that stretched from the coast to the Transvaal, thus preventing the Boers from accessing the Portuguese port of Lourenço Marques and the English port of Durban. Also, such a protectorate would have resulted in the possibility of creating new alternative seaports to facilitate British-controlled exports from Swaziland (Machado 1889a:28–29; Gibbs 1889:53).

The Portuguese authorities and Thonga rulers, in contrast, invoked the historical relations between Portugal and the Tembe-Thonga chieftaincy and the treaties they concluded in 1823 and 1870 to preserve the unity of Thonga territory under the Portuguese Crown (Machado 1889a:20). For the Portuguese, preserving this unity was a first step in extending their power much further south than the historical boundaries they had been claiming: this southern limit of the Portuguese territories had been established and internationally recognized at the parallel 26° 30’ latitude South. Thonga territory, however, stretched from southern Lourenço Marques Bay to the parallel 72° 30’ latitude South, near the Ozimkulu River. For Thonga, the unity of their territory was a guarantee of their survival. Any attempt to carve up the territory would lead to
Thonga being divided into different colonial systems, depriving them of their original territory and affecting their identity as a community, as well as forcing internal organizational changes. The several petitions that Thonga spokespersons presented during the Luso-British discussion on the border demarcation stressed the geo-climatic differences within their territory; they claimed that these different areas were complementary and supported diverse economic activities and livelihoods. They also pointed out that an arbitrary decision to divide the land would severely affect Thonga socio-economic structure (Roque 2010). Nevertheless, none of the Thonga petitions were considered and all the meetings held by either the British or the Portuguese with Queen Zambili of Maputo proved to be nothing but a means by which to appease Zambili’s subjects as Thonga demands were not listened to or considered. Finally, the British succeeded in having a final demarcation accepted at 26° 52’ latitude South, along the Maputo River (Fig.7), from the confluence with the Pongolo up to the coast near Ponta do Ouro.

Even when the works proceeded without too many difficulties, the meetings were often suspended because of different opinions regarding specific aspects of the border, forcing the teams to go back to the field to “enable both commissions to lay on the table their sketches and maps for the better explanation of their arguments.” Similarly, the works could be stalled because natural features of the landscape forced the members of the joint commissions to come up with alternatives to the predefined lines. One such occasion was when the joint Anglo-Portuguese commission agreed that the riverbanks at the confluence of the Pongolo and Maputo River (Fig.8), were too unstable to carry the weight of the beacons that were supposed to be constructed there.31
Once the borderline design was settled, topographical and geodesic works had to be undertaken, along with the clearing of the places where the beacons (Fig. 9) had to be erected. Also, the area around and between these beacons needed to be cleared of bushes and trees, so as to ensure total visibility from one beacon to another. This clearing of the border had a severe impact on both the landscape, and on the land use of local communities; consequences that had not been foreseen by the Europeans in their discussions. Still, the effects of this procedure were quite visible: in a small area such as the Thongaland border, a 27 kilometre-wide strip of woodland was destroyed by the cutting and cleaning of a border that was only 50 kilometres long, making the land useless for the local communities. 32 Even if certain areas witnessed a rapid regeneration of the vegetation, 33 most places were deeply affected by the systematic use of this procedure (Roque 2009). The demarcation of the boundary confronted the local population (that mostly depended on cattle raising, supplemented by hunting and the cultivation of a few crops), with an artificial border that was completely alien to them. More important, however, was that they were being deprived of a substantial part of their resources (such as water, game, grazing, wild fruits, herbs, and fuel). When taking into account Mozambique’s almost 3,000 kilometres of inland boundary, one cannot help but fear that the local repercussions of the boundary-making process must have been enormous.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Obviously, the making of boundaries had profound impacts on the local landscape and its inhabitants. Some of these consequences were intentional, whilst others were not. Almost certain is that the Europeans involved did not lose much sleep in thinking about them. Important, however, is that the very detailed reports by the various commissions on their boundary-making activities provide us with an important source of information on the various issues discussed above, that might help us to understand the particulars of the historical development of this region. Also, these reports are a valuable source on the geography, biology, and ethnography of the colonial landscape before and after the demarcation of the border (Roque 2009). Interesting to note in this regard is that, during the period discussed, photography slowly made its entry into the colonial repertoire and the different survey missions made ample use of this new technology. The PCC was in charge of these photos, and probably for this reason, a first photo laboratory opened in Lourenço Marques in the late 19th century. 34 It is in this photo collection that we often find information that is missing in the written documents. A good example would be the photographs of the construction of the railway between the Transvaal and Lourenço Marques (Fig. 10). Since 1874, this railway was high on the agenda of the meetings that were held to negotiate the demarcation of the Transvaal-Mozambique border.

As already mentioned, the analysis in this chapter is the result of only a first, tentative effort to make use of the PCC archives. It does not even come close to an overview of all the information they contain, and can only guess at what the result would be if we were able to cross-reference the various types of documents. However, on the basis of our knowledge of the Commission’s maps, and on the basis of the quality of the information that can already be checked, it is apparent that these archives can shed new light on various aspects of the history of this region. Therefore, the various nuclei of the PCC archives will prove not only to be important on the international, political and judicial stage, but could also contribute to a global understanding of the region’s past and present.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This chapter is one of the outcomes of the project Political Cartography and Colonial Territories (2003-2006), and of the project Knowledge and recognition in areas of Portuguese influence: registries, scientific expeditions, traditional knowledge and biodiversity in Subsaharan Africa and Insulindia (FCT HC0075/2009).

NOTES

1 Decree of 19 April 1883 of the Ministry of the Navy and Overseas Territories, Barbosa du Bocage.

2 During the colonial period, the Geographic Survey Mission (MGM) was the institution responsible for geographic missions abroad. Its geographic registries were held in the former Center of Geodesy and are now entrusted to the Center for Geoinformation and Development (GeoDES). They include all the records on the geographic coordinates and descriptions of the boundary marks as well as topographic and geodetic data, photos, reports and instruments used by the MGM.

3 The IICT’s central archive is the Historical Overseas Archive (Arquivo Histórico Ultramarino, AHU).


5 Presently the IICT has two other projects related to the legacy of the PCC, namely “Knowledge and recognition in areas of Portuguese influence: registries, scientific expeditions, traditional knowledge and biodiversity in Subsaharan Africa and Insulindia” (FCT HC0075/2009) and “Half a century of colonial science: crossing views on the archive and the scientific activity of the Comissão de Cartografia (1883–1936)” (FCT HC 006752009).


7 PALOP (African Countries of Portuguese Speaking Language) are Angola, Cape Verde, Guinea-Bissau, Mozambique and São Tomé and Príncipe.


9 Mozambique shares its border with South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia, Malawi, Zimbabwe and Tanzania. The maritime border involves, besides Mozambique, South Africa, Madagascar, Comoros and Tanzania.

10 See the project on “Knowledge and recognition in areas of Portuguese influence…”

11 At the time of writing, the pictures are inventoried and scanned but remain without context. See http://www2.iict.pt/?idc=100&id=1 /http://www.tvciencia.pt/tvcien/pagica/tvcien01.asp, accessed June 24 2011. The hand written materials are summarily inventoried, but hitherto hardly ever used (see IICT 2006).

12 From the late 18th century onwards, Portuguese travellers started to go deeper in the remote interior and the hinterland between Angola and Mozambique was slowly being absorbed into the Portuguese commercial area of influence. The travel of Jucarda e Almeida to the Cazembe (1788), the first travels down the Zambezi River (before 1803) and to the Alto do Casali (1805) and the travel of the Pombiers (1802–1811) are some good examples of this.

13 Accordingly to different periods, the Transvaal can appear under the names of African Dutch Republic (before 1853), Zuid-Afrikanesche Republiek, or South African Republic.

14 Musurate or Mussurate chieftaincy.

15 Maputo, Maputaland or territory of the Amatongas.

16 MCP 30 5 2 (see list of archival references).

17 MCP 33–3 (see list of archival references). The Portuguese caravan included three wagons pulled by 55 donkeys and one wagon pulled by 14 oxen, four wagon drivers with four assistants and 38 indigenous porters, plus the five members of the Commission, seven horses, all the technical instruments, camping materials and the most possible basic supplies enough to sustain the 51 persons and the 76 animals of the caravan; while
the Boer caravan, other than the five commissioners, included 156 indigenous porters, mostly Swazi, under the rule of seven police agents from Lydenburg district, and 12 horses.

28 MCP 30 2:12. Mozambique-Thongaland Border Process (see list of archival references).

29 Mac Mahon sentence, July 24 1875.

30 Minute of the meeting held on the 7th August 1894, on the Matangatinga, west of Lebombo Mountains. 230p.m. MCA Env.19. Mozambique-Swaziland Border Process (see list of archival references).

31 Minute of the 2nd session of the Anglo-Portuguese Commission on the delimitation of the Maputo border (Tonga land), Lourenço Marques, 29th Sept. 1897. MCA Env.21. Mozambique-Thongaland Border Process (see list of archival references).


34 MCA Env.20 and 21. Mozambique-Transvaal Border Process (see list of archival references). Until the moment there is no written reference to this laboratory in these archives but the building was photographed in 1889 and 1891, and the photos are lettered and included in the photo albums of this collection.

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Portuguese Commission of Cartography — Photo Collection. Tropical Research Institute. DCH — Archive ex-CEHCA and AHU
- AHU Moçambique Album 1 (Doc.139) — Delimitação de Fronteira em Moçambique com Missão Inglesa (s.d).
- AHU Moçambique Album 10 (Doc.148) — Comissão de Delimitação de Fronteira de Lourenço Marques (1890/91).
### APPENDIX

**ARCHIVE OF THE FRONTIERS: MAPS, MANUSCRIPTS AND PHOTOS CONCERNING SOUTHERN MOZAMBIQUE BORDER IN THE LATE 19TH CENTURY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>AF Documents</th>
<th>AF Photos</th>
<th>CC Maps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transvaal /</td>
<td>1884-91</td>
<td>Proceedings of 4 meetings (borderline definition of the border line from the Incomati River to the Singudezi River)</td>
<td>1890-91 - 85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lourenço Marques</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>Official Portuguese documents from the Foreign Affairs Office and from the Governor of Mozambique; Documents concerning border demarcation of Lourenço Marques and the Transvaal; Reports of the joint commissions on the border of Lourenço Marques district; Description of the fieldwork and on all the works done during 1891; Sketches of the area along the border line; Reports on the geodesic and topographic works; Description of the marks between the Incomati River to the Singudezi River; Reports of the Portuguese commissioner on the border of the Lourenço Marques district;</td>
<td>Photos</td>
<td>(1881, 1887, 1890)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maputo / Thongaland</td>
<td>1888-89</td>
<td>Official Portuguese documents from the Governor of Lourenço Marques, the Portuguese Consul in the Cape and the Foreign Affairs Office; Report on the meeting between Portugal and Queen Zambie;</td>
<td>1890-91 - 85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lourenço Marques</td>
<td>99</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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### Area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>AF Documents</th>
<th>AF Photos</th>
<th>CC Maps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1895</td>
<td>Copy of the Sentence of MacMaebon (24th July 1875); Documents regarding the final definition of the southern border of Mozambique accordingly with the Treaty of 11.06.1891; Information on the latitude of the confluence of the Pongolo River with the Maputo River (Usuku River); Opinion of the Portuguese Commission of Cartography (5th Aug. 1895);</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1896</td>
<td>Proceedings of 4 meetings; Note on the procedures to continue or not the works due to heavy rain during 10 days; Documents concerning the demarcation of Thongaland and the definition of the Maputo border line; Sketch Map of the Maputo River; Official Portuguese documents from the Governor of Lourenço Marques, Portuguese Consul in the Cape and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs; Copy of the British Memorandum; Description of the topographic works;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1896-98</td>
<td>Documents concerning Thongaland</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1897</td>
<td>Proceedings of 2 meetings; Description of the Anglo-Portuguese border between the English Protectorsate of Amatongas and the Portuguese possessions on</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>AF Documents</td>
<td>AF Photos</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
| Swaziland (Mozambique) / Lourenço Marques District | 1888-89 | 1888-89:
- Definition of the luso-swazi border;
- Proceedings of 2 meetings;

1892:
- Opinion of the Portuguise Commission of Cartography (14th Jun. 1892);
- Official Portuguese documents from the Foreign Affairs Office

1894:
- Proceedings of 3 meetings (discussion and definition of the border line from M Pondume to the North);

1896-1899:
- Documents of the joint commissions concerning the disagreement on what concerns the determination of the 1st mark south of the Buchanan mark;
- Report of the Portuguese commissioner;
- Opinions of the Portuguise Commission of Cartography (15th Nov. 1897 and 26th April 1898);

1897:
- Proceedings of 3 meetings (discussion and definition of the border line from M Pondume to Maputo River’s gorge);
- Registry of the Portuguise objections about the place for the build

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Year</th>
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<th>AF Photos</th>
<th>CC Maps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| -Proceeding of 5 meetings (discussion and definition of the border line from M Pondume to Maputo River’s gorge);
- Declaration of Mr. Holtman about the jurisdiction of the king of the Swazis and the Portuguise sovereignty;
- Registry of the inquiries to several petitioners;
- Declarations of Mr. Miller and Mr. Forbes in defence of the border line defined in the Treaty of 1888;
- Letter of Mr. Miller;
- Registry of the inquiry to Mr. Jaisen;
- Portuguese Appendix to the Proceeding of the 7th Oct. meeting; | Not yet | 1894-98 - 2 maps identified (1894,1898) |-----------|---------------|