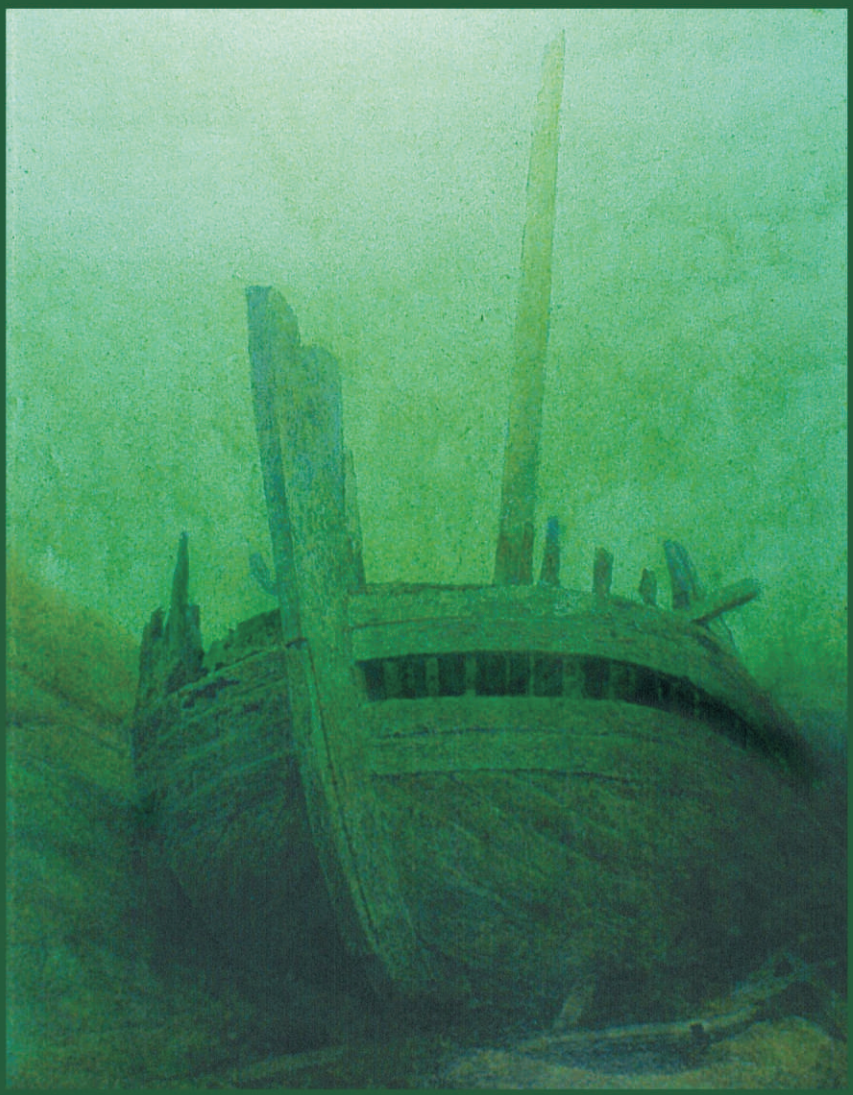
SHIPWRECKS AROUND THE WORLD

Revelations of the Past



Editor
Sila Tripati

Maritime and underwater cultural heritage of the United Republic of Tanzania: History, opportunities and future directions

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Elgidius Ichumbaki B, University of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania

Introduction

Tanzania is blessed with a unique and important maritime history as compared to many other countries of the Indian Ocean coast. The history's uniqueness is due to two main reasons: First, the presence of many water bodies such as rivers and lakes equally distributed in Tanzania, and also the Indian Ocean which stretches from the northeastern to the southeastern parts of Tanzania (Fig. 1). The most known rivers with maritime heritage potentiality include Rufiji, Ruvuma, Pangani, Kagera, Mara, Malagarasi and Wami, just to mention few. The lakes are Victoria, Nyasa, Tanganyika, Rukwa, Eyasi, Manyara and Natron. The second reason is that fishing, transport, trade and contact and the related social interactions had long been part and parcel of the people daily activities in both rivers and lakes and along the coast of the Indian Ocean (Sheriff, 1987; Horton, 1996a; 1996b; Horton and Middleton, 2000; Gilbert, 2002; Ichumbaki, 2011). This marine culture and the related socio - economic undertakings are revealed in different evidences ranging from archaeology, history, architecture, mortuary and numismatics (Chami, 1999; Biginagwa, 2012).

Various studies ranging from the perspectives of history, archaeology, ethnography, anthropology and sociology have shown that Tanzania has been involved in maritime socio-economic interactions since the 1st century AD (Chami, 1994; 1999; 2002; 2006; Lane, 2005; Kwekason, 2010; Christie, 2011; Ichumbaki, 2011; 2012; Biginagwa, 2012). These socio-economic interactions have resulted in a history which needs not only to be explored and made known to all people of the world and Indian Ocean in particular, but also preserved for the benefit of both present and future generations. This paper therefore shall explore the maritime history of Tanzania and indicate opportunities available for both exploring and understanding this maritime history. Finally, the paper explores the future directions for studying, interpreting and understanding the maritime socioeconomic interactions between Tanzania and other parts of the Indian Ocean World.

The United Republic of Tanzania: Location and its Short History

The United Republic of Tanzania lies between latitude 1^{o} and 12^{o}S and longitude 29^{o} and 41^{o}E. It is one among the East African countries bordered by other members as Kenya and Uganda to the north, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Rwanda and Burundi to the west and Zambia, Malawi and Mozambique to the south. The Indian Ocean borders Tanzania on the eastern side. Administratively, the country is divided into about twenty

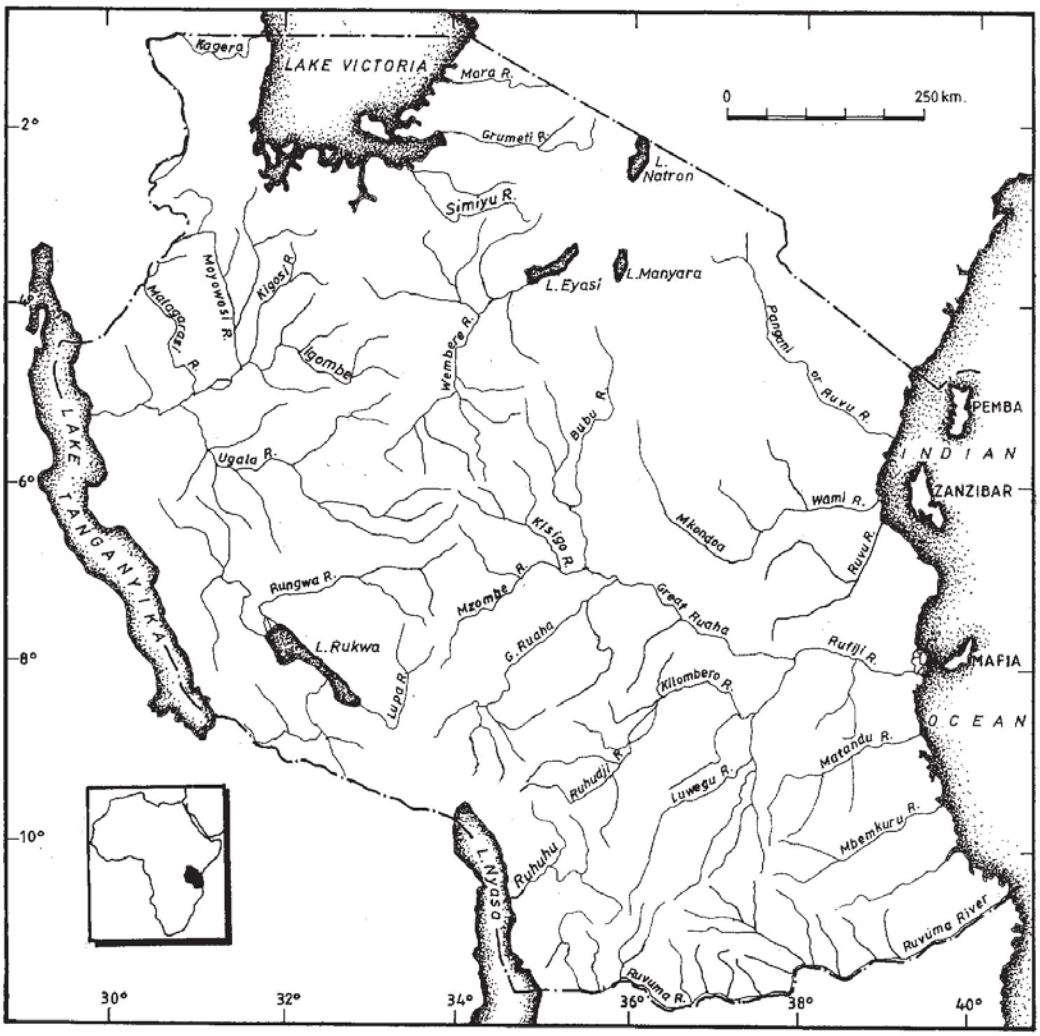


Fig. 1 Map of Tanzania Showing Major Water Bodies: Ocean, Lakes and Rivers (Elgidius Ichumbaki)

nine regions including the islands of Unguja, Pemba and Mafia. Tanzania's principal commercial city, Dar es Salaam serves as the major seaport for the country and its landlocked neighbours such as Rwanda, Burundi, Zambia, Malawi and the Democratic Republic of Congo. This country with an approximated population of about 40 million people (Ichumbaki, 2011) is a home of more than 120 ethnic groups, Mulokozi (2005). Despite each tribe having its own vernacular language, Kiswahili is the major communicating language. Due to the tourist potentiality and fame of these heritage assets, the United Republic of Tanzania is popularly known as the land of Kilimanjaro and Zanzibar. Tanzania is among the oldest inhabited countries as evidenced by the found fossil remains of humans and pre-human hominids dating back over 1.8 million years (Mabulla, 1996;

Boyd and Silk, 2000; Klein, 2000; 2008; Bushozi, 2011). Evidence for this comes from such sites as Olduvai Gorge, Lake Ndutu, Laitoli, Peninj and Lake Eyasi, all found in Tanzania. During the 19th century, Tanzania (then Tanganyika) was colonized by the Germans who incorporated it together with Rwanda and Burundi into a German East Africa. It continued to remain under German domination until after World War I when the League of Nations charter designated the area as a British Protectorate (Chami, 2009; Ichumbaki, 2011). British rule came to an end in 1961 after a relatively peaceful transition to independence. The name Tanzania started to be used in 1964 when Tanganyika and Zanzibar united together to form the United Republic of Tanzania. The current political situation presents Tanzania as a democratic country whereby the president and members of the National Assembly are for five-year terms concurrently elected by direct popular vote.

History of Maritime and Underwater Cultural Heritage of Tanzania

In previous works (Ichumbaki, 2011: 554) I discussed the scholars' view on the meaning of Maritime and Underwater Cultural Heritage (MUCH) and provided my own understanding of it. In this paper I still maintain the same understanding. That is, MUCH refers to material traces, manifestations and physical remains that signify the interactions between past humans and water bodies such as ocean, sea, lakes and rivers. Considering the diversity of water bodies in Tanzania (Fig. 1) and the results of few maritime work (Pollard, 2008a; 2008b; 2008c; 2009; 2011) there should be a long and probably unique maritime history. Despite the lack of comprehensive maritime researche (Lane, 2005). I shall try to provide the most possible interpretation of Tanzania's maritime history. Various activities such as navigation, fishing and gathering seafood must have taken place along the Tanzanian lakes, rivers and along the Indian Ocean. Although the contributions of rivers and lakes have not been investigated or documented, there are some evidences along the coast that fishing and seafood gathering to some extent contributed to the rise and development of the Swahili civilization (Matveive, 1984). It is clearly known that the coastal community used marine/sea materials for both foods and trading. The community used fish, marine animals and molluscs for food while pearls, shells, turtle shells and amber were collected for sale. My thinking is that fishing and gathering of seafood cannot be separated from the development of maritime and underwater technologies. This means that, the coastal and other communities who inhabited marine environments (areas surrounding and or surrounded by the water bodies) must have developed skills of boatbuilding, determining high and low tides and the direction of winds as well as many other related navigational astronomies.

The history of Tanzania's maritime activities which forms the basis for the presence of maritime and underwater cultural heritage can be accrued from two main sources; written documents and archaeological toil. The former include Greco-Roman documents as well

as the Arabs, Chinese, Portuguese and European travellers' reports (Chami, 1994; Kwekason, 2010; Ichumbaki, 2012). The latter comes from an ongoing meticulous archaeological excavation along the Tanzanian coast. Although these two sources tell much about the Indian Ocean they have no information on rivers and lakes which are of paramount importance to explain the maritime history of the Swahili coast and Tanzania in particular. Since these sources have been explained although not in a maritime perspective (Freeman-Grenville, 1962; Chittick, 1966; Chami, 1999; Kwekason, 2010), I will briefly try to summarize them. The Greco-Roman documents which include the *Periplus of the Erythraean Sea* (*Periplus Maris Erithrei*) and Ptolemy's *Geography* are the earliest evidence of Tanzania's maritime history. These documents explain the existence of contacts between Tanzania and the external world during the first and second centuries AD. Both the *Periplus of the Erythraean Sea* and Ptolemy's *Geography* elaborate the existence of trading centres in the Tanzanian coast at that time known as *Azania*. The most popular and documented is what Masao (2005) calls 'Greco-Roman emporium-Rhapta'. Although the location of this trade centre is mentioned (Freeman-Grenville, 1962) and some (Chami, 1999) have provisionally located it, other scholars (Chittick, 1982) have argued that the centre has probably sunk under the ocean. Since there hasn't been thorough convincing evidence to exactly locate this Greco-Roman city on the terrestrial region and there hasn't been a maritime based work to locate it, there is a need to implement a maritime based archaeological project to test, verify, nullify and or prove either Chittick's (1982) or Chami's (1999) statements about Rhapta. However regardless of whether Chittick's, Chami's or either of the two is correct about Rhapta's location, of interest to this work is the very fact of its existence. Rhapta's existence is of much importance to convincingly explain that the coast of Tanzania has been interacting with the external world since the 1st-2nd centuries AD. Of much importance, the interaction was through the ocean thus indicating the presence of maritime potential. Interestingly, Tanzania's maritime interaction did not stop after the coastal people stopped trading with the Romans. For instance, between the 3rd and 6th centuries AD when the Roman-Tanzania trade interaction ended, the Tanzanians established another contact with the Sasanian maritime traders.

This is evidenced by the presence of Sasanid wares and coins which have been recovered from the sites of Fukuchani and Unguja Ukuu and Kiomoni-Tanga respectively (Chittick, 1966; Biginagwa, 2012; and Juma, 1996). The trade interaction between the East Africans and Tanzania in particular continued during the early seventh century when the Islamic traders started to dominate the Indian Ocean. Traders from Middle East, Far East and South East Asia started to come to East Africa and Tanzania in particular for trading purposes. The major imported goods are ceramics and glass including pitch-lined earth-ware jars, white glazed wares and lead glazed and lustre wares, painted stone wares, olive green jars and early green wares (Bita, 2011; 2012; Horton and Middleton, 2000). On the other hand, Tanzanians exported slaves, tortoise shells, ivory, mangrove poles and minerals. This interaction continued until the fifteenth century when it was interrupted by the

Portuguese. Although the Portuguese used improper and unfair trading techniques to look for spice and gold (Sheriff, 1987; Horton and Middleton, 2000) they kept the Tanzanian coast in contact with the external world. Starting from the late 18th and early 19th centuries, trading interactions were dominated by the Arabs again. This is the time when Sultan Seyyid Said shifted the capital from Muscat to Zanzibar. During this time, the seafaring to and from Zanzibar-Bagamoyo-Zanzibar, Zanzibar-Mikindani-Zanzibar and Zanzibar to many other coastal towns and the Arabic world became the norms. Slaves, ivory and minerals dominated these East Africa Arabic interactions (Sheriff, 1987; and Gilbert, 2002). This interaction ended when Europeans started to dominate the African continent and slave trading activities got to an end during the late 19th century. Something important to note here is that a great percentage of these interactions were maritime based. This means that majority of these trading and interaction activities were taking place via the Indian Ocean and coastal Swahili towns. Also, although both historical accounts and archaeological toil have given significant information on this interaction, much of the evidence is derived from terrestrial areas. Therefore, to better understand the true nature of these maritime interactions, these historical accounts and archaeological exertion need to be confirmed in a maritime perspective.

However, despite the little knowledge of Tanzania's maritime and underwater cultural heritage, there are some which are known and which should be protected. Management and conservation of cultural heritage assets of Tanzania is done by the Department of Antiquities of the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism. The available law to implement this is the Antiquities Act of Tanzania, enacted in 1964 (amended in 1979). Under this act, all *relics* that were shaped, carved, inscribed, produced, or modified by humans before 1863 are protected. Moreover, the act protects buildings, structures, paintings, carvings, and earthworks made by humans before 1886 (Mabulla and Bower, 2010). This act is old and does not say anything on maritime and underwater cultural artefacts which are either totally or partially immersed in water. Possibly, as I'm well informed that the Government is in the process of reviewing / amending the act, consider it will include some statements important for conservation and management of maritime and underwater cultural heritage. If this wish becomes true, shipwrecks presented in the table. 1 will need to be considered.

Future Directions

A Canadian scholar, Christina Cameron (2008), argues that heritage assets are not only inherited from our grandparents but also borrowed from our grandchildren. This is all about sustainable conservation of heritage assets so that they are used to bring socio-economic benefits to present communities without impinging on the benefits of the future generations. It is through this understanding that maritime and underwater cultural heritage assets need to be sustainably conserved and managed. Having that in mind, Tanzania via

Table. 1 Showing Shipwrecks found in Tanzania Waters

Name of Shipwreck	Location / Position	Date of wreck
San Rafael	05°13'00" S 39°15ū00"E	1499
Adele O'Swald	06°09'10"S 39°09'40"E	1872
El Majid	06°09'00"S 39°09'00"E	1872
**The Zanzibar Hurricane wrecksx*	-	1872
H. H. S. Glasgow	06°09'60"S 39°11'15"E	1896
Zanzibar	-	1898
Great Northern	06°10'25"S 39°08'55"E	1902
Somali	07°51'33"S 39°18'90"E	1914
H. M. S. Pegasus	06°08'95"S 39°11'65"E	1914
M. M. S. Mowe	06°51'91"S 39°17'83"E	1914
Newbridge	07°47'16"S 39°22'50"E	1914
Konig	06°49'30"S 39°17'08"E	1914
Floating Dock	06°49'30"S 39°18'00"E	1914
Hedwig	08°55'00"S 39°15'00"E	1915
S. M. S. Konigsberg	07°52'13"S 39°14'50"E	1915
Kronborg	04°54'50"S 39°09'50"E	1915
Rovuma	08°55'00"S 39°15'00"E	1915
Tomondo	08°55'00"S 39°15'00"E	1915
Adjutant	07°47'00"S 39°22'00"E	1915
Tabora	06°50'45"S 39°17'75"E	1916
Markgraf	05°03'53"S 39°05'83"E	1916

Source: K. Patience (2006: 133-256)

the Antiquities Department, Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (MNRT) is making all the necessary initiatives to ensure comprehensive protection of Maritime and Underwater Cultural Heritage (MUCH). This has been done through establishing a 14 member maritime team as a means to enhance capacity building in this fast growing field (Ichumbaki, 2011; Jeffery, 2011b; Mahudi, 2011). This fourteen member team has been undergoing various training from within and outside Tanzania thanks to the Centre for International Heritage Studies (CIE) for initiating the programme and continuously training the members. The

team has noticeably surveyed the Great Northern Shipwreck and Kilwa Kisiwani and Songo Mnara World Heritage Sites (WHS). Humphrey Mahudi (2011) has well presented a summary of the Great Northern Shipwreck Survey conducted in Zanzibar in 2009. The Great Northern built in England in 1870, was employed in laying cables in the East African coast. In 1902 it was returning to Zanzibar when it struck Fungu Chawamba reef about 8 km off Stone Town (Patience, 2006). Until in the 1950s the bows of the ship were clearly visible. Currently the ship is not visible as rusted remains have been cut off. However, the site is now a popular diving site. The 2009 non-disturbance survey made by the team to ascertain the identity, nature, integrity and condition of the site noted that the ship retains its original structure and equipments. Also the team noted that in addition to the shipwreck's historic importance, the site's location and environment (corals, fishes and reefs) are valuable recreational sites for diving tourists.

In 2011, the team also surveyed Kilwa Kisiwani and Songo Mnara WHS. The Kilwa Kisiwani and Songo Mnara WHS survey was conducted from 13th to 27th November, 2010. Participants of this survey were 9 members from Tanzania and two members from the countries of South Africa and Namibia, one member each. Bill Jeffrey (team leader) and Sophie Winton respectively from Centre for Heritage Activities (CIE) and South African Heritage Resource Agency (SAHRA) participated in this survey. According to the team leader, Bill Jeffery (2011a: 7; 2011b: 532), the main objectives of the survey were to investigate sites, commence the collection of oral histories and strengthen the relationship with the local community. Moreover, the survey meant to further train the team members and strategise for the future comprehensive maritime projects. Being preliminary site investigations, the survey was very successful and set a strong important foundation for future comprehensive projects. The important maritime and underwater cultural heritage signatures explored during this survey are well presented in the team report compiled by Bill Jeffery (2011a: 9-24).

In addition to capacity building presented earlier, the country is in the process of ratifying the 2001 UNESCO Convention, '*Convention on the Protection of the Underwater Cultural Heritage*'. This is an important step towards the protection and management of MUCH through legal frameworks and operational guidelines that are universally acceptable. However, Tanzania believes that alone, and without cooperating with other regional countries there shall be little or no success. That is why by 28th-29th April 2011, the MNRT in collaboration with UNESCO cluster office in Dar es Salaam organized a regional workshop to discuss various matters concerning the protection of MUCH. The workshop brought together various participants from the countries of Tanzania, Uganda, Kenya, Mozambique, Comoro, Seychelles, South Africa, Namibia, Madagascar and Mauritius. Definitely, continuation of these national and regional initiatives shall lead to sustainable preservation, conservation and management of these mutual MUCHs. As noted by Ezekiel Maige (2011: 5) it is through such a collaboration that regional stakeholders identify the mission to get proper ideas on all sides of the possibilities, capabilities and the means to both implement

the convention and assume MUCHs sustainability. Moreover, in collaboration with other institutions with enough experience on MUCH related activities such as CIE and SAHRA, the United Republic of Tanzania should source out some funding to implement projects on underwater cultural heritage. Various funding agencies both local and international funding opportunities need to be approached for this purpose. Where possible and appropriate, joint efforts by regional countries such as Mozambique and Kenya would leader to better success. If funds are secured, priorities should be directed to implementing survey, capacity building and enhanced processes for the ratification of 2001 UNESCO Convention. Such avenues and the related investments shall open a new page for the conservation and management of MUCHs of the participating countries.

Conclusions

This paper has presented a variety of evidence showing that Tanzania has different maritime and underwater cultural heritage assets. All the maritime events that took place in Tanzanian waters are neither researched nor fully documented with the purpose of reconstructing the country's maritime history. Considering that there was social interaction within the Indian Ocean world, there is a need to understand Tanzanian maritime history. The excavations of several Tanzania coastal sites including Limbo, Nkukutu, Kwale, Msimbo, Mnaida, Kilwa, Mafia, Bwembweni, Mikindani and many others (Chittick, 1974; 1982; Chami, 1999; 2004; Chami and Msemwa, 1997; Ntandu, 2007; Kwekason, 2007; 2010; 2011) have conclusively demonstrated an advanced interaction between Tanzania and other countries of the Indian world via the Indian Ocean. Also, scholars (Freeman-Grenville, 1962; Horton, 1990; 1996a; 1996b; Chami, 1994; Horton and Middleton, 2000; Gilbert, 2002) have argued that Tanzanian coastal towns such as Kilwa, Zanzibar, Mikindani, Bagamoyo and Pangani had developed both international trade and commerce. Convincingly, these sites tell a good history of advanced maritime culture during the 1st and 2nd millennium AD. The little history which is known has not been reconstructed in a maritime perspective (Lane, 2005). It was not until recently that in collaboration with other heritage stakeholders, Tanzania has initiated some strategies to manage and conserve this legacy (Mahudi, 2011; Ichumbaki, 2011; Jeffrey, 2011a-b). However, these initiatives are too inadequate to bring maritime heritage sustainability. This marks the need for various national, regional and international stakeholders to implement maritime projects with the purpose of researching, documenting, conserving and managing maritime and underwater cultural heritage assets.

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Elgidius Ichumbaki Bwinabona is a lecturer and PhD student in the Department of Archaeology and Heritage, University of Dar es Salaam, and a member of Tanzania's Maritime Archaeology Team. He holds honorary bachelor and master's degrees in Culture and Heritage and Archaeology respectively. Ichumbaki has published a number of papers related to Maritime Archaeology, Museology and the heritage assets of Tanzania. Ichumbaki researches and delivers lectures on the People and Cultures of Africa, Heritage Conservation, Archaeology of Tanzania, Heritage Laws and By-Laws and Principles of Cultural Tourism.

Email: ichumbaki@udsm.ac.tz



The importance of marine archaeology in India has coincided with the increasing visibility of maritime history. This has contributed to changing the perspective of the history of the sub-continent, from the land-locked history of the northern plain to incorporating the view from the peninsula. The study of the Indian Ocean becomes inevitable. The recognisable changes in maritime history relate to the economy of trade and the technology involved. In both these areas maritime archaeology provides data. Shipwrecks can confirm evidence on the volume of trade and the items traded. Ships' timbers, cloth fragments, cargoes, tell their own story. Viewed from the Indian peninsula, the span of the Indian Ocean trade went from West Asia to South-east Asia, initially dependent on the monsoon winds, until the technology of ship-building overcame this. Eventually this trade linked Tunis, Egypt, the Red Sea, India, South-east Asia and southern China. The Afro-Asian maritime links were a counterpart to the land-based Silk Road. The inter-dependence of economies and of settlements is striking. European enterprise, though a late arrival, changed the economy of Asia. The papers in this book refer to many parts of the world, and many aspects of maritime history and shipwrecks. It therefore makes a fine and illuminating introduction to marine archaeology as a historical source.

—Romila Thapar, Professor Emeritus of History, Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi



In '*Shipwrecks around the World: Revelations of the past*', volume Sila Tripati has gathered a sterling assemblage of authors who cover maritime archaeological subjects that span the globe from the North Atlantic to the Indian Ocean, from the South Atlantic to the Pacific, and seas too numerous to name individually. Similarly, the myriad countries from New Zealand to Namibia, from Bahrain to Brazil, from Australia to Sweden are far too many to list. I know of no other work that offers such a broad geographical range of topics related to this relatively new field of research. Not only are specific shipwrecks described and interpreted by their excavators in this exceptional collection, but some of the world's leading practitioners discuss subjects as diverse as ceramics, hull construction, conservation, wood identification, depictions of watercraft, anchors, localized rigging, maritime trade, naval warfare, and ports and harbours. In addition there are essays on the state of maritime archaeology in particular locales, from Korea to Sri Lanka to Spain and France, as well as on the past and future of the field of maritime archaeology in general, and the role of laws to protect our underwater cultural heritage. The chapters I have read in advance of publication compel me to offer heartiest congratulations to Sila Tripati for putting together this unique reference.

—George F. Bass, Institute of Nautical Archaeology at Texas A&M University



'*Shipwrecks around the World: Revelations of the past*', is a collection of papers from some of the world's leading maritime archaeologists. In all, 35 papers on maritime archaeology and maritime trade from around the world. This publication will be an important contribution to the study of maritime archaeology of the world. The subject is becoming popular in India where many universities and research institutions are becoming involved in the field. This volume is intended to provide the latest information for Indian as well scholars and students of other countries. The Marine Archaeology Centre of the CSIR-National Institute of Oceanography in Goa has an impressive publication record with papers published in *Journal of Archaeological Science, Antiquity, World Archaeology, International Journal of Nautical Archaeology, Current Science, Bulletin of the Australian Institute for Maritime Archaeology, International Journal of Maritime History, Man and Environment and Mariner's Mirror*. In addition, the Centre has published a number of books on maritime archaeological subjects relating to shipwrecks and archaeological sites in Indian waters. This is an impressive record and to be commended. Maritime archaeology is a relatively new discipline, but is growing and expanding as an academic subject. Publications such as this will help to develop the field and ensure that underwater cultural heritage is preserved and protected.

—Jeremy Green, Western Australian Maritime Museum, Fremantle, Western Australia

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