Prepared for: THE SOUTH AFRICAN HERITAGE RESOURCES AUTHORITY (SAHRA) GROUND WATER CONSULTING SERVICES (GCS) IMPALA PLATINUM

Results of a Phase II Heritage Impact Assessment Study: AN INVESTIGATION OF A LATE IRON AGE SITE ON THE FARM REINKOYALSKRAAL 278JQ IN THE BANKEVELD OF THE NORTH-WEST PROVINCE OF SOUTH AFRICA

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1 INTRODUCTION

A Phase I Heritage Impact Assessment (HIA) study was done for Impala Platinum's new Shaft 16 on the farm Reinkoyalskraal 278JQ in the Central Bankeveld of the North-West Province of South Africa during April 2004. The results of the Phase I HIA study was summarised in the 'Executive Summary' which reads as follows:

'A Heritage Impact Assessment (HIA) study as required by the National Heritage Resources Act (Act 25 of 1999) was done for the proposed new No. 16 Shaft Complex for Impala Platinum on the farm Reinkoyalskraal 278JQ in the Bokone-Bothlaba District Municipality in the North-West Province. The HIA study revealed the presence of one Late Iron Age site (Site LIA01) in the No. 16 Shaft Complex study area. This site was mapped (Figure 1), its coordinates tabulated and its levels of significance determined using various criteria (Table 1).

Site LIA01 has various outstanding features such as its cultural historical and ideological significance. The site is aesthetic pleasing; it is in an excellent state of preservation and has research value. The site is not necessarily unique as many similar stone walled sites are located in the peripheral area around the No. 16 Shaft Complex study area (Table 1).

Site LIA01 may be affected (impacted upon) by the development of the No. 16 Shaft Complex and its associated infrastructure. This impact may take the form of damage to Site LIA01 or the total destruction of the site. It is possible that Site LIA01 may be avoided by the development of the No. 16 Shaft Complex.

It Site LIA01 is not going to be affected by the proposed new No. 16 Shaft Complex project it has to be protected for posterity. The unaffected and continued existence of the site has to be guaranteed. The site has to be conserved by taking protective measures such as fencing the site and maintaining this or any other protective barrier during the construction, operation and after the closure of the No. 16 Shaft Complex. If Site LIA01 is going to be impacted (partly or totally) by the proposed new development project, Site LIA01 has to be subjected to a Phase II investigation. The Phase II investigation requires that Site LIA01 be documented before it is destroyed. The documentation of Site LIA01 entails that the site be cleared from vegetation and that it be mapped (surveyed), photographed and described. It is also possible that small excavations have to be conducted in the site.

The Phase II investigation of Site LIA01 would require that the archaeologist obtain a permit from the South African Heritage Resources Agency (SAHRA) which would also allow for the demolishing of the site after it has been subjected to the Phase II investigation'.

Consequently, the aim with this report is to discuss the results of the Phase II investigation on Site LIA01 which has now been completed.

2 AIMS WITH THIS REPORT

The Central Bankeveld incorporating the Brits-Marikana-Rustenburg area is under enormous economic pressure as the western limb of the Merensky Reef runs through this part of the North-West Province of South Africa. Various minerals such as platinum, chrome and other by products are mined from the Reef, while the granite hills running from Onderstepoort near Pretoria in the east to the Pilanesberg in the west are mined for granite. Citrus and tobacco farming supported by cattle ranching remained the backbone of the local economy until the second half of the 20th century. Since then mining has surpassed all other economic ventures to become the biggest source of income for the country. However, mining has not only come to change the appearance and character of this part of the country but is also taking its toll on the enormous wealth in heritage resources that are to be found in the North-West Province.

Heritage resources in the Central Bankeveld are characterised by all types and ranges as listed in Section 3 of the National Heritage Resources Act (No 25 of 1999). However, most abundant in the Impala Shaft 16 project area is the presence of stone walled sites dating from the Late Iron Age. These settlements date from the 17th century and are associated with the ancestors of the Tswana people who still occupy the majority of rural areas in the Central Bankeveld.

The Central Bankeveld's stone walled settlements are seriously threatened by the expansion of mining activities, natural decay and the absence of an awareness of the significance of this unique heritage amongst inhabitants living in the area and environmentalist attached to mines. The loss of this heritage is further compounded by the absence of any regional heritage management programme conducted under the auspices of SAHRA (national or provincial). The author has implemented a heritage management programme together with the granite industry operating in Brits-Marikana-Rustenburg. This programme provides for the recording and mapping of all heritage sites in the granite mining areas and the pro-active and reactive Phase II archaeological investigations of some of these sites. This data has also been incorporated in the heritage data bank of SAHRA in the North-West (see 'Selected Bibliography', Part 10).

The aim with this report is to describe and to explain the meaning and the significance of Site LIA01 on the farm Reinkoyalskraal 278JQ in the Central Bankeveld near Rustenburg in the North-West Province by means of using three sources of information with regard to the predecessor of the Tswana, namely recorded oral tradition, ethnographic information regarding past lifeways of the Sotho-Tswana and archaeological remains that have been left behind by the people of the past. When analysing these three sources of information it is possible to come to certain conclusions regarding the meaning and the significance of Site LIA01.

This Phase II study is the result of recognising the importance of stone walled sites in the Central Bankeveld and particularly of Site LIA01 which was discovered within the boundaries of the new Shaft 16 project area and the fact that the site may be destroyed by future mining activities. The author's realisation of the historical significance of the stone walled sites in the Central Bankeveld came after twenty years of research in this part of the country (See 'Selected Bibliography', Part 10).

3 METHODOLOGY

Site LIA01 was studied by means of:

- contextualising Site LIA01 by means of a review of literature relating to the pre-history and history of the Bankeveld;
- documenting Site LIA01 be means of surveying and mapping the stone walls and other exposed remains of the site;
- limited exposure (excavations) of some of the features of the site;
- providing a general description (illustrated with photographs) of the features and structures that are characteristic of this settlement; and
- an explaining the spatial composition of Site LIA01 with the aid of ethnographic and archaeological evidence.

3.1 Contextualising Site LIA01

Site LIA01 was briefly contextualised by means of a survey of literature on the pre-history and history of the Central Bankeveld. The attention was particularly focus on the presence of Tswana chiefdoms and their relationship with the stone walled sites in this part of the country (see 'Select Bibliography', Part 10).

3.2 Documentation

The documentation of Site LIA01 consisted of the surveying and mapping of the stone walls and other exposed remains of the site. A contour plan indicates the spatial location of the site on the flat turf veldt between the Magaliesberg (west) and the Thaba-ea-Nape series of mountains (east) (Figure 1). Structures and features in the Site were also photographed (Figures 2-9).

3.3 Excavations

Excavations of Site LIA01 merely consisted of the clearing of some of the most conspicuous features such as different types of stone platforms, middens, grinding stones, a possible grave, and at leat two hut foundations.

The stone platforms and hut foundations were cleared from vegetation in order to expose their floor plans. The exposed features were then mapped and documented.

As the hut foundations and the stone platforms served as the main features which directed the clearing and excavation of these structures in a controlled way a fully controlled archaeological excavation with spatial and temporal guidelines (a grid system and stratigraphic controlled layers) was not used. Excavated soil was not sieved.

Artefacts on the surface of the site only include pottery. However, no material was collected from the surface of the site.

3.4 Assumptions and limitations

The investigation of Site LIA01 was subjected to time restrictions and to a budget which did not provide for elaborate excavations and laboratory work.

3.5 Some remarks on terminology

Only a few terms relevant to this report needs wider clarification, namely:

The term '<u>pre-historical'</u> refers to the time before any historical documents were written or any written language developed in a particular area or region of the world. The <u>historical period</u> and <u>historical remains</u> refer, for the project area, to the first appearance or use of 'modern' Western writing brought to the Brits-

Marikana-Rustenburg area in the North-West Province by the first Colonists who settled in this area after c. 1840.

The term '<u>relatively recent past</u>' refers to the 20th century. Remains from this period are not necessarily older than sixty years and therefore may not qualify as archaeological or historical remains. Some of these remains, however, may be close to sixty years of age and may, in the near future, qualify as heritage resources. It is not always possible, based on observations alone, to distinguish clearly between <u>archaeological remains</u> and <u>historical remains</u>, or between <u>historical remains</u> and remains from the <u>relatively recent past</u>. Although certain criteria may help to make this distinction possible, these criteria are not always present, or, when they are present, they are not always clear enough to interpret with great accuracy. Criteria such as square floor plans (a historical feature) may serve as a guideline. However, circular and square floors may occur together on the same site.

The <u>Heritage Impact Assessment</u> (HIA) referred to in the title of this report includes a survey of heritage resources as outlined in the National Heritage Resources Act, Act 25 of 1999 (see Box 1).

<u>Heritage resources</u> (cultural resources) include all human-made phenomena and intangible products that are the result of the human mind. Natural, technological or industrial features may also be part of heritage resources, as places that have made an outstanding contribution to the cultures, traditions and lifestyles of the people or groups of people of South Africa.

<u>Phase I studies</u> refer to surveys using various sources of data in order to establish the presence of all possible types of heritage resources in any given area.

<u>Phase II studies</u> include in-depth cultural heritage studies such as archaeological mapping, excavating and sometimes laboratory work. Phase II work may include the documenting of rock art, engraving or historical sites and dwellings; the sampling of archaeological sites or shipwrecks; extended

excavations of archaeological sites; the exhumation of bodies and the relocation of graveyards, etc. Phase II work may require the input of specialists and requires the co-operation and approval of SAHRA.

A <u>farm homestead</u> refers to all buildings, structures, utilities and spaces that comprise a single farm. The farm homestead therefore would not only incorporate the core structures associated with the farm such as the farmstead and outbuildings but also structures further afield such as enclosures used to shelter domestic stock, spaces (fields) utilized for agricultural activities, roads leading to the farmstead, etc. The term farm homestead therefore is a holistic concept encompassing part of or a total cultural landscape.

The <u>farmstead</u> refers to the farmhouse and core structures in its immediate surroundings such as a shed and outbuildings such as rondavels. This report's main concern is the farmstead.

4 THE PROJECT AREA

4.1 Location

Impala Platinum's No. 16 Shaft Complex includes one main access shaft, an elongated waste rock dump that is approximately 705m long and other associated infrastructure which will be established on the farm Reinkoyalskraal 278JQ near the village of Kana. The area falls under the Bokone-Bothlaba District Municipality in the North-West Province of South Africa (Figure 1).

The No. 16 Shaft Complex study area on the farm Reinkoyalskraal 278JQ is bordered by numerous hamlets such as Serutube, Mafika, Setlhokwe and Rankunyana to the north, Phetwane and Matalaneng to the east and Motlhabeng to the south. This complex of hamlets is collectively referred to as Kana. Granite hills, part of the Thaba-ea-Nape (or Thaba-ea-Maralla) range of mountains, are scattered to the east of the study area with smaller kopjes and knolls to the north of the study area. These mountains and hills are mostly covered with Late Iron Age stone walled settlements which act as living remnants of the villages occupied by the ancestors of the Tswana.

Other prominent beacons in the area include the Boschpoort Dam east of the study area, large mountains such as Malejane in the far east, Mmatshetshele along the banks of the Boschpoort Dam, Motlhabe where Kudu Granite and Rustenburg Quarries are mining granite and Mafotlhelo along the road leading to Beestekraal (Figure 1, but also see the 1:50 000 topographical map of Rustenburg East [2527CB]).

4.2 The altered state of the study area

Parts of the wider study area have long being utilised for agricultural activities such as dry land agriculture and limited citrus farming (Figure 1). However, the study area has also been scarred by younger development activities such as the building of dirt roads and homesteads. Some of the homesteads in the peripheral area, to the east of the study area contain houses that can be described as historical. Some of the dwellings were the first to be built in the area and can truly be described as pioneer dwellings.

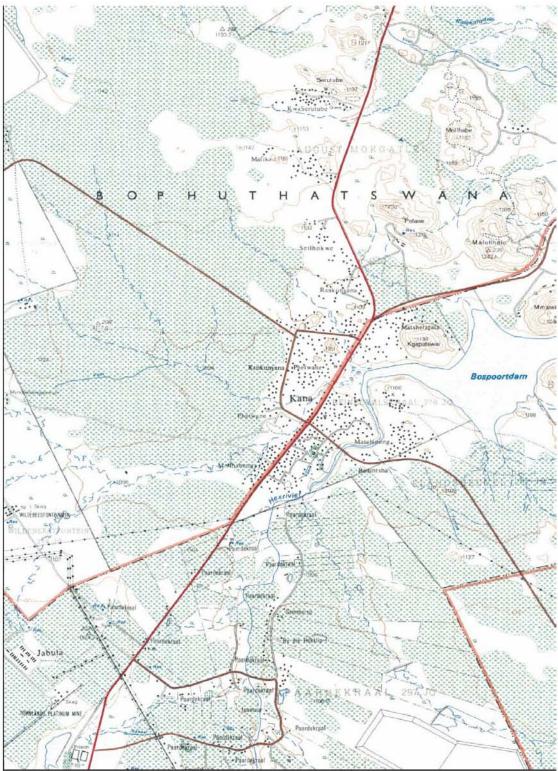
Other development activities that have altered the study area include the laying of pipelines, the construction of power lines, the digging of furrows and the building of soil dams. These development activities have changed the indigenous vegetation, landscape and appearance of the study area so that it cannot be described as a pristine piece of land anymore.

4.3 In a cultural landscape

Impala's Platinum's No 16 Shaft Complex is located in the hinterland between the Magaliesberg to the west and the Thaba-ea-Nape range of mountain to the east. This level piece of land between these two mountain ranges is part of a cultural landscape that is associated with a large number of stone walled sites that represent numerous Tswana spheres of influence dating from the last four hundred years. This time period is also referred to as the Late Iron Age.

It is therefore necessary that the archaeological and historical significance of this cultural landscape be described and explained in more detail before the results of the Phase I HIA study is discussed (see Part 5).

Figure 1- The Impala Shaft 16 Complex on the farm Reinkoyalskraal 278JQ in the B ankeveld in the N orth-West P rovince of S outh Africa. Note the spatial location of Site LIA01 next to a low inconspicuous granite knoll.



5 CONTEXTUALISING THE PROJECT AREA

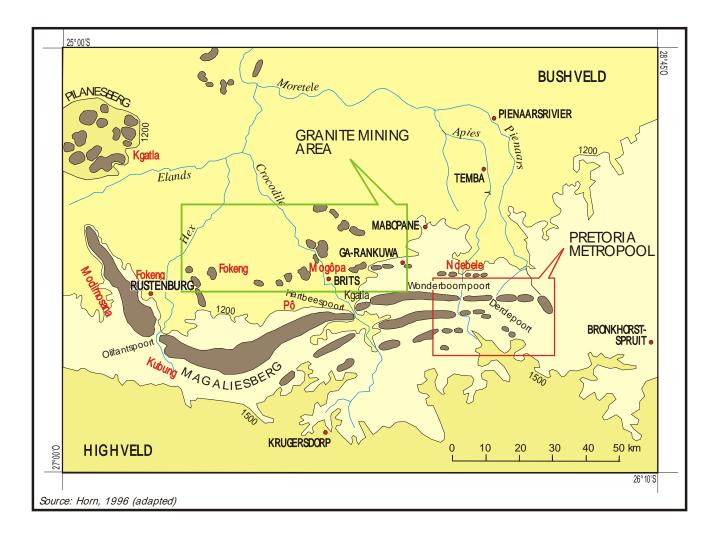
The Impala Shaft 16 Complex is located to the north of the Magaliesberg which is known for its rich and diverse range of heritage resources.

5.1 Pre-historical context

Stone Age sites are scattered along the Magaliesberg and are also found in caves and rock shelters in the mountain. Rock engraving sites are located further towards Maanhaarrand and Rustenburg in the west.

However, the most abundant heritage resources in the Bankeveld are those that date from the Late Iron Age and which are associated with the numerous Tswana chiefdoms who occupied this region during the last four centuries. This proto-historical period which is associated with the ancestors of the Tswana and more particularly the Fokeng who lived in the Impala Shaft 16 project area is therefore outlined below.

Figure 2- The Bankeveld near Impala Platinum's project area is characterised by a conspicuous chain of granite hills where the heritage of numerous ancient Tswana chiefdoms which emerged in this fertile ecozone existed during the last four centuries (adapted from Horn 1996).



5.2 Proto-historical context

The interaction between the climate, geology, topography, and the fauna and flora of the Central Bankeveld established a milieu in which the first Tswana found a suitable living environment in order to practised herding, agriculture, metal working and trading. It was here that their chiefdoms flourished during AD1600 to 1840.

The settlements of these early Tswana chiefdoms are characterised by an impressive and elaborate stone-built tradition. Hundreds and perhaps thousands of sites were built along the bases of the granite hills. The most formidable of these chiefdoms were the Kwena Môgôpa and the Kwena Môgale (Bapô) between Brits and Marikana. Further to the west, closer to Rustenburg, was the Fôkeng chiefdom while several Kgatla spheres of influence emerged further to the east near Brits. The Kgatla were subjected by Mzilikazi and were used as labourers to built one of the Ndebele's villages, probably known as emHlalandlela.

The Bapô, a people whose earliest ancestors were descended from the Amambô Nguni from Kwa Zulu/Natal, arrived in the Magaliesberg during the 16th or 17th centuries. They established a sphere of influence close to Segwalane and Makolokwe. One of their capitals was Tlhôgôkgôlô (Wolhuterskop). Several of the chiefs of this clan where known by the name of Môgale. The name of the Magalies Mountains (Magaliesberg) was derived from the name Môgale.

Numerous *difaqane* wars were fought during the last quarter of the 18th century and during the first quarter of the 19th century in the Central Bankeveld. These wars led to the displacement of large numbers of Tswana in the Bankeveld. The *difaqane* wars were caused by the Ndebele (Matabele) of Mzilikazi who arrived from the Vaal River region to occupy the Bankeveld in August 1827. The Ndebele destroyed the Kwena Môgôpa, the Kgatla and what had remained of the Bapô after an earlier defeat by the Pedi of Thulare. These wars exacerbated the havoc started earlier in the Bankeveld and gradually became a characteristic feature of historical events in this region during the early 19th century.

The Ndebele established several settlement complexes in the Central Bankeveld from whence they maintained their grip on the indigenous population. Four of these Zulu/Nguni residences (*imisi*) and military kraals (*amakhanda*) have been discovered during the course of archaeological surveys.

Internal strife between the various Tswana chiefdoms also seems to have been on the increase from the latter half of the 18th century onwards. Paternal relatives fought against each other to attain the chieftaincy of the various Tswana chiefdoms. Succession disputes also led to the splintering of the existing chiefdoms into a growing number of independent spheres of influence in the Bankeveld.

During the early 19th century travellers, traders and missionaries visited the Central Bankeveld where they encountered the devastated Tswana chiefdoms. They also mentioned that numerous Tswana tribes were displaced. These travellers included the traders Robert Schoon and William McLuckie in August 1829. They were soon followed by the missionary Robert Moffat who visited Mzilikazi in an *umuzi* near what is today Pretoria. In June 1835 Charles Bell and other members of Andrew Smith's expedition visited a Ndebele village near Rustenburg which Bell subsequently painted. One year later, in December 1836, Cornwallis Harris also visited the Central Bankeveld where he painted emHlalandlela near Brits.

The Bankeveld was rich in fauna which attracted the Griqua and the first white hunters to the region. Ivory was plentiful, with herds of elephants roaming the area. Ivory and the skins of the wide variety of fauna were sought after as precious trade commodities. Although the Tswana hunted the fauna of the Bankeveld, they were more renowned as agriculturists and cattle herders than as hunters.

Complex causes led to the unfolding of the numerous Tswana chiefdoms and their spheres of influence throughout the Bankeveld during the last decades of the 18th century and during the first decades of the 19th century. These causes were multidimensional and included the ecological potential of the region, the social and political formation and expansion of different spheres of influence, the establishment of short and long distance trade relations and local and regional wars. These causes and historical events were complex and are not fully recorded in oral traditions or in any other records.

5.3 Fokeng oral tradition

There is no evidence to dispute the narrative that the series of hills running between Marikana and Rustenburg (referred to as the Thaba-ea-Maralla or the Thaba-ea-Nape range of mountains) is associated with ancestral rulers of the Fokeng people. According to oral tradition different branches (clans) of the Fokeng settled from the north to the south along the Thaba-ea-Maralla range of mountains. The places of settlement were: Seruthube, Marekana, Tsitsing (Kanana), Thekoane (Thekwana) and Photsaneng (Bleskop). The Impala Shaft 16 settlements are located close to Seruthube and therefore may have fallen under the jurisdiction of an important ruler who controlled this area during the Late Iron Age.

It is neither possible nor necessary to describe the origins and the history of the Fokeng here in great detail. Only a broad outline of the genealogy of Fokeng rulers, from Nape (AD1700) to Môkgatle (AD1835) is outlined. Settlements that were associated with some of the Fokeng rulers, although only a few are mentioned in oral tradition, are also indicated.

The oldest legends state that the Fokeng entered the Transvaal through Tweedepoort, under the leadership of Nape, the earliest known Fokeng chief. This was before c. 1700 AD. The group moved south-eastwards and settled on the banks of the Elands River (Kgetleng). Three Fokeng groups detached them from the main branch and moved southwards on different occasions. The Fokeng are therefore spread over the Orange Free State, Lesotho and even the former homeland of Transkei. The Fokeng are, next to the San people, the oldest inhabitants of the Orange Free State.

The domain under Fokeng control during the last two centuries was the following: the northern border was the Kgetleng River (and the Tlôkwa and Kgatla Kgafêla); the western boundary was the Kwena Modimosana and the southern boundary the Magaliesberg. The eastern boundary was the Kwena Môgôpa and the Kwena Mogale.

The history of the chiefdom begins with Sekete III (Maleriba) who probably ruled in c. 1700 AD. He had three sons Kgantsi, Pitswe and Diale. (The last two had the same mother). Kgantsi was born from a Hurutshe father after the Hurutshe abducted his mother. (Controversy surrounded Sekete's III position until his death, although he was the oldest son).

Diale succeeded Sekete III and his reign probably began in c. 1720 AD. His sons were Mokuru, Mogotsi, Ramarwa, Ramogase, Tlase and Ntê. (The first two died young). Diale's sons rid the Fokeng from the Hurutshe's custom to castrate the Fokeng's bulls, an act considered offensive to the Fokeng and indicating the Huruthse's seniority. This put an end to the Huruthse's domination of the Fokeng.

With the exception of Ramorwa all the known sons of Diale became leaders of *dikgoro*, Ntê, the progenitor of the *kgoro* Seloko, Tlase, of Mathebetswaane and Ramogware of Metlapeng.

Ramorwa succeeded Diale as chief and had fours sons: Mmutle, Sekete, Katane and Mpie.

Sekete succeeded Ramorwa in about 1790 AD. He was a formidable warrior and is remembered as one of the greatest Fokeng chiefs. The following individuals were sons of Sekete: Thete, Nameng, Nôge, Mogotsi, Molefe, Pitswe, Ramarue, Mohue, Manaana, Rantsogwana and Marahtsane (more can be added). Important individuals were Thete, Nameng and Nôge.

Katane, or Raikane acted as regent for Thethe (also known as Mmakgongwana) who became the next chief. He had the following sons: Diale, Mokgatle, Molotlegi, Molefe, Liphatse and Pogwe. (The first, third and fifth died young). Môkgatle, Molefe and Pogwe played important parts in the next phase of Fokeng history.

Thethe was very found of his two younger brothers, Namemg and Nôge. The two brothers, however, turned against him. (The main concentration point in Thethe's time was at Makotshaneng (Makojaneng), east of Rustenburg near the Hex River). Thethe fled with his followers and took refuge with the Modimosana Mmatau. The Fokeng accepted Nameng as chief.

Nameng reigned for only eight months after the enforced departure of Thethe as he was killed by the doings of Nôge, who now became chief.

Nôge's rule commenced in about 1820 and ended when he was ousted in 1829 to 1830. Nôge's reign represents a stormy period in Fokeng history. Thethe invited the Pedi to attack the Fokeng whereupon Malekutu destroyed the Fokeng in 1823 to 1824. The devastation caused by the Pedi accounts for the fact that Mzilikazi amassed very little from the Fokeng's territory in 1826 to 1829.

Nôge killed Ndebele visitors to his village. He occupied the summit of Ntlhane, a 'hillock near Malejane', with his followers and bolstered the foot and slopes with wooden stockades. The Fokeng pounded the Ndebele with stones forcing them to retreat.

Nôge became unpopular and fled to Moshoeshoe in the Orange Free State.

Môkgatle's accession was somewhere between 1834 and 1836. His reign had hardly begun when the Voortrekkers drove the Ndebele out of the Transvaal. He remained in office until his death in 1891 when he was about eighty years old. His principal village was named Mmakgongwana (after Thethe), today located in Rustenburg and partly on Paardekraal. Dirêpotsana Hill, where Phokeng now stands, was also re-occupied as residential area in Mokgatle's time.

5.4 Historical context

The first immigrant Boers established themselves to the north of the Magaliesberg in the late 1840's. Colonial farmsteads were established along the southern and the northern foot of the Magaliesberg. Early colonial farm

homesteads also arose near Marikana (Schaapkraal), in the Selons River valley to the west of Rustenburg and at Tierpoort and Garsfontein near Pretoria. Some of the earliest Voortrekkers who moved into the Rustenburg and Phokeng areas, close to the Impala Shaft 16 project area, established themselves on the farms Kafferskraal and Witpensfontein (today Rustenburg) and Schaapkraal, to the east of the study area.

During the Second/Anglo Transvaal Boer War (1899-1902) British blockhouses were built along the ridge of the Magaliesburg, from Pretoria in the east to Rustenburg in the west. Several of these structures are located in Kommandonek and in Pampoennek in the Magaliesberg, south of the current project area.

Since the second half of the 19th century, farmers and workers have occupied the Rustenburg District (including the Mooinooi, Marikana, Hartebeespoort and Brits areas). Tobacco and citrus farming, together with cattle herding, became a subsistence pattern that has lasted to this day. Old farm homesteads, agricultural implements and other infrastructure such as tobacco drying sheds may still exist on farms adjacent to the study area.

After the discovery of the Merensky Reef in 1929, the economy of the area was gradually changed from farming into platinum and chrome mining. Farmers, farm-workers and, more recently, mine workers have therefore occupied the area without interruption for more than a hundred and fifty years. Remains dating from this historical (colonial and modern) period and from the relatively recent past therefore exist in or near the study area.

6 THE SPATIAL COMPOSITION AND FEATURES OF SITE LIA01

6.1 General

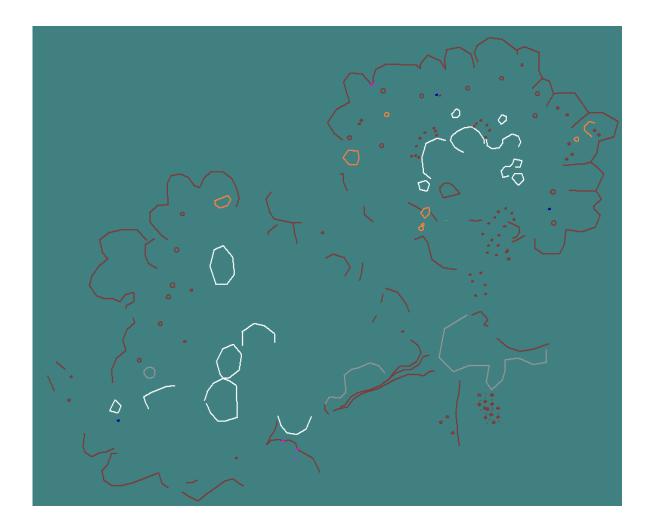
Site LIA01 is composed of two sites (settlements) which are here designated as Site LIA01 and Site LIA01. The spatial composition and features of both settlements correspond with other stone walled sites that were investigated in the Central Bankeveld during the past two decades. There is little doubt that the site represents a Tswana village (*motse*) composed of two *dikgôrô* (hamlets or wards), namely Site LIA01 and Site LIA02. The spatial composition of both settlements consists of three main features, namely: an outer scalloped wall which surrounds centrally located enclosures and, thirdly, a corridor or unenclosed intervening space between these two main spatial components (Figure 3).

The archaeological evidence for the spatial composition and features of Site LIA01 is first discussed. Hereafter, ethnographic evidence derived from the literature and archaeological evidence obtained from Molokwane a Tswana settlement which has been excavated in the Bankeveld are discussed. This spatial evidence is limited to the Tswana village (settlement) on the level of the *kgôrô*. Finally, the spatial evidence from the site is compared with the ethnographic and the archaeological evidence in order to explain the spatial composition and meaning of the site near the Shaft 16 complex. As both sites are more or less similar in ground plan and in spatial composition the discussion focuses mainly focuses on the spatial composition of Site LIA01.

6.2 The spatial composition of Site LIA01

The spatial composition of Site LIA01 consists of the following three main spatial components, namely:

Figure 3- The spatial composition of Site LIA01 and Site LIA02 consist of three main spatial components, namely an outer scalloped wall and a centrally located kraal complex with several enclosures. An intervening unenclosed space is situated between the outer scalloped wall and the centrally located kraal complex.



Orange: hut foundations; blue: lower grinding stones; brown circles: granary stands; black: possible grave; red: monoliths; pink: midden.

(See 1: 250 scaled map for more detail [appended to the report]).

6.2.1 The outer scalloped wall

The outer circumference of Site LIA01 consists of a ring of connected halfcircles or scallops that stretches in a near complete circle around a number of linked enclosures. At least fourteen fully developed scallops can be distinguished while a number of scallops on the south-western perimeter of Site LIA01 have not been completed. At least one scallop on the north-eastern perimeter of Site LIA01.1 is exceptionally large and is also associated with the foundations of the veranda of a large, elaborate hut. Several of the fourteen scallops are associated with stone platforms of which two types can be distinguished, namely stone platforms with larger diameters and stone platforms with smaller diameters.

It seems as if at least two types of huts may have been constructed in Site LIA01, namely huts with floors that have been paved with flat stones and bilobial huts consisting of crescent-shaped verandas attached to circular huts. The diameters of both huts may have exceeded 2,0m (Figures 5 & 6).

6.2.2 Centrally located enclosures (kraal complex)

The outer scalloped wall surrounds a number of circular structures which can not be clearly distinguished as these structures' were not fully constructed. The kraal complex in Site LIA02 is also not clearly distinguishable. At least two larger enclosures (with respective diameters of approximately 10m and 7,5m) and as many as six smaller enclosures (with diameters averaging 2,5m) can be distinguished in Site LIA01. Two of the smaller enclosures are linked together while another three small enclosures are linked in a triad. A single, small enclosure occurs in isolation opposite these five small enclosures. The incomplete nature of the kraal complexes in both Site LIA01 and in Site LIA02 is further discussed below. Figure 3- The inconspicuous low granite knoll overlooking Site LIA01 and Site LIA02. Note the main midden against the foot of the granite knoll (below).



Figure 4- The centrally located enclosures (kraal complex) in Site LIA01. (Note Impala's Shaft 16 complex in the background) (below).



6.2.3 Unenclosed intervening space

A corridor or unenclosed intervening space exists between the outer ring of scallops and the centrally located enclosures. This open space was used for the controlled movement of humans and animals within the confines of the village.

6.3 Other structures and features

6.3.1 Stone platforms

At least two types of stone platforms can be distinguished in Site LIA01, namely:

- Platforms with diameters varying between approximately 1,0m to 1,2m.
- Platforms with diameters varying between approximately 60cm to 70cm in diameter.

6.3.1.1 Large stone platforms

At least six to seven large circular stone platforms can be distinguished in Site LIA01. The diameters of these platforms vary between 1,0m to 1,2m. The smooth surfaces of stones were used to level the platforms while their circular perimeters were edged with stones. The majority of the platforms were placed close to the intervening unenclosed space - opposite the dwellings.

6.3.1.2 Small stone platforms

At least five to six small stone platforms occur within the confines of the scallops of Site LIA02. These structures are circular in diameter and less than half the size of the larger stone platforms. More than one of these smaller stone platforms may occur together, usually within the confines of the scallops and usually in close proximity of the dwellings. The construction of these features merely comprises of the close arrangement of four or five small stones in a circle. Figure 5- The foundation and floor of one of two types of huts in Site LIA01 (below).



Figure 6- Upright foundations stones of a veranda attached to a second type of hut within the scallops of Site LIA01 (below).



6.3.2 Lower grinding stones

Two lower grinding stone was observed in Site LIA01. (A third occurs in Site LIA02). It is possible that several lower grinding stones may have existed in both settlements but that these artefacts may have been carried away by residents living in villages close to the settlements. Grinding stones that are (illegally) collected from old sites are still used for the grinding of maize today.

6.3.3 A possible grave

A heap of stones in the central inner space (between the scallops and the central enclosures) may represent a grave. This grave possibly dates from a time after the site was abandoned as graves that are associated with the occupational phase of the stone walled site are usually unmarked. They also occurred in the cattle enclosures (men), in middens (women, children and men) and in small enclosures (women and children).

6.3.4 A possible stone hut

A collapsed structure which was built with large stones occurs in the unenclosed open space between the central located enclosures and the outer ring of dwellings. This structure may have been a stone hut (dwelling) that was built with stone walls and may have been covered with a conical thatched roof. Figure 7- A larger type of stone platform which served as the base of a granary on which grain caskets such as *disigo* were placed (below).



Figure 8- One of several small stone platforms in SEL01 which also served as stands - possibly for large clay pots such as *difalana* (below).



6.3.5 Middens

Several ashy deposits were identified in Site LIA01. The most prominent (main) midden in Site LIA01 is situated along the northern foot of the granite knoll that overlooks the site. A second prominent midden is noticeable in Site LIA02, close to the main midden.

6.3.6 Monoliths

A single monolith occurs in one of the scallop's walls in Site LIA01. (At least two other monoliths occur in Site LIA02).

6.3.7 Randomly scattered stones

Large stones that are scattered at random - although confined to small areas - occur in two places near the southern perimeter of Site LIA01. Smaller stone heaps also occur at random in both sites.

It is clear that large and small scattered stones served as building material that were not used to construct structures such as walls and/or enclosures in both Site LIA01 and Site LIA02. Randomly scattered stones also occur near the centrally located kraal complexes of both settlements clearly indicating that enclosures intended for the sheltering of domestic stock and to be used as court structures were not completed in both sites. Figure 9- One of two lower grinding stones located in the intervening unenclosed space in Site LIA01 (below).



Figure 10- A pile of stones which may cover a grave in Site LIA01. The deceased may have been buried in the site some time after the site was abandoned (below).



7 ETHNOGRAPHIC AND ARCHAEOLOGICAL EVIDENCE RELATING TO TSWANA SETTLEMENT PATTERNS

Ethnographic information about the life-ways of the Soth0-Tswana outlines the social and political life of the Tswana from the earliest times; describes the subsistence patterns of Tswana clans living in different environments, e.g. in Botswana and in South Africa; explains settlement patterns according to which Tswana villages were planned and scattered across the landscape and describes the construction techniques and architectural styles that were used to build Tswana homesteads and villages.

This report is mainly concerned with ethnographic and archaeological information about Tswana settlement patterns on the level of the *kgôrô* as this evidence can be compared with the spatial composition of Site LIA01 and Site LIA02. The Tswana *kgôrô* is described and illustrated in various ethnographic sources while several Tswana villages on the level of the *kgôrô* have been excavated during the last twenty years in the Bankeveld. Both these ethnographic and archaeological data sets are briefly discussed in order to provide comparative material with which the spatial composition and features of Site LIA01 can be compared.

7.1 Ethnographic descriptions of the spatial composition of the Tswana *kgôrô*

Ethnographic descriptions of the Tswana *kgôrô* indicate that this residential unit is composed of a number of related family groups (*masika*) that occupy a distinctive geographical unit or units which are usually but not necessarily geographically linked to each other. The various family groups usually have a common ancestor although foreigners or unrelated families may attach them to this socio-geographical unit *kgôrô* (Schapera 1935, 1976).

Family groups in the *kgôrô* are usually ranked in order of seniority and the head of the highest ranking family is also the ruler (*kgosana*) of the *kgôrô*. The heads

of the other family groups (*bogolwane*) would take seat in the court (*kgotla*) with the *kgosana* in order to make decisions regarding the welfare of the individuals living in this residential unit (Schapera 1976)..

Each of the geographical units referred to as a *kgôrô* is composed of three main spatial components, namely: a residential component; a kraal complex consisting of enclosures in which domestic stock was sheltered and a court complex (*kgotla*) where judicial affairs pertaining to the *kgôrô* was discussed.

The residential component comprises of an outer ring of dwellings (*malapa*) in which the various related or unrelated family groups (*masika*) lived. The family groups were arranged according to seniority. The *kgosana*'s family was the most important family group in the *kgôrô*. The *lapa* of the *kgosana*'s main wife was usually placed directly opposite the court (*kgotla*) in close association with the (main) cattle kraal.

Structures such as clay bins (*difalana*) and grass containers (*diŝigo*) were positioned in the *malapa* and used for the storage of grain (mabele). Grinding stones were also common artefacts in the various *malapa*.

The *malapa* encircled the centrally located kraal complex which is composed of several linked enclosures which were used to shelter domestic stock such as cattle, sheep and goat. The kraal complex also incorporated the court (yard) (*kgotla*) complex. The malapa (residential unit) and the kraal complex (enclosures for domestic stock and the court) were separated by an intervening unenclosed space. This open space was used for the controlled movement of humans and animals in the *kgôrô*. The ethnographic features of the Tswana *kgôrô* as outlined above have been well documented in ethnographic literature (Schapera 1935, 1976; McDonald 1940; Bothma 1962; Schapera & Roberts 1975).

Ethnographic accounts also indicated that important men (rulers) were buried in cattle enclosures where their predecessors (ancestors) were buried. Burial places have to be located close to settlements as the *badimo* (ancestors) must

be accessible when propitiated by the ruling *kgosi* on behalf of the tribe. The *kgosi* regularly pray to his ancestral spirits and offerings must be made on or close to the graves of the ancestors. Cattle kraals therefore were the principal places where rulers were buried, not only in the pre-historic past, but also into historical times (Schapera 1935, 1976; McDonald 1940).

A few illustrations of the spatial composition of the Tswana *kgôrô* as described in ethnographic accounts are provided below:

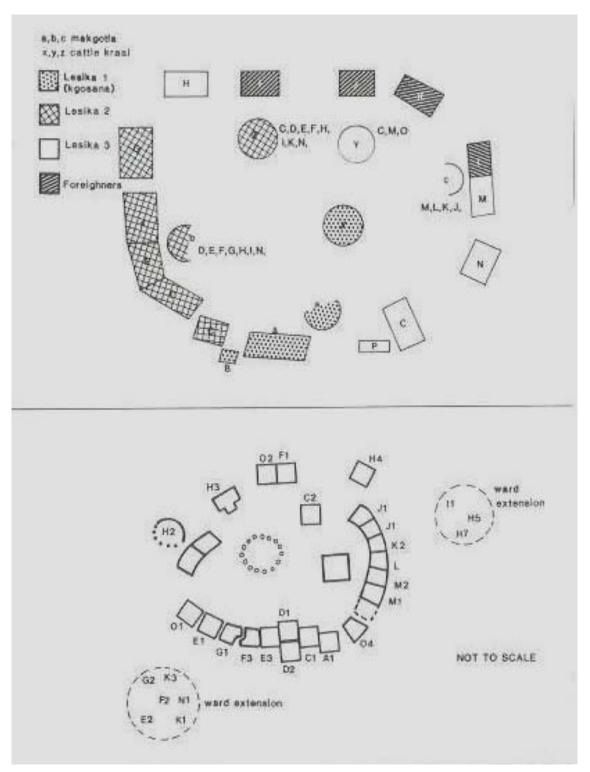


Figure 11- A *kgôrô* amongst the Bakgatla studied by Schapera (1935) (top) and restudied after forty years by Schapera and Roberts (1975) (bottom).

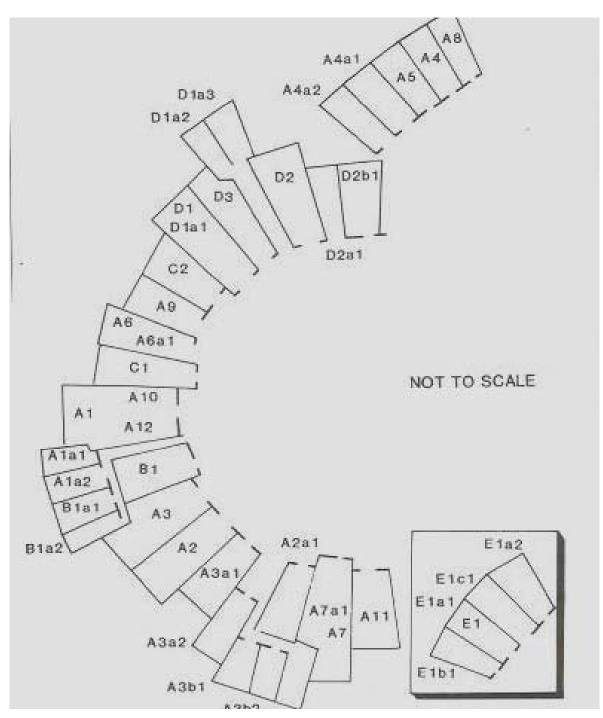


Figure 12- The *kgôrô* of a patrilineal grouping (comprising of three geographical units) amongst the Ntŝhabaleng, a North Sotho tribe (Bothma 1962).

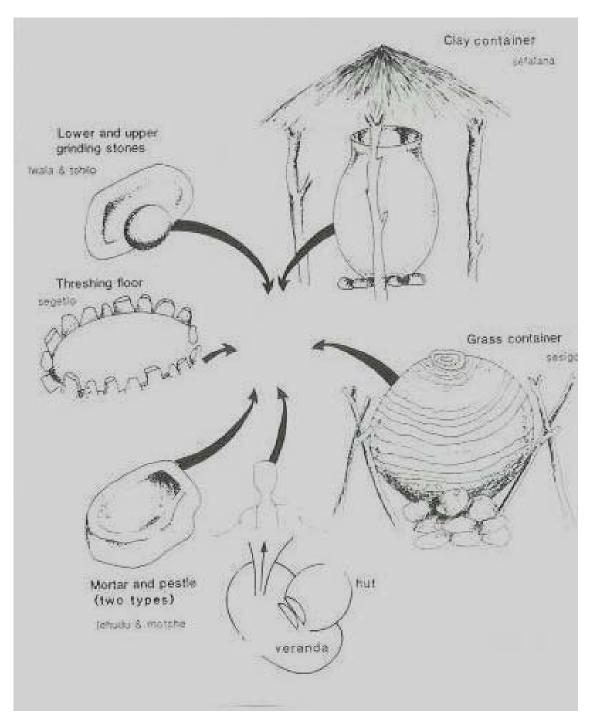


Figure 13- Some of the most important structures, features and artefacts in the Tswana *kgôrô* relate to the storing and preparation of agricultural products (above) (Pistorius 1992).

7.2 Archaeological evidence for the spatial composition of the Tswana kgôrô

The archaeological equivalent of the ethnographic Tswana *kgôrô* was studied during the investigation of SEL1 and SEL2, two stone walled settlements respectively representing a commoner *kgôrô* and the *kgôrô* of the chief (*kgosing*) in Molokwane, a Tswana village (*motse*) which dates from the 17th to the early 19th century (Pistorius 1992, 1994, 1996). The interest of this report only lies with the spatial composition of a commoner *kgôrô* (SEL1) which is illustrated in Figure 14 and discussed below.

The residential component of the archaeological *kgôrô* is the outer ring of dwellings (or *malapa*) of various related or unrelated family groups (*masika*) that surround the centrally located kraal complex. The residential unit and the kraal complex are separated by an intervening unenclosed space which contributes to the organised movement of humans and domestic stock in the village.

The kraal complexes in the archaeological *kgôrô* represent the central part of the *kgôrô* which also incorporate the court (*kgotla*) complex which usually comprises of an enclosure with associated structures such as stone platforms that embrace secondary areas attached to the court (*kgotla*). The court structures (complex) were usually associated with a single enclosure with a high wall and a low entrance covered with a lintel which symbolised the private nature of affairs that were conducted in this structure (Pistorius 1992, 1996).

A significant and outstanding feature of the Kwena *kgôrô* is the spatial relation (nexus) between a high status *lapa* complex (particularly the main dwelling), the central (or main) cattle kraal and the formal court (*kgotla*) (Pistorius 1995a, 1995b & 1996).

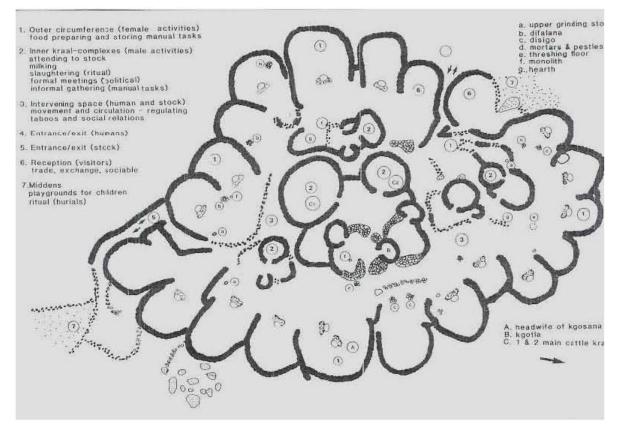
Cattle kraals and *makgotla* were located in a close spatial relation as these structures were used by men to gather for informal and formal activities. Cattle enclosures served as spaces where crafts (wood or leather working) could be

practised and where men could meet socially while *makgotla* were used to discuss affairs pertaining to the village (*kgôrô* or *motes*).

There is also a direct spatial relationship between the cattle kraal (burial place of forefathers or former rulers), the *makgotla* where men gather and the main dwelling (*lapa*) where the current ruler (*dikgosana* or *kgosi*) lived. This spatial relationship is visible in numerous ethnographic accounts outlining the spatial composition of the village of the chief (*kgosing*), or the villages (*dikgôrô*) occupied by commoners in the larger Tswana site (*motse*) (Schapera 1935, 1976; McDonald 1940; Bothma 1962; Schapera & Roberts 1975). This spatial relationship has also been pointed out in the archaeological *kgôrô* such as SEL1 and in the *kgosing* (SEL2) of Molokwane (Pistorius 192, 1995a, 1996).

Ethnographic accounts which describe the burial of rulers in cattle enclosures have been confirmed by archaeological evidence. At least three Tswana stone walled settlements. Makgope, Malle and Site ZK001 which have been excavated in the Bankeveld have revealed the presence of burials in cattle enclosures (Pistorius 1995a, 1998).

Figure 1 4- Archaeological evidence for the sp atial co mposition an d functional I ayout of a *kgôrô* in M olokwane, t he p revious *motse* of t he Bakwena B amodimosasa B ammatau who I ived n ear t he M agaliesberg from c. 1660 to 1827AD.



8 SITES LIA01 AND LIA02 REPRESENTING TWO DIKGÔRÔ

It is clear that Site LIA01 resembles two separate *dikgôrô*, each composed of an outer ring of *malapa* (scallops) and centrally located kraal complexes. An intervening unenclosed space can also be distinguished between these two components in both settlements. However, the centrally located kraal complexes in both settlements that were used to shelter domestic stock as well as the court complexes (*dikgotla*) therefore can not be distinguished in either Site LIA01 or in Site LIA02. This can be attributed to the fact that these structures were not completed when the settlements were abandoned. Subsequently, a clear spatial relationship between a (main) cattle kraal, a *kgotla* and the (main) *lapa* complex (the so-called Kwena spatial nexus) can not be demonstrated in either Site LIA01 or in Site LIA02. This, however, does not mean that the two sites do not represent two *dikgôrô* but merely that both sites were still in the process of construction when the building process was disrupted and the settlements were abandoned.

It seems as if a main dwelling (*lapa*) can be identified in Site LIA01. This unit is either located on the north-easterly or on the north-westerly perimeter of Site LIA01. Both these scallops (*malapa*) are large and have the remains of at least one hut in their interiors. Both *malapa* are also associated with large and small stone platforms on which grain baskets (*disigo*) and grain caskets (*difalana*), respectively manufactured from grass and from clay, were placed for the storage of *mabele*. Both types of structures may have been covered with grass roofs.

The ground plan for the *kgôrô* can therefore be distinguished in both Site LIA01 and in Site LIA02. However, the detail features of these settlement units, particularly the central kraal complex composed of enclosures for domestic stock and court structures, can not be pointed out in any one of these two sites. Both sites are clearly in an incomplete state of construction although both settlements have been occupied for a relatively long time period considering the amount of ash that has accumulated in the middens and the fact that several

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large, elaborate huts have been constructed in both sites. A clay quarry close to the sites also indicates that a considerable amount of clay has been removed from this hole and used for the construction of houses, grain containers and possibly pottery as well.

Other features include the possible presence of a stone hut and a grave in Site LIA01 and lower grinding stones, small and large stone platforms, monoliths, middens and stone heaps in both settlements. These features are associated with the ethnographic and with the archaeological *kgôrô* and are briefly discussed below.

Stone huts were excavated and recorded in Makgope and in Site ZK001 (Brits) were they were used either as cooking huts or as dwellings in which the *badisa* (herd boys) lived (Pistorius 1995a, 1998). However, stone huts in the Central Bankeveld differed from the stone huts that occurred in settlements in the Free State (Maggs 1976) as well as from the corbelled huts that occur on Tafelkop near Ermelo. It is possible that the stone hut in Site LIA01 was intended to be used by herd boys living close to the enclosures in which domestic stock was sheltered. (Both these enclosures as well as the stone hut were not completed when the site was abandoned).

The heap of stone that may cover a grave possibly dates from a time after the site was abandoned. The deceased, who originally lived in Site LIA01 and whose ancestors may also have been buried in the site, was brought back from the place where he/she lived at the time of his/her death to be buried in his/her 'old home' in order to be with his/her ancestors.

Lower grinding stones were used for the grinding of grain (*mabele*) and were usually placed close to cooking places which were located near dwellings (huts) and the containers in which the grain was stored.

The small and large stone platforms in both settlements served as stands for small and large grain containers such as *diŝigo* and *difalana* in which grain (*mabele*) was stored.

Monoliths or upright stones served as protection for the settlement. Charms (medicine) were placed at these structures in order to protect the village from sorcery, enemies or any other harmful influences.

Middens represent the remains of household refuse and can be found within the perimeters of the *kgôrô* or outside the outer boundary wall of the site.

The various stone heaps that occur in both sites are the result of stone that was collected for building purposes but which have not been used for this purpose as the site was abandoned before this building material could be utilised to complete the various structures in the two *dikgôrô*.

9 CONCLUSION

Oral tradition is clear in indicating that the stone walled sites which are scattered along the Thaba-ea-Nape mountain range have been occupied by the Fokeng. However, there is no historical (oral) evidence available about the identity of the people who built and occupied Sites LIA01 and LIA02 located on Reinkoyalskraal 278JQ. As these sites are located in the midst of a Fokeng domain which used to exist at Seruthube there is no reason to doubt a Fokeng affinity for these settlements. Elderly Tswana people living in Seruthube may perhaps be able to provide more information about the inhabitants of these sites.

Sites LIA01 and Site LIA02 represent two *dikgôrô* which each consists of three main spatial features, namely an outer scalloped wall that is composed of the various *malapa* in which the dwellings (huts) of each of the *dikgôrô* were built; a central complex of enclosures consisting of a kraal and a court complex and an intervening unenclosed space between these two components. The construction of both sites has not been completed as the outer scalloped walls and the central kraal complexes in both sites have not been completed before the sites were abandoned. The sites may have been abandoned as a result of conflict such as the *difaqane* or during any of the other wars which preceded the *difaqane* in which the Fokeng participated - such as the wars with the Bapô and with the Pedi (Breutz 1954, Coertze 1987).

Both Sites LIA01 and Site LIA02 are still in an excellent state of preservation. The 'excavations' in these sites therefore have also been limited to the mere clearing (cleaning) of some of the features in these sites for the purpose of documenting these features and not to alter the pristine nature of the sites.

Both sites have outstanding significance that can be used in a heritage education programme. The viability of implementing such a programme is currently being discussed with Impala Platinum. Several Late Iron Age sites in the Rustenburg, Marikana and Brits areas have been subjected to scientific investigations by means of excavations and the mapping (surveying) of these sites during the last two decades. The objectives of these investigations were to arrive at a better understanding of the origins, history and life-ways of the predecessors of the Tswana living in these areas during the last four centuries. The current state of knowledge on the prehistory and history of the Tswana, however, is not adequate. The tempo of research has to be stepped up, particularly in the Bankeveld where some of these settlements, regrettably, have to be destroyed in order to make mining possible. Accurate information obtained through scientific research is necessary to expose all South Africans to a better understanding of the origins, history and life-ways of the indigenous peoples of South Africa; a topic long neglected in school curricula, history text books, academic programmes at universities or in television programmes.

The information this author has been collected by means of archaeological research, has been published in at least one book and numerous scientific publications outlining the culture, history and life-ways of groups such as the Kwena, Kgatla and Fokeng, but also of the Matabele (Ndebele of Mzilikazi) who briefly occupied settlements in Tswana domains during the early 19th century (see 'Select Bibliography, Part 10). The historical context of this information can contribute to a better understanding of the meaning and the significance of the Late Iron Age sites on Reinkoyalskraal 278JQ.

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