# ANNEXURE C5 SPECIALIST ASSESSMENTS

• Palaeontological Assessment

### PALAEONTOLOGICAL SPECIALIST ASSESSMENT: COMBINED DESKTOP & FIELD ASSESSMENT STUDY

## Proposed PV2 to PV11 photovoltaic energy plants on the Farm Hoekplaas near Copperton, Northern Cape

John E. Almond PhD (Cantab.)

Natura Viva cc, PO Box 12410 Mill Street,
Cape Town 8010, RSA
naturaviva@universe.co.za

**July 2013** 

#### 1. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Mulilo Renewable Energy (Pty) Ltd, Cape Town, is proposing to construct ten additional 75 MW alternating current (AC) photovoltaic (PV) solar energy plants (PV2 to PV11) on the farm Hoekplaas (Remainder of Farm 146), situated some 52 km southwest of Prieska and 11 km south of Copperton, Northern Cape Province. The study area, currently used for stock farming, is largely underlain by Permo-Carboniferous glacial sediments of the Dwyka Group (Karoo Supergroup) that overlie Precambrian granitoid basement rocks of the Namaqua-Natal Metamorphic Province. These older bedrocks are largely covered by a range of superficial deposits of Pleistocene to Recent age, including alluvium, downwasted or fluvially reworked coarse gravels, calcrete hardpans, aeolian sands, sandy to silty soils and pan sediments.

Field assessment suggests that the poorly-exposed upper Dwyka Group bedrocks in the Hoekplaas study area do not contain rich trace fossil assemblages, petrified wood or other fossil material, and are therefore of low palaeontological sensitivity. The only fossils recorded from the Dwyka succession in this region are ice-transported erratic boulders of Precambrian limestone or dolomite that contain small stromatolites (microbial mounds or columns) (Almond 2012b). The study area is mantled by Pleistocene to Recent superficial sediments (soils, alluvium, calcretes, gravels *etc*) that are likewise generally of low palaeontological sensitivity (Almond & Pether 2008). However, important mammal fossil remains assigned to the Late Pleistocene Florisian Mammal Age (estimated 300 000 - 200 000 BP) have been recorded from pan sediments at Bundu Pan only 22 km to the northwest of Copperton (Kiberd 2006), and somewhat younger fossil teeth have been reported from subsurface gravels on Hoekplaas (Orton 2012). It is possible that comparable concentrations of Pleistocene vertebrate fossils are also preserved on buried palaeosurfaces and within alluvial gravels or pan sediments elsewhere on Hoekplaas. However, these occurrences are likely to be sparse and their distribution is largely unpredictable.

Potential impacts on fossil heritage are confined to the development footprint and are only anticipated during the construction phase of the PV energy plants. As far as fossil heritage is concerned, the impact significance of the proposed solar energy plants is considered to be LOW for the following reasons:

- The Karoo Supergroup bedrocks here are deeply weathered, locally calcretised and baked, and at most sparsely fossiliferous;
- The development footprints for the proposed PV solar plant sites are small and largely underlain by superficial deposits of low palaeontological sensitivity;
- Significant fossil material (e.g. mammal remains) at or near surface level is most likely very sparsely distributed within the study area; and

• Extensive, deep bedrock excavations are not envisaged during the construction phase.

There is no preference on fossil heritage grounds for the preferred *versus* alternative layouts or technologies for the Hoekplaas solar plant developments. The "no go" alternative to the proposed solar plant developments would have a neutral (zero magnitude) impact significance on fossil heritage resources. Transmission line connections to Kronos Substation or, alternatively, to Cuprum Substation would both be of low impact significance.

A number of other alternative energy projects – including both wind energy and solar energy facilities – have been proposed for the Copperton area (*cf* Almond 2010a, 2010b, 2011a, 2011b, 2012a, 2012b). Given the generally low palaeontological sensitivity of the Karoo Supergroup bedrocks and of the Pleistocene to Recent superficial sediments in the Copperton region as a whole, the cumulative impact of these developments is not considered to be of high significance.

#### It is recommended that:

- The ECO responsible for the development should be aware of the possibility of important fossils (e.g. mammalian bones, teeth) being present or unearthed on site and should monitor all substantial excavations into superficial sediments as well as fresh (i.e. unweathered) sedimentary bedrock for fossil remains;
- In the case of any significant fossil finds (e.g. vertebrate teeth, bones, burrows, petrified wood) during construction, these should be safeguarded preferably in situ and reported by the ECO as soon as possible to the relevant heritage management authority (SAHRA. Contact details: Mrs Colette Scheermeyer, P.O. Box 4637, Cape Town 8000. Tel: 021 462 4502. Email: cscheermeyer@sahra.org.za) so that any appropriate mitigation (i.e. fossil recording, sampling or collection) by a palaeontological specialist can be considered and implemented, at the developer's expense; and
- These recommendations should be incorporated into the EMP for the Hoekplaas solar plant project.

The palaeontologist concerned with mitigation work will need a valid fossil collection permit from SAHRA and any material collected would have to be curated in an approved depository (e.g. museum or university collection). All palaeontological specialist work should conform to international best practice for palaeontological fieldwork and the study (e.g. data recording, fossil collection and curation, final report) should adhere as far as possible to the minimum standards for Phase 2 palaeontological studies recently developed by SAHRA (2013).

#### 2. INTRODUCTION & BRIEF

The company Mulilo Renewable Energy (Pty) Ltd (Mulilo), Cape Town, is proposing to construct ten additional 75 MW alternating current (AC) photovoltaic (PV) solar energy plants on the farm Hoekplaas (Remainder of Farm No. 146), situated some 52 km southwest of Prieska and 11 km south of the small mining village of Copperton, Northern Cape Province (DEA REF. NOS. 14/12/16/3/3/2/493 to 502) (Fig. 3, Table 2.1). The study area, currently used for stock farming, spans the R357 dust road from Prieska to Van Wyksvlei (Figs. 1 & 2). The total extent of the proposed solar energy facilities would be approximately 2,497 ha. A 100 MW solar energy plant (PV1) on Hoekplaas has already received environmental authorization from the Department of Environmental Affairs (DEA) on 21 January 3013.

An alternative proposal (Alternative 2 layout) entails the construction of three PV plants of *c.* 225 MW AC, 290 MW AC and 500 MW AC capacity respectively on Hoekplaas (Fig. 4, Table 2.2). The total extent of the three alternative PV plants would be approximately 2,270 ha. Two transmission line routings have been proposed (Figs. 3 & 4). Alternative 1 (preferred) involves the connection of each PV site *via* an on-site substation and central on-site multibay substation to the nearby Kronos Substation through 132 kV overhead transmission lines. In Alternative 2 the transmission lines would be connected to the Cuprum Substation at Copperton *via* a 6.3 km long corridor. Technology alternatives under consideration involve different solar panel types (conventional PV *versus* CPV technology) and mounting systems (single axis *versus* fixed axis PV tracking).

Table 2.1: Footprints, capacities and coordinates of the 10 proposed new PV plants on Hoekplaas (Alternative 1, preferred layout)

Plant	Footprint (ha)	Capacity (MW)	Co-ordinates (middle point)
PV2	230	75	30° 0'35.24"S 22°20'23.96"
PV3	322	75	29°59'29.95"S 22°21'20.22"E
PV4	222	75	30° 0'53.42"S 22°21'18.53"E
PV5	350	75	30° 0'52.48"S 22°22'43.72"
PV6	203	75	30° 0'57.36"S 22°25'25.68"E
PV7	223	75	30° 1'20.45"S 22°24'55.54"E
PV8	205	75	30° 1'32.91"S 22°24'9.96"E
PV9	263	75	30° 2'19.54"S 22°24'9.45"E
PV10	249	75	30° 2'27.53"S 22°23'7.85"E
PV11	230	75	30° 3'50.97"S 22°22'46.49"E
PV10	249	75	30° 2'27.53"S 22°23'7.85"E
PV11	230	75	30° 3'50.97"S 22°22'46.49"E

Table 2.3: Footprints, capacities and coordinates of the three proposed PV plants on Hoekplaas (Alternative 2 layout)

Plant	Footprint (ha)	Capacity (MW)	Co-ordinates (middle point)
PV2	670	225	29°59'51.09"S 22°20'58.84"E
PV3	800	290	30° 0'46.10"S 22°22'18.47"E
PV4	800	500	30° 2'20.39"S 22°24'13.52"E

Each of the proposed PV facilities would consist of the following key components:

• **Solar energy plant:** numerous arrays of PV panels and associated support infrastructure to generate up to 75 MW AC *per* plant. The PV panel frame supports are fixed on top of steel piles. Due the occurrence of hardpan calcrete layers and cobbles/boulders on site at shallow depths, the steel piles would be embedded into a concrete pile. However, the final

design of the foundations will depend on the geotechnical conditions of the site which will be determined at a later stage;

- **Transmission lines:** 132 kV overhead transmission lines to connect each facility to the central on-site substation or an existing Eskom substation (*i.e.* Kronos or Cuprum);
- **Substations:** An onsite 132 kV, 3 bay substation *per* project and one central multibay 132 kV substation with a maximum of six incoming bays and two outgoing;
- **Boundary fence:** an electrical fence for safety and security reasons.

It is also proposed that the following infrastructure be shared among the ten PV plants to limit the impact on the surrounding environment, as well as to reduce costs:

- Central substation: One central 132 kV substation and connection to the Eskom grid. This
  central substation will connect the PV plants with Eskom's Kronos (preferred) or Cuprum
  (alternative) substation via new 132 kV overhead transmission lines (Fig. 4);
- Roads: A main access road and internal access roads for servicing and maintenance of the site (existing roads will be used where possible).
- Water supply infrastructure: Surplus water that has been allocated to PV1 from the Alkantpan pipeline will be used for the proposed PV energy plants;
- **Stormwater infrastructure:** Including drainage channels, berms, detention areas and kinetic energy dissipaters;
- **Buildings:** Buildings would probably include onsite substations, a connection building, control building, guard cabin and solar resource measuring substation.

Proposed additional infrastructure will include the following components:

- An additional access road leading from the R357 will be required. Internal access roads (gravel) will lead from the main access road to the ten PV plants. These roads will coincide with the existing dirt tracks where possible;
- Three laydown areas have been identified (Fig. 4) and would be used during the construction phases of all ten proposed PV plants;
- **Septic tanks** to be constructed at the site offices;
- The natural water flow of the site will be interrupted by the proposed roads, and therefore stormwater infrastructure will be required to facilitate surface water flow and to prevent erosion.

Aurecon South Africa (Pty) Ltd (Aurecon) has been appointed to undertake the requisite environmental process as required in terms of the National Environmental Management Act (No. 107 of 1998), as amended, on behalf of Mulilo (Contact details: Ms Franci Gresse. Aurecon South Africa (Pty) Ltd (Aurecon). Aurecon Centre, 1 Century City Drive, Waterford Precinct, Century City, Africa. 21 6022. Cell: 1750. E-mail: Tel: +27 526 +27 86 723 Franci.Gresse@aurecongroup.com. Website: aurecongroup.com).

Given the presence of exposures of potentially fossiliferous Karoo Supergroup sediments within the study area, a combined desktop and field-based palaeontological assessment for the project has been commissioned by Aurecon in accordance with the requirements of the National Heritage Resources Act, 1999.

The terms of reference for this study, which builds on the earlier combined desktop and field-based palaeontological heritage assessment for the PV1 site (Almond 2012b), as defined by Aurecon, are briefly as follows:

- To undertake a Palaeontological Impact Assessment of the study site which would include:
  - (1) Conducting a detailed desk-top level investigation to identify all palaeontological resources /features in the proposed development area;
  - (2) Undertaking field work to verify results of the desktop investigation (Hoekplaas (RE/146); and
  - (3) Document (GPS coordinates and map) all sites identified on the proposed sites.
- To compile a report which would include:
  - (1) Identification of palaeontological sites within the proposed development areas;
  - (2) Assess the sensitivity and significance of palaeontological resources / features in the site:
  - (2) Evaluation of the potential impacts of construction, operation and maintenance of the proposed development on palaeontological resources / features, in terms of the scale of impact (local, regional, national), magnitude of impact (low, medium or high) and the duration of the impact (construction, up to 10 years after construction (medium term), more than 10 years after construction (long term));
  - (3) Recommendation of mitigation measures to ameliorate any negative impacts on areas of palaeontological importance; and
  - (4) Consideration of relevant guidelines.

#### 2.1. Project implications for palaeontological heritage & relevant legislation

The proposed solar energy developments are located in an area of the Main Karoo Basin of South Africa that is underlain by potentially fossiliferous sedimentary rocks of the Karoo Supergroup of Late Carboniferous to Early Permian age. The construction phase of the development will entail excavations into the superficial sediment cover (soils, alluvial gravels *etc*) and perhaps also into the underlying potentially fossiliferous bedrock. These notably include excavations for the PV panel support structures, buried cables, internal access roads, any new power line pylons and associated infrastructure. All these developments may adversely affect potential fossil heritage within the study area by destroying, disturbing or permanently sealing-in fossils that are then no longer available for scientific research or other public good. Once constructed, the operational and decommissioning phases of the PV energy plants will not involve further adverse impacts on palaeontological heritage, however.

The extent of the proposed development (over 5000 m²) falls within the requirements for a Heritage Impact Assessment (HIA) as required by Section 38 (Heritage Resources Management) of the South African Heritage Resources Act (Act No. 25 of 1999). The various categories of heritage resources recognised as part of the National Estate in Section 3 of the Heritage Resources Act include, among others:

- geological sites of scientific or cultural importance
- palaeontological sites
- palaeontological objects and material, meteorites and rare geological specimens

Minimum standards for the palaeontological component of heritage impact assessment reports have recently been developed by SAHRA (2013).

#### 2.2. Approach to this palaeontological study

This report provides an assessment of the observed or inferred palaeontological heritage within the Copperton study area, with recommendations for any specialist palaeontological mitigation where this is considered necessary. The report is based on (1) a review of the relevant scientific literature, (2) geological maps, (3) several previous palaeontological heritage assessments for alternative energy developments in the Copperton region (e.g. Almond 2010a, 2010b, 2011a, 2011b); (4) one-day field assessments of the study area carried out on 26 January, 2012 (see Almond 2012b) and again on 24 May, 2013.

In preparing a palaeontological desktop study the potentially fossiliferous rock units (groups, formations *etc*) represented within the study area are determined from geological maps and satellite images. The known fossil heritage within each rock unit is inventoried from the published scientific literature, previous palaeontological impact studies in the same region, and the author's field experience. Consultation with professional colleagues, as well as examination of institutional fossil collections, may play a role here, or later following scoping during the compilation of the final report. This data is then used to assess the palaeontological sensitivity of each rock unit to development (Provisional tabulations of palaeontological sensitivity of all formations in the Northern Cape have been compiled by Almond & Pether 2008). The likely impact of the proposed development on local fossil heritage is then determined on the basis of (1) the palaeontological sensitivity of the rock units concerned and (2) the nature and scale of the development itself, most notably the extent of fresh bedrock excavation envisaged. When rock units of moderate to high palaeontological sensitivity are present within the development footprint, a field-based assessment by a professional palaeontologist is usually warranted.

The focus of the field-based assessment work is *not* simply to survey the development footprint or even the development area as a whole (e.g. farms or other parcels of land concerned in the development). Rather, the palaeontologist seeks to assess or predict the diversity, density and distribution of fossils within and beneath the study area, as well as their heritage or scientific This is primarily achieved through a careful field examination of one or more representative exposures of all the sedimentary rock units present (N.B. Metamorphic and igneous rocks rarely contain fossils). The best rock exposures are generally those that are easily accessible, extensive, and fresh (i.e. unweathered) and include a large fraction of the stratigraphic unit concerned (e.g. formation). These exposures may be natural or artificial and include, for example, rocky outcrops in stream or river banks, cliffs, quarries, dams, dongas, open building excavations or road and railway cuttings. Uncemented superficial deposits, such as alluvium, scree or wind-blown sands, may occasionally contain fossils and should also be included in the scoping study where they are well-represented in the study area. It is normal practice for impact palaeontologists to collect representative, well-localized (e.g. GPS and stratigraphic data) samples of fossil material during scoping studies. All fossil material collected must be properly curated within an approved repository (usually a museum or university collection).

Note that while fossil localities recorded during fieldwork within the study area itself are obviously highly relevant, most fossil heritage here is embedded within rocks beneath the land surface or obscured by surface deposits (soil, alluvium *etc*) and by vegetation cover. In many cases where levels of fresh (*i.e.* unweathered) bedrock exposure are low, the hidden fossil resources have to be *inferred* from palaeontological observations made from better exposures of the same formations elsewhere in the region but outside the immediate study area. Therefore a palaeontologist might reasonably spend far *more* time examining road cuts and borrow pits close to, but outside, the study area than within the study area itself. Field data from localities even further afield (*e.g.* an adjacent province) may also be adduced to build up a realistic picture of the likely fossil heritage within the study area.

On the basis of the desktop and field assessment studies, the likely impact of the proposed development on local fossil heritage and any need for specialist mitigation are then determined. Adverse palaeontological impacts normally occur during the construction rather than the operational or decommissioning phase. Mitigation by a professional palaeontologist – normally involving the recording and sampling of fossil material and associated geological information (e.g. sedimentological data) – is usually most effective during the construction phase when fresh fossiliferous bedrock has been exposed by excavations, although pre-construction recording of

surface-exposed material may sometimes be more appropriate. To carry out mitigation, the palaeontologist involved will need to apply for a palaeontological collection permit from the relevant heritage management authority (*i.e.* SAHRA, Cape Town). It should be emphasized that, *providing appropriate mitigation is carried out*, the majority of developments involving bedrock excavation can make a *positive* contribution to our understanding of local palaeontological heritage.

#### 2.3. Assumptions & limitations

The accuracy and reliability of palaeontological specialist studies as components of heritage impact assessments are generally limited by the following constraints:

- 1. Inadequate database for fossil heritage for much of the RSA, given the large size of the country and the small number of professional palaeontologists carrying out fieldwork here. Most development study areas have never been surveyed by a palaeontologist.
- 2. Variable accuracy of geological maps which underpin these desktop studies. For large areas of terrain these maps are largely based on aerial photographs alone, without ground-truthing. The maps generally depict only significant ("mappable") bedrock units as well as major areas of superficial "drift" deposits (alluvium, colluvium) but for most regions give little or no idea of the level of bedrock outcrop, depth of superficial cover (soil *etc*), degree of bedrock weathering or levels of small-scale tectonic deformation, such as cleavage. All of these factors may have a major influence on the impact significance of a given development on fossil heritage and can only be reliably assessed in the field.
- 3. Inadequate sheet explanations for geological maps, with little or no attention paid to palaeontological issues in many cases, including poor locality information.
- 4. The extensive relevant palaeontological "grey literature" in the form of unpublished university theses, impact studies and other reports (e.g. of commercial mining companies) that is not readily available for desktop studies.
- 5. Absence of a comprehensive computerized database of fossil collections in major RSA institutions which can be consulted for impact studies. A Karoo fossil vertebrate database is now accessible for impact study work.

In the case of palaeontological desktop studies without supporting Phase 1 field assessments these limitations may variously lead to either:

- (a) *underestimation* of the palaeontological significance of a given study area due to ignorance of significant recorded or unrecorded fossils preserved there, or
- (b) *overestimation* of the palaeontological sensitivity of a study area, for example when originally rich fossil assemblages inferred from geological maps have in fact been destroyed by tectonism or weathering, or are buried beneath a thick mantle of unfossiliferous "drift" (soil, alluvium *etc*).

Since most areas of the RSA have not been studied palaeontologically, a palaeontological desktop study usually entails *inferring* the presence of buried fossil heritage within the study area from relevant fossil data collected from similar or the same rock units elsewhere, sometimes at localities far away. Where substantial exposures of bedrocks or potentially fossiliferous superficial sediments are present in the study area, the reliability of a palaeontological impact assessment may be significantly enhanced through field assessment by a professional palaeontologist.

In the case of the present palaeontological field study in the Copperton region, the main limitation was the very high levels of bedrock cover by alluvial and colluvial soils, hardpan calcretes and gravels. Since several good bedrock exposures are available in roadside borrow pits and small

quarries for building stone within the study area, however, confidence levels in the conclusions presented here are moderately high.



Fig. 1. Google Earth© satellite image of the Northern Cape study region showing the approximate location (black rectangle) of the proposed Mulilo PV2 to PV11 energy plant study area on the farm Hoekplaas, situated some 52 km southwest of the town of Prieska on the River Orange (top centre). The study area spans the R357 dust road from Prieska to Van Wyksvlei.

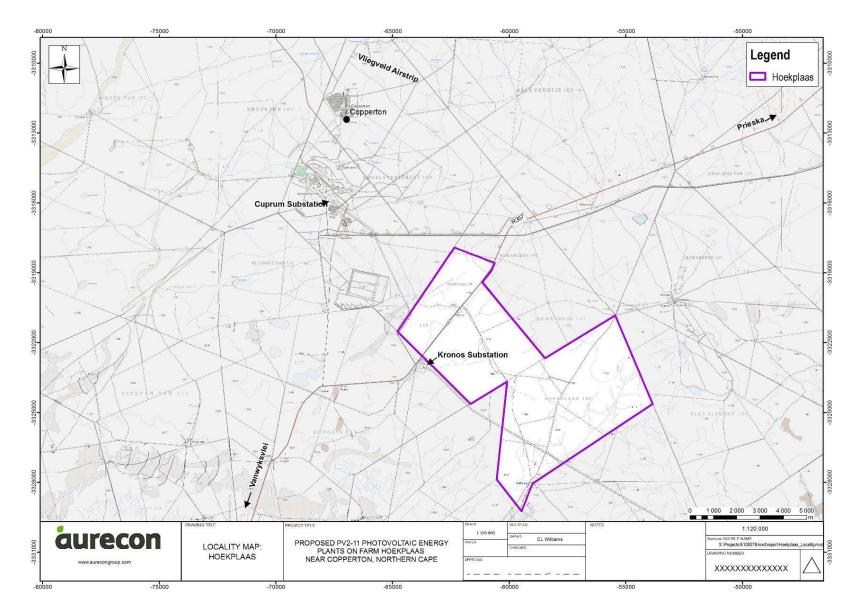


Fig. 2. Map showing the boundaries of the study area on farm Hoekplaas, c. 11 km SSE of the mining village of Copperton (Image abstracted by the Draft Scoping Report by Aurecon South Africa (Pty) Ltd, April 2013).

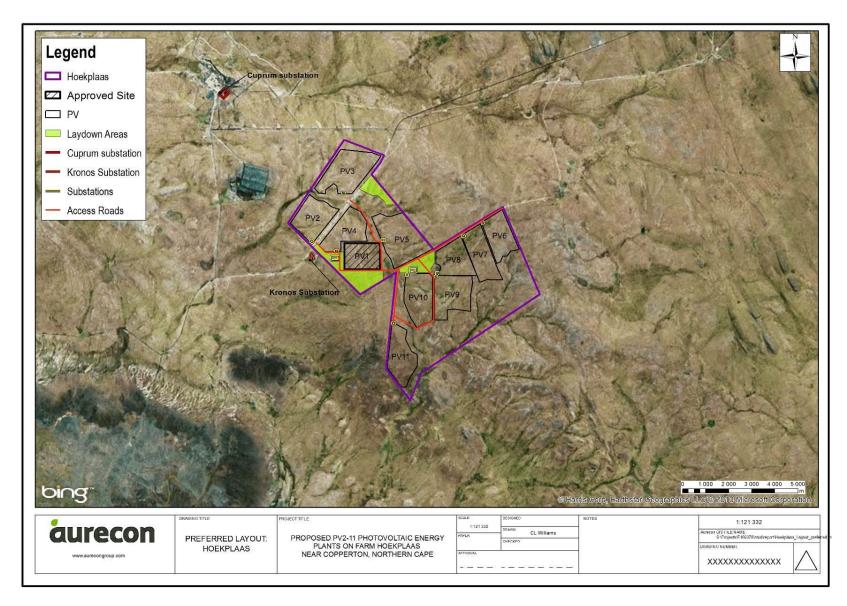


Fig. 3. Preferred layout for the ten proposed 75 MW AC PV plants on the farm Hoekplaas. Also shown here are the three proposed laydown areas and the PV1 site that has already received environmental authorisation (Image abstracted by the Draft Scoping Report by South Africa (Pty) Ltd, April 2013).

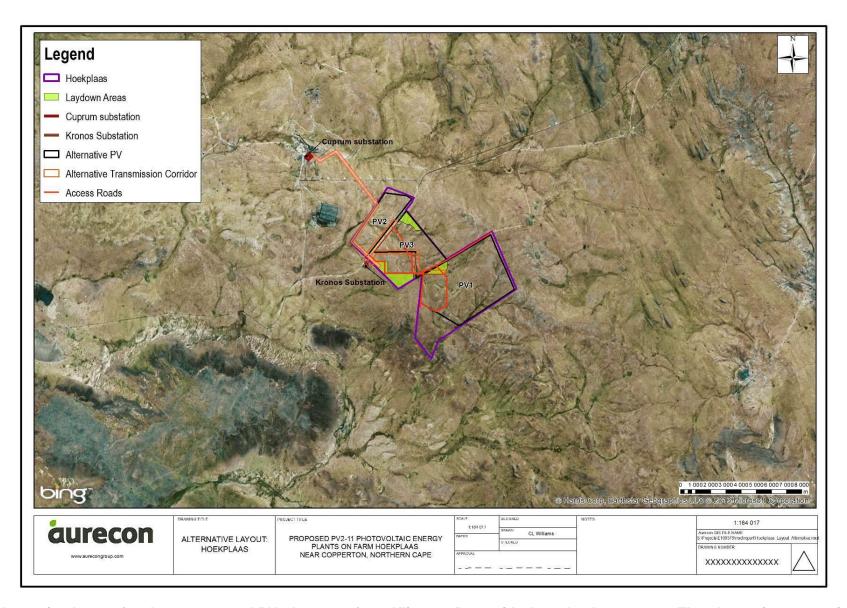


Fig. 4. Alternative layout for three proposed PV plants on farm Klipgats Pan, with three laydown areas. The alternative transmission line corridor to the existing Cuprum substation is also shown here (Image abstracted by the Draft Scoping Report by Aurecon South Africa (Pty) Ltd, April 2013).

#### 3. GEOLOGICAL CONTEXT

Satellite images of the Hoekplaas study area some 11 km SSE of Copperton (Fig. 5) show that it largely consists of fairly flat-lying, semi-arid, sandy to gravelly terrain lying at an elevation of *c*. 1100 m amsl. This region forms part of the low-relief *Kaiingveld* of eastern Bushmanland. Drainage is limited to small, intermittently active streams and pans. The local drainage flow is south-eastwards towards a well-defined dendritic system that is clearly seen in the bottom right hand corner of Fig. 5. A small pan along the main conduit has been exploited for road material at Q1. The regional drainage shows a net flow towards the west into old Tertiary drainage systems rather than the Orange River to the north. Vegetation cover is low, comprising sparse bossies (dwarf shrubs) and summer grasses with taller, shrubby vegetation around pan margins and along water courses. Levels of bedrock exposure are very low due to pervasive cover by superficial sediments (e.g. soil, alluvium, gravels, calcrete). However, good sections through the superficial sediments are seen in roadside borrow pits along the R357 (e.g. Q1 in Fig. 5).

The geology of the study area around Copperton is shown on the contiguous 1: 250 000 geology maps 2922 Prieska and 3022 Britstown (Council for Geoscience, Pretoria; Fig. 4 herein). The various rock units mapped here are treated in some detail in the accompanying sheet explanation by Prinsloo (1989) (*N.B.* There is as yet no explanation published for the Prieska sheet).

GPS data concerning all localities mentioned by number in the text are given in the Appendix.

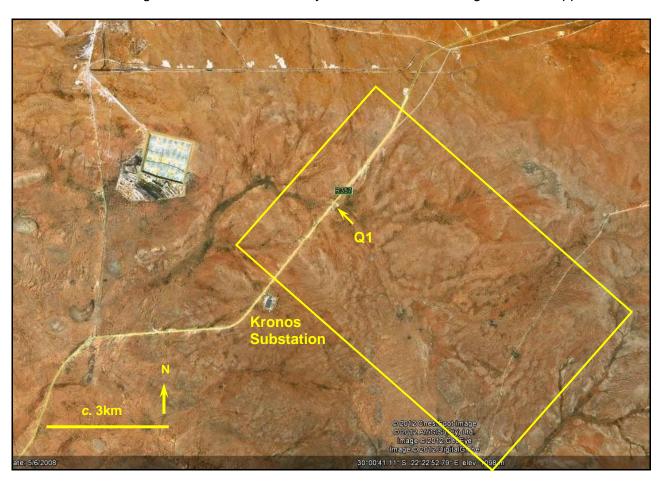


Fig. 5. Google Earth© satellite image of the Hoekplaas PV solar plant study area (very broadly defined by yellow rectangle) spanning the R357 dust road and c. 11 km SSE of Copperton. The boundaries of the study area are shown more accurately in Fig. 3 above. Q1 marks a large roadside borrow pit showing vertical sections through superficial sediments overlying weathered Dwyka Group saprolite. The prominent square structure to the west of the study area is a mine slimes dam.

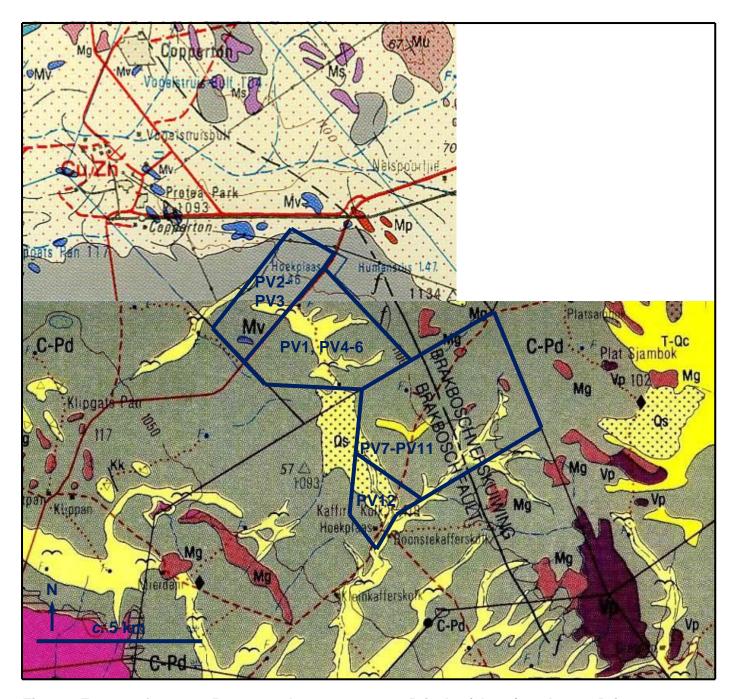


Fig. 6. Extracts from 1: 250 000 geology maps 2922 Prieska (above) and 3022 Britstown (below) (Council for Geoscience, Pretoria) showing the approximate outline of the proposed solar energy facility study area on the farm Hoekplaas near Copperton (blue polygons). The main geological units mapped within the study region are:

- 1. Precambrian (Mid Proterozoic / Mokolian) basement rocks (igneous / metamorphic): Dark blue (Mv) = Vogelstruisbult Formation (Jacobsmyn Pan Group) Reddish-brown (Mg) = granitic and associated intrusive igneous rocks
- 2. Late Carboniferous / Early Permian Karoo Supergroup sediments: Grey (C-Pd) = Mbizane Formation (Dwyka Group)
- 3. Late Caenozoic (Quaternary to Recent) superficial deposits:
  Pale yellow with dots (Qs) = reddish aeolian sands of Gordonia Formation (Kalahari Group)
  Pale yellow with flying bird symbol = Quaternary to Recent alluvium, pan sediments
  Dark yellow (T-Qc) = calcrete hardpan

#### 3.1. Precambrian basement rocks

Several small inliers of ancient basement rocks emerge through the cover of Kalahari sands and other superficial deposits in the Copperton area. The inlier in the western corner of farm Hoekplaas is assigned to the **Vogelstruisbult Formation** of the **Jacobsmyn Pan Group** (**Mv** in Fig. 6). This group of basement rocks mainly consists of high grade metamorphic rocks (banded pelitic gneiss, migmatites) that are unfossiliferous (Slabbert *et al.*, 1999, Cornell *et al.*, 2006). There are also several small outcrops of various unnamed granites, gabbros and pegmatites of ill-defined Mokolian age (*i.e.* Mid Proterozoic, between 1000 and 2050 Ma) that are indicated as **Mg** in the eastern portion of the study area (Prinsloo 1989, Cornell *et al.* 2006). They are also of undetermined Mokolian age (*i.e.* mid-Proterozoic, between 1000 to 2050 Ma = million years old). These ancient basement rocks were last metamorphosed some one billion or so years ago (1 – 1.2 Ga) and since they are entirely unfossiliferous they will not be considered further here.

#### 3.2. Permo-Carboniferous Dwyka Group

Beneath the superficial sediment cover Permo-Carboniferous glacial sediments of **Dwyka Group** (**C-Pd, Karoo Supergroup**) underlie almost the entire Hoekplaas study area. Dwyka rocks may therefore be intersected by deeper excavations during development. The geology of the Dwyka Group has been summarized by Visser (1989), Visser *et al.* (1990) and Johnson *et al.* (2006), among others.

The Dwyka Group along the north-western margin of the Main Karoo Basin, including the Prieska Sub-basin in particular, has been reviewed by Visser (1982, 1985). In Dwyka times the Prieska – Copperton area lay within a basement high region between the Sout River Valley in the west and the Prieska Basin in the east (Fig. 7). This area is referred to as the Kaiing Hills or Kaiing Veld Region by Visser and is characterized by a relatively thin Dwyka succession (normally < 50 m). This mainly comprises massive clast-rich diamictites and clast–poor argillaceous diamictites ("boulder shale") overlain by a thin zone of laminated dropstone argillite with outsized clasts composed mainly of quartzite and gneiss (Visser 1985; Fig. 8 below). Note the presence of an isolated peak (*monadnock*) of Proterozoic basement rocks emerging through the Dwyka cover rocks to the southeast of Copperton (*ibid.*). Ice transport directions initially towards the south and later towards the southwest are reconstructed by Visser (1985, his fig. 17). The source area of many of the exotic boulder erratics (*e.g.* stromatolitic carbonates of the Griqualand West succession, amygdaloidal lavas of the Ventersdorp Supergroup) seen in the Dwyka sediments near Copperton, as well as the Prieska Basin to the east, is the elevated Ghaap Plateau to the north of Prieska (Visser 1982, his fig. 2).

Further detailed observations on the Dwyka beds on the northern edge of the Britstown 1: 250 000 sheet are provided by Prinsloo (1989). Good surface outcrops of the Dwyka beds are rare here due to extensive cover by thin surface gravels. Massive tillites at the base of the Dwyka succession were deposited by dry-based ice sheets in deeper basement valleys. Later climatic amelioration led to melting, marine transgression and the retreat of the ice sheets onto the continental highlands in the north. The valleys were then occupied by marine inlets within which drifting glaciers deposited dropstones onto the muddy sea bed ("boulder shales"). The upper Dwyka beds are typically heterolithic, with shales, siltstones and fine-grained sandstones of deltaic and / or turbiditic origin. These upper successions are typically upwards-coarsening and show extensive soft-sediment deformation (loading and slumping). Varved (rhythmically laminated) mudrocks with gritty to fine gravely dropstones indicate the onset of highly seasonal climates, with warmer intervals leading occasionally even to limestone precipitation.

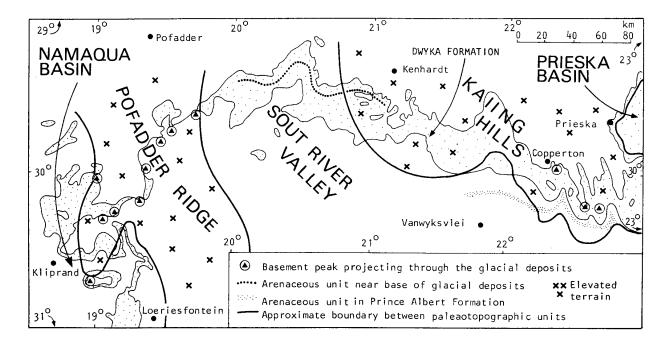
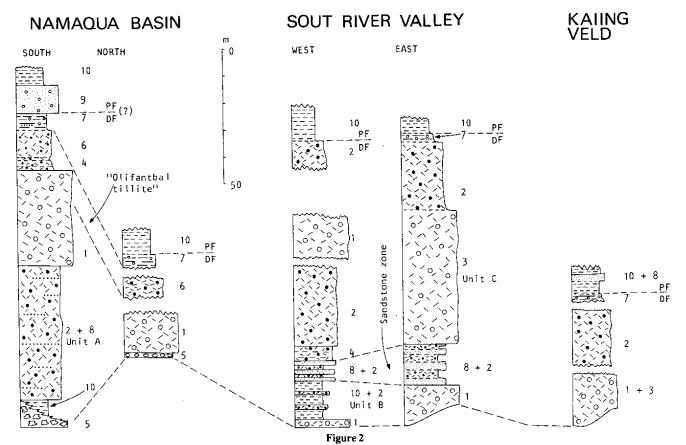


Fig. 7. Reconstruction of the topography along the northern margin of the Karoo Basin in Dwyka times showing the location of the Prieska-Copperton area on a basement high with scattered peaks of basement rock projecting through the Dwyka glacial sediment cover (From Visser 1985).

According to maps in Visser *et al.* (1990) and Von Brunn and Visser (1999) the Dwyka rocks in the Prieska-Copperton area close to the northern edge of the Main Karoo Basin belong to the **Mbizane Formation**. This is equivalent to the Northern (valley and inlet) Facies of Visser *et al.* (1990). The Mbizane Formation, up to 190 m thick, is recognized across the entire northern margin of the Main Karoo Basin where it may variously form the whole or (as here) only the *upper* part of the Dwyka succession. It is characterized by its extremely heterolithic nature, with marked vertical and horizontal facies variation (Von Brunn & Visser 1999). The proportion of diamictite and mudrock is often low, the former often confined to basement depressions. Orange-tinted sandstones (often structureless or displaying extensive soft-sediment deformation, amalgamation and mass flow processes) may dominate the succession. The Mbizane-type heterolithic successions characterize the thicker Dwyka of the ancient palaeovalleys cutting back into the northern basement rocks.

Judging from satellite images (Fig. 5), there are no extensive natural exposures of Dwyka bedrocks in the Hoekplaas study area. Deeply-weathered, pale grey mudrocks with sparse cobbly to boulder erratics ("boulder shales") of the upper Dwyka Group are exposed in the roadside quarry Q1 (Fig. 5) as well as borrow pits at Locs. 185 and 189 within or on the margins of Hoekplaas (Fig. 9). The erratic boulders are often well-rounded and some bear surface glacial striations. The upper one or two meters of the Dwyka bedrocks are extensively calcretised, with a network of calcrete veins or mudrock flakes enclosed in a calcrete matrix, overlain by a calcrete hardpan and surface gravels.

Good exposures of the Dwyka boulder shales ("dropstone laminites") on the adjacent farm Klipgats Pan have been briefly described by Almond (2012a). A thin-bedded Dwyka facies is also seen on Hoekplaas in the roadside borrow pit at Loc. 186 (Fig. 10). Here grey-green, clast-poor shaly mudrocks, heavily calcretised and without obvious dropstones here, overlie clast-poor pebbly and bouldery diamictite.



Regional stratigraphic sequences of the Dwyka Formation between Loeriesfontein and the Doringberg Range with the lithofacies indicated by numbers. 1. Massive clast-rich arenaceous diamictite. 2. Massive clast-poor argillaceous diamictite ("boulder shale"). 3. Massive diamictite (undifferentiated). 4. Bedded diamictite. 5. Brecciated basement rocks (local tillite). 6. Massive carbonate-rich diamictite ("olifantbal tillite"). 7. Dropstone argillite ("varved shale"). 8. Fine- to coarse-grained sandstone. 9. Pebbly sandstone. 10. Dark grey to black, micaceous shale and mudstone. Lithological units numbered A, B, and C will be referred to in the text. DF = Dwyka Formation, PF = Prince Albert Formation (see Fig. 1 for location of regions).

Fig. 8. Stratigraphic logs through the Dwyka Group along the northern margin of the Main Karoo Basin. The short Kaiing Veld log on the RHS, dominated by diamictite facies, is most relevant to the Copperton area (From Visser 1985).



Fig. 9. Grey-green bouldery Dwyka diamictite overlain by a well-developed calcrete hardpan, borrow pit at Loc. 189 (Hammer = 30 cm).



Fig. 10. Thin-bedded, secondarily calcretised shaly mudrocks of the Dwyka Group exposed in a borrow pit at Loc. 186 (Hammer = 30 cm).

#### 3.3. Late Caenozoic superficial sediments

A wide range of superficial sediments of probable Pleistocene to Recent age mantle the Precambrian and Palaeozoic bedrocks in the Hoekplaas study area, but for the most part these are not mapped at 1: 250 000 scale (Fig. 6). Similar sediments are briefly described from the adjacent farm Klipgats Pan by Almond (2012a), from which the following account is largely taken.

Polymict, poorly-sorted **boulder gravels** generated by downwasting of resistant weathering, exotic erratics from the underlying Dwyka glacial rocks may directly overlie the Dwyka bedrock or subsurface calcrete hardpans. In some areas these surface gravels have been concentrated and locally reworked during Late Caenozoic times into fluvial gravels (Fig. 13) or other superficial sediments, including soils and calcretes. The gravels are angular to well-rounded, with clasts up to a meter in diameter (but usually much smaller), and occasionally show glacial facetting and striation showing that extensive fluvial reworking has not occurred here. They consist of a wide range of exotic lithologies (granites, gneisses, schists, quartzites, sandstones, hornfels, jaspilitic banded iron formation, cherts, vein quartz, carbonates including limestone and dolomite, amygdaloidal, porphyritic and other lavas, reworked calcrete *etc*) and have occasionally been flaked (*e.g.* quartzites). Many iron- or manganese-rich rock types have developed a shiny dark desert varnish.

**Sandy to silty soils** mantle a large portion of the study area and may reach thicknesses of 1-2 m, but are usually much thinner. The superficial sandy soils are generally orange-brown and unconsolidated; they probably have a substantial wind-blown component. These are underlain by paler buff, better-consolidated silty soils that are often incipiently calcretised. The soils contain sparse gravel clasts that locally are concentrated into lenticular to laterally-persistent, 10 to 40 cm thick horizons of fine gravels (occasionally flaked) accompanied by reworked, well-rounded calcrete clasts that clearly represent buried ancient palaeosurfaces (Figs. 14 & 15).

Unconsolidated aeolian sands attributed to the Pleistocene to Recent **Gordonia Formation** of the Kalahari Group (Fig. 11) are mapped in the lower reaches of the drainage system that leads southwards from Hoekplaas (Qs in Fig. 6). Their thickness in the study region is uncertain. The geology of the Late Cretaceous to Recent Kalahari Group is reviewed by Thomas (1981), Dingle *et al.* (1983), Thomas & Shaw 1991, Haddon (2000) and Partridge *et al.* (2006). The Gordonia dune sands are considered to range in age from the Late Pliocene / Early Pleistocene, dated in part from enclosed Middle to Late Stone Age stone tools (Dingle *et al.*, 1983, p. 291). Note that the recent extension of the Pliocene - Pleistocene boundary from 1.8 Ma back to 2.588 Ma would place the Gordonia Formation entirely within the Pleistocene Epoch.

A well-developed, massive and vuggy to laminated **calcrete hardpan** underlies the soil horizons over large parts of the study area, as can be seen in quarry excavations along the R357 (Q1, Locs. 308, 309) (Figs. 9, 16 & 17). Extensive calcrete development is typical of the Ecca and Dwyka outcrop areas in Bushmanland, especially around pans (Prinsloo 1989). A horizon of poorly-sorted downwasted gravels usually occurs on the upper surface, beneath the superficial soil capping, and coarse gravels are often embedded within the calcrete hardpan itself. There have clearly been several phases of Late Caenozoic calcrete development in the region. Reworking of older calcretes into younger horizons is shown by lenticles of calcrete breccia and even well-developed conglomerates up to 2 m thick composed of well-rounded pebbly and cobbly calcrete clasts (Fig. 17). Sizeable solution hollows (*dolines* or *makondos*) have not been reported, but may be present. Calcretisation extends several meters down as a network of veins into the underlying, deeply-weathered Dwyka mudrock saprolite (*in situ* weathered bedrock). The calcretes and overlying gravels may be tentatively equated with the Pleistocene **Mokalanen** and **Obogorop Formations** respectively of the **Kalahari Group** to the north (Fig. 11).

A variety of gravelly, sandy and silty **alluvial sediments** line shallow, intermittently-flowing water courses, while pan areas typically contain fine-grained silts and calcrete-rich subsoils (*cf* Partridge & Scott 2000, Partridge *et al.* 2006). In areas of sparse vegetation where the soil surface has been ablated by wind and / or sheetwash processes, extensive sheets of sparse gravels clasts are

present. Many of these are too large to have been moved by sheetwash processes, and must have downwasted more or less *in situ* as the Dwyka outcrop was denuded by erosion (Fig. 19).

In the *leegte* area along the southeastern margin of the Hoekplaas study area (Loc. 187), an ancient drainage line, donga erosion has exposed thick (c. 1 m) silty brown alluvium with a thin aeolian sst veneer and nodular calcretised subsurface. Coarse, poorly-sorted gravels at the base of the alluvial succession (some flaked) probably represent fluvially reworked material of Dwyka provenance (Fig. 21).

At quarry site Q1 (Fig. 5), adjacent to the R357 on Hoekplaas, thick calcrete deposits overlying weathered Dwyka boulder mudstones have been extensively exploited for road material. Quarrying has locally disturbed and confused the local stratigraphy here. A thick (2.5 m or more) calcrete hardpan, variously nodular, rubbly, conglomeratic, massive or laminated, is directly overlain by coarse dark gravels that are in turn mantled by reddish brown sandy soils (Figs. 12, 13 & 16). The coarse gravels (cobbles and pebbles of various dark quartzites, lavas, cherts etc) on the southern side of the quarry form a laterally-persistent horizon (probable palaeochannel) that contains a high proportion of well-rounded clasts and have clearly been reworked by stream action; elsewhere they may have mainly accumulated by downwasting. Rounded, transported stone artefacts also occur here. Thinner, less persistent horizons or lenticles of finer gravels marking buried palaeosurfaces within the soils some 30 cm below the surface are obviously somewhat Orton (2012) reported rich assemblages of fresh (probably younger in age (Fig. 14). untransported) Middle Stone Age (MSA) stone artefacts as well as a single fossil horse tooth from this horizon (Loc. 309 herein). The reddish-brown to buff soils also contain scattered gravel clasts, reworked calcrete and calcrete nodules (glaebules) (Fig. 17). They are locally mantled in thin sheetwash and downwasted gravel layers, with many flaked clasts.

The detailed description of the superficial sediment stratigraphy at Bundu Pan, located only some 22 km northwest of Copperton, by Kiberd (2006 and refs. therein) is very relevant to the present study area. Seven stratigraphic units (Groups 1-7), some of them fossiliferous, were recognised in trenches into the pan area. Among these, the uppermost four units bear close comparison with deposits observed within borrow pits in the Copperton study area. These are, in ascending order, Group 4 (laminated to massive calcrete hardpan, locally silcretised), Group 3 (pebbly and cobbly gravels, locally calcretised), Group 2 (sands / silts with horizons of gravels) and Group 1 (reddish surface sands).

Well-defined shallow **pans** are infilled with buff silty sediment with a thin aeolian sand veneer, subsurface calcrete hardpan and a thin cover of dispersed surface gravels, often dominated by calcrete (*e.g.* Locs. 181, 182) (Figs. 18 & 20).

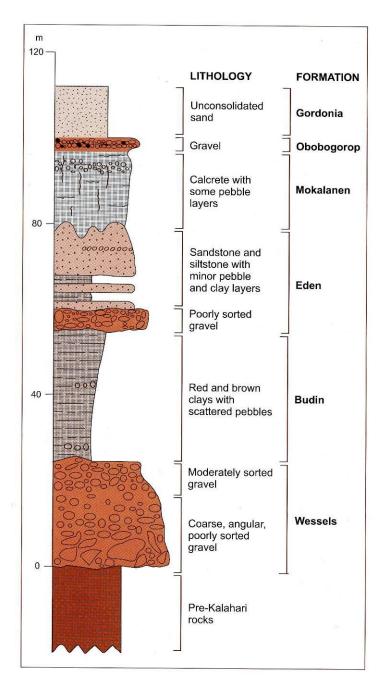


Fig. 11. Stratigraphy of the Kalahari Group (From Partridge *et al.*, 2006). Superficial sediments within the Hoekplaas study area are tentatively equated with the uppermost three formations of the Kalahari Group.

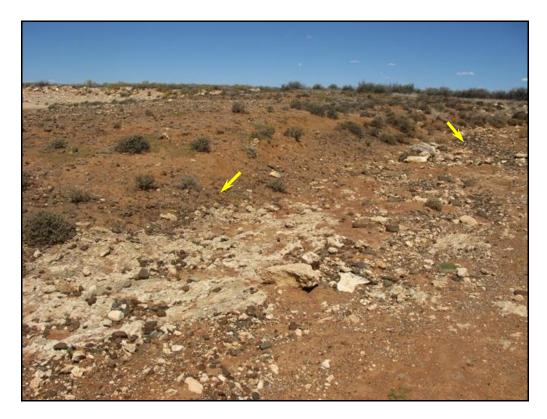


Fig. 12. Quarry site Q1 (Locs. 308-309) viewed towards the SE showing laterally-persistent horizon of stream-reworked dark gravels (arrows) underlying the superficial orange-brown soils and directly overlying a well-developed calcrete hardpan.



Fig. 13. Details of coarse, dark fluvially-reworked gravels exposed in a donga. The abundant calcrete clasts seen here may be in part due to natural stream erosion, but could well also reflect quarrying for road material at this site (Q1) (Hammer = 30 cm).



Fig. 14. Thin buried gravel horizon rich in stone artefacts that marks a palaeosurface between two generations of orange-brown soils, southern side of Q1 (Loc. 309) (Hammer = 30 cm).

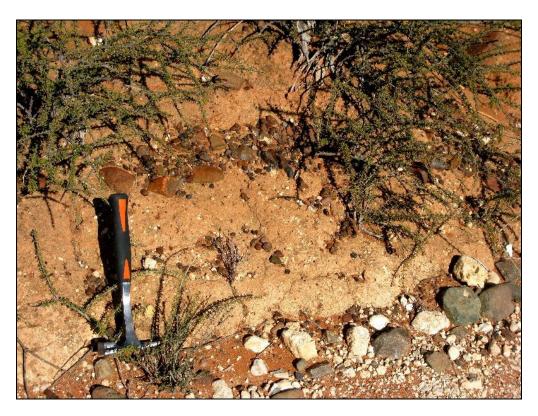


Fig. 15. Buff, slightly calcretised subsoil with lenses of gravels including MSA flaked artefacts, shallow road cutting at Loc. 181 (Hammer = 30 cm).



Fig. 16. Quarry face on the south-eastern edge of Q1 showing thick calcrete hardpan, denser towards the upper surface, overlain by downwasted or stream-reworked gravel horizon and orange-brown soils (Hammer = 30 cm).



Fig. 17. Quarried section along the northern edge of Q1 showing nodular calcrete overlain by calcrete pebbly conglomerate and buff soils (Close by, these last contain embedded borehole cores and are probably disturbed) (Hammer = 30 cm).

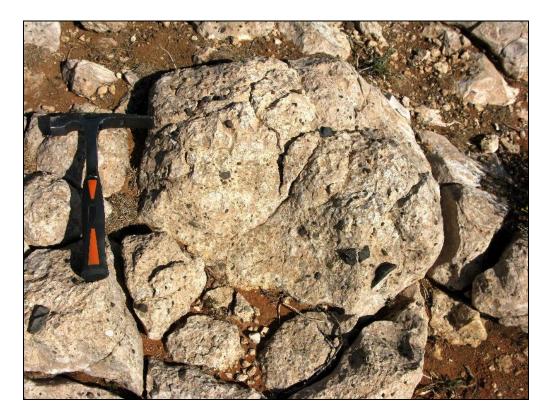


Fig. 18. Calcrete harpan exposed along edge of a pan showing conglomeratic fabric of reworked nodular calcrete and dispersed gravels, Loc. 184 (Hammer = 30 cm).

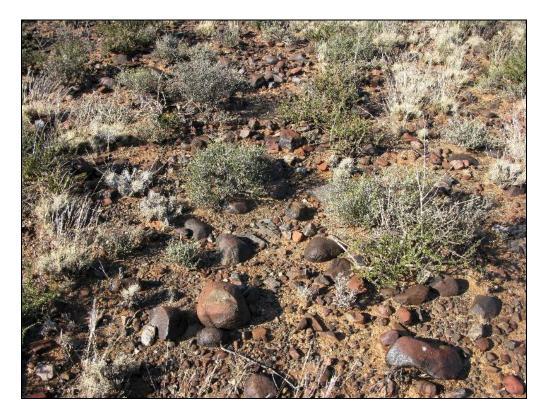


Fig. 19. Typical coarse, poorly-sorted surface gravels downwasted from the Dwyka Group. Many of the clasts show a dark patina of desert varnish.



Fig. 20. Large shallow pan with siltstone infill and cover of dispersed gravels, many composed of calcrete, Loc. 181.



Fig. 21. Donga exposure of thick silty alluvium in the *leegte* (ancient drainage line) bordering the Hoekplaas study area in the southeast, showing coarse basal gravels (some flaked), Loc. 187.

#### 4. PALAEONTOLOGICAL HERITAGE

The fossil heritage recorded within each of the main sedimentary rock units mapped at surface within the study area is outlined here in order of decreasing geological age (See also summary of fossil heritage in Table 4.1 below). Note that the Precambrian basement rocks as well as any unmapped igneous intrusions (dolerites, kimberlites) are not treated here since they are entirely unfossiliferous.

#### 4.1. Fossils in the Dwyka Group

The generally poor fossil record of the Dwyka Group (McLachlan & Anderson 1973, Anderson & McLachlan 1976, Visser 1989, Visser et al., 1990, Visser 2003, Almond & Pether 2008) is hardly surprising given the glacial climates that prevailed during much of the Late Carboniferous to Early Permian Periods in southern Africa. However, most Dwyka sediments were deposited during periods of glacial retreat associated with climatic amelioration. Sparse, low diversity fossil biotas from the Mbizane Formation in particular mainly consist of arthropod trackways associated with dropstone laminites and sporadic vascular plant remains, while palynomorphs (organic-walled microfossils) are also likely to be present within finer-grained mudrock facies. Glacial diamictites (tillites or "boulder mudstones") are normally unfossiliferous but do occasionally contain fragmentary transported plant material as well as palynomorphs in the fine-grained matrix. There are interesting records of limestone glacial erratics from tillites along the southern margins of the Great Karoo (Elandsvlei Formation) that contain Cambrian eodiscid trilobites as well as archaeocyathid sponges. Such derived fossils provide important data for reconstructing the movement of Gondwana ice sheets (Cooper & Oosthuizen 1974, Stone & Thompson 2005).

A limited range of marine fossils are associated with the later phases of several of the four main Dwyka deglaciation cycles (DSI to DSIV), especially in the Kalahari Basin of southern Namibia but also in some cases within the Main Karoo Basin in South Africa (Oelofsen 1986, Visser 1989, 1997, Visser et al. 1997, Bangert et al. 1999, Stollhofen et al. 2000, Almond 2008). These deglaciation sequences are estimated to have lasted five to seven million years on average (Bangert et al. 1999). A range of stenohaline (i.e. exclusively salt water) invertebrate fossils indicates that fully marine salinities prevailed at the end of each sequence, at least in the western outcrop area (Namibia, Northern Cape). These invertebrates include echinoderms (starfish, crinoids, echinoids), cephalopods (nautiloids, goniatites), articulate brachiopods, bryozoans, foraminiferans, and conulariids, among others. Primitive bony fish (palaeoniscoids), spiral "coprolites" attributable to sharks or eurypterids, as well as wood and trace fossils are also recorded from mudrock facies at the tops of DSII (Ganikobis Shale Member), DS III (Hardap Member) and DSIV (Nossob Shale Member, as well as base of the Prince Albert Formation (Ecca Group) in southern Namibia and, in the last case at least, in the Northern Cape near Douglas (McLachlan and Anderson 1973, Veevers et al. 1994, Grill 1997, Bangert et al. 1999, Pickford & Senut 2002, Evans 2005). The Ganikobis (DSII) fauna has been radiometrically dated to c. 300 Ma, or end-Carboniferous (Gzhelian), while the Hardap fauna (DSIII) is correlated with the Eurydesma transgression of earliest Permian age (Asselian) that can be widely picked up across Gondwana (Dickens 1961, 1984, Bangert et al. 1999, Stollhofen et al. 2000). The distinctive thickshelled bivalve Eurydesma, well known from the Dwyka of southern Namibia, has not yet been recorded from the main Karoo Basin, however (McLachlan and Anderson 1973). The upper part of DSIV, just above the Dwyka / Ecca boundary in the western Karoo Basin (i.e. situated within the basal Prince Albert Formation), has been radiometrically dated to 290-288 Ma (Stollhofen et al. 2000).

Low diversity ichnoassemblages dominated by non-marine arthropod trackways are widely associated with cold water periglacial mudrocks, including dropstone laminites, within the Mbizane Formation in the Main Karoo Basin (Von Brunn & Visser, 1999, Savage 1970, 1971, Anderson 1974, 1975, 1976, 1981, Almond 2008, 2009). They are assigned to the non-marine / lacustrine *Mermia* ichnofacies that has been extensively recorded from post-glacial epicontinental seas and large lakes of Permian age across southern Gondwana (Buatois & Mangano 1995, 2004). These

Dwyka ichnoassemblages include the arthropod trackways Maculichna, Umfolozia and Isopodichnus, the possible crustacean resting trace Gluckstadtella, sinuous fish-fin traces (Undichna) as well as various unnamed horizontal burrows. The association of these interglacial or post-glacial ichnoassemblages with rhythmites (interpreted as varvites generated by seasonal ice melt), the absence of stenohaline marine invertebrate remains, and their low diversity suggest a restricted, fresh- or brackish water environment. Herbert and Compton (2007) also inferred a freshwater depositional environment for the Dwyka / Ecca contact beds in the SW Cape based on geochemical analyses of calcareous and phosphatic diagenetic nodules within the upper Elandsvlei and Prince Albert Formations respectively. Well-developed U-shaped burrows of the ichnogenus Rhizocorallium are recorded from sandstones interbedded with varved mudrocks within the upper Dwyka Group (Mbizane facies) on the Britstown sheet (Prinsloo 1989) (Fig. 22). Similar Rhizocorallium traces also described from the Dwyka Group of Namibia (e.g. the Hardap Shale Member, Miller 2008). References to occurrences of the complex helical spreiten burrow Zoophycos in the Dwyka of the Britstown sheet and elsewhere (e.g. Prinsloo 1989) are probably in error, since in Palaeozoic times this was predominantly a shallow marine to estuarine ichnogenus (Seilacher 2007). Visser (1982) makes brief but unspecific references to bioturbation and trace fossils within the Dwyka sediments of the Prieska Basin, for example within his sandstonesiltstone-shale and (late glacial to post-glacial) varved mudrock facies.

Scattered records of fossil vascular plants within the Dwyka Group of the Main Karoo Basin record the early phase of the colonisation of SW Gondwana by members of the Glossopteris Flora in the Late Carboniferous (Plumstead 1969, Anderson & McLachlan 1976, Anderson & Anderson 1985 and earlier refs. therein). These records include fragmentary carbonized stems and leaves of the seed ferns Glossopteris / Gamgamopteris and several gymnospermous genera (e.g. Noeggerathiopsis, Ginkgophyllum) that are even found within glacial tillites. More "primitive" plant taxa include lycopods (club mosses) and true mosses such as Dwykea. It should be noted that the depositional setting (e.g. fluvial versus glacial) and stratigraphic position of some of these records are contested (cf Anderson & McLachlan 1976). Petrified woods with well-developed seasonal growth rings are recorded from the upper Dwyka Group (Mbizane Formation) of the northern Karoo Basin (e.g. Prinsloo 1989) as well as from the latest Carboniferous of southern Namibia. The more abundant Namibian material (e.g. Megaporoxylon) has recently received systematic attention (Bangert & Bamford 2001, Bamford 2000, 2004) and is clearly gymnospermous (pycnoxylic, i.e. dense woods with narrow rays) but most cannot be assigned to any particular gymnosperm order. Borehole cores through Dwyka mudrocks have yielded moderately diverse palynomorph assemblages (organic-walled spores, acanthomorph acritarchs) as well as plant cuticles. These mudrocks are interbedded with diamictites in the southern Karoo as well as within Dwyka valley infills along the northern margin of the Main Karoo Basin (McLachlan & Anderson 1973, Anderson 1977, Stapleton 1977, Visser 1989, Anderson & Anderson 1985). Thirty one Dwyka palynomorph species are mentioned by the last authors, for example. Anderson's (1977) Late Carboniferous to Early Permian Biozone 1 based on Dwyka palynomorph assemblages is characterized by abundant Microbaculispora, monosaccate pollens (e.g. Vestigisporites) and nontaeniate bisaccate pollens (e.g. Pityosporites) (Stephenson 2008). Prinsloo (1989) mentions stromatolitic limestone lenses within the uppermost Dwyka Group in the Britstown sheet area. These may be comparable to interglacial microbial mats and mounds described from the Ganikobis Shale Member (DSII) of southern Namibia by Grill (1997) and Bangert et al. (2000).



Fig. 22. Large U-burrows of the ichnogenus *Rhizocorallium* in ripple-marked sandstones of the upper Dwyka Group, Britstown sheet area (From Prinsloo, 1989).

Although a wide range of fossils are now known from the Dwyka Group, most sediments assigned to this succession are unfossiliferous (with the possible exception of microfossils). The overall palaeontological sensitivity of the Dwyka Group is therefore rated as low (Almond & Pether 2008). Any interglacial mudrocks and heterolithic successions (*i.e.* interbedded sandstones and mudrocks) are worth investigating for fossils, however. Since the Prieska-Copperton area lay on a basement high in Dwyka times (Fig. 7), interglacial mudrocks are unlikely to be well represented here. Late-glacial or post-glacial mudrocks, such as those containing a fairly rich shelly fossil record at Douglas in the Northern Cape (McLachlan & Anderson 1973) have apparently been lost to erosion in the Prieska region.

No fossils have been recorded from the Dwyka Group sediments on Hoekplaas. Small domical to columnar stromatolites preserved within bouldery erratics of grey carbonate (probably dolomite) have been reported from the neighbouring farm Klipgats Pan by Almond (2012a). These erratics have probably been transported by ice movement from the Campbell Rand Subgroup (Ghaap Group) that crops out in the Ghaap Plateau to the north of Prieska.

#### 4.2. Fossils in the superficial sediments

The various superficial "drift deposits" of the Bushmanland and Karoo regions of South Africa, including aeolian sands, alluvium, calcretes and pan deposits, have been comparatively neglected in palaeontological terms. However, they may occasionally contain important fossil biotas, notably the bones, teeth and horn cores of mammals as well as remains of reptiles like tortoises. Good examples are the Pleistocene mammal faunas at Florisbad, Cornelia and Erfkroon in the Free State and elsewhere (Wells & Cooke 1942, Cooke 1974, Skead 1980, Klein 1984, Brink, J.S. 1987, Bousman *et al.* 1988, Bender & Brink 1992, Brink *et al.* 1995, MacRae 1999, Meadows & Watkeys 1999, Churchill *et al.* 2000 Partridge & Scott 2000, Brink & Rossouw 2000, Rossouw 2006). Other late Caenozoic fossil biotas from these superficial deposits include non-marine molluscs (bivalves, gastropods), ostrich egg shells, trace fossils (*e.g.* calcretised termitaria, coprolites), and plant remains such as peats or palynomorphs (pollens, spores) in organic-rich alluvial horizons (Scott 2000) and siliceous diatoms in pan sediments. Calcrete hardpans might also contain trace fossils such as rhizoliths, termite nests and other insect burrows, or even mammalian trackways. Solution hollows within well-developed calcrete horizons may have acted as fossil traps in the past, as seen in Late Caenozoic limestones near the coast and Precambrian carbonate successions of the

Southern African interior. Dense concentrations of vertebrate remains (e.g. small mammals, reptiles) or terrestrial molluscs, for example, are a possibility here. In Quaternary deposits, fossil remains may be associated with human artefacts such as stone tools and are also of archaeological interest (e.g. Smith 1999 and refs. therein). Stone artefacts of Pleistocene and younger age may additionally prove useful in constraining the age of superficial deposits such as gravelly alluvium and pedocretes within which they are occasionally embedded.

Important fossil mammalian remains assigned to the Florisian Mammal Age (c. 300 000 -12 000 BP; MacRae 1999) have recently been documented from stratigraphic units designated Group 4 to Group 6 (i.e. calcrete hardpan and below) at Bundu Pan, some 22 km northwest of Copperton (Kiberd 2006 and refs. therein). These are among very few Middle Pleistocene faunal records from stratified deposits in the southern Africa region (Klein 1980, 1984a, 1984b, 2000) and are therefore of high palaeontological significance. Characteristic extinct Pleistocene species recorded at Bundu Pan are the giant Cape Horse or Zebra (Equus capensis) and the Giant Hartebeest (Megalotragus priscus). Other extant to extinct taxa include species of warthog, blesbok, black wildebeest, springbok and baboon. There is additionally trace fossil evidence for hyaenids (tooth marks) as well as ostrich egg shell. Preliminary dating and the inferred ecology of the fossil taxa present suggests the presence of standing water within a grassy savanna setting during the 200 - 300 000 BP interval when the Bunda Pan faunal assemblage accumulated. A sequence of Earlier, Middle and Later Stone Age artefact assemblages is also recorded from this site. Stratigraphic Groups 4 to 6 (i.e. calcrete hardpan and below) contain a Final Acheulian or transitional Earlier Stone Age (ESA) / MSA artefact assemblage, while Groups 2-3 above the calcrete horizon contain a MSA artefact assemblage.

Orton (2012) recorded a single fossil equid tooth associated with a rich MSA artefact assemblage exposed in an erosion donga leading into the southern edge of quarry Q2 on Hoekplaas (originally a pan). The tooth may have originally eroded out of a thin, MSA artefact-rich gravel horizon (palaoesurface) within soils exposed in section at the southern end of the gully (Fig. 14). This horizon is probably equivalent to Group 2 of Kiberd's stratigraphy at Bundu Pan, and therefore somewhat younger than the Florisian mammal fauna reported there. However, since the erosion gully where the tooth was collected also incises older, coarser fluvial gravels that directly overlie the calcrete hardpan here (Figs. 12 & 13), the source may in fact be equivalent to the slightly older Group 3 of Kiberd's scheme.

No further fossil remains were observed within the superficial sediments on Hoekplaas during the author's brief field visit to site Q1. It is quite likely that fossil bones and teeth of mammals are preserved within buried Pleistocene fluvial and pan sediments elsewhere within the study area, as seen at Bundu Pan in the same region. However, such fossil sites are likely to be sparsely distributed and their locations difficult to predict, given the extensive younger sedimentary cover.

Table 4.1: Fossil heritage in the Copperton area

GEOLOGICAL UNIT	ROCK TYPES & AGE	FOSSIL HERITAGE	PALAEONT- OLOGICAL SENSITIVITY	RECOMMENDED MITIGATION		
Unassigned superficial sediments (including possible equivalents of KALAHARI GROUP)	Surface aeolian sands, sandy and silty soils, calcrete hardpans, downwasted gravels, Plus fluvial gravels, alluvium, freshwater pan deposits  MAINLY PLEISTOCENE	Calcretised rhizoliths & termitaria, ostrich egg shells, land snail shells, rare mammalian and reptile (e.g. tortoise) bones & teeth, freshwater units associated with diatoms, molluscs, stromatolites etc	GENERALLY LOW BUT LOCALLY HIGH  (e.g. concentrations of mammalian fossils, molluscs in pan and fluvial sediments)	Any substantial fossil finds (e.g. mammalian bones, teeth) to be reported by ECO to SAHRA		
Kimberlite intrusions	Mica-rich kimberlite dykes CRETACEOUS	NONE	ZERO	None		
KAROO DOLERITE SUITE	Dolerite sills & dykes  EARLY JURASSIC	NONE	ZERO	None		
Mbizane Formation DWYKA GROUP	Tillites, interglacial mudrocks, deltaic & turbiditic sandstones, minor thin limestones  LATE CARBONIFEROUS – EARLY PERMIAN	Sparse petrified wood & other plant remains, palynomorphs, trace fossils (e.g. arthropod trackways, fish trails, U-burrows) possible stromatolites in limestones, fossiliferous erratics (e.g. stromatolitic limestones / dolomites)	LOW	Any substantial fossil finds (e.g. petrified wood) to be reported by ECO to SAHRA		
NAMAQUA- NATAL METAMORPHIC PROVINCE	Unnamed granitic and high grade metamorphic basement rocks  MID PROTEROZOIC	NONE	N/A	None		

#### 5. ASSESSMENT OF SIGNIFICANCE OF PALAEONTOLOGICAL HERITAGE IMPACTS

In this section of the report potential impacts on fossil heritage within each of the ten proposed PV solar plant sites on Hoekplaas are assessed, followed by an assessment of the cumulative impacts in a local and regional context. The impact significance of the various alternative proposals for Hoekplaas is then briefly addressed. Please note that the operational and decommissioning phases of the solar energy facilities will not involve further significant adverse or other impacts on palaeontological heritage.

#### 5.1. Assessment of individual PV study sites and suggested mitigation

The inferred overall impact on local fossil heritage of each of the proposed PV2 to PV11 energy plant developments on Hoekplaas is analysed in Table 5.1 below according to the system developed by Aurecon. Given the very similar terrain and underlying geology represented within all ten of the sites, the impact ratings for the sites are identical.

The construction phase of the proposed PV energy plants will not entail very substantial (*i.e.* deep and voluminous) excavations into the superficial sediment cover (soils, surface gravels *etc*). In most cases the underlying bedrocks will not be directly impacted. Shallow excavations, including

surface clearance, will be required in the case of solar panel emplacements, underground cables, new internal access roads, onsite transmission line pylons, pipelines, stormwater infrastructure, septic tanks and foundations for associated infrastructure such as on-site substations and buildings. In addition, sizeable areas may be sealed-in or sterilized by infrastructure such as lay down areas and access roads. All these developments may adversely affect potential fossil heritage exposed at the ground surface or preserved below the surface within the study area by damaging, destroying, disturbing or permanently sealing-in fossils that are then no longer available for scientific research or other public good. Once constructed, the operational and decommissioning phases of the PV energy plants will not involve further adverse impacts on palaeontological heritage, however.

In general, the destruction, damage or disturbance out of context of fossils preserved at the ground surface or below ground that may occur during construction represents a *negative* impact that is limited to the development footprint (*site specific*). Such impacts can usually be mitigated but cannot be fully rectified (*i.e. long term, irreversible*). Most of the sedimentary formations represented within the study area contain fossils of some sort, so impacts on fossil heritage are *probable*. However, because of (1) the generally sparse occurrence of fossils within all the bedrock units concerned here as well as within the overlying superficial sediments (soil, alluvium, colluvium *etc*) in addition to (2) the high level of weathering, calcretisation and (in some cases) baking of the bedrocks, the magnitude of these impacts is conservatively rated as *very low*.

No areas or sites of exceptional fossil heritage sensitivity or significance have been identified within the Hoekplaas study area, with the exception of the fossil horse tooth site reported by Orton (2012) within a roadside borrow pit near PV4 (Q1 in Fig. 5) that lies outside the PV development footprint. The only new fossil remains identified in the Copperton region during the present field study (*viz.* erratic boulders of stromatolitic limestone within Dwyka tillites; Almond 2012a) are of widespread occurrence within the formation concerned (*i.e.* not unique to the study area).

There are no fatal flaws in the Hoekplaas development proposal as far as fossil heritage is concerned. Extensive, deep bedrock excavations are not envisaged during the construction phase of the PV energy plants. Due to the general scarcity of fossil remains within the bedrocks and superficial deposits represented here, the high levels of bedrock weathering, the comparatively small development footprints, as well as the extensive superficial sediment cover observed within and close to the Hoekplaas study area, the overall impact significance of the construction phase of all the proposed PV energy plant projects is assessed as LOW with regard to palaeontological heritage resources.

Should new fossil remains be discovered before or during construction and reported by the responsible ECO to the responsible heritage management authority (SAHRA) for professional recording and collection, as recommended here, the overall impact significance of the project would remain *low*. Residual negative impacts from loss of fossil heritage would be partially offset by an improved palaeontological database as a direct result of appropriate mitigation. This is a *positive* outcome because any new, well-recorded and suitably curated fossil material from this palaeontologically under-recorded region would constitute a useful addition to our scientific understanding of the fossil heritage here.

Because of the generally very low levels of bedrock exposure within the study area, and the potential on Hoekplaas for unrecorded buried fossiliferous deposits, such as fluvial gravels with vertebrate remains as recorded at quarry site Q1 (Orton 2012), confidence levels for this palaeontological heritage assessment following a two-day field assessment of representative rock exposures are only moderate (*unsure*).

Given the low impact significance of all the proposed PV solar plant developments as far as palaeontological heritage is concerned, no further specialist palaeontological heritage studies or mitigation are considered necessary for this project, pending the discovery or exposure of substantial new fossil remains during development.

During the construction phase all substantial bedrock excavations should be monitored for fossil remains by the responsible ECO. In particular, the ECO should be alerted to the possibility of exposing subsurface fluvial gravels containing transported, disarticulated bones and teeth of fossil mammals. Should substantial fossil remains such as vertebrate bones and teeth, shells, plant-rich fossil lenses or dense fossil burrow assemblages be exposed during construction, the responsible Environmental Control Officer should safeguard these, preferably *in situ*, and alert SAHRA (Contact details: Mrs Colette Scheermeyer, P.O. Box 4637, Cape Town 8000. Tel: 021 462 4502. Email: cscheermeyer@sahra.org.za) as soon as possible so that appropriate action can be taken by a professional palaeontologist at the developer's expense. Mitigation would normally involve the scientific recording and judicious sampling or collection of fossil material as well as associated geological data (*e.g.* stratigraphy, sedimentology, taphonomy).

These mitigation recommendations should be incorporated into the Environmental Management Plan (EMP) for the Hoekplaas PV solar plant developments.

Provided that the recommended mitigation measures are carried through, it is likely that any potentially negative impacts of the proposed solar plant developments on local fossil resources will be substantially reduced and, furthermore, they will partially offset by the *positive* impact represented by increased understanding of the palaeontological heritage of the Northern Cape.

#### Please note that:

- All South African fossil heritage is protected by law (South African Heritage Resources Act, 1999) and fossils cannot be collected, damaged or disturbed without a permit from SAHRA or the relevant Provincial Heritage Resources Agency;
- The palaeontologist concerned with mitigation work will need a valid fossil collection permit from SAHRA and any material collected would have to be curated in an approved depository (e.g. museum or university collection);
- All palaeontological specialist work should conform to international best practice for palaeontological fieldwork and the study (e.g. data recording fossil collection and curation, final report) should adhere as far as possible to the minimum standards for Phase 2 palaeontological studies recently developed by SAHRA (2013).

#### 5.2. Assessment of cumulative impacts

In this section the cumulative impact of the proposed PV solar plant developments on Hoekplaas is assessed in the context of other alternative energy developments planned or proposed for the Copperton study region.

A number of wind and solar energy projects have been proposed for the Copperton region, in addition to the Mulilo PV solar plants proposed for Hoekplaas (See map Fig. 29). Potential impacts on palaeontological heritage resources for several of these other projects have been assessed by the author on the basis of desktop as well as field studies (*e.g.* Almond 2010a, 2010b, 2011a, 2011b, 2012a, 2012b). The geology of the bedrocks as well as of the superficial deposits throughout the Copperton region is very similar as far as palaeontology is concerned and in all cases the impact significance of the proposed alternative energy developments has been assessed as LOW.

The cumulative impacts of the ten new PV solar plant developments on Hoekplaas in terms of both local (< 10 km radius) as well as regional (> 10 km radius) fossil heritage resources is likewise assessed as LOW (Table 5.2) because of:

• The low palaeotological sensitivity of the bedrocks (Dwyka Group, Precambrian basement rocks) throughout the Copperton region;

- Weathering, calcretisation and local baking of the near-surface bedrocks, further decreasing their palaeontological sensitivity;
- The very sparse occurrence of fossils within the extensive mantle of superficial sediments (soils, gravels, calcretes *etc*) in the Copperton region;
- The limited amount of substantial (deep, voluminous) bedrock excavations envisaged and comparatively small development footprints of the solar plant projects.

Table 5.1: Evaluation of impacts on local fossil heritage resources of proposed PV2 to PV11 photovoltaic energy plants on farm Hoekplaas near Copperton.

Projec	Key impacts	Nomitigation /Mitigation	Extent	Magnitude	Duration	SIGNIFICANCE	Probability	Confidence	Reversibility	Mitigation measures
		No mitigation	Site specific	Very low	Long term	Low (negative)	Probable	Unsure	Irreversible	
PV2 PV 11	Disturbance, damage or destruction of fossils preserved at or below the ground surface during the construction phase	Mitigation	Site specific	Very low	Long term	Low (negative)	Probable	Unsure	Irreversible	Monitoring of all substantial bedrock excavations for fossil remains by ECO Significant fossil finds to be safeguarded and reported to SAHRA for possible mitigation.

Table 5.2: Evaluation of cumulative impacts on local fossil heritage resources of the proposed photovoltaic energy plants on farm Hoekplaas near Copperton.

		Key impacts	No mitigation /Mitigation	Extent	Magnitude	Duration	SIGNIFICANCE	Probability	Confidence	Reversibility	Mitigation measures
		Disturbance, damage or destruction of fossils preserved at or below the ground surface during the construction phase	No mitigation	Site specific	Very low	Long term	Low (negative)	Probable	Unsure	Irreversible	
	Hoekplaas		Mitigation	Site specific	Very low	Long term	Low (negative)	Probable	Unsure	Irreversible	Monitoring of all substantial bedrock excavations for fossil remains by ECO Significant fossil finds to be safeguarded and reported to SAHRA for possible mitigation.
			No mitigation	Site specific	Very low	Long term	Low (negative)	Probable	Unsure	Irreversible	
	Local extent	Disturbance, damage or destruction of fossils preserved at or below the ground surface during the construction phase	Mitigation	Site specific	Very low	Long term	Low (negative)	Probable	Unsure	Irreversible	Monitoring of all substantial bedrock excavations for fossil remains by ECO Significant fossil finds to be safeguarded and reported to SAHRA for possible mitigation.

	Key impacts	No mitigation /Mitigation	Extent	Magnitude	Duration	SIGNIFICANCE	Probability	Confidence	Reversibility	Mitigation measures
		No mitigation	Site specific	Very low	Long term	Low (negative)	Probable	Unsure	Irreversible	
Regional extent	Disturbance, damage or destruction of fossils preserved at or below the ground surface during the construction phase	Mitigation	Site specific	Very low	Long term	Low (negative)	Probable	Unsure	Irreversible	Monitoring of all substantial bedrock excavations for fossil remains by ECO Significant fossil finds to be safeguarded and reported to SAHRA for possible mitigation.

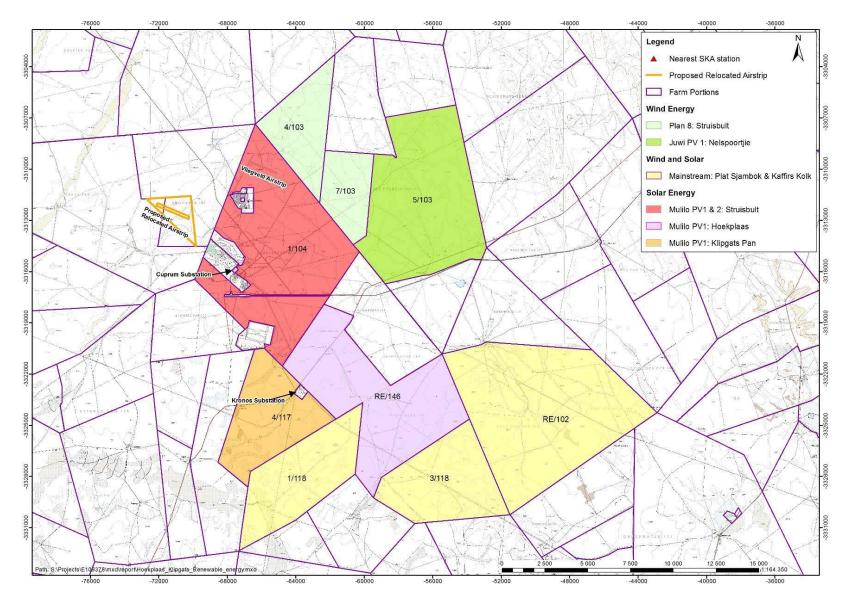


Fig. 29. Alternative energy developments currently planned or proposed for the Copperton region, Northern Cape (Image abstracted by the Draft Scoping Report by Aurecon South Africa (Pty) Ltd, April 2013).

## 5.3. Assessment of project alternatives for Hoekplaas

A range of project alternatives have been considered at the EIA stage for the Hoekplaas PV solar plant development, as summarized in the following table (abstracted by the Draft Scoping Report by Aurecon South Africa (Pty) Ltd, April 2013).

Table 5.3: Project alternatives for the proposed Hoekplaas solar plant development

Alternative Type	Description
Location alternatives	One location for the proposed Hoekplaas PV plants
Activity alternatives	<ul> <li>Solar energy generation via a PV plant</li> <li>"No-go" alternative to solar energy production</li> </ul>
Site layout alternatives	<ul> <li>Ten 75 MW AC PV plants (Layout Alternative 1)</li> <li>Three PV plants of 225 MW AC, 290 MW AC and 500 MW AC, respectively (Layout Alternative 2)</li> </ul>
Technology alternatives	<ul> <li>Conventional PV vs. CPV technology</li> <li>Single Axis vs. Fixed Axis PV tracking technology</li> </ul>

The Layout Alternative 2, comprising three larger PV plants on Hoekplaas (Fig. 4) would have a similar, low impact significance on fossil heritage resources to that of the preferred Layout Alternative 1 (ten PV sites) that is considered in more detail above (See Table 5.4).

The "no go" alternative to the proposed solar plant developments would have a neutral (zero magnitude) impact significance on fossil heritage resources (Table 5.4).

There is no preference on palaeontological heritage grounds for conventional PV *versus* CPV technology. Likewise there is unlikely to be any significant difference in impact significance between single axis *versus* fixed axis tracking technology.

Onsite substations will be connected by overhead transmission lines to the adjacent Kronos Substation. Alternatively the transmission lines could connect to the Cuprum Substation should the Kronos Substation not have sufficient capacity. A corridor of approximately 6.3 km in length (measured from the farm boundary) and 180 m wide has therefore been identified for the transmission lines (Fig. 4). This corridor overlies very similar geology to the Hoekplaas study area itself and has a comparable low palaeontological sensitivity. The impact significance of connection to the Kronos or Cuprum Substation is assessed as low in either case.

Table 5.4: Evaluation of impacts on local fossil heritage resources of proposed PV2 to PV4 photovoltaic energy plants on the farm Hoekplaas near Copperton (Layout Alternative 2).

Project	Key impacts	No mitigation /Mitigation	Extent	Magnitude	Duration	SIGNIFICANCE	Probability	Confidence	Reversibility	Mitigation measures
		No mitigation	Site specific	Very low	Long term	Low (negative)	Probable	Unsure	Irreversible	
PV2 - PV4	Disturbance, damage or destruction of fossils preserved at or below the ground surface during the construction phase	Mitigation	Site specific	Very low	Long term	Low (negative)	Probable	Unsure	Irreversible	Monitoring of all substantial bedrock excavations for fossil remains by ECO Significant fossil finds to be safeguarded and reported to SAHRA for possible mitigation.

Project	Key impacts	No mitigation / Mitigation	Extent	Magnitude	Duration	SIGNIFICANCE	Probability	Confidence	Reversibility	Mitigation measures
	No-go Option  Disturbance, damage or destruction of fossils preserved at or below the ground surface during the construction phase	No mitigation	Site specific	Zero	Long term	Neutral	Probable	Sure	n/a	n/a
		Mitigation	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a

### 6. CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

Field assessment suggests that the poorly-exposed upper Dwyka Group bedrocks in the Hoekplaas study area do not contain rich trace fossil assemblages, petrified wood or other fossil material, and are therefore of low palaeontological sensitivity. The only fossils recorded from the Dwyka succession in this region are ice-transported erratic boulders of Precambrian limestone or dolomite that contain small stromatolites (microbial mounds or columns) (Almond 2012b). The study area is mantled by Pleistocene to Recent superficial sediments (soils, alluvium, calcretes, gravels *etc*) that are likewise generally of low palaeontological sensitivity (Almond & Pether 2008). However, important mammal fossil remains assigned to the Late Pleistocene Florisian Mammal Age (estimated 300 000 - 200 000 BP) have been recorded from pan sediments at Bundu Pan only 22 km to the northwest of Copperton (Kiberd 2006), and somewhat younger fossil teeth have been reported from subsurface gravels on Hoekplaas (Orton 2012). It is possible that comparable concentrations of Pleistocene vertebrate fossils are also preserved on buried palaeosurfaces and within alluvial gravels or pan sediments elsewhere on Hoekplaas. However, these occurrences are likely to be sparse and their distribution is largely unpredictable.

Potential impacts on fossil heritage are confined to the development footprint and are only anticipated during the construction phase of the PV energy plants. As far as fossil heritage is concerned, the impact significance of the proposed solar energy facility is considered to be LOW for the following reasons:

- The Karoo Supergroup bedrocks here are deeply weathered, locally calcretised and baked, and at most sparsely fossiliferous;
- The development footprints for the proposed PV solar plant sites are small and largely underlain by superficial deposits of low palaeontological sensitivity;
- Significant fossil material (e.g. mammal remains) at or near surface level is most likely very sparsely distributed within the study area; and
- Extensive, deep bedrock excavations are not envisaged during the construction phase.

There is no preference on fossil heritage grounds for the preferred *versus* alternative layouts or technologies for the Hoekplaas solar plant developments. The "no go" alternative to the proposed solar plant developments would have a neutral (zero magnitude) impact significance on fossil heritage resources. Transmission line connections to Kronos Substation or, alternatively, to Cuprum Substation would both be of low impact significance.

A number of other alternative energy projects – including both wind energy and solar energy facilities – have been proposed for the Copperton area (*cf* Almond 2010a, 2010b, 2011a, 2011b, 2012a, 2012b). Given the generally low palaeontological sensitivity of the Karoo Supergroup bedrocks and the Pleistocene to Recent superficial sediments in the Copperton region as a whole, the cumulative impact of these developments is not considered to be of high significance.

### It is recommended that:

- The ECO responsible for the development should be aware of the possibility of important fossils (e.g. mammalian bones, teeth) being present or unearthed on site and should monitor all substantial excavations into superficial sediments as well as fresh (i.e. unweathered) sedimentary bedrock for fossil remains;
- In the case of any significant fossil finds (e.g. vertebrate teeth, bones, burrows, petrified wood) during construction, these should be safeguarded preferably in situ and reported by the ECO as soon as possible to the relevant heritage management authority (SAHRA. Contact details: Mrs Colette Scheermeyer, P.O. Box 4637, Cape Town 8000. Tel: 021 462 4502. Email: cscheermeyer@sahra.org.za) so that any appropriate mitigation (i.e. fossil

recording, sampling or collection) by a palaeontological specialist can be considered and implemented, at the developer's expense; and

• These recommendations should be incorporated into the EMP for the Hoekplaas solar plant project.

The palaeontologist concerned with mitigation work will need a valid fossil collection permit from SAHRA and any material collected would have to be curated in an approved depository (e.g. museum or university collection). All palaeontological specialist work should conform to international best practice for palaeontological fieldwork and the study (e.g. data recording, fossil collection and curation, final report) should adhere as far as possible to the minimum standards for Phase 2 palaeontological studies recently developed by SAHRA (2013).

### 7. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Ms Franci Gresse and Ms Karen Versfeld of Environmental and Advisory Services, Aurecon South Africa (Pty) Ltd, Cape Town, are thanked for commissioning this study and for kindly providing all the necessary background information, including data on the Dwyka deposits in the study area. I am grateful to Mr Jayson Orton of the Archaeology Contracts Office, UCT, for alerting me to fossil remains on Hoekplaas and to the recent palaeontological work at Bundu Pan near Copperton. Logistical support and companionship from Ms Madelon Tusenius is, as always, much appreciated.

### 8. REFERENCES

ALMOND, J.E. 2008. Fossil record of the Loeriesfontein sheet area (1: 250 000 geological sheet 3018). Unpublished report for the Council for Geoscience, Pretoria, 32 pp.

ALMOND, J.E. 2009. Contributions to the palaeontology and stratigraphy of the Alexander Bay sheet area (1: 250 000 geological sheet 2816), 117 pp. Unpublished technical report prepared for the Council for Geoscience by Natura Viva cc, Cape Town.

ALMOND, J.E. 2010a. Proposed 100 MW concentrating solar power (CSP) generation facility: Copperton, Northern Cape Province. Palaeontological impact assessment: desktop study, 17 pp. Natura Viva cc, Cape Town.

ALMOND, J.E. 2010b. Proposed photovoltaic power generation facility: Prieska PV Site 1, Copperton, Northern Cape Province. Palaeontological impact assessment: desktop study, 16 pp. Natura Viva cc, Cape Town.

ALMOND, J.E. 2011a. Proposed Plan 8 wind energy facility near Copperton, Northern Cape Province. Palaeontological impact assessment: desktop study, 17 pp. Natura Viva cc. Cape Town.

ALMOND, J.E. 2011b. Proposed Mainstream wind farm near Prieska, Pixley ka Seme District Municipality, Northern Cape Province. Palaeontological impact assessment: desktop study, 20 pp. Natura Viva cc, Cape Town.

ALMOND, J.E. 2012a. Proposed photovoltaic energy plant on Farm Klipgats Pan (Portion 4 of Farm 117) near Copperton, Northern Cape Province. Palaeontological specialist assessment: combined desktop & field assessment study, 33 pp. Natura Viva cc, Cape Town.

ALMOND, J.E. 2012b. Proposed photovoltaic energy plant on Farm Hoekplaas (Remainder of Farm 146) near Copperton, Northern Cape Province. Palaeontological specialist assessment: combined desktop & field assessment study, 30 pp. Natura Viva cc, Cape Town.

ALMOND, J.E. & PETHER, J. 2008. Palaeontological heritage of the Northern Cape. Interim SAHRA technical report, 124 pp. Natura Viva cc., Cape Town.

ANDERSON, A.M. 1974. Arthropod trackways and other trace fossils from the Early Permian lower Karoo Beds of South Africa. Unpublished PhD thesis, University of Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, 172 pp.

ANDERSON, A.M. 1975. Turbidites and arthropod trackways in the Dwyka glacial deposits (Early Permian) of southern Africa. Transactions of the Geological Society of South Africa 78: 265-273.

ANDERSON, A.M. 1976. Fish trails from the Early Permian of South Africa. Palaeontology 19: 397-409, pl. 54.

ANDERSON, A.M. 1981. The *Umfolozia* arthropod trackways in the Permian Dwyka and Ecca Groups of South Africa. Journal of Paleontology 55: 84-108, pls. 1-4.

ANDERSON, A.M. & MCLACHLAN, I.R. 1976. The plant record in the Dwyka and Ecca Series (Permian) of the south-western half of the Great Karoo Basin, South Africa. Palaeontologia africana 19: 31-42.

ANDERSON, J.M. 1977. The biostratigraphy of the Permian and the Triassic. Part 3: A review of Gondwana Permian palynology with particular reference to the northern Karoo Basin, South Africa. Memoirs of the Botanical Survey of South Africa 45, 14-36.

ANDERSON, J.M. & ANDERSON, H.M. 1985. Palaeoflora of southern Africa. Prodromus of South African megafloras, Devonian to Lower Cretaceous, 423 pp, 226 pls. Botanical Research Institute, Pretoria & Balkema, Rotterdam.

BAMFORD, M.K. 2000. Fossil woods of Karoo age deposits in South Africa and Namibia as an aid to biostratigraphical correlation. Journal of African Earth Sciences 31, 119-132.

BAMFORD, M.K. 2004. Diversity of woody vegetation of Gondwanan South Africa. Gondwana Research 7, 153-164.

BANGERT, B., STOLLHOFEN, H., LORENTZ, V. & ARMSTRONG, R. 1999. The geochronology and significance of ash-fall tuffs in the glacigenic Carboniferous – Permian Dwyka Group of Namibia and South Africa. Journal of African Earth Sciences 29: 33-49.

BANGERT, B., STOLHOFEN, H., GEIGER, M. & LORENZ, V. 2000. Fossil record and high resolution tephrostratigraphy of Carboniferous glaciomarine mudstones, Dwyka Group, southern Namibia. Communications of the Geological Survey of Namibia 12, 235-245.

BANGERT, B. & BAMFORD, M. 2001. Carboniferous pycnoxylic woods from the Dwyka Group of southern Namibia. Palaeontologia africana 37, 13-23.

BENDER, P.A. & BRINK, J.S. 1992. A preliminary report on new large mammal fossil finds from the Cornelia-Uitzoek site. South African Journal of Science 88: 512-515.

BOUSMAN, C.B. *et al.* 1988. Palaeoenvironmental implications of Late Pleistocene and Holocene valley fills in Blydefontein Basin, Noupoort, C.P., South Africa. Palaeoecology of Africa 19: 43-67.

BRINK, J.S. 1987. The archaeozoology of Florisbad, Orange Free State. Memoirs van die Nasionale Museum 24, 151 pp.

BRINK, J.S. *et al.* 1995. A new find of *Megalotragus priscus* (Alcephalini, Bovidae) from the Central Karoo, South Africa. Palaeontologia africana 32: 17-22.

BRINK, J.S. & ROSSOUW, L. 2000. New trial excavations at the Cornelia-Uitzoek type locality. Navorsinge van die Nasionale Museum Bloemfontein 16, 141-156.

BUATOIS, L. & MANGANO, M.G. 1995. The paleoenvironmental and paleoecological significance of the lacustrine *Mermia* ichnofacies: an archetypal subaqueous nonmarine trace fossil assemblage. Ichnos 4: 151-161.

BUATOIS, L. & MANGANO, M.G. 2004. Animal-substrate interactions in freshwater environments: applications of ichnology in facies and sequence stratigraphic analysis of fluvio-lacustrine successions. In: McIlroy, D. (Ed.) The application of ichnology to palaeoenvironmental and stratigraphic analysis. Geological Society, London, Special Publications 228, pp 311-333.

CHURCHILL, S.E. *et al.* 2000. Erfkroon: a new Florisian fossil locality from fluvial contexts in the western Free State. South Africa. South African Journal of Science 96: 161-163.

COOKE, H.B.S. 1974. The fossil mammals of Cornelia, O.F.S., South Africa. In: Butzer, K.W., Clark, J.D. & Cooke, H.B.S. (Eds.) The geology, archaeology and fossil mammals of the Cornelia Beds, O.F.S. Memoirs of the National Museum, Bloemfontein 9: 63-84.

COOPER, M.R. & OOSTHUIZEN, R. 1974. Archaeocyathid-bearing erratics from Dwyka Subgroup (Permo-Carboniferous) of South Africa, and their importance to continental drift. Nature 247, 396-398.

CORNELL, D.H., THOMAS, R.J., MOEN, H.F.G., REID, D.L., MOORE, J.M. & GIBSON, R.L. 2006. The Namaqua-Natal Province. *In*: Johnson, M.R., Anhaeusser, C.R. & Thomas, R.J. (Eds.) The geology of South Africa, pp. 461-499. Geological Society of South Africa, Marshalltown.

DICKENS, J.M. 1961. *Eurydesma* and *Peruvispira* from the Dwyka Beds of South Africa. Palaeontology 4: 138-148, pl. 18.

DICKENS, J.M. 1984. Late Palaeozoic glaciation. BMR Journal of Australian Geology and Geophysics 9: 163-169.

DINGLE, R.V., SIESSER, W.G. & NEWTON, A.R. 1983. Mesozoic and Tertiary geology of southern Africa. viii + 375 pp. Balkema, Rotterdam.

DU TOIT, A. 1954. The geology of South Africa. xii + 611pp, 41 pls. Oliver & Boyd, Edinburgh.

DUNCAN, A.R. & MARSH, J.S. 2006. The Karoo Igneous Province. In: Johnson, M.R., Anhaeusser, C.R. & Thomas, R.J. (Eds.) The geology of South Africa, pp. 501-520. Geological Society of South Africa, Marshalltown.

EVANS, F.J.E. 2005. Taxonomy, palaeoecology and palaeobiogeography of some Palaeozoic fish of southern Gondwana. Unpublished PhD thesis, University of Stellenbosch, 628 pp.

GRESSE, F. & CORBETT, L. 2012. Proposed photovoltaic energy plant on farm Klipgats Pan near Copperton, Northern Cape. Final Scoping Report, 77 pp. (Report No. 5826/107516). Aurecon South Africa (Pty) Ltd, Cape Town.

GRILL, H. 1997. The Permo-Carboniferous glacial to marine Karoo record in southern Namibia: sedimentary facies and sequence stratigraphy. Beringeria 19: 3-98, 1 pl.

HADDON, I.G. 2000. Kalahari Group sediments. In: Partridge, T.C. & Maud, R.R. (Eds.) The Cenozoic of southern Africa, pp. 173-181. Oxford University Press, Oxford.

HERBERT, C.T. & COMPTON, J.S. 2007. Depositional environments of the lower Permian Dwyka diamictite and Prince Albert shale inferred from the geochemistry of early diagenetic concretions, southwest Karoo Basin, South Africa. Sedimentary Geology 194: 263-277.

JOHNSON, M.R., VAN VUUREN, C.J., VISSER, J.N.J., COLE, D.I., De V. WICKENS, H., CHRISTIE, A.D.M., ROBERTS, D.L. & BRANDL, G. 2006. Sedimentary rocks of the Karoo Supergroup. In: Johnson, M.R., Anhaeusser, C.R. & Thomas, R.J. (Eds.) The geology of South Africa, pp. 461-499. Geological Society of South Africa, Marshalltown.

KIBERD, P. 2006. Bundu Farm: a report on archaeological and palaoenvironmental assemblages from a pan site in Bushmanland, Northern Cape, South Africa. South African Archaeological Bulletin 61, 189-201.

KLEIN, R. 1980. Environmental and ecological implications of large mammals from Upper Pleistocene and Hoocene sites in southern Africa. Annals of the South African Museum 81, 223-283.

KLEIN, R.G. 1984a. The large mammals of southern Africa: Late Pliocene to Recent. In: Klein, R.G. (Ed.) Southern African prehistory and paleoenvironments, pp 107-146. Balkema, Rotterdam.

KLEIN, R.G. 1984b. Palaeoenvironmental implications of Quaternary large mammals in the Fynbos region. In: Deacon, H.J., Hendey, Q.B., Lambrechts, J.J.N. (Eds.) Fynbos palaeoecology: a preliminary synthesis. South African National Scientific Programmes Report No. 10, pp. 116-133.

KLEIN, R. 2000. The Earlier Stone Age in southern Africa. The South African Archaeological Bulletin 40, 107-122.

MACRAE, C. 1999. Life etched in stone. Fossils of South Africa. 305 pp. The Geological Society of South Africa, Johannesburg.

MEADOWS, M.E. & WATKEYS, M.K. 1999. Palaeoenvironments. In: Dean, W.R.J. & Milton, S.J. (Eds.) The karoo. Ecological patterns and processes, pp. 27-41. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

McLACHLAN, I.R. & ANDERSON, A. 1973. A review of the evidence for marine conditions in southern Africa during Dwyka times. Palaeontologia africana 15: 37-64.

MILLER, R.M. 2008. Karoo Supergroup, pp. 16-1 to 16-115 *in* Miller, R.G. The geology of Namibia. Volume 3. Upper Palaeozoic to Cenozoic. Geological Survey, Namibia.

NETTERBERG, F. 1969a. Ages of calcretes in southern Africa. South African Archaeological Bulletin 24, 88-92.

NETTERBERG, F. 1969b. Interpretation of some basic calcrete types. South African Archaeological Bulletin 24, 117-122.

NETTERBERG, F. 1978. Dating and correlation of calcretes and other pedocretes. Transactions of the Geological Society of South Africa 81, 379-391.

NETTERBERG, F. 1980. Geology of South African calcretes: 1. Terminology, description, macrofeatures, and classification. Transactions of the Geological Society of South Africa 83, 255-283.

NETTERBERG, F. 1985. Pedocretes in Engineering geology of southern Africa 4: Post-Gondwana deposits (Ed. Brink, A.B.A.), 286-307.

OELOFSEN, B.W. 1986. A fossil shark neurocranium from the Permo-Carboniferous (lowermost Ecca Formation) of South Africa. In: Uyeno, T, Arai, R., Taniuchi, T & Matsuura, K. (Eds.) Indo-Pacific fish biology. Proceedings of the Second International Conference on Indo-Pacific Fishes. Ichthyological Society of Japan, Tokyo, pp 107-124.

ORTON, J. 2012. Heritage impact assessment for a proposed solar energy facility on the farm Hoekplaas near Copperton, Northern Cape, 32 pp. Archaeology Contracts Office, University of Cape Town, Cape Town.

PARTRIDGE, T.C. & SCOTT, L. 2000. Lakes and Pans. In: Partridge, T.C. & Maud, R.R. (Eds.) The Cenozoic of southern Africa, pp.145-161. Oxford University Press, Oxford.

PARTRIDGE, T.C., BOTHA, G.A. & HADDON, I.G. 2006. Cenozoic deposits of the interior. In: Johnson, M.R., Anhaeusser, C.R. & Thomas, R.J. (Eds.) The geology of South Africa, pp. 585-604. Geological Society of South Africa, Marshalltown.

PICKFORD, M. & SENUT, B. 2002. The fossil record of Namibia. 39 pp. The Geological Survey of Namibia.

PLUMSTEAD, E.P. 1969. Three thousand million years of plant life in Africa. Alex Du Toit Memorial Lectures No. 11. Transactions of the Geological Society of South Africa, Annexure to Volume 72, 72pp. 25 pls.

PRINSLOO, M.C. 1989. Die geologie van die gebied Britstown. Explanation to 1: 250000 geology Sheet 3022 Britstown, 40 pp. Council for Geoscience, Pretoria.

ROSSOUW, L. 2006. Florisian mammal fossils from erosional gullies along the Modder River at Mitasrust Farm, Central Free State, South Africa. Navorsinge van die Nasionale Museum Bloemfontein 22, 145-162.

SAHRA 2013. Minimum standards: palaeontological component of heritage impact assessment reports, 15 pp. South African Heritage Resources Agency, Cape Town.

SAVAGE, N.M. 1970. A preliminary note on arthropod trace fossils from the Dwyka Series in Natal. IUGS Second Gondwana Symposium, South Africa, 1970, Proceedings and Papers, pp 627-635, pls. 1-5.

SAVAGE, N.M. 1971. A varvite ichnocoenosis from the Dwyka Series of Natal. Lethaia 4: 217-233.

SCOTT, L. 2000. Pollen. In: Partridge, T.C. & Maud, R.R. (Eds.) The Cenozoic of southern Africa, pp.339-35. Oxford University Press, Oxford.

SEILACHER, A. 2007. Trace fossil analysis, xiii + 226pp. Springer Verlag, Berlin.

SKEAD, C.J. 1980. Historical mammal incidence in the Cape Province. Volume 1: The Western and Northern Cape, 903pp. Department of Nature and Environmental Conservation, Cape Town.

SMITH, A.B. 1999. Hunters and herders in the Karoo landscape. Chapter 15 in Dean, W.R.J. & Milton, S.J. (Eds.) The Karoo; ecological patterns and processes, pp. 243-256. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

STAPLETON, R.P. Carboniferous unconformity in southern Africa. Nature 268, 222-223.

STEPHENSON, M.H. 2008. A review of the palynostratigraphy of Gondwanan Late Carboniferous to Early Permian glacigene successions. In: Fielding, C.R., Frank, T.D. & Isbell, J.L. (eds). Resolving the Late Paleozoic Ice Age in time and space. Geological Society of America Special Paper 441, 317-330.

STOLLHOFEN, H., STANISTREET, I.G., BANGERT, B. & GRILL, H. 2000. Tuffs, tectonism and glacially-related sea-level changes, Carboniferous-Permian, southern Namibia. Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology 161: 127-150.

STONE, P. & THOMSON, M.R.A. 2005. Archaeocyathan limestone blocks of likely Antarctic origin in Gondwanan tillite from the Falkland Islands. Geological Society, London, Special Publications 246, 347-357.

THOMAS, M.J. 1981. The geology of the Kalahari in the Northern Cape Province (Areas 2620 and 2720). Unpublished MSc thesis, University of the Orange Free State, Bloemfontein, 138 pp.

THOMAS, R.J., THOMAS, M.A. & MALHERBE, S.J. 1988. The geology of the Nossob and Twee Rivieren areas. Explanation for 1: 250 000 geology sheets 2520-2620. 17pp. Council for Geoscience, Pretoria.

VEEVERS, J.J., COLE, D.I. & COWAN, E.J. 1994. Southern Africa: Karoo Basin and Cape Fold Belt. Geological Society of America, Memoir 184: 223-279.

VISSER, J.N.J. 1982. Upper Carboniferous glacial sedimentation in the Karoo Basin near Prieska, South Africa. Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology 38, 63-92.

VISSER, J.N.J. 1985. The Dwyka Formation along the north-western margin of the Karoo Basin in the Cape Province, South Africa. Transactions of the Geological Society of South Africa 88, 37-48.

VISSER, J.N.J. 1989. The Permo-Carboniferous Dwyka Formation of southern Africa: deposition by a predominantly subpolar marine ice sheet. Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology 70, 377-391.

VISSER, J.N.J. 1997. Deglaciation sequences in the Permo-Carboniferous Karoo and Kalahari Basins of southern Africa: a tool in the analysis of cyclic glaciomarine basin fills. Sedimentology 44: 507-521.

VISSER, J.N.J. 2003. Lithostratigraphy of the Elandsvlei Formation (Dwyka Group). South African Committee for Stratigraphy, Lithostratigraphic Series No. 39, 11 pp. Council for Geoscience, Pretoria.

VISSER, J.N.J., VAN NIEKERK, B.N. & VAN DER MERWE, S.W. 1997. Sediment transport of the Late Palaeozoic glacial Dwyka Group in the southwestern Karoo Basin. South African Journal of Geology 100: 223-236.

VISSER, J.N.J., VON BRUNN, V. & JOHNSON, M.R. 1990. Dwyka Group. Catalogue of South African Lithostratigraphic Units 2, 15-17. Council for Geoscience, Pretoria.

VON BRUNN, V. & VISSER, J.N.J. 1999. Lithostratigraphy of the Mbizane Formation (Dwyka group). South African Committee for Stratigraphy, Lithostratigraphic Series No. 32, 10 pp. Council for Geoscience, Pretoria.

WELLS, L.H. & COOKE, H.B.S. 1942. The associated fauna and culture of Vlakkraal thermal springs, O.F.S.; III, the faunal remains. Transactions of the Royal Society of South Africa 29: 214-232.

## APPENDIX: GPS LOCALITY DATA FOR SITES LISTED IN TEXT

All GPS readings were taken in the field using a hand-held Garmin GPSmap 60CSx instrument. The datum used is WGS 84. Only those localities mentioned in the text are listed here.

# Hoekplaas 26 January 2012

LOCALITY NUMBER	SOUTH	EAST
308	30° 00' 15.2"	22º 21' 20.8"
309	30° 00' 14.2"	22° 21' 22.0"

# Hoekplaas 24 May 2013

Locality number	South	East	Comments
176	S30 04 35.8	E22 22 48.8	Surface gravels, PV12
177	S30 04 34.0	E22 22 48.9	Surface gravels, PV12
178	S30 03 34.7	E22 22 55.1	Buff soils and surface gravels, PV12
179	S30 03 20.1	E22 23 21.3	Silty soils and thin Aeolian sands, PV 12
180	S30 03 06.4	E22 22 54.3	Bouldery surface gravels
181	S30 02 03.0	E22 22 41.1	Large pan, intersection of several PV sites
182	S30 02 03.2	E22 22 43.5	Large pan as above, flaked surface gravels
183	S30 01 43.1	E22 22 59.6	Edge of PV 11, roadside section through gravelly surface sediments, artefacts within gravel lenses
184	S30 01 46.4	E22 23 40.0	Small dam, corner of PV 9, surface gravels and good calcrete exposures
185	S30 02 40.0	E22 23 52.8	PV 10, borrow pit excavated into Dwyka bedrocks, subsurface calcrete
186	S30 03 15.1	E22 23 44.5	S of PV10. Borrow pit excavated into thinly- bedded / laminated mudrocks with dispersed gravels, boulder mudrock below
187	S30 03 44.0	E22 23 52.8	Leegte / stream area S of PV10, silty alluvium overlying coarse boulder to cobbly gravels
188	S30 01 37.6	E22 26 08.1	PV7, NE edge
189	\$30 00 19.0	E22 25 27.8	Borrow pit just outside NE corner of PV7, Dwyka tillite, calcrete hardpan
190	S30 00 06.2	E22 20 40.9	PV2, polymict surface gravels overlying calcrete
191	S30 00 29.1	E22 21 43.6	PV4 downwasted surface gravels
192	S30 00 51.4	E22 21 55.9	Main pan, N of PV1
193	S30 01 23.5	E22 22 43.4	PV6, surface gravels, Dwyka erratics with striated surfaces

### QUALIFICATIONS & EXPERIENCE OF THE AUTHOR

Dr John Almond has an Honours Degree in Natural Sciences (Zoology) as well as a PhD in Palaeontology from the University of Cambridge, UK. He has been awarded post-doctoral research fellowships at Cambridge University and in Germany, and has carried out palaeontological research in Europe, North America, the Middle East as well as North and South Africa. For eight years he was a scientific officer (palaeontologist) for the Geological Survey / Council for Geoscience in the RSA. His current palaeontological research focuses on fossil record of the Precambrian - Cambrian boundary and the Cape Supergroup of South Africa. He has recently written palaeontological reviews for several 1: 250 000 geological maps published by the Council for Geoscience and has contributed educational material on fossils and evolution for new school textbooks in the RSA.

Since 2002 Dr Almond has also carried out palaeontological impact assessments for developments and conservation areas in the Western, Eastern and Northern Cape under the aegis of his Cape Town-based company *Natura Viva* cc. He is a long-standing member of the Archaeology, Palaeontology and Meteorites Committee for Heritage Western Cape (HWC) and an advisor on palaeontological conservation and management issues for the Palaeontological Society of South Africa (PSSA), HWC and SAHRA. He is currently compiling technical reports on the provincial palaeontological heritage of Western, Northern and Eastern Cape for SAHRA and HWC. Dr Almond is an accredited member of PSSA and APHP (Association of Professional Heritage Practitioners – Western Cape).

## **Declaration of Independence**

I, John E. Almond, declare that I am an independent consultant and have no business, financial, personal or other interest in the proposed alternative energy project, application or appeal in respect of which I was appointed other than fair remuneration for work performed in connection with the activity, application or appeal. There are no circumstances that compromise the objectivity of my performing such work.

Dr John E. Almond Palaeontologist

The E. Almord

Natura Viva cc