

Phase 1 Archaeological Survey on the Remainder of Portion 23 of the
farm Schoongezicht 364 JT, Emthonjeni Township, Emakhazeni
Municipality, Machadodorp.

Compiled by:



For **Enpact Environmental Consultants**

Surveyor: Mr JP Celliers

29 October, 2013

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Executive summary

Site name and location: The Remainder of Portion 23 of the farm Schoongezicht 364 JT at Emthonjeni Township in the Emakhazeni Municipality, Machadodorp.

Purpose of the study: An Archaeological Impact Assessment was conducted in order to identify heritage resources on the above-mentioned property in respect of the proposed Emthonjeni X 5 Township. Extent 25 ha.

1:50 000 Topographical Map: 2530 CA Belfast (1989).

EIA Consultant: Enpact Environmental Consultants.

Client: Emakhazeni Municipality.

Heritage Consultant: Kudzala Antiquity CC.

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Report date: 29 October 2013.

Description and findings:

An Archaeological resource survey was undertaken by Kudzala Antiquity CC in respect of a proposed Township development on the Remainder of Portion 23 of the farm Schoongezicht 364 JT at Emthonjeni Township in the Emakhazeni Municipality, Machadodorp.

The study was done with the aim of identifying sites which are of heritage significance on the property and assessing their current preservation condition, significance and possible impact of the proposed development. This forms part of legislative requirements as appears in section 38 of the National Heritage Resources act (25 of 1999) and the NEMA (17 of 1998).

The survey was conducted on foot and with the aid of a motor vehicle in an effort to locate archaeological remains and historic features. A detailed archival study in combination with social consultation formed the basis on which sites were identified, located and assessed.

No sites of archaeological or heritage significance were documented.

Disclaimer: *Although all possible care is taken to identify all sites of cultural importance during the investigation of study areas, it is always possible that hidden or sub-surface sites could be overlooked during the study. Kudzala Antiquity CC will not be held liable for such oversights or for costs incurred as a result of such oversights.*

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- The results of the project;
- The technology described in any report
- Recommendations delivered to the Client.

1. Introduction

Kudzala Antiquity CC was commissioned to conduct an Archaeological and Heritage resources survey on the remainder of Portion 23 of the farm Schoongezicht 364 JT at Emthonjeni Township in the Emakhazeni Municipality, Machadodorp, Mpumalanga Province. The survey was conducted for Emakhazeni Municipality through Enpact Environmental Consultants CC. The report does not contain any *palaeontological* data or information, this will have to be conducted additionally when required.

The National Heritage Resources Act (Act 25, 1999, section 38) and the NEMA (National Environmental Management Act No. 107 of 1998) requires of individuals (engineers, farmers, mines and industry) or institutions to have specialist heritage impact assessment studies undertaken whenever any development activities are planned. This is to ensure that heritage features or sites that qualify as part of the national estate are properly managed and not damaged or destroyed.

Heritage resources considered to be part of the national estate include those that are of Cultural, historical significance or have other special value to the present community or future generations.

The national estate may include:

- places, buildings, structures and equipment of cultural significance;
- places to which oral traditions are attached or which are associated with living heritage;
- historical settlements and townscapes;
- landscapes and natural features of cultural significance;
- geological sites of scientific or cultural importance;
- archaeological and paleontological sites;
- graves and burial grounds including:
 - (i) ancestral graves;
 - (ii) royal graves and graves of traditional leaders;
 - (iii) graves of victims of conflict;
 - (iv) graves of individuals designated by the Minister by notice in the *Gazette*;
 - (v) historical graves and cemeteries; and

other human remains which are not covered in terms of the Human Tissue Act, 1983 (Act No. 65 of 1983);

- sites of significance relating to slavery in South Africa;

- movable objects including:
 - (i) objects recovered from the soil or waters of South Africa, including archaeological and paleontological objects and material, meteorites and rare geological specimens;
 - (ii) objects to which oral traditions are attached or which are associated with living heritage
 - (iii) ethnographic art and objects;
 - (iv) military objects
 - (v) objects of decorative or fine art;
 - (vi) objects of scientific or technological interest; and

books, records, documents, photographic positives and negatives, graphic, film or video material or sound recordings, excluding those that are public records as defined in section 1 of the National Archives of South Africa Act, 1996 (Act No. 43 of 1996).

Cultural resources are unique and non-renewable physical phenomena (of natural occurrence or made by humans) that can be associated with human (cultural) activities (Van Vollenhoven 1995:3).

These would be any man-made structure, tool, object of art or waste that was left behind on or beneath the soil surface by historic or pre-historic communities. These remains, when studied in their original context by archaeologists, are interpreted in an attempt to understand, identify and reconstruct the activities and lifestyles of past communities. When these items are disturbed from their original context, any meaningful information they possess is lost, therefore it is important to locate and identify such remains before construction or development activities commence.

An AIA consists of three phases, this document deals with the first phase. This (phase 1) investigation is aimed at getting an overview of cultural resources in a given area, thereby assessing the possible impact a proposed development may have on these resources.

When the archaeologist encounters a situation where the planned project will lead to the destruction or alteration of an archaeological site, a second phase in the survey is normally recommended. During a phase two investigation, the impact assessment of development activities on identified cultural resources is intensified and detailed investigation into the nature and origin of the cultural material is undertaken. Often at this stage, archaeological excavation is carried out in order to document and preserve the cultural heritage.

Phase three consists of the compiling of a management plan for the safeguarding, conservation, interpretation and utilization of cultural resources (Van Vollenhoven, 2002).

Continuous communication between the developer and surveyor after the initial report have been compiled may result in the modification of a planned route or development to incorporate into the development or protect existing archaeological sites.

2. Description of surveyed area

The study area falls within the Emakhazeni Local Municipality, Machadodorp, Mpumalanga Province.

The survey was carried out on approximately 25 ha of previously cultivated land approximately 5 km south of Machadodorp and across the main road (west) of Emthonjeni Township near Machadodorp.

Veld type: The area is located within the Lydenburg Montane Grassland veld type. This is characterized by high-altitude plateaus, undulating plains, mountain peaks and slopes, hills and deep valleys of the Northern Escarpment region. Very low grasslands occur on the high-lying areas.

Geology: Soils are mostly derived from quartzite as well as lavas and dolomite of the Pretoria Group of the Transvaal Supergroup (Mucina and Rutherford, 2009).

The survey was conducted on foot and with the use of a motor vehicle in an effort to locate cultural remains.

3. Methodology

The methodological approach for this study meets the requirements of relevant heritage legislation. A desktop archival study followed by a physical survey of the proposed development area was conducted. This was done to assess whether graves or features of historical or archaeological value exist on the property.

Social Consultation: During the survey, employees on the property were consulted to establish whether any graves and other sites of possible heritage significance are located in the area. The informant consulted in this regard was Mr. Kobus Claassens, employee of Hall's and resident on the property.

Historical maps: Historical maps obtained during the archival search were scrutinized and features that were regarded as important in terms of heritage value were identified and if they were located within the boundaries of the project area they were physically visited in an effort to determine whether they:

- (i) still exist
- (ii) assess their current condition, and
- (iii) significance

SAHRA (South African Heritage Resources Agency) and the relevant legislation (Act 25 of 1999, National Heritage Resources Act) require that the following components be included in an Archaeological impact assessment:

- Archaeology
- Shipwrecks
- Battlefields
- Graves
- Structures older than 60 years
- Living heritage
- Historical settlements
- Landscapes
- Geological sites
- Paleontological sites and objects

All the above-mentioned heritage components are addressed in this report, except shipwrecks, geological sites and paleontological sites and objects.

The *purpose* of the archaeological study is to establish the whereabouts and nature of cultural heritage sites should they occur on the surveyed area. This includes settlements, structures and artifacts which have value for an individual or group of people in terms of historical, archaeological, architectural and human (cultural) development.

The aim of this study is to locate and identify such objects or places in order to assess whether they are of significance and warrant further investigation or protection. This is done by means of foot surveys, a desktop or detailed archival study as well as a study of the results of previous archaeological work in the area.

3.1. Desktop study

The purpose of the desktop study is to compile as much information as possible on the heritage resources of the area. This helps to provide an historical context for located sites. Sources used for this study include published and unpublished documents, archival material and maps.

Information obtained from the following institutions or individuals were consulted:

- Lydenburg Museum, Lydenburg
- Published and unpublished archaeological reports and articles
- Published and unpublished historical reports and articles
- Archival documents from the National Archives in Pretoria
- Historical maps

3.1.1. Previous Archaeological studies in the area

A study conducted in March 2012 entitled “Report on Phase 1 Archaeological Impact Assessment on Portion 8 of the farm Rietfontein 365 JT located in Emakhazeni Local Municipality, Mpumalanga Province” by JP Celliers indicated remains of LIA circular stone-walled sites as well as historic buildings.

A study by van Schalkwyk conducted in 2007 and entitled “Heritage Impact Scoping Report for the Planned Hendrina-Marathon Power Line, Mpumalanga Province” indicated a variety of heritage sites and features including cemeteries, settlements, initiation sites, industrial and farming related sites.

3.2. Significance of sites

The South African Heritage Resources Agency (SAHRA) formulated guidelines for the conservation of all cultural resources and therefore also divided such sites into three main categories. These categories might be seen as guidelines that suggest the extent of protection a given site might receive. They include sites or features of local (Grade 3) provincial (Grade 2) national (Grade 1) significance, grades of local significance and generally protected sites with a number of degrees of significance (***Also see table 5.2. Significance rating guidelines for sites***).

For practical purposes the surveyor uses his own classification for sites or features and divides them into three groups, those of low or no significance, those of medium significance, those of high significance.

Within the establishment of the significance of a site or feature there are certain values or dimensions connected to significance which may be allocated to a site. These include:

- **Types of significance**

The site's scientific, aesthetic and historic significance or a combination of these is established.

- **Degrees of significance**

The archaeological or historic site's rarity and representative value is considered. The condition of the site is also an important consideration.

- **Spheres of significance**

Sites are categorized as being significant in the international, national, provincial, regional or local context. Significance of a site for a specific community is also taken into consideration.

It should be noted that to arrive at the specific allocation of significance of a site or feature, the specialist considers the following:

- Historic context
- Archaeological context or scientific value
- Social value
- Aesthetic value
- Research value

More specific criteria used by the specialist in order to allocate value or significance to a site include:

- The unique nature of a site
- The integrity of the archaeological deposit
- The wider historic, archaeological and geographic context of the site
- The location of the site in relation to other similar sites or features
- The depth of the archaeological deposit (when it can be determined or is known)
- The preservation condition of the site
- Quality of the archaeological or historic material of the site
- Quantity of sites and site features

In short, archaeological and historic sites containing data which may significantly enhance the knowledge that archaeologists currently have about our cultural heritage should be considered highly valuable. In all instances these sites should be preserved and not damaged during construction activities. When development activities do however jeopardize the future of such a site, a second and third phase in the Cultural Resource Management (CRM) process is normally advised which entails the excavation or rescue excavation of cultural material along with a management plan to be drafted for the preservation of the site or sites.

Graves are considered very sensitive sites and should never under any circumstances be jeopardized by development activities. Graves are incorporated in the National Heritage Resources Act under section 36 and in all instances where graves are found by the surveyor, the recommendation would be to steer clear of these areas. If this is not possible or if construction activities have for some reason damaged graves, specialized consultants are normally contacted to aid in the process of exhumation and re-interment of the human remains.

4. History and Archaeology

4.1. Historic period

4.1.1. Early History

The first inhabitants of the eastern Lowveld were probably the San or Bushmen. They were a nomadic people who lived together in small family groups and relied on hunting and gathering of food for survival. Evidence of their existence is to be found in numerous rock shelters throughout the Lowveld where some of their rock paintings are still visible. A number of these shelters have been documented in the Nelspruit area (Bornman, 1995; Schoonraad in Barnard, 1975). It has been argued that the red ochre source for these paintings is to be found at Dumaneni, near Malelane (Bornman, 1995).

Two Late-Holocene (Later Stone Age) sites near Hazyview in the Kruger National Park date to the last 2500 years and are associated with pottery and microlith stone tools (Bergh, 1998: 95). This is contemporary to typical hunter-gatherer lifestyle and may also have been sites frequented by San.

It was only later that Bantu-speaking tribes moved into this area from the northern parts of Southern Africa and settled here. This period is referred to as the Early Iron Age (AD 200-1500 approx.). These were presumably Sotho-Tswana herder groups.

Various historians and ethnographers describe that the Lowveld was frequented by Swazi and Sotho-Tswana groups during historic times i.e. Late Iron Age times during the period AD 1500-1800. (Barnard, 1975; Bergh, 1998; Bornman, 2002; Herbst, 1985; Myburgh, 1949).

Old trade routes were well established before the period of Colonial expansion and these routes mainly existed as a direct consequence of metallurgy and mining for iron, tin, copper and some gold to make weapons, agricultural equipment and ornaments (Bergh, 1998:103). The earliest signs of iron mining and working in the old Transvaal dates to approximately 300 AD and copper mining and working in Southern Africa may have been practiced as early as 620 AD (Bergh, 1998:103).

These people were responsible for the establishment of large centres like Monomotapa the Zimbabwe Complex and also the famed Mapungubwe in the Limpopo valley. At around 900 AD Arab merchants established a trade post at Sofala (Beira). Since the start of the 11th century, these Arabs had trade relations with the people of Zimbabwe. Textiles, porcelain and glass beads were traded for gold, ivory and other minerals.

An ancient trade route passed close-by the current Nelspruit and started from Delagoabay in a westward direction through the Lowveld towards the gold fields of Lydenburg, by passing through

Malalapoort, the Nkhomati and Crocodile Rivers to Skipberg in the current Kruger National Park close-by the place where Pretoriuskop Rest Camp is located. From here onwards there were two possible routes up the mountains to reach the goldfields. The first one passed by Spitskop (Sabie) and from there on to Lydenburg. The second passed south of the “Devils Knuckles” to Lydenburg. The Voortrekkers used this route in 1845 when making the wagon route between Ohrigstad and Delagoabay (Berg, 1998: 104). There were also several linking routes to existing main routes, one of which started from Sabie or Lydenburg to the route which linked Delagoabay to the Soutpansberg via Pilgrim’s Rest. It is also believed that a footpath existed at the foothills of the (Transvaal) Drakensberg which led around the mountain to link again with a major route alongside the Olifants River (Bergh, 1998:104).

In 1721 Dutch sailors reached Delagoa Bay and settled there for nine years, during this time they launched a number of expeditions inland. During August 1723 lieutenant Jan Steffler and 17 men launched the first of these expeditions but they were ambushed by natives shortly after crossing the Lebombo Mountains. Exactly where they crossed the mountains is uncertain but it is possible that they were actually in northern Swaziland when they were attacked. Steffler succumbed as a result of this ambush and his followers returned to Delagoa Bay (Bergh, 1998:116).

A second attempt to create an inland route took place two years later in June 1725 when Francois de Cuiper and 34 men departed from Delagoa Bay and travelled in a north-western direction. They reached Gomondwano in the current Kruger National Park where they were also attacked by a local tribe. This resulted in them also having to return to Delagoa Bay. Although this attempt was also not successful, it is seen as the first European intrusion into this northern area (Bergh, 1998:116).

In the (Eastern Transvaal) Lowveld a sub-group of the Northern Sotho, known as the eastern Sotho, were present nearby the eastern escarpment. They are known as the Pulana, Pai (emaMbayi) and Kutswe, these people moved from northern Swaziland further northwards when Swazi expanded into this area during the *mfecane* (Bergh, 1998:107-108). One of the recorded events relates to the attack of the Ndwande under Zwibe on the Pedi in 1825 (Bergh, 1998:114-115). This seems to have started from the Lowveld in the region of the Pretoriuskop area towards Steelpoort.

During the nineteenth century the Lowveld area of Mpumalanga was extensively settled by both Bantu and European groups that migrated into this area. Bantu migration was mainly as a result of political upheaval during the *mfecane* (“the crushing” in Nguni). This was a period of bloody tribal and faction struggles in present-day KwaZulu Natal and on the Highveld area, which occurred around the early 1820’s until the late 1830’s (Bergh, 1998). It came about in response to heightened competition for land and trade, and caused population groups like gun-carrying Griquas and Shaka’s Zulus to attack other tribes (Giliomee, 2003). During this period, a

movement of Swazi people took place to the areas north and northwest of Swaziland. As a result reports indicate that the Swazi were living in the Lowveld area by the 1840's (Bergh, 1998).

Before the *mfecane* period (1820's) small farmer groups including the Pai and Pulana resided in the mountainous area surrounding Barberton and Nelspruit. The conflict during the *mfecane*, when the Swazi under Mswati II raided these smaller groups, resulted in scattered settlement of those who managed to escape the Swazi onslaught. Evidence of these scattered settlements are sometimes found in the form of small stone walled enclosures in and around Barberton, Nelspruit and onwards to the Schoemanskloof.

According to Bornman:

“Mswati continued his attacks on the emaMbayi (Sotho) tribes living south of the Ngwenya (Crocodile) and the Mlambongwane (Kaap) Rivers, who fled into the present day Kruger National Park and into the mountainous area of Mphakeni (Crocodile Gorge) and the Three Sisters Mountains. But as soon as the Swazi army had retreated, the emaMbayi returned to their old haunts and reoccupied them.

Again the Swazi regiments drove the emaMbayi from this area. The battle, which took place near the creek, today known as Low's Creek, west of the Three Sisters Mountain, was so fierce that the creek ran red with the blood of the slain. After the battle the Swazi named the creek: the red (or blood) river (Mantibovu) and the Three Sisters they named Mbayiyane, meaning the 'mountain of the emaMbayi'.

Mswati proceeded systematically to settle this area with members of his own family and trusted commoners after they killed Tsibeni and evicted the remnants of his people who fled to an area near Legogote, where they are still living today” (Bornman, 1995).

Archaeological evidence recorded in *Prehistory of the Transvaal: a record of human activity* does however refer to the presence of terraced settlement and a set of “unusual group of walls” that most likely indicates the presence of a small Iron Age agricultural village in the vicinity of the area in which the farm is located in Mpumalanga (Mason, 1962). Information cited in the *Geskiedenisatlas van Suid-Afrika. Die vier noordelike provinsies* confirms the presence of Late Iron Age settlements in the area between ca 1000 and 1800 (Bergh, 1998).

4.1.2. History of the Machadodorp, Carolina district during the 19th and 20th Century.

Various archaeologists, anthropologists and historians have taken an interest in the history of Mpumalanga. The main focus of their studies falls on the binary theme of European and Native interaction, as well as on the consequences that this reaction elicited in the past two hundred years. The main ethnic group that inhabits this area today is the Swazi. The Swazi people have a very rich political and cultural history and numerous academics have devoted their time on researching this group. The abundance of secondary work available is of great assistance in obtaining a concise overview of the history of this area.

Human settlement in the Machadodorp region can be traced back to time immemorial. Archaeological and geological surveys done in Mpumalanga testify to the presence of a *hominid* species around 1.7 million years ago in areas like Groblersdal. There is also evidence of Middle Stone Age people that lived in the Ohrigstad region around 40 000 BC. However, specific Stone and Iron Age archaeological reports of the area remain, like most of Mpumalanga's pre-humid history, scarce, limited and vague. (*Mpumalanga: Reclaiming the past defining the future* 2006:7-11).

Numerous Bushmen paintings to be found in the district surrounding the towns of Chrissiesmeer and Amsterdam bear testimony to san presence in the area which precedes all other ethnic types.



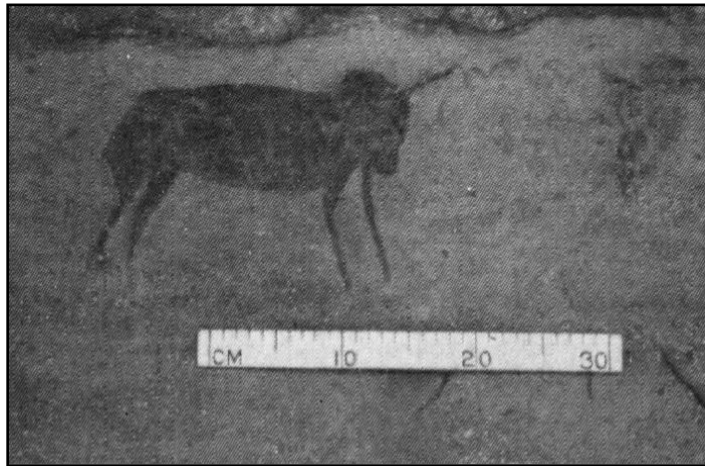


Fig. 4.1 & 4.2. San paintings on Kleinbuffelspruit 111, one of the farms claimed by the Ingogo Community. From: A.C. Myburgh: *Die Stamme van die Distrik Carolina*, p 23.

Information cited in the *Geskiedenisatlas van Suid-Afrika. Die vier noordelike provinsies* confirms the presence of Late Iron Age settlements in this area between 1000 and 1800 AD (Bergh, 1999). The exact origins of these settlements are unknown. According to A.C. Myburgh there are various stone ruins in the Carolina and Belfast districts. These settlements consist of various stone enclosures and beehive shaped stone huts and is usually located close to terraces and water canals. Many are also to be found on hilltops and are in many cases protected by a circular wall. Myburgh states that contemporary and archaeological evidence show that the ruins can be attributed to the Sotho people who used to live in the area until the hostilities of the Swazi forced them out of the area during the nineteenth century. (Myburgh, 1956: 126)

Various stone ruins in the Machadodorp area show that Iron Age humans settled in this region. It would seem that these people were livestock farmers and also practiced subsistence farming. From archaeological and anthropological studies it seems that the first black people who lived in the area were called the BaKoni. They were ousted by the Pedi who build a rather large settlement in the area. The area was also occupied the Swazi people at a time. Three types of stone ruins were identified by state ethnologist, A.C. Myburgh, in his survey of the ethnological makeup of the area in the 1950's. These were:

1. a group of ruins consisting of stone huts with or without an outside stone wall;
2. a courtyard surrounded by a wall, which was probably used for cattle;
3. a courtyard with a circular inner wall, the space between the inner and outer circular wall was probably used to house cattle.

According to him, these ruins are located on the rocky slopes of the farm and probably provided shelter against the weather. He further noted that most of these huts could not have had stone

roofs, but according to farmers in the area there were stone huts with stone roofs located on the farm in the past. Myburgh draws the conclusion that at some or other stage there had to have been a rather substantial number of people living on the farm. (Myburgh, 1956: 43 & 44)

It would seem that the rocks and stones used to build the structures were removed to make clearings so that the land could be planted with sorghum. Myburgh mentions that there are furrows on the farm Rietfontein which could not have come into existence by erosion as it stretches over an even surface area. He mentions that a type of dam was made to obtain water from the Gemsbokspruit. The furrow was probably used for the irrigation of fields south of the northern branch spruit as there are no ruins located in that area and thus the land was probably used for farming. Myburgh mentions that there is another furrow on the farm which had to bring water closer to the settlement. He states that there are stone passages (klipgange) that links many of the ruins with each other. These stone passages were seemingly used to keep cattle out of the planted fields and gardens. There were also no evidence that the inhabitants of these structures had grain storage facilities. Some of the walls had holes in them which according to Myburgh could have been used to led flood water pass through. According to the people who Myburgh interviewed the structures belonged to the Sotho culture and probably dated to the period just before the Mfecane. (Myburg, 1956: 45).

These observations by Myburgh accurately describe what researchers (archaeologists and historians) today refer to as the remains of the BaKoni people. These people were the architects of the stone-walled enclosures found throughout the escarpment area of Eastern Mpumalanga. These settlement complexes may be divided into three basic features: homesteads, terraces and cattle tracks. Researchers such as Mike Evers (1975) and Collett (1982) identified three basic settlement layouts in this area. Basically these sites can be divided into simple and complex ruins. Simple ruins are normally small in relation to more complex sites and have smaller central cattle byres and fewer huts. Complex ruins consist of a central cattle byre which has two opposing entrances and a number of semi-circular enclosures surrounding it. The perimeter wall of these sites is sometimes poorly visible. Huts are built between the central enclosure and the perimeter wall. These are all connected by track-ways referred to as cattle tracks. These tracks are made by building stone walls which forms a walkway for cattle to the centrally located cattle byres.

The first Europeans arrived in the Cape in 1652, but expansion to the north only started in the late 1820s. The Great Trek of 1837, as this northern movement of white people from the Cape Colony was called, resulted in a mass migration of European people into the northern areas of South Africa (Ross 2002:39). Permanent white settlement of the eastern areas of Mpumalanga can first be traced back to a commission under the leadership of A.H. (Hendrik) Potgieter who negotiated for land with the Portuguese Governor at Delagoa Bay in 1844. It was agreed that these settlers could settle in an area that was four days journey from the east coast of Africa between the 10°

and 26° south latitudes. Boers started migrating into this area in 1845. In July 1845, Andries-Ohrigstad was the first town established in the area after the Boers successfully negotiated for land with the Pedi Chief Sekwati. Farms were given out as far west as the Olifants River. The western boundary was not officially defined, but at a Volksraad meeting in 1849 it was decided that the Elands River would be the boundary between the districts of Potchefstroom and Lydenburg, as this eastern portion of the Transvaal was then known (Bergh, 1999:141).

Due to internal strife and differences between the various Boer groups that settled in the broader Transvaal region, the settlers in the Ohrigstad area who now governed from the town of Lydenburg, decided to secede from the Transvaal Republic in 1856.

The subsequent proclaimed Republic of Lydenburg laid claim to a large area that included not only the land originally obtained from the Pedi Chief Sekwati in 1849 but also other areas negotiated for with the Swazis. As can be expected, the migration of whites into this area would have a significant impact on the lives of native people who lived on this land. The Swazi kingdom during the first half of the nineteenth century went through various internal dynastic troubles. In 1839 Mswati succeeded Sobhuza (also known as Somhlomo) as king of the Swazi. Threatened by the ambitions of his half-brothers, including Malambule, who had military support from the Zulu king Mpande, Mswati turned to the Ohrigstad Boers for protection. He claimed that the land the Boers had settled on was Swazi property. The Commandant General of the Ohrigstad settlement, Andries Hendrik Potgieter, responded that the land was ceded to him by the Pedi leader Sekwati, in return for protection of the Pedi from Swazi attacks (Giliomee 2003:133)

However, the Boer settlement at Ohrigstad was on the verge of civil war between the factions of Boers who supported the Volksraad and those who supported the leadership of Potgieter. The Volksraad was increasingly becoming more agitated with the authoritarian style in which Potgieter governed the area. The fact that Potgieter also claimed to be the personal title deed holder to the land led to further antagonism with the Volksraad. Soon the Volksraad viewed Mswati's offer as an alternative means to obtain more respectable title deeds for the Boer Community (Bonner 1978:226). The Volksraad did, however, first negotiate with Sekwati, but Sekwati argued that he already gave the land to Potgieter and was therefore not willing to enter into a new agreement. In July 1846 the Volksraad therefore entered into an agreement with the Swazi and secured a massive area of land (NASA, TAB, SN: 123).

According to a sales contract set up between the Boers and the Swazi people on 25 July 1846, the former were the rightful owners of the land that had its southern border at the Crocodile River and stretched out in a westerly direction up to Elandspruit. The eastern border was where the Crocodile and Komati rivers joined and the land extended up to Delagoabay in the north. The chief negotiator who represented king Mswati from the Swazi delegation was his older half-brother, Somcuba (Van Rooyen 1951:74). In terms of the agreement the whites bought the land

for a 100 heads of cattle. Swazi people could stay on the land only if the farmers asked permission from the Volksraad for them to do so (Huyser 1936:84 & NASA TAB, SN: 123).

To understand why Mswati was so keen to negotiate with the Boers it should be noted that the treaty coincided with Malambule (another half-brother of Mswati) securing the support of the Zulu King, Mpande. Mswati, realizing the imminent threat of war, was desperate for Boer assistance and protection against his brother Malambule and the Zulu. The war that followed saw Mpande's army invading most of Swaziland and the Swazi taking refuge with the Boers. In July 1848 the Zulu army left Swaziland. Potgieter viewed the Volksraad as his enemy for re-negotiating the treaty with the Swazi. He thus decided to try and sabotage the agreement between the Volksraad and Mswati or at least he tried to cast doubt on its authenticity by trying to renegotiate another treaty with the Swazi during the period of 1847 to 1848 (Bonner 1978: 229).

After the Volksraad met with Somcuba's aids in 1848 for further discussions, it was clear to them that the Swazi had been tampered with by Potgieter. However, Somcuba's position became more ambiguous within the Swazi royal house. He was viewed by the Boers as being more important than King Mswati. Mswati started exerting pressure on Somcuba to relinquish the authority he held with the Boers. In Swaziland there was also increasing opposition to the 1846 cession of territory to the Boers. Adding to the opposition were the fact that Somcuba was the chief negotiator of the treaty and that Potgieter was determined to undermine it. There was also a visible weakening of the Ohrigstad community due to disease and desertion (Bonner 1978: 234).

However, any thoughts that Mswati had of repudiating the treaty vanished with the departure of Potgieter, who left the area seeking new land to settle further north. The only option open to Mswati was to reaffirm the legality of the cession and to try and detach the Boers from Somcuba. Somcuba had been installed at the Eludlambedlwini village in the Eastern Transvaal and given charge of the Ludlambedu cattle. The Ludlambedu cattle were of great ritual and symbolic significance and held in explicit trust by Somcuba for the king. However, Somcuba came to view the herd as his private possession and increasingly seemed to appropriate the economic and ritual powers of the king as he came under more pressure to relinquish his authority. In 1846 he for example did not hand over all the cattle of the treaty with the Boers to Mswati. After the Zulu left Swaziland Somcuba refused to hand over the remaining cattle and the stage was set for a civil war between the two royal Swazi brothers (Bonner 1983: 215).

Somcuba fled to the protection of the Boers at Ohrigstad. The Boers aligned themselves with the plight of Somcuba against Mswati and the Swazi king thus did not seek any further aid from the Boers against the Zulu. Somcuba located himself less than forty miles from the royal capital at Hhohho. Mswati was finally able to dispose of Somcuba in 1855 (Bonner 1978: 237). According to the ethnologist, A.C. Myburg, Somcuba was murdered at his kraal during an attack of Mswati's eMbhuleni regiment. Somcuba was buried at the foot of Ludayikop, on the farm Schagen 134, in

the district of Nelspruit (Myburg 1956 :90- 91). In 1858 the Zuid-Afrikaansche Republiek (ZAR) was officially established, and mainly consisted of all the other territories settled by the Boers in the Transvaal region. This development led to a boundary dispute between the ZAR and the Republic of Lydenburg regarding the location of the western boundary of the latter. Nevertheless, in 1860 the Republic of Lydenburg united with the ZAR. This area was incorporated into the ZAR as the district of Lydenburg and land west of the Olifants River was ceded to the district of Pretoria as part of the unification agreement (*Geskiedenisatlas van Suid-Afrika* 1999:137).

The diplomatic relationship between the Swazi and the Boers did not end with the death of Somcuba and in 1855 and 1866 the Swazis ceded vast tracks of land to the Boer government which was established at Lydenburg. The 1855 treaty saw the inclusion of the land between the Crocodile and Komati Rivers. In 1866, after Mswati's death, the Boers appointed a commission to finalize the 1855 agreement and also to consolidate the land that was bought from the Swazi. The last payment for the land was settled in 1871 and subsequently the Swazi government acknowledged the sovereignty of the South African Republic (ZAR) in 1875 (Bonner 1983:119 & 215).

The building of the eastern railway line between Pretoria and Delagoa Bay (Maputo today) is closely linked to the establishment of the town of Machadodorp. In 1883 a Portuguese engineer, Major J. Machado, was given the mandate by the ZAR government to measure out a railway line from Komatipoort to Pretoria. In 1893 a station was build on the farm, Geluk no. 29, and as a measure of gratitude for the services of Machado, the station was named after him. The concession to construct the rail way line was granted to the Nederlandsche Zuid-Afrikaansche Spoorweg-Maatschappij (NZASM). The railway line was completed in 1895. Machadodorp was a passenger and goods station on the line. The railway line also led to a post office and telegraph service being established on the town. A regular postal and coach services was also implemented (Jooste, 2008: 135 & 136).

The process to have Machadodorp proclaimed a town started in the period before the Anglo-Boer War. During the construction of the *Oosterlijn* or eastern railway line, petitions were sent to the ZAR government to have Machadodorp proclaimed a town. The townlands at Machadodorp were already measured out by the surveyor general in 1893. However, due to a border dispute between the districts of Lydenburg and Carolina, and also the fact that the initial proposal did not make adequate provision for grazing area in the vicinity of the town, the request was turned down by the ZAR government.

When Carolina was proclaimed an independent magisterial district in 1893, a decision had to be taken as to whether Machadodorp (specifically then the farm Geluk 29 and some surrounding farms, such as, Rietfontein) would form part of the Carolina or Lydenburg districts. If Machadodorp's geographical location had to be considered then the portion of the farm Geluk 29,

on which the town was established, located south of the Elandspruit should have been incorporated into the Carolina district. However, the inhabitants of the farm wanted to remain in the Lydenburg district as historically they considered themselves part of this district. The Lydenburg-Carolina border issue would have a continuing impact on the administrative development of the town and the land in its immediate vicinity. When the magisterial districts of Belfast and Waterval-Boven was proclaimed the inhabitants of the town and farms west and south west of Machadodorp was incorporated into the Belfast district. The farms east and south east of the town were incorporated into the Waterval-Boven area (Jooste, 2008: 148). In 1904 the Colonial Government again addressed the issue and on 31 December 1904 Machadodorp was finally proclaimed a town (Jooste, 2008: 212).



Fig. 4.3. An early photo of Machadodorp, no date is given, but it probably dates to c. 1900. From: TAB Photo collection: 31317.

4.1.3. The Anglo-Boer War (1899-1902) in the area

Machadodorp had a particularly interesting history during the Anglo-Boer War (1899-1902). Inhabitants of the area were conscripted into either the Lydenburg or Carolina Commandos at the beginning of the war. In the beginning stages of the war these commandos kept watch at the Swaziland border. Thereafter the commandos went to the Natal front where they participated in among other activities the Siege of Ladysmith. However, as the British under command of General R.H. Buller started moving into the eastern Transvaal these commandos started retreating and came under the command of General Louis Botha. After the Battle of Bergendal on 27 August 1900 the commandos resorted to guerrilla warfare in the area (Jooste, 2008: 196).

Machadodorp was an important ammunition and provisions distributing point at the beginning of the war. Its prominence increased after the British annexed Pretoria in May 1900 and the government of the ZAR decided to move to Machadodorp. It was the capital of the ZAR from 30 May to 27 August 1900 (Pretorius, 2010: 255). The different offices of government were housed in train trucks at the station. Initially President Paul Kruger also stayed in a train coach at Machadodorp but the cold winter of 1900 saw him moving to Waterval-Onder at the end of June 1900. The government stayed at Machadodorp and would commute on a daily bases to Waterval-Onder to council with the president (Jooste, 2008: 196).

Machadodorp was evacuated by the Boer government after the Battle of Bergendal. On 25 August 1900 President M.T. Steyn of the Free State arrived at Machadodorp and after a meeting with the ZAR government at Waterval-Onder it was decided to send President Paul Kruger to Europe to try and get European intervention in the war. Kruger died in exile in Europe in 1904 (Pretorius, 2010: 255). General Buller occupied Machadodorp on 28 August and on 1 September Lord Roberts issued a proclamation from the town in which he proclaimed the Transvaal as British territory. The British forces launched various military operations from Machadodorp in the surrounding area and also used it as a provision distributing point. The British forces remained in the town until peace treaty was signed in 1902 (Jooste, 2008: 197). Although Machadodorp itself was never burned down such as towns like Dullstroom and Carolina during the war, the "scorched earth policy" was implemented on farms surrounding the town. The town was attacked without success by Boer commandos under Assistant Commandant-Generals B.J. Viljoen and Tobias Smuts on 7 January 1901 (Jones, 1999: 142).



Fig. 4.4. Photo showing the largest weapon ever used in land warfare (at that time) one of the famous Long Tom cannons, at Machadodorp, manned by the Cape Garrison Artillery. From: TAB Photo Collection: 26505.

4.2. Archaeology

4.2.1. Stone Age

In Mpumalanga Province the Drakensberg separates the interior plateau also known as the Highveld from the low-lying subtropical Lowveld which stretches to the Indian Ocean. A number of rivers amalgamate into two main river systems, the Olifants River and the Komati River. This fertile landscape has provided resources for humans and their predecessors for more than 1,7million years (Esterhuizen & Smith in Delius, 2007).

The initial attraction of abundant foods in the form of animals and plants eventually also led to the discovery of and utilisation of various minerals including ochre, iron and copper. People also obtained foreign resources by means of trade from the coast. From 900AD this included objects which were brought across the ocean from foreign shores.

The Early Stone Age (ESA)

In South Africa the ESA dates from about 2 million to 250 000 thousand years ago in other words from the early to middle Pleistocene. The archaeological record shows that as the early ancestors progressed physically, mentally and socially, bone and stone tools were developed. One of the most influential advances was their control of fire and diversifying their diet by exploitation of the natural environment (Esterhuizen & Smith in Delius, 2007).

The earliest tools date to around 2, 5 million years ago from the site of Gona in Ethiopia. Stone tools from this site shows that early hominids had to cognitive ability to select raw material and shape it for a specific application. Many bones found in association with stone tools like these have cut marks which lead scientists to believe that early hominids purposefully chipped cobblestones to produce flakes with a sharp edge capable of cutting and butchering animals carcasses. This supplementary diet of higher protein quantities ensured that brain development of hominids took place more rapidly.

Mary Leaky discovered tools like these in the Olduvai Gorge in Tanzania during the 1960s. The tools are named after this gorge and is known as the Oldowan industry. These tools, only found in Africa, are mainly simple flakes which were struck from cobbles. This method of manufacture remained for about 1,5 million years. Although there is continuing debate about who made these tools, two hominids may have been responsible. The first of these was an early form of *Homo* and the second was *Parathropus robustus*, which became extinct about 1 million years ago (Esterhuizen & Smith in Delius, 2007).

Some time later, around 1, 7 million years ago more specialised tools known as Acheulean tools, appeared. These are named after tools from a site in France by the name of Saint Acheul, where they were first discovered in the 1800s. It is argued that these tools had their origin in Africa and then spread towards Europe and Asia with the movement of hominids out of Africa. These tools

had longer and sharper edges and shapes which suggest that they could be used for a larger range of activities which included the butchering of animals, chopping of wood, digging roots and cracking bone. *Homo ergaster* was probably responsible for the manufacture of Acheulean tools in South Africa. This physical type was arguably physically similar to modern humans, a larger brain and modern face, body height and proportion are all characteristics which are very similar to us. *Homo ergaster* was able to flourish in a variety of habitats in part because they were dependent on tools. They adapted to drier, more open grassland settings. Because these early people were often associated with water sources such as rivers and lakes, sites where they left evidence of their occupation are very rare. Most tools of these people have been washed into caves, eroded out of riverbanks and washed downriver. An example in Mpumalanga is Maleoskop on the farm Rietkloof where ESA tools have been found. This is one of only a handful of such sites in Mpumalanga.

Middle Stone Age (MSA)

A greater variety of tools with diverse sizes and shapes appeared by 250 000 BP. These replaced the large hand axes and cleavers of the ESA. This technological advancement introduces the Middle Stone Age (MSA). This period is characterised by tools which are smaller in size but different in manufacturing technique (Esterhuizen & Smith in Delius, 2007).

In contrast to the ESA technology of removing flakes from a core, MSA tools were flakes to start with. They were of a predetermined size and shape and were made by preparing a core of suitable material and striking off the flake so that it was flaked according to a shape which the toolmaker desired. Elongated, parallel-sided blades, as well as triangular flakes are common finds in these assemblages. Mounting of stone tools onto wood or bone to produce spears, knives and axes became popular during the MSA. These early humans not only settled close to water sources but also occupied caves and shelters. The MSA represents the transition of more archaic physical type (*Homo*) to anatomically modern humans, *Homo sapiens*.

The MSA has not been extensively studied in Mpumalanga but evidence of this period has been excavated at Bushman Rock Shelter, a well-known site on the farm Klipfonteinhoek in the Ohrigstad district. This cave was excavated twice in the 1960s by Louw and later by Eloff. The MSA layers show that the cave was repeatedly visited over a long period. Lower layers have been dated to over 40 000 BP while the top layers date to approximately 27 000 BP (Esterhuizen & Smith in Delius, 2007; Bergh, 1998).

Later Stone Age (LSA)

Early hunter gatherer societies were responsible for a number of technological innovations and social transformations during this period starting at around 20 000 years BP. Hunting of animals proved more successful with the innovation of the bow and link-shaft arrow. These arrows were

made up of a bone tip which was poisoned and loosely linked to the main shaft of the arrow. Upon impact, the tip and shaft separated leaving the poisoned arrow-tip imbedded in the prey animal. Additional innovations include bored stones used as digging stick weights to uproot tubers and roots; small stone tools, mostly less than 25mm long, used for cutting of meat and scraping of hides; polished bone tools such as needles; twine made from plant fibres and leather; tortoiseshell bowls; ostrich eggshell beads; as well as other ornaments and artwork (Esterhuizen & Smith in Delius, 2007).

At Bushman Rock Shelter the MSA is also represented and starts at around 12 000 BP but only lasted for some 3 000 years. The LSA is of importance in geological terms as it marks the transition from the Pleistocene to the Holocene which was accompanied by a gradual shift from cooler to warmer temperatures. This change had its greatest influence on the higher lying areas of South Africa. Both Bushman Rock Shelter and a nearby site, Heuningneskrans, have revealed a greater use in plant foods and fruit during this period (Esterhuizen & Smith in Delius, 2007; Bergh, 1998).

Faunal evidence suggests that LSA hunter-gatherers trapped and hunted zebra, warthog and bovids of various sizes. They also diversified their protein diet by gathering tortoises and land snails (*Achatina*) in large quantities.

Ostrich eggshell beads were found in most of the levels at these two sites. It appears that there is a gap of approximately 4 000 years in the Mpumalanga LSA record between 9 000 BP and 5 000 BP. This may be a result of generally little Stone Age research being conducted in the province. It is, however, also a period known for rapid warming and major climate fluctuation which may have led people to seek out protected environments in this area. The Mpumalanga Stone Age sequence is visible again during the mid-Holocene at the farm Honingklip near Badplaas in the Carolina district (Esterhuizen & Smith in Delius, 2007; Bergh, 1998).

At this location, two LSA sites were located on opposite sides of the Nhlazatshe River, about one kilometre west of its confluence with the Teespruit. These two sites are located on the foothills of the Drakensberg where the climate is warmer than the Highveld but also cooler than the lowveld (Esterhuizen & Smith in Delius, 2007; Bergh, 1998).

Nearby the sites, dated to between 4 870 BP and 200 BP are four panels which contain rock art. Colouring material is present in all the excavated layers of the site which makes it difficult to determine whether the rock art was painted during the mid- or later Holocene. Stone walls at both sites date from the last 250 years of hunter gatherer occupation and they may have served as protection from predators and intruders (Esterhuizen & Smith in Delius, 2007; Bergh, 1998).

4.2.2. Early Iron Age

The period referred to as the Early Iron Age (AD 200-1500 approx.) started when presumably Karanga (north-east African) herder groups moved into the north eastern parts of South Africa. It is believed that these people may have been responsible for making of the famous Lydenburg Heads, ceramic masks dating to approximately 600AD.

Ludwig von Bezing was a boy of more or less 10 years of age when he first saw pieces of the now famous Lydenburg heads in 1957 while playing in the veld on his father's farm near Lydenburg. Five years later von Bezing developed an interest in archaeology and went back to where he first saw the shards. Between 1962 and 1966 he frequently visited the Sterkspruit valley to collect pieces of the seven clay heads. Von Bezing joined the archaeological club of the University of Cape Town when he studied medicine at this institution.

He took his finds to the university at the insistence of the club. He had not only found the heads, but potsherds, iron beads, copper beads, ostrich eggshell beads, pieces of bones and millstones. Archaeologists of the University of Cape Town and WITS Prof. Ray Innskeep and Dr Mike Evers excavated the site where von Bezing found the remains. This site and in particular its unique finds (heads, clay masks) instantly became internationally famous and was henceforth known as the Lydenburg Heads site.

Two of the clay masks are large enough to probably fit over the head of a child, the other five are approximately half that size. The masks have both human and animal features, a characteristic that may explain that they had symbolic use during initiation- and other religious ceremonies. Carbon dating proved that the heads date to approximately 600 AD and were made by Early Iron Age people. These people were Bantu herders and agriculturists and probably populated Southern Africa from areas north-east of the Limpopo river. Similar ceramics were later found in the Gustav Klingbiel Nature Reserve and researchers believe that they are related to the ceramic wares (pottery) of the Lydenburg Heads site in form, function and decorative motive. This sequence of pottery is formally known as the Klingbiel type pottery. No clay masks were found in similar context to this pottery sequence.

Two larger heads and five smaller ones make up the Lydenburg find. The heads are made of the same clay used in making household pottery. It is also made with the same technique used in the manufacture of household pottery. The smaller heads display the modeling of a curved forehead and the back neck as it curves into the skull. Around the neck of each of the heads, two or three rings are engraved horizontally and are filled in with hatching marks to form a pattern. A ridge of clay over the forehead and above the ears indicates the hairline. On the two larger heads a few rows of small clay balls indicate hair decorations. The mouth consists of lips – the smaller heads also have teeth. The seventh head has the snout of an animal and is the only head that represents an animal.

Some archaeological research was done during the 1970's at sites belonging to the EIA (Early Iron Age), location Plaston, a settlement close to White River (Evers, 1977). This site is located on a spur between the White River and a small tributary. It is situated on holding 119 at Plaston.

The site was discovered during house building operations when a collection of pottery shards was excavated. The finds consisted of pottery shards both on the surface and excavated.

Some of the pottery vessels were decorated with a red ochre wash. Two major decoration motifs occurred on the pots:

- Punctuation, using a single stylus and
- Broadline incision, the more common motif

A number of Early Iron Age pottery collections from Mpumalanga and Limpopo may be compared to the Plaston sample. They include Silver Leaves, Eiland, Matola, Klingbiel and the Lydenburg Heads site. The Plaston sample is distinguished from samples of these sites in terms of rim morphology, the majority of rims from Plaston are rounded and very few beveled. Rims from the other sites show more beveled rims (Evers, 1977:176).

Early Iron Age pottery was also excavated by archaeologist, Prof. Tom Huffman during 1997 on location where the Riverside Government complex is currently situated (Huffman, 1998). This site known as the Riverside site is situated a few kilometers north of Nelspruit next to the confluence of the Nelspruit and Crocodile River. It was discovered during the course of an environmental impact assessment for the new Mpumalanga Government complex/ offices. A bulldozer cutting exposed storage pits, cattle byres, a burial and midden on the crest of a gentle slope. Salvage excavations conducted during December 1997 and March 1998 recovered the burial and contents of several pits.

One of the pits contained among other items, pottery dating to the eleventh century (AD 1070 ± 40 BP) this relates the pottery to the Mzonjani and Broederstroom phases. The early assemblage belongs to the Kwale branch of the Urewe tradition.

During the early 1970's Dr Mike Evers of the University of the Witwatersrand conducted fieldwork and excavations in the Eastern Transvaal. Two areas were studied, the Letaba area south of the Groot Letaba River, west of the Lebombo Mountains, east of the great escarpment and north of the Olifants River. The second area was the Eastern Transvaal escarpment area between Lydenburg and Machadodorp.

These two areas are referred to as the Lowveld and escarpment respectively. The earliest work on Iron Age archaeology was conducted by Trevor and Hall in 1912. This revealed prehistoric copper-, gold- and iron mines. Schwelinus (1937) reported smelting furnaces, a salt factory and

terraces near Phalaborwa. In the same year D.S. van der Merwe located ruins, graves, furnaces, terraces and soapstone objects in the Letaba area.

Mason (1964, 1965, 1967, 1968) started the first scientific excavation in the Lowveld which was followed by N.J. van der Merwe and Scully. M. Klapwijk (1973, 1974) also excavated an Early Iron Age (EIA) site at Silverleaves and Evers and van den Berg (1974) excavated at Harmony and Eiland, both EIA sites.

Recent research by the National Cultural History Museum resulted in the excavation of an Early Iron Age site in Sekhukuneland, known as Motolong (Van Schalkwyk, 2007). The site is characterized by four large cattle kraals containing ceramics which may be attributed to the Mzonjani and Doornkop occupational phases.

4.2.3. Late Iron Age

The farm area is located within a large Late Iron Age (1000-1800 A.C.) terrain. (Ross 1995: 6-7; Packard 2001: 594; Bergh 1999: 6-8; 82-83)

The later phases of the Iron Age (AD 1600-1800's) is represented by various tribes including Ndebele, Swazi, BaKoni, Pedi marked by extensive stonewalled settlements found throughout the escarpment and particularly around Lydenburg, Badfontein, Sekhukuneland, Roosenekal and Steelpoort. The BaKoni were the architects of the stone-walled enclosures found throughout the escarpment area of Eastern Mpumalanga. These settlement complexes may be divided into three basic features: homesteads, terraces and cattle tracks. Researchers such as Mike Evers (1975) and Collett (1982) identified three basic settlement layouts in this area. Basically these sites can be divided into simple and complex ruins. Simple ruins are normally small in relation to more complex sites and have smaller central cattle byres and fewer huts. Complex ruins consist of a central cattle byre which has two opposing entrances and a number of semi-circular enclosures surrounding it. The perimeter wall of these sites is sometimes poorly visible. Huts are built between the central enclosure and the perimeter wall. These are all connected by track-ways referred to as cattle tracks. These tracks are made by building stone walls which forms a walkway for cattle to the centrally located cattle byres.

Smaller tribes such as the Pai and Pulana who resided in the Lowveld were attacked by and made to flee from the aggressive Swazi, especially during the *mfecane* (difaqane). They (Swazi) were particularly active in the Lowveld during the difaqane period (1820's) and it is well-known that they frequently attacked and ousted smaller herder groups like the Pai and Pulana, especially in the area today known as Low's Creek. They were however prevented from settling in the low-lying areas due to the presence of the tsetse fly and malaria. Consequently there is little evidence of large scale settlement in the Crocodile River valley until the time of colonial settlement (1890's) and later. Small, isolated dry-packed stone-walled enclosures found near Nelspruit and surrounding areas may be attributed to these smaller groups who hid away from the

Swazi onslaught. The sites were probably not used for extended periods as they were frequently on the move as a result of the onslaught and therefore small, indistinct and with little associated cultural material.

5. Located sites, description and suggested mitigation

No sites or features of Heritage significance were found or documented.

Table 5.1. Summary of located sites and their significance

Type of site	Identified sites	Significance
Graves and graveyards	None	N/A
Late Iron Age	None	N/A
Early Iron Age	None	N/A
Historical buildings	None	N/A
Historical features	None	N/A
Stone Age sites	None	N/A

Table 5.2. Significance rating guidelines for sites

Field Rating	Grade	Significance	Recommended Mitigation
National Significance (NS)	Grade 1		Conservation, nomination as national site
Provincial Significance (PS)	Grade 2		Conservation; Provincial site nomination
Local significance (LS 3A)	Grade 3A	High Significance	Conservation, No mitigation advised
Local Significance (LS 3B)	Grade 3B	High Significance	Mitigation but at least part of site should be retained
Generally Protected A (GPA)		High/ Medium Significance	Mitigation before destruction
Generally Protected B (GPB)		Medium Significance	Recording before destruction
Generally Protected C (GPC)		Low Significance	Destruction

6. Findings and recommendations

No sites or features of archaeological or heritage significance could be located during the survey.

The bulk of archaeological remains are normally located beneath the soil surface. It is therefore possible that some significant cultural material or remains were not located during this survey and will only be revealed when the soil is disturbed. Should excavation or large scale earth moving activities reveal any human skeletal remains, broken pieces of ceramic pottery, large quantities of sub-surface charcoal or any material that can be associated with previous occupation, a qualified archaeologist should be notified immediately. This will also temporarily halt such activities until an archaeologist have assessed the situation. It should be noted that if such a situation occurs it may have further financial implications.

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Appendix A

Terminology

“Alter” means any action affecting the structure, appearance or physical properties of a place or object, whether by way of structural or other works, by painting, plastering or other decoration or any other means.

“Archaeological” means –

- Material remains resulting from human activity which are in a state of disuse and are in or on land and which are older than 100 years, including artifacts, human and hominid remains and artificial features or structures;
- Rock Art, being any form of painting, engraving or other graphic representation on a fixed rock surface or loose rock or stone, which was executed by human agency and which is older than 100 years, including any area within 10m of such representation;
- Wrecks, being any vessel or aircraft, or any part thereof, which was wrecked in South Africa, whether on land, in the internal waters, the territorial waters or in the maritime culture zone of the Republic, as defined respectively in sections 3, 4 and 6 of the Maritime Zones Act, 1994 (Act No. 15 of 1994), and any cargo, debris or artifacts found or associated therewith, which is older than 60 years or which SAHRA considers to be worthy of conservation; and
- Features, structures and artefacts associated with military history which are older than 75 years and the sites on which they are found;

“Conservation”, in relation to heritage resources, includes protection, maintenance, preservation and sustainable use of places or objects so as to safeguard their cultural significance;

“Cultural significance” means aesthetic, architectural, historical, scientific, social, spiritual, linguistic or technological value or significance;

“Development” means any physical intervention, excavation, or action, other than those caused by natural forces, which may in the opinion of a heritage authority in any way result in a change to the nature, appearance or physical nature of a place, or influence its stability and future well-being, including –

- construction, alteration, demolition, removal or change of use of a place or a structure at a place;
- carrying out any works on or over or under a place;

- subdivision or consolidation of land comprising, a place, including the structures or airspace of a place;
- constructing or putting up for display signs or hoardings;
- any change to the natural or existing condition or topography of land; and
- any removal or destruction of trees, or removal of vegetation or topsoil;

“Expropriate” means the process as determined by the terms of and according to procedures described in the Expropriation Act, 1975 (Act No. 63 of 1975);

“Foreign cultural property”, in relation to a reciprocating state, means any object that is specifically designated by that state as being of importance for archaeology, history, literature, art or science;

“Grave” means a place of internment and includes the contents, headstone or other marker of such a place, and any other structure on or associated with such place;

“Heritage resource” means any place or object of cultural significance;

“Heritage register” means a list of heritage resources in a province;

“Heritage resources authority” means the South African Heritage Resources Agency, established in terms of section 11, or, insofar as this Act (25 of 1999) is applicable in or in respect of a province, a provincial heritage resources authority (PHRA);

“Heritage site” means a place declared to be a national heritage site by SAHRA or a place declared to be a provincial heritage site by a provincial heritage resources authority;

“Improvement” in relation to heritage resources, includes the repair, restoration and rehabilitation of a place protected in terms of this Act (25 of 1999);

“Land” includes land covered by water and the air space above the land;

“Living heritage” means the intangible aspects of inherited culture, and may include –

- cultural tradition;
- oral history;
- performance;
- ritual;
- popular memory;
- skills and techniques;

- indigenous knowledge systems; and
- the holistic approach to nature, society and social relationships;

“Management” in relation to heritage resources, includes the conservation, presentation and improvement of a place protected in terms of the Act;

“Object” means any moveable property of cultural significance which may be protected in terms of any provisions of the Act, including –

- any archaeological artifact;
- palaeontological and rare geological specimens;
- meteorites;
- other objects referred to in section 3 of the Act;

“Owner” includes the owner’s authorized agent and any person with a real interest in the property and –

- in the case of a place owned by the State or State-aided institutions, the Minister or any other person or body of persons responsible for the care, management or control of that place;
- in the case of tribal trust land, the recognized traditional authority;

“Place” includes –

- a site, area or region;
- a building or other structure which may include equipment, furniture, fittings and articles associated with or connected with such building or other structure;
- a group of buildings or other structures which may include equipment, furniture, fittings and articles associated with or connected with such group of buildings or other structures;
- an open space, including a public square, street or park; and
- in relation to the management of a place, includes the immediate surroundings of a place;

“Site” means any area of land, including land covered by water, and including any structures or objects thereon;

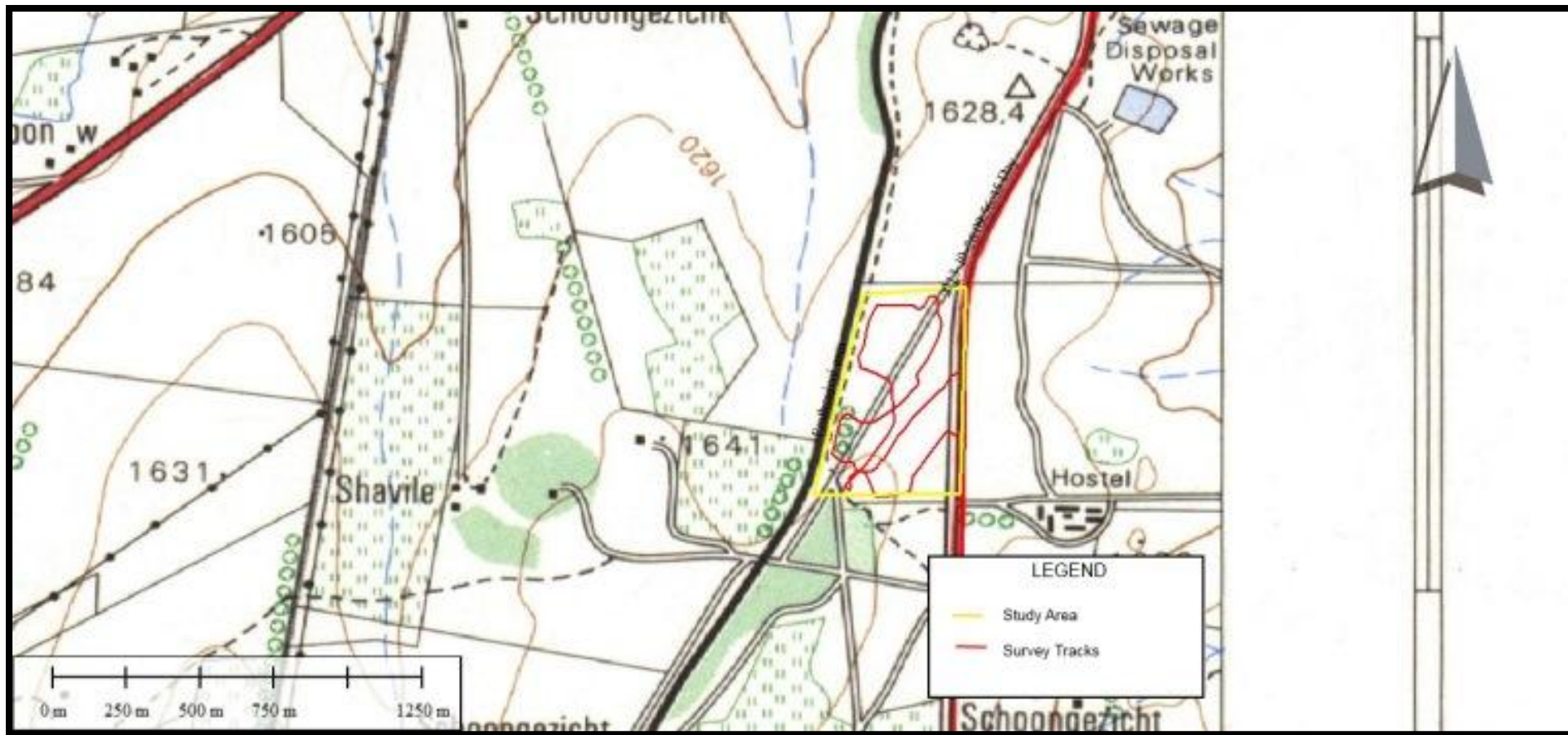
“Structure” means any building, works, device or other facility made by people and which is fixed to land, and includes any fixtures, fittings and equipment associated therewith.

Appendix B

9. List of located sites

No sites listed for this survey.

Appendix C



Appendix D

Photos of study area



Fig. 1. General photo of the study area taken in a south western direction.



Fig. 2. General photo of the study area taken in an eastern direction.



Fig. 3. General view of the study area to the north. Note the agricultural furrow on the left of the photo.



Fig. 4. A general view to the north-east. A vehicle track runs through the study area roughly from north to south.