

Phase 1 Archaeological Impact Assessment on Plot 34 of the farm  
Avontuur 725 JT near Badplaas Resort, Mpumalanga Province.

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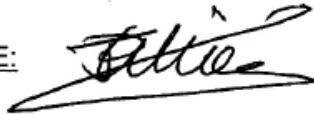
For **Henwood Environmental Consultants**

Surveyor: Mr JP Celliers

12 February, 2016

I, Jean-Pierre Celliers as duly authorised representative of Kudzala Antiquity CC, hereby confirm my independence as a specialist and declare that neither I nor the Kudzala Antiquity CC have any interest, be it business, financial, personal or other, in any proposed activity, application or appeal in respect of which the client was appointed as Environmental Assessment practitioner, other than fair remuneration for work performed on this project.

SIGNATURE:

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'J. Celliers', written over a horizontal line. The signature is stylized and cursive.

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## Executive summary

**Site name and location:** Plot 34 of the farm Avontuur 725 JT, Badplaas, Mpumalanga Province.

**Purpose of the study:** An Archaeological and historic study in order to identify heritage resources on Plot 34 of the farm Avontuur 725 JT, located near Badplaas Resort, Mpumalanga.

**1:50 000 Topographical Map:** 2530 DC Badplaas (1985).

**EIA Consultant:** Henwood Environmental Consultants.

**Client:** Emoyeni Christian Organization.

**Heritage Consultant:** Kudzala Antiquity CC.

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**Report date:** 12 February 2016

### Description and findings:

An Archaeological resource survey was undertaken by Kudzala Antiquity CC in respect of proposed expansion and upgrading of facilities on Plot 34 of the farm Avontuur 725 JT near Badplaas Resort. 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 desktop archival study in combination with social consultation formed the basis on which sites were identified, located and assessed.

A total of seven (7) sites were located and documented. In terms of the archaeological component of the Act (25 of 1999, section 35) no sites or features of archaeological significance was recorded during the survey. In terms of the built environment in the area (section 34 of the Act) no significant buildings were identified. Three sites were recorded for orientation purposes (OBS 1-3) and a further four sites (buildings) were recorded and assessed (BA 1-4). From a heritage perspective it is therefore recommended that the proposed activities continue.

**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

## 1.1. Terms of reference

Kudzala Antiquity CC was commissioned to conduct an Archaeological and Heritage resources survey on Plot 34 of the farm Avontuur 725 JT near Badplaas Resort in Mpumalanga Province. The survey was conducted in respect of the potential impact on archaeological and heritage resources which may occur during the expansion and upgrading of facilities at the Emoyeni Christian Christian Organization which includes current houses, a new conference centre, a skills training workshop, new homes for orphaned children, homes for long term missionaries and a youth camp ground. The survey was conducted for Henwood Environmental Consultants.

## 1.2. Legislative Framework

The National Heritage Resources Act (Act 25, 1999) 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 report is the result of an archaeological and heritage scoping study in accordance with the requirements as set out in Section 38 (3) of the National Heritage Resources Act (25 of 1999) in an effort to ensure that heritage features or sites that qualify as part of the national estate are properly managed and not damaged or destroyed.

The study aims to address the following objectives:

- Analysis of heritage issues;
- Assess the cultural significance of identified places including archaeological sites and features, buildings and structures, graves and burial grounds within a specific historic context;
- Identifying the need for more research;
- Surveying and mapping of identified places including archaeological sites and features, buildings and structures, graves and burial grounds;
- A preliminary assessment of the feasibility of the proposed development or construction from a heritage perspective;
- Identifying the need for alternatives when necessary;
- Recommending mitigation measures to address any negative impacts on archaeological and heritage resources.

Heritage resources considered to be part of the national estate include those that are of Archaeological, Cultural or 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
  - (vii) 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.

### 1.3. Approach

An AIA (Archaeological Impact Assessment) 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. 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 artefacts 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.

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 mitigation measures are put in place 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).

## 2. Description of surveyed area

The study area falls within the Albert Luthuli Local Municipality, Ehlanzeni District, Mpumalanga Province. The survey was carried out on approximately 21 ha of indigenous KaNgwane Montane Grassland and historic as well as current agricultural land (mixed use) near Badplaas Resort. Limiting factors include the dense nature of the grass which is often hard to access and also limits the visibility of archaeological and heritage sites and features.

**Veld type:** The vegetation forms part of the Grassland Biome and classed as KaNgwane Montane Grassland comprising undulating hills and plains on the Eastern edge of the Escarpment. It is a transitional area between the Highveld and Escarpment and contains elements of both. Vegetation mostly comprises short closed grassland with many forbes and a few scattered shrubs (Mucina and Rutherford, 2009).



**Geology:** Most of the area is located on mostly granite of the Mpuluzi Granite and Archaean gneiss with intrusions of diabase (Mucina and Rutherford, 2009).

### **3. Methodology**

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. Limiting factors include the dense nature of the grass which are often hard to access and limits the visibility of archaeological and heritage sites and features.

**Social Consultation:** During the survey, owners of 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 Daryll Mather-Pike, resident and founder of Emoyeni Christian Organization.

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.

#### **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

- Historical maps
- SAHRIS database

### **3.1.1. Previous Archaeological studies in the area**

Some Archaeological Impact Assessments (AIA) has been done in the vicinity of the proposed development area.

During an AIA conducted by Mr Jaco vd Walt in 2015 in respect of the development of a filling station in the CBD of Embhuleni, no archaeological or built heritage features were located.

An AIA conducted in 2010 by JP Celliers on the farm Kees Zyn Doorns 708 JT. Four sites were identified which had historic graves, six sites of archaeological significance were identified and recorded including Late Iron Age stone walling, Late Stone Age artefacts and historic ruins.

Mr Johnny van Schalkwyk conducted an AIA in 2008 in respect of the Nkomazi Wilderness River Crossings and recorded no sites or features of archaeological significance. He also conducted a similar study in 2002 for the Secunda-Mozambique Gas pipeline in the Carolina district. He located graves and Late Iron Age 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.

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 **(Also see table 5.2. Significance rating guidelines for sites).**

Values used to assign significance to a site 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 and burial grounds 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 time 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 11<sup>th</sup> 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 Ndwandwe under Zwide 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). This is very near the town of White River.

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. The Voortrekkers**

The Groot Trek of the Voortrekkers started with the Tregardt- van Rensburg trek in 1835. The two men met where Tregardt and his followers crossed the Orange River at Buffelsvlei (Aliwal North). Here van Rensburg joined the trek northwards. On August 23, 1837 the Tregardt trek left for Delagoabay from the Soutpansberg. They travelled eastwards alongside the Olifants River to the eastern foothills of the Drakensberg. From here they travelled through the Lowveld and the current Kruger National Park where they eventually crossed the Lebombo mountains in March 1838. They reached the Fortification at Lourenço Marques on 13 April 1838 (Bergh, 1998:124-125).

Permanent European (Voortrekker) settlement of the eastern areas of Mpumalanga can be traced back to a commission under the leadership of A.H. (Hendrik) Potgieter who negotiated with the Portuguese Governor at Delagoabaai in 1844 for land. 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. Voortrekkers started migrating into the area in 1845. Andries-Ohrigstad was the first town established in this area in July 1845 after the Voortrekkers 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, 1998).

Due to internal strife and differences between the various Voortrekker groups that settled in the broader Transvaal region, the settlers in the Ohrigstad area now governed from the town of Lydenburg decided to secede from the Transvaal Republic in 1856. The 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 of land negotiated for from the Swazis. The Republic of Lydenburg was a vast area and stretched from the northern Strydpoort mountains to Wakkerstroom in the south and Bronkhortspruit in the west to the Swazi border and the Lebombo mountains east.

As can be expected, the migration of Europeans into the north would have a significant impact on the indigenous people who populated the land. This was also the case in Mpumalanga. 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 support from the Zulu king Mpande, he turned to the Ohrigstad Boers for protection. He claimed that the land that 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).

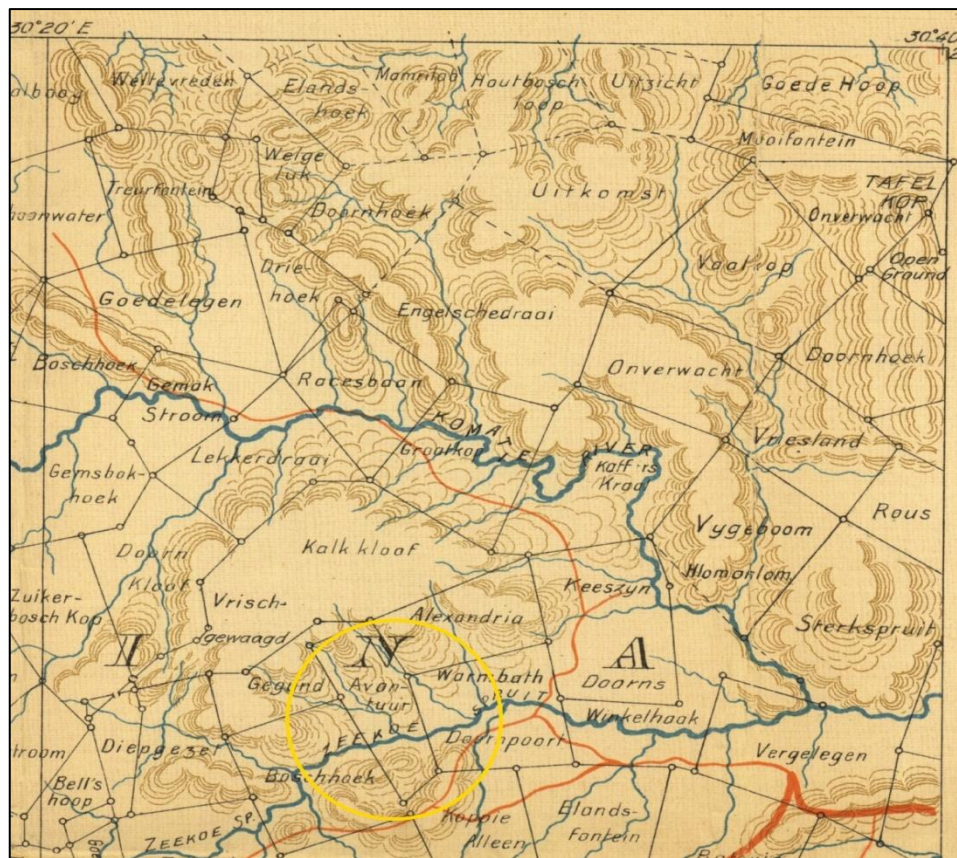
However, in reaction to the increasingly authoritarian way in which Potgieter conducted affairs at Ohrigstad, the Volksraad of Ohrigstad saw Mswati's offer as a means to obtain more respectable title deeds for the property (Bonner, 1978). According to a sales contract set up between the Afrikaners and the Swazi people on 25 July 1846, the whites were the rightful owners of the land that had its southern border at the Crocodile River, which stretched out in a westerly direction up to Elandspruit; of which the eastern border was where the Crocodile and Komati rivers joined and then extended up to Delagoa bay in the north (Van Rooyen, 1951). The Europeans bought the land for a 100 heads of cattle (Huyser). The area where the farm Roodewal 251 JT is located formed part of the land that was ceded to the Europeans (Boers) by the Swazis. Apparently, Swazi people could stay on the land only if the farmers asked permission from the South African Republic for them to be able to do so (Huyser, p 87).

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 western boundary of the latter. Nevertheless in 1860 the Republic of Lydenburg united with the ZAR as the District of Lydenburg and ceded the land west of the Olifants River as part of the unification agreement to the District of Pretoria (Bergh, 1998).

#### 4.1.3. Historic context of the Carolina district

Various archaeologists, anthropologists and historians have taken interest in the history of the Carolina area in Mpumalanga. The main focus of their studies falls on the binary theme of white and black interaction and also what consequences this reaction elicited in the past two hundred years. The main black group that inhabits this area today is the Swazi people. The Swazi people have a very rich political and cultural history.

However, the original inhabitants of the area were the Bushmen or San people. The numerous Bushmen paintings to be found in the district surrounding the towns of Chrissiesmeer and Amsterdam bears testimony to this fact. Historian, Hans Bornman, states in his study of the Carolina area that the last of the Bushmen were killed in the Breyten area and by 1880 no more nomadic Bushmen were present in the region (Bornman, 1986).



**Fig. 4.1. Imperial Map of South Africa: Ermelo 1900. The farm Avontuur encircled in yellow.**

By the mid nineteenth century white farmers had also moved into the area and it is known that the Voortrekkers under the leadership of Andries Hendrik Potgieter settled at Ohrigstad in the north-eastern Transvaal (Myburgh, 1986). The ensuing interaction between the Swazi people and Boers at Ohrigstad and later at Lydenburg was to have an important impact on the history of the Carolina district.



The Swazi kingdom went through various internal dynastic troubles during the first half of the nineteenth century. As explained by historian Philip Bonner, the “disintegration [of the Swazi people] was averted by two timely interventions from outside: the one of the Ohrigstad Boers, who proffered sanctuary and support; the other from within Zululand itself” (Bonner, 1983). The latter is of importance as a threat of a Zulu invasion of Swaziland saw the Swazi people aligning themselves with the Boers who were subsequently given vast tracts of land in the eastern Transvaal for offering the Swazi protection against the Zulu.

In 1839 Mswati succeeded Sobhuza (also known as Somhlomo) as king of the Swazi. His succession to the throne was marked by fission within the Swazi society. The reason for this relates to the complex dynastic rules and traditions when it comes to the appointment of the Swazi king. Mswati was at the time of ascending to the throne still a minor and was only circumcised in 1845; the latter formed part of a traditional ceremony which showed that Mswati had reached the age of maturity and was now fit to rule over his people. Yet, in July 1846 his older half-brother, Somcuba, was still seen by the Ohrigstad Boers as “ruling in place of the king” (Bonner, 1978).

Mswati’s rule was threatened by the ambitions of various of his older half brothers of whom, Malambule, had the support of the Zulu king Mpande. For protection against a possible coup from his brother and the threat of a Zulu invasion of Swaziland, Mswati turned to the Ohrigstad Boers for support; he claimed that the land on which the Boers had settled was Swazi property. However, the Commandant General of the Ohrigstad settlement, Andries Hendrik Potgieter, claimed supreme authority of the area as according to him the land was ceded to him personally by the Pedi leader, Sekwati, in return for the Boers protecting the Pedi from possible future Swazi attacks (Giliomee, 2003).

However, the Boer settlement at Ohrigstad was on the verge of civil war between the faction which supported the Volksraad and the faction 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 area 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). The Volksraad first negotiated 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 concession of land, stretching between the Crocodile and Olifants Rivers. This treaty coincided with Mswati’s half-brother Malambule securing the support of the Zulu King, Mpande, against Mswati. Once Mswati realised the imminent threat of war with the Zulu nation he was desperate for Boer assistance and protection. The war that followed saw Mpande’s army invading most of Swaziland and the Swazi people taking refuge with the Boers. In July 1848 the Zulu army left Swaziland. Potgieter viewed the Volksraad as his enemy and decided to try and sabotage the agreement between the Volksraad and Mswati. He tried to cast doubt on the authenticity of the agreement by trying to renegotiate a treaty with the Swazi during 1847-1848 (Bonner, 1978).

After the Volksraad met with Somcuba's aids in 1848 it was clear to them that the Swazi had been approached with an alternative offer from Potgieter. However, Somcuba's position became more ambiguous within the Swazi royal house. As Somcuba was viewed by the Boers as more important than King Mswati in the negotiations, Mswati started exerting pressure on his half-brother Somcuba to relinquish his authority. In Swaziland there was also increasing opposition to the 1846 concession of territory to the Boers. Adding to the opposition were the facts that Somcuba was the chief negotiator of the treaty and that Potgieter was determined to undermine the treaty. There was also a visible weakening of the Ohrigstad community due to disease and desertion (Bonner, 1978).

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 concession and to try and detach the Boers from Somcuba. Somcuba had been installed at Eludlambedlwini village in the eastern Transvaal and given charge of the Ludlambedlu cattle. The Ludlambedlu 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 seemed to have appropriated the economic and ritual powers of the king in the time that he came under more pressure to relinquish his authority. In 1846 he for example did not hand over all 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 Swazi brothers (Bonner, 1983).

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).

According to ethnologist, A.C. Myburg, Somcuba was murdered during an attack of Mswati's eMbhuleni regiment on Somcuba's kraal. Somcuba was buried at the foot of Ludayikop, Schagen 134, in the district of Nelspruit (Myburgh, 1956).

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 now established at Lydenburg. The 1855 treaty saw the inclusion of the land between the Crocodile and Komati Rivers (Opperman, 1948). After Mswati's death the Boers appointed a commission in 1866 to finalise 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).

In 1880 the Transvaal-Swazi Boundary Commission was appointed to finalise the boundary demarcations between the ZAR and Swaziland. During the 1870s there seemed to have been some dispute between the Boers and Swazi regarding the cession of land in the Komati Valley but the Commission reaffirmed these boundaries. As stated by Bonner: "The Transvaal became independent within its former borders,

and with no loss of territory to the east. The only protection Swaziland secured was a formal recognition by both parties of her independence.” (Bonner, 1983).

White farmers settled in the vicinity of the Komati River and it soon became one of the most densely white populated areas of the ZAR. Although the area was on the transport route from the Natal Colony to Lydenburg the people of the area were situated 20 hours on horseback from Lydenburg and 9 hours on horseback from Nazareth (present day Middelburg). It was the discovery of gold, first on Kaapse Hoop and shortly thereafter on Moodies, west of the present day Barberton, which led to the farmers in the area calling for the establishment of a town in the vicinity (Bornman, 1986).

The town, Carolina, was proclaimed on 15 June 1886. It was at the time located in what was known as the Komati area in the then district of Lydenburg. The town was named after Magdalena Carolina Smit, the wife of Cornelis Coetzee, who was the owner of the farm Steynsdraai and who donated a portion of his farm for the establishment of the town (Myburgh, 1956). Coetzee donated the piece of land with his only prerequisite being that the town should be named after his wife (Bornman, 1986). In 1893 the Volksraad of the ZAR decided to declare Carolina and its surroundings a district in its own right. The boundaries of the district were determined and the first magistrate, one A.F. Jansen, assumed his duties in 1894 (Bornman, 1986).

According to Hans Bornman when the first whites settled in the Komati Valley no blacks lived in the area (1986). However, according to A.C. Myburgh there are various stone ruins in the Carolina district. These settlements consist of various stone enclosures and beehive -shaped stone huts and are 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).

Although it is very difficult to estimate the exact number of blacks who resided in the Eastern Transvaal during the twentieth century some figures do exist. According to R. Massie, in his study: *Native Tribes of the Transvaal*, there were approximately 86 772 black people residing in the south-eastern districts of the Transvaal in 1905. This group consisted of Zulu, Swazi and Basotho peoples (Massie, 1905). Massie estimates that there were about 9143 blacks residing in the Carolina district. Massie also states that the Carolina area is inhabited almost entirely by Swazis and that the Komati Valley has been looked upon as being Swazi territory as the Swazi claimed to have driven the Basotho from the area (Massie, 1905).

N. van Warmelo, in his 1935 study entitled: *A preliminary survey of the Bantu tribes of Southern Africa*, also recorded the presence of Swazi people in the Carolina area during the 1930's (Van Warmelo, 1935). Van Warmelo stated that there were about 8466 black Tax payers living on European farms (Van Warmelo, 1935). According to a petition submitted by the Swazi to then Union Government in 1932 there were about 60 000 Swazi, who resided in the districts of Barberton, Carolina and Ermelo.

## 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 animal 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 bovinds 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 was 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 Mototolong (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 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, Roossenekal and Steelpoort. The BaKoni were the architects of the stone-walled enclosures found throughout the escarpment area of Eastern Mpumlanga. 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 trackways 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

A total of seven (7) sites were located and documented. Sites **BA1-4** consists of buildings and dwellings none of which are regarded as being of heritage significance. A few sites were recorded for orientation and observation purposes (**sites OBS 1-3**).

**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

## **5.2. Description of located sites**

### **5.2.1. Site BA 1.**

**Location:** See Appendix B and D (fig. 1).

**Description:** A small house

**Impact of the proposed development/ activity:**

The proposed development will probably impact on the building as it will be upgraded.

**Recommendation:**

None necessary.

### **5.2.2. Site BA 2.**

**Location:** See Appendix B and D (fig. 2).

**Description:** A timber residence.

**Impact of the proposed development/ activity:**

The house will possibly be impacted upon during the proposed development activity.

**Recommendation:**

None necessary.

### **5.2.3. Site BA 3.**

**Location:** See Appendix B and D (fig. 3).

**Description:** This is a farm shed with corrugated iron roof sheeting and timber trusses. It has a concrete floor and foundations and walls and the outside walls are covered with corrugated iron sheeting. It is currently used as a workshop.

**Impact of the proposed development/ activity:**

The shed will possibly be impacted upon during the proposed development activity.

**Recommendation:**

Low significance, no recommendations needed.

#### **5.2.4. Site BA 4.**

**Location:** See Appendix B and D (fig. 4, 5).

**Description:** Two houses with corrugated iron sheeting covering a timber roof structure, brick and mortar walls, concrete floors and foundations. The walls are plastered and painted and windows steel framed and painted. Timber doors with steel frames.

**Impact of the proposed development/ activity:**

The houses will possibly be impacted upon during the proposed development activity as they will be upgraded for intern's accommodation.

**Recommendation:**

The houses are not regarded as being historically significant, therefore no recommendations needed.

#### **5.2.5. Site OBS 1.**

**Location:** See Appendix B and D (fig. 6, 7)

**Description:** Survey orientation point.

**Impact of the proposed development/ activity:**

N/A

**Recommendation:**

N/A

#### **5.2.6. Site OBS 2.**

**Location:** See Appendix B and D (fig. 8, 9).

**Description:** Survey orientation point.

**Impact of the proposed development/ activity:**

N/A

**Recommendation:**

N/A

**5.2.7. Site OBS 3.**

**Location:** See Appendix B and D (fig. 10).

**Description:** Survey orientation point

**Impact of the proposed development/ activity:**

N/A

**Recommendation:**

N/A

**TABLE 5.3. General Significance of located sites and field rating.**

<b>Site No.</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Type of significance</b>	<b>Degree of significance</b>	<b>NHRA heritage resource &amp; rating</b>
BA 1	House	Heritage Architecture	Archaeological: N/A Historic: None	Buildings & Structures. Low. <b>GPC.</b>
BA 2	House	Heritage Architecture	Archaeological: None Historic: Medium	Buildings & Structures. Low. <b>GPC.</b>
BA 3	Workshop/ Shed	Heritage Architecture	Archaeological: None Historic: Low	Buildings & Structures. Low. <b>GPC.</b>
BA 4	House	Heritage Architecture	Archaeological: None Historic: Medium-High	Buildings & Structures. Low. <b>GPC.</b>
OBS 1	Survey orientation	None	Archaeological: None Historic: None	N/A
OBS 2	Survey orientation	None	Archaeological: None Historic: None	N/A
OBS 3	Survey orientation	None	Archaeological: None Historic: None	N/A

**TABLE 5.4. Site condition assessment and management recommendations.**

<b>Site no.</b>	<b>Type of Heritage resource</b>	<b>Integrity of cultural material</b>	<b>Preservation condition of site</b>	<b>Relative location</b>	<b>Quality of archaeological/historic material</b>	<b>Quantity of site features</b>	<b>Recommended conservation management</b>
BA 1	Buildings & structures	N/A	Fair	Avontuur 725 JT	N/A	1	None
BA 2	Buildings & structures	N/A	Good	Avontuur 725 JT	N/A	1	None
BA 3	Buildings & structures	N/A	Good	Avontuur 725 JT	N/A	1	None
BA 4	Buildings & structures	N/A	Good	Avontuur 725 JT	N/A	1	None
OBS 1	None	N/A	N/A	Avontuur 725 JT	N/A	N/A	N/A
OBS 2	None	N/A	N/A	Avontuur 725 JT	N/A	N/A	N/A
OBS 3	None	N/A	N/A	Avontuur 725 JT	N/A	N/A	N/A

## 6. Findings and recommendations

Recommendations were allocated to each site as discussed in section 5: **Located sites and their description, tables 5.3 and 5.4.** A total of seven (7) sites were located and documented. In terms of the archaeological component of the Act (25 of 1999, section 35) no sites or features of archaeological significance was recorded during the survey. In terms of the built environment in the area (section 34 of the Act) no significant buildings were identified. Three sites were recorded for orientation purposes (OBS 1-3) and a further four sites (buildings) were recorded and assessed (BA 1-4). From a heritage perspective it is therefore recommended that the proposed activities continue.

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

## List of located sites

A total of seven sites were located on the project area and numbered BA 1-4 and OBS 1-3 respectively. The former are sites or features which were assessed and the latter are sites or observation points recorded for survey orientation purposes. The initials "BA" represent Badplaas (town) and the farm "Avontuur" followed by the number of the site, similarly, the initials OBS represent observation and orientation points during the survey. A spatial location with the aid of a GPS (Global Positioning System) was added to each site.

**Table A. Site Locations.**

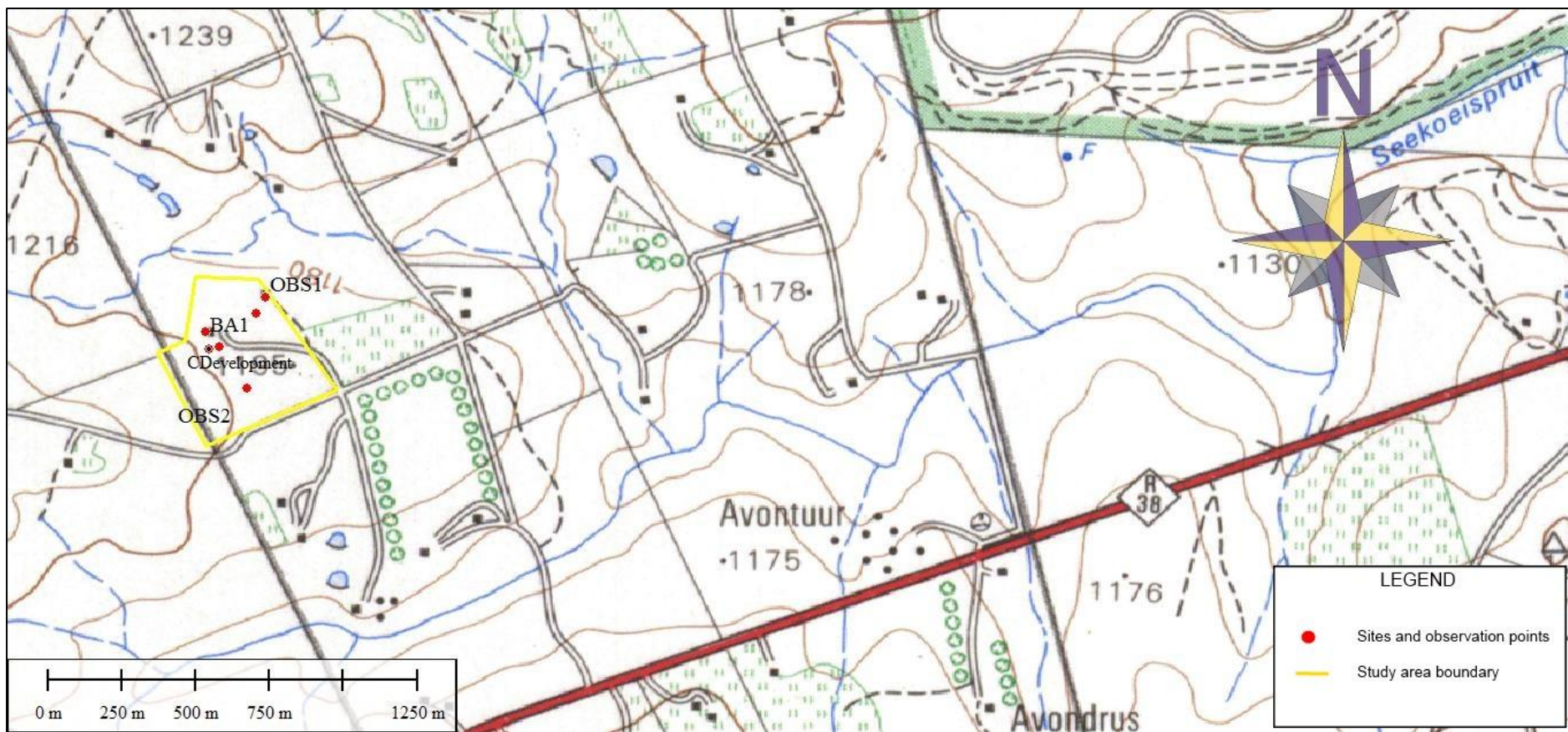
Site Name	Date of compilation	GPS Coordinates		Photo figure No.
BA1	23/01/2016	S25°57'29.42"	E030°30'51.41"	1
BA 2	23/01/2016	S25°57'35.07"	E030°30'45.30"	2
BA 3	23/01/2016	S25°57'35.07"	E030°30'45.30"	3
BA 4	23/01/2016	S25°57'34.88"	E030°30'46.44"	4, 5

**Table B. Survey Orientation Locations.**

Site Name	Date of compilation	GPS Coordinates		Photo figure No.
OBS 1	23/01/2016	S25°57'31.23"	E030°30'50.47"	6, 7
OBS 2	23/01/2016	S25°57'39.37"	E030°30'49.49"	8, 9
OBS 3	23/01/2016	S25°57'33.18"	E030°30'44.90"	10



## Appendix C





## Appendix D



**Fig. 1. Site BA 1. Dwelling. Photo taken in South-eastern direction.**



**Fig. 2. Site BA 2. Timber home. The photo was taken in a Western direction.**



**Fig. 3. Site BA 3. A corrugated iron workshop and storage shed.**



**Fig. 4. Site BA 4. One of two houses to be used as accommodation for interns.**



**Fig. 5. Site BA 4. A second home.**

## SURVEY ORIENTATION SITES



**Fig. 6. Site OBS 1. Looking towards the South West.**



**Fig. 7. Site OBS 1. Looking towards the West.**





**Fig. 8. Site OBS 2. Photo taken in a Western direction. Previously cultivated fields.**



**Fig. 9. Site OBS 2. Photo taken in a Northern direction. Previously cultivated fields.**



**Fig. 10. Site OBS 3. A macadamia nut orchard. The photo was taken in a North-eastern direction.**