Phase 1 Archaeological and Heritage Impact Assessment on the farm Huja 791 LT located in respect of the proposed construction of accommodation facilities and associated infrastructure in the Selati Game Reserve, Limpopo Province.

Compiled for:

For **Henwood Environmental Solutions**

Surveyor: Mr JP Celliers

23 August, 2022

I, Jean-Pierre Celliers as authorized representative of Kudzala Antiquity CC , hereby confirm my independence as a specialist and declare that neither I or 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 I was appointed as Heritage Consultant, other than fair remuneration for work performed on this project.

SIGNATURE: 

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Executive summary

Site name and location: An area of approximately 2 hectares on the farm Huja 791 LT located in the Selati Game Reserve, in respect of the construction of permanent tent accommodation facilities.

Purpose of the study: An archaeological and heritage study in order to identify cultural heritage resources in respect of the establishment of new permanent tent accommodation facilities for tourists.

Topographical Maps: 1:50 000 2430 BB (1964, 1975, 1997); 1:250 000 2430 (1942).

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Report date: 23 August 2022

Description and findings:

An Archaeological and Heritage Impact Assessment was undertaken by Kudzala Antiquity CC in respect of the proposed construction of additional permanent tented accommodation and associated facilities located on the farm Huja 791 LT within the Selati Game Reserve, Limpopo Province. The study was done with the aim of identifying sites which are of heritage significance on the identified project area and assess their current preservation condition, significance and possible impact of the proposed action. This forms part of legislative requirements as appears in section 38 of the National Heritage Resources Act (Act 25 of 1999). This report can be submitted in support of the National Environmental Management Act (Act 25 of 1998).

The survey was conducted on foot in an effort to locate archaeological remains and historic sites, structures and features. Archival information including scrutiny of previous heritage surveys of the area formed the baseline information against which the survey was conducted. A single lower grinding stone was located at survey orientation location SO 1 but it has low heritage significance as no additional associated sites or features was recorded within the project area during the physical survey.

A total of five survey orientation locations were documented, sites SO 1-5 which includes a GPS location and photographs of the landscape at that particular location.

In terms of section 34 of the National Heritage Resources Act (NHRA, 25 of 1999), no significant buildings or structures were located.

In terms of section 35 of the NHRA, no significant archaeological sites or features were located.

In terms of section 36 of the NHRA, no graves or gravesites and burial grounds were located.
It is not within the expertise of this report or the surveyor to comment on possible palaeontological remains which may be located in the study area.

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.*

Introduction

1.1. Terms of reference

Kudzala Antiquity CC was commissioned to conduct an archaeological and heritage resources survey in respect of the proposed construction of new permanent tented accommodation facilities for tourists which will be located on the farm Huja 791 LT within the Selati Game Reserve, Limpopo Province. The survey was conducted in order to assess the potential impact that the proposed activity may have on archaeological and heritage resources. The survey was conducted for Henwood Environmental Solutions.

1.1.1 Project overview

The client is in the process of obtaining environmental authorization to construct a few permanent tents, decks and related facilities in the Selati Game Reserve in Limpopo. Suitable areas within this identified area are earmarked for this activity pending environmental authorization.

1.1.2. Constraints and limitations

The archaeological survey consisted of non-intrusive methods which exclusively rely on surface observations. Most of the project footprint area was relatively easy of access but certain areas were difficult to access due to dense vegetation growth which resulted in archaeological visibility being low.

1.2. Legislative Framework

The National Heritage Resources Act (NHRA) (Act No. 25, 1999) and the National Environmental Management Act (NEMA) (Act 25 of 1998) require that individuals or institutions have specialist heritage impact assessment studies undertaken whenever development activities are planned and such activities trigger activities listed in the legislation. This report is the result of an archaeological and heritage study in accordance with the requirements as set out in Section 38 (3) of the NHRA 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; and
- 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 removed 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.

1.2.1. Heritage in Protected areas

In February 2016 Government Gazette no. 40593 the Department of Environmental Affairs published Cultural Heritage Survey Guidelines and Assessment tools for protected areas in South Africa, under the National Environmental Management: Protected Areas Act, 2003 (Act 57, 2003).

In protected areas a basic inventory of the property facilitates confirmation of national heritage resources; conducting of heritage audits; site condition monitoring; prioritising sites by ranking their significance; evaluation of a protected area's heritage; assistance in planning for heritage resources and allocating resources.

Process in compiling the cultural resources inventory for the Selati Game Reserve entails significance assessment of the heritage resources, condition assessment and evaluation for grading of the resources. This has not yet been done for the Selati Game Reserve and may be a valuable future consideration.

A concise history of the establishment and history of the Selati Game Reserve is discussed in section 4.1.6. of this report.

1.3. Approach and statutory requirements

The SAHRA Minimum standards of 2007 and 2016 guideline documents, forms the background against which the survey was planned and the report compiled. An Archaeological Impact Assessment (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 the project area, assigning significance to these resources, assessing the possible impact that the proposed activity may have on these resources, making recommendations pertaining to the management of heritage resources and putting forward mitigation measures where applicable.

When the archaeologist or heritage specialist encounters a situation where the planned project will lead to the destruction or alteration of an archaeological/ heritage site or feature, a second phase investigation is normally recommended. During a phase two investigation mitigation measures are put in place and detailed investigation into the nature of the cultural material is undertaken. Often at this stage, archaeological excavation and detailed mapping of a site 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 heritage specialist after the initial assessment has been carried out may result in the modification of a planned route or development to incorporate or protect existing archaeological and heritage sites.

2. Description of surveyed area

The study area falls within the Selati Game Reserve, Limpopo Province.
The survey was carried out on a project footprint consisting of approximately two hectares of Granite Lowveld vegetation.

Landscape: Natural and wetland vegetation previously Granite Lowveld vegetation and soils.

Visibility: Good-Poor in certain areas due to dense vegetation cover.

Veld type: The vegetation is classed as Granite Lowveld comprising tall shrubland with few trees to moderately dense woodland on the deep sandy uplands with *Terminala sericea, Combretum zeyheri and C. Tricholaena Eragrostis rigidior*. Dense thicket to open savanna in the bottomlands. The dense herbacius layer contains the dominant *Digitaria eriantha, Panicum maximum* and

Astrida congesta on fine-textured soils. The brackish bottomlands support *Sporobolus nitens, Urochloa mosambicensus* and *Chloris virgata* (Mucina and Rutherford, 2009).

Geology and soils: Swazian Goudplaats Gneiss, Makhutswi Gneiss and Nelspruit Suite occur from north to south. Further south the younger Mpuluzi Granite form the major base geology of the area. Archaian gneiss and granite weather into sandy soils in the uplands and clayey soils with high sodium content in the lowlands (Mucina and Rutherford, 2009).

3. Methodology

This study consists of a detailed archival study in order to understand the study area in a historical timeframe, an archaeological background study which include scrutiny of previous archaeological reports of the area, obtained through the SAHRIS database, and published as well as unpublished written sources on the archaeology of the area, social consultation with people who live nearby and a lastly a physical survey of the affected and immediate area.

The South African Heritage Resources Agency (SAHRA) and the relevant legislation (NHRA) 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; and
- 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, archival and heritage study is to establish the whereabouts and nature of cultural heritage sites should they occur on project 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 and rate their significance and establish if further investigation is needed. Mitigation measures can then be suggested and put in place when necessary.

3.1. Archaeological and Archival background studies

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:

- Published and unpublished archaeological reports and articles;
- Published and unpublished historical reports and articles;
- Archival documents from the National Archives in Pretoria;
- Historical maps; and
- South African Heritage Resource Information System (SAHRIS) database.

3.1.1. Previous archaeological studies in the area

Some archaeological impact assessments (AIA's) and heritage impact assessments have been done in the vicinity of the proposed development area.

In 2002 Mr FP Coetzee conducted an Archaeological Investigation on Antwerpen Game Farm in the Hoedspruit District. He noted that some Middle Stone Age and early Iron Age remains in the form of stone tool flakes and pottery shards were found in an erosion donga to the West of the farm.

In 2003 Mr F Roodt compiled a report in respect of a lodge development on the farm Avoca 88 for R&R Cultural Resources Consultants. He found some pottery fragments which were eroded from a nearby anthill. He did not ascribe any significance to the fragments.

In 2005 Dr Udo Kűsel conducted a "*Cultural Heritage Resources Impact Assessment of a Portion of Kapama Hoedspruit (Guernsey 81 KU Portions 6, 34, 98, 109, 56, 204 and 210)".* He stated that "except for a few isolated Stone Age flakes no important cultural heritage resources could be found".

In 2006 M. Murimbikwa conducted a heritage study titled “Archaeological Impact Assessment Study for the Proposed Construction of Electricity Distribution Powerlines Within, Limpopo Province”. No heritage resources or features were documented as a result of the survey.

3.1.2. Historic maps

Historical maps 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:

(i) whether they still exist;
(ii) their current condition; and
(iii) Significance.

3.1.3. Physical survey

- The survey of the proposed project area was conducted on 15 August 2022
- The survey took one day to complete.
- The documented sites were numbered sequentially.
- Sites were recorded by using a handheld Garmin Etrex 22x GPS unit and the unit was given time to reach an accuracy of at least 5 meters.
- Sites were plotted on 1:50 000 topographical maps which are geo-referenced (WGS 84) and also on Google Earth.
- No sites of archaeological or heritage significance were located. A number of survey orientation locations were mapped for survey purposes.

3.2. Heritage site significance

The South African Heritage Resources Agency (SAHRA) formulated guidelines for the conservation of all cultural resources (sections 6 and 7 of the NHRA, 1999) 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 variety 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 and those of high significance **(*Also see table 5.2.Significance rating guidelines for sites*).**

Values used to assign significance and impact characteristics 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.

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; and
- 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; and
- Quantity of sites and site features.

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. However, when development activities jeopardize the future of such a site, a second and third phase in the Cultural Resource Management (CRM) process is normally advised. This 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 NHRA 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

In Southern Africa the domestication of the environment began only a couple of thousands of years ago, when agriculture and herding were introduced. At some time during the last half of the first millennium BC, people living in the region where Botswana, Zambia and Angola are today, started moving southward, until they reached the Highveld and the Cape in the area of modern South Africa. As time passed and the sub-continent became fully settled, these agro-pastoralists, who spoke Bantu languages, started dominating all those areas which were ecologically suitable for their way of life. This included roughly the eastern half of modern South Africa, the eastern fringe of Botswana and the north of Namibia. Historians agree that the earliest Africans to inhabit in the Lowveld in Mpumalanga were of Nguni origin.

Up until the 1930s, malaria would have occurred sporadically in the study area during the rainy season. During the first half of the nineteenth century, Tsetse flies also thrived in this area. Pastoralists would have avoided the moist low-lying valleys and thickly wooded regions where these insects preferred to congregate. It is unlikely that populations would be dense in areas where malaria and the “sleeping sickness” transferred by Tsetse flies was a constant threat to humans and their stock (Bergh 1999: 3; Shillington 1995: 32).

In a few decades, the course of history in the old Transvaal province would change forever. The Difaqane (Sotho), or Mfekane (“the crushing” in Nguni) was a time of bloody upheavals in Natal and on the Highveld, which occurred around the early 1820s until the late 1830s. 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.

During the time of the Difaqane, a northwards migration of white settlers from the Cape was also taking place. Some travellers, missionaries and adventurers had gone on expeditions to the northern areas in South Africa – some as early as the 1720’s. One such an adventurer was Robert Schoon, who formed part of a group of Scottish travellers and traders who had travelled the northern provinces of South Africa in the late 1820s and early 1830s. Schoon had gone on two long expeditions in the late 1820’s and once again ventured eastward and northward of Pretoria in 1836 (Bergh, 1999: 13, 116-121).

By the late 1820s, a mass-movement of Dutch speaking people in the Cape Colony started advancing into the northern areas. This was due to feelings of mounting dissatisfaction caused by economical and other circumstances in the Cape. This movement later became known as the

Great Trek. This migration resulted in a massive increase in the numbers of people of European descent.

4.1.2. European settlement

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 Bronkhortsspruit in the west to the Swazi border and the Lebombo mountains east.

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 discovery of gold in South Africa had a major impact in the region. The gold rush started when the prospect of alluvial gold was suggested by Karl Gottlieb Mauch near Lydenburg. After the establishment of the Lydenburg Gold Prospecting Company Ltd in 1871, alluvial gold was found by G.R. Parsons in 1973 east of Lydenburg. This was the start of the so-called Lydeburg Gold Fields (Barnard, 1975: 26). In 1873 gold was discovered in Pilgrims Rest, 50 kilometres north-east of Lydenburg. This drew scores of prospectors into the region. The establishment of Barberton in 1884, after the discovery of the Sheba gold reef, also brought about greater activity in the area. More Gold was discovered in the Murchison Mountain Range by Edward Burton and James Sutherland in 1870. This mountain range is named in honour of Sir Roderick Murchison, a British geologist and prominent member of the Royal Geographic Society (Erasmus, 2004: 277; Raper, 2014: 353).

In 1887 French prospector Auguste Robert or "French Bob", a well-known prospector who also played a major role in the discovery of gold at Barberton, discovered payable gold near Leydsdorp. As a result of this discovery a large number of gold miners settled here and in 1890 the town was named Leydsdorp in honour of dr. Willem Leyds, former secretary of the Z.A.R. from 1888-1897. The town developed quickly with canteens, pubs and hotels springing up in the town and the town even had its own newspaper called the Leydsdorp Leader (Erasmus, 2004: 277; Raper, 2014: 275).
The nearby goldfields located within the Murchison Range, were called the Selati Goldfields and were named after Shalati, a female paramount chief within the Murchison area (Erasmus, 2004: 277).

Figure 4.1. A Map of the Murchison Gold Fields dated 1892. The approximate location of Huja 791 LT is indicated with a yellow border. Leydsdorp is visible west and Phalaborwa east (NARSSA *Maps: 3/747*).

Figure 4.2. Early, undated photograph of the town of Leydsdorp (NARSSA Foto*: 1092*).

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

The discovery of diamonds and gold in the Northern provinces had very important consequences for South Africa. After the discovery of these resources, the British, who at the time had colonized the Cape and Natal, had intensions of expanding their territory into the northern Boer republics. This eventually led to the Anglo-Boer War, which took place between 1899 and 1902 in South Africa, and which was one of the most turbulent times in South Africa's history.

Even before the outbreak of war in October 1899 British politicians, including Sir Alfred Milner and Mr. Chamberlain, had declared that should Britain's differences with the Z.A.R. result in violence, it would mean the end of republican independence. This decision was not immediately publicised, and as a consequence republican leaders based their assessment of British intentions on the more moderate public utterances of British leaders. Consequently, in March 1900, they asked Lord Salisbury to agree to peace on the basis of the status quo ante bellum. Salisbury's reply was, however, a clear statement of British war aims (Du Preez, 1977).

During the British advance between February to September 1900, Lord Roberts replaced Genl. Buller as the supreme commander and applied a different tactic in confronting the Boer forces instead of a frontal attack approach he opted to encircle the enemy. This proved successful and resulted for instance in the surrender of Genl. Piet Cronje and 4000 burghers at Paardeberg on 27 February 1900.

This was the start of a number of victories for the British and shortly after they occupied Pretoria on 5 June 1900, a skirmish at Diamond Hill resulted in the Boer forces under command of Louis Botha, retreated alongside the Delagoa Bay railway to the east. Between the 21-27 August, Botha and 5000 burghers defended their line at Bergendal (Dalmanutha) but were overwhelmed by superior numbers and artillery. This resulted in the Boer forces retreating even further east from Hectorspruit in a north-western direction towards Pilgrim's Rest and further north to Pietersburg (Bergh, 1999:51). No further skirmishes took place along this route or near the study area. Three weeks later the British reached Komatipoort and thus the whole of the Eastern Transvaal south of the Delagoa Bay railway line was now occupied by British Forces.

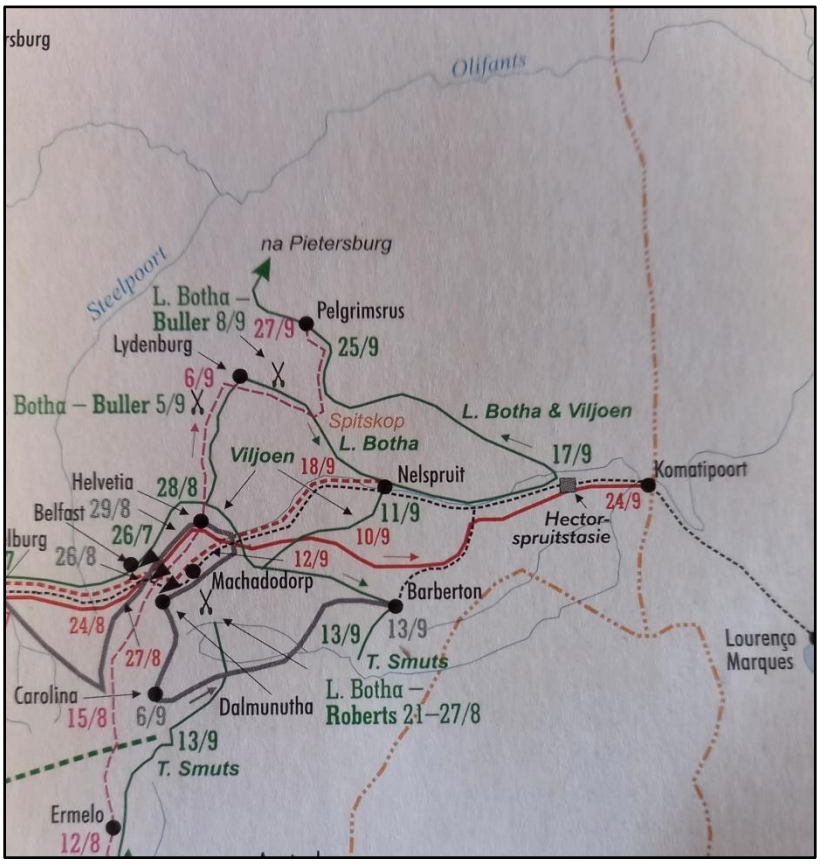

Figure 4.3. The British advance February-September 1900. Genl. Louis Botha's retrieval route towards the east and north-west. No skirmishes took place along this route or near the study area (Bergh, 1999:51).

4.1.4. Railway history the Eastern and Selati Railway Lines

The building of the railway line between Pretoria and Delagoa Bay commenced after the Kruger Government gave the concession for the building of the line to the Nederlandsche Zuid-Afrikaansche Spoorweg-Maatschappij (NZASM). The railway line was completed in 1895 (de Jong et al. 1988).

Before completion of the Eastern, or Delagoa Bay Railway line in 1895, payable gold was discovered in the Lowveld regions of Gravelotte, Leydsdorp, Rubbervale, Trichardtsdal and the Selati Goldfields. This necessitated that a railway line to connect the North-eastern Transvaal with the central markets of the ZAR be constructed (Pienaar, 1990).

President Paul Kruger supported this idea and in July 1890 he managed to convince the "Volksraad" that a proposed railway line connecting the Soutpansberg and Selati Goldfields with the main line to Lourenço Marques (Delagoa Bay) be approved.

This proved to be quite an expensive project and in May of 1893 the first plans for the railway was approved by railway commissioner Mr J.S. Smit (Pienaar, 1990). The Selati railway line would be 307 km long and the project take three years to complete at an estimated cost of £6 000 per km. The contractor who was commissioned to complete the work was that of Baron Eugène Oppenheim who had to commit the first £500 000 after which the ZAR Government would follow with £1,5 million. The construction company appointed for the work, Westwood & Winby, completed surveying of the line in early 1893 and by July of that year some 40 km of the line was completed (Pienaar, 1990). Unfortunately Oppenheim acted unlawfully in his dealings with the ZAR and after an enquiry initiated by Smit, all work on the railway halted after approximately 120 km between Komatipoort and Newington was completed. After numerous legal battles both in ZAR and abroad, all concessions awarded to Oppenheim was nullified and at that stage the Selati Railway line was left incomplete. Materials and tools used for the construction of the line were left abandoned in the wilderness together with numerous unmarked graves of British workers who succumbed to malaria (Pienaar, 1990). The graveyard in Komatipoort is testament to this and a number of individuals lie buried here including Patrick O'Connor (11 June 1893), Aubrey Drury (24 June 1895), Frank Wilson (18 September 1893), George Charles Bovey (30 November 1893) and John Frederick Farrall (21 August 1894).

During the Anglo Boer War (1899-1902) a small British regiment under command of Prussian "Baron" Ludwig von Steinaecker, known as Steinaecker's Horse, was tasked to patrol the border between the Transvaal and Mozambique. Steinaecker used the Selati railway for this purpose and used the train to transport his troops and supplies between Komatipoort and Sabie Bridge. He also erected military outposts along the Swaziland border up to the north of Letaba where he stationed an officer and a few troops at each post (Pienaar, 1990). Two of these outposts would later play an important role in the establishment history of the Kruger National Park, one at Gomondwane and the other on the southern bank of the Sabie River at the Sabie railway bridge.

Pioneer and visionary of the later Kruger National Park, Col. James Stevenson-Hamilton appointed the first field ranger and stationed Mr E.G. (Gaza) Grey at Gomondwane. In 1902 Stevenson-Hamilton made von Steinaecker's blockhouse at Sabie Bridge his first home. This outpost later developed into the Skukuza Rest Camp (Pienaar, 1990).

Figure 4.4. Railway development in the Transvaal, 1889-1980 (Bergh, 1999: 79).

At this stage, after the War, the area between the Crocodile and Sabie Rivers were re-proclaimed as Nature Reserve and Stevenson-Hamilton served as the keeper. Materials and equipment which were used to construct the Selati Line was used by him to develop infrastructure of the Reserve. He also got permission to utilize the railway for this purpose and fabricated a transport trolley consisting of a railway undercarriage and wheels with a platform to transport materials, staff and equipment (Pienaar, 1990).

Figure. 4.5. Mr George Pauling was the appointed contractor for the Eastern Railway Line between 1892-1894 and also a section of the Selati Line during 1909-1912 (Pienaar, 1990).

After the establishment of the Union of South Africa in 1910 and the resultant S.A.S (South African Railway Services) funds became available to extend the Selati Line towards Tzaneen (fig. 4.1.). Experienced railway contractor, Mr George Pauling (George Pauling & Co.) was awarded the contract and in 1912 it was completed and connected with Tzaneen (Pienaar, 1990). In 1915 the line was extended even further and reached Soekmekaar. At this stage however, the Selati Goldfields were waning and gold mining became less profitable. The economic sustainability of the Selati Line was again compromised and subsequently in 1921 concessions to prospect for coal were awarded along the Selati Line. It was however the vision of Mr Harry Caldecott, marketing manager of the S.A.S, which led to the idea of promoting tourism to the Reserve by making use of the railway line. The S.A.S decided that a package tour for tourists visiting the Eastern and North-eastern Transvaal named “Rondomtalie in nege da” (Round Trip in nine days) was to be implemented. The first of these became reality in 1923. It started and concluded in Johannesburg and included visits to Lourenço Marques (Maputo) and the section through the Sabie Reserve was regarded as the highlight of the tour (Pienaar, 1990).

In the year 1926 the Kruger National Park was established and more and more tourists made use of this service. The visitor experience was enhanced by a regular campfire social event at Huhla station and at certain places the train stopped and passengers guided by a ranger for a short walk in the reserve. A certain highlight of this service was when, in 1925, the Prince of Wales took part in this unique tour (Pienaar, 1990).

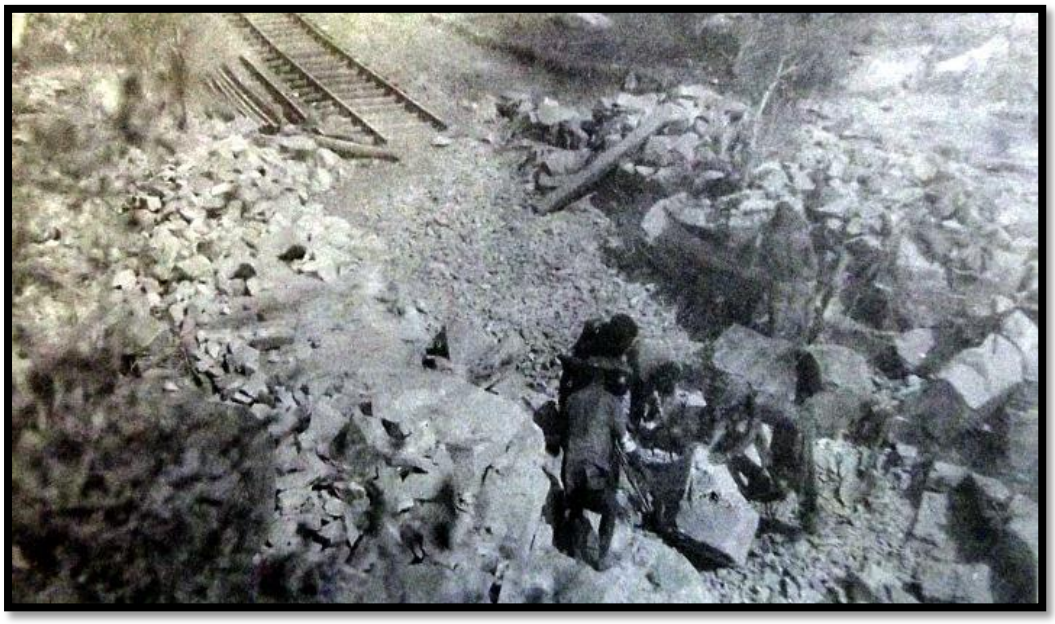

Figure. 4.6. Construction of the Selati Line north of the Sabie Bridge in 1911 (Stevenson-Hamilton Collection, Skukuza Archive in Pienaar, 1990).

The Selati Line was however not without problems which included regular veld fires caused by the train, collisions with game and some very serious train collisions which led to numerous casualties. Commercial activity and mining in the Phalaborwa area led to the Selati Line being busier than ever and it became necessary to electrify the line in order to meet the demand. In light of the problems experienced with fire and game the S.A.S decided to divert the line further and West of the Kruger National Park border. During the construction of this section, one night a train collided with a herd of elephant which led to one being killed and several wounded. In 1968 a new line extending from Kaapmuiden was built West of the Nsikazi River and at Metsi, a few kilometres North of Newington, it joined the Selati Line. Upon completion of this new line traffic diminished drastically and from April 1971 a single daily service between Komatipoort and Skukuza was used for the transport of supplies (Pienaar, 1990).

The role which the Selati Railway Line played in the establishment of the Sabie Reserve is such that without it, the Reserve would probably not have been possible and both the Selati and

Eastern Railway Lines were instrumental in the placement of the first field ranger outposts. Sabie Bridge (Skukuza), Crocodile Bridge, Kaapmuiden, Malelane, Msuthu and Rolle were all field ranger outposts which were established as a result of the railway lines.

4.1.5. Historic maps of the study area

The farm Huja 791 LT is located about 29 kilometres east of the historic town of Leydsdorp and it is located within the Selati Game Reserve.

Since the mid-1800s up until the present, South Africa has been divided and re-divided into various districts. Since 1848, the property under investigation formed part of the Soutpansberg district. From 1929 it formed part of the Letaba district and today it forms part of Mopani district of the Limpopo Province (Bergh, 1999: 17, 20-27).

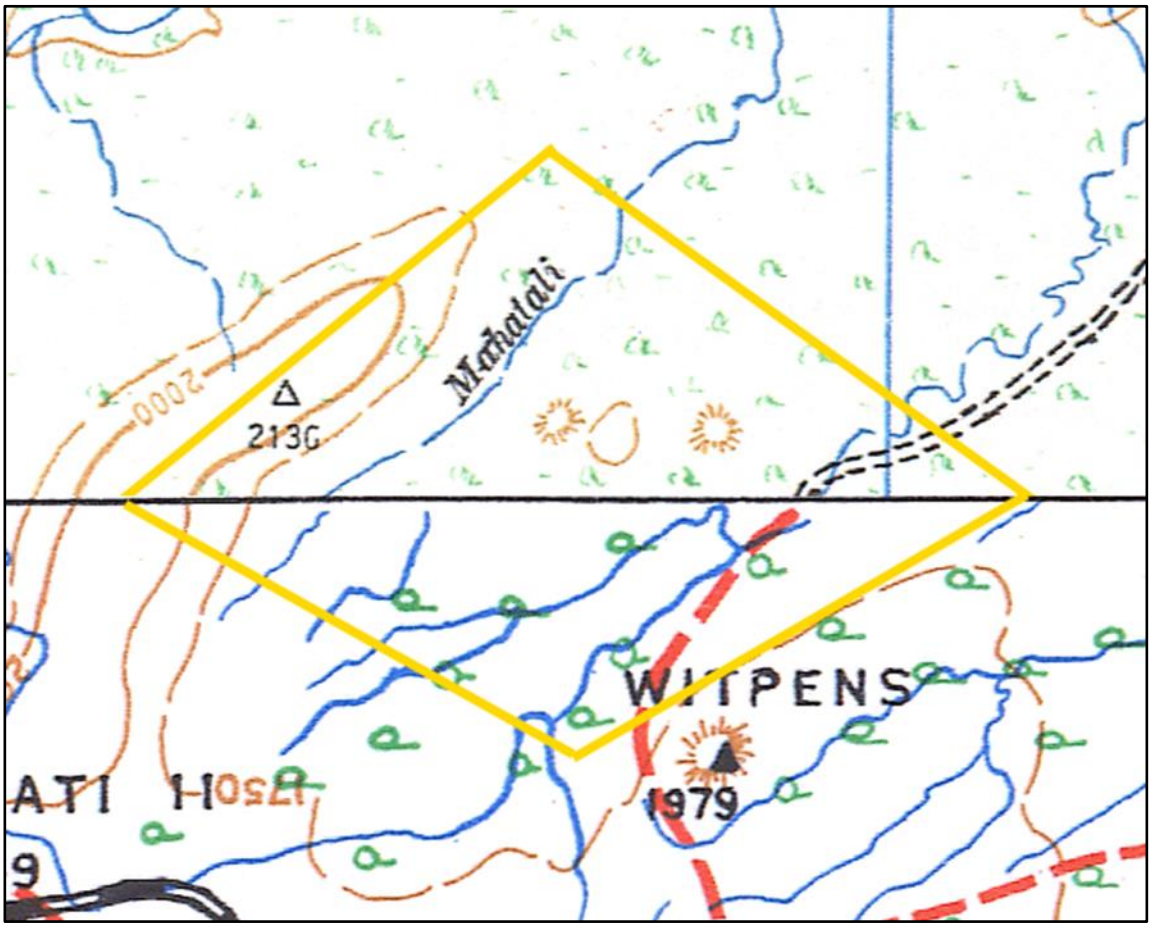

Figure 4.7. 1942-47 Topo-Cadastral Map of the study area dated 1942-47. The approximate location of the farm Huja 791 is shown with a yellow border. The only development on the farm is a road towards southwest (Topo-Cadastral Map 1942; Topo-Cadastral Map 1947).

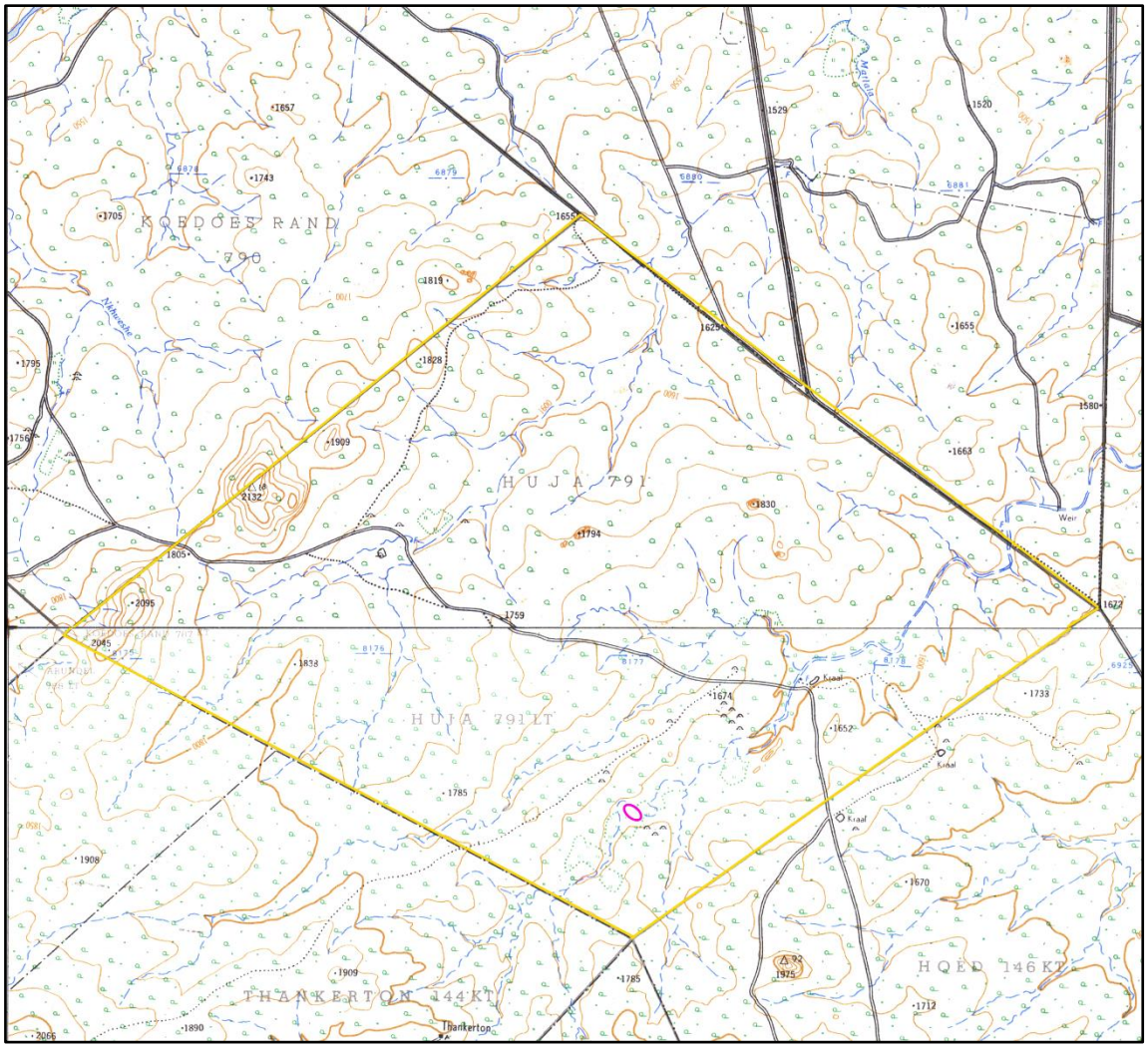

Figure 4.8. A Topographical map of the study area, dated 1960-1964. The approximate location of the farm Huja 791 LT is shown with a yellow border. A road is visible as well as several huts and a kraal, mostly within the south-eastern portion of the farm. Three huts are visible close to the southeast of the study area (Topographical Map 1956; Topographical Map 1964).

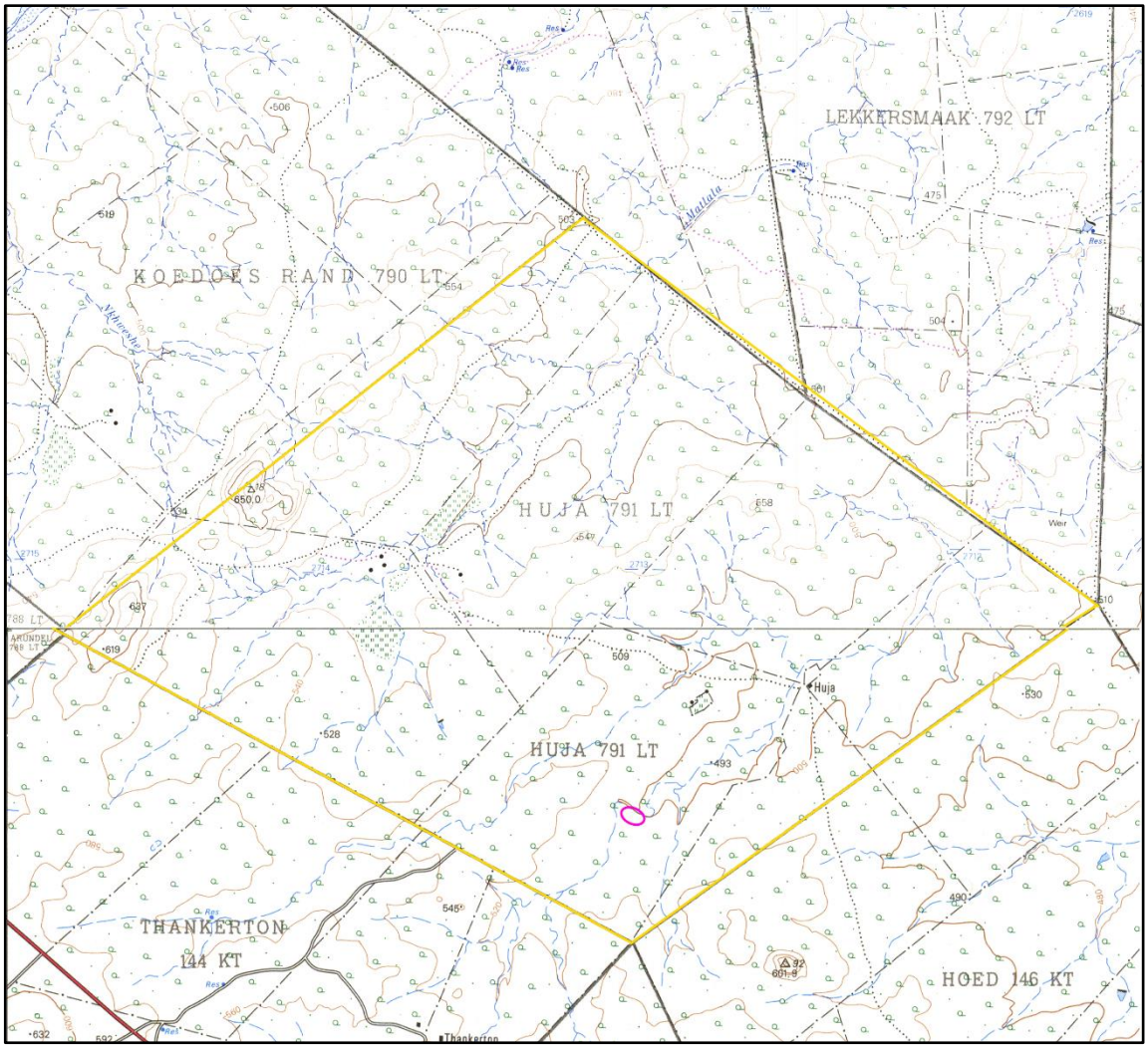

Figure 4.9. 1975-1989 A Topographical map of the study area dated 1975-1989. The location of the farm Huja 791 LT is shown with a yellow border and the location of the study area, with a pink border. No developments are visible within the study area, but several buildings and some cultivated land are visible elsewhere on the property (Topographical Map 1975; Topographical Map 1989).

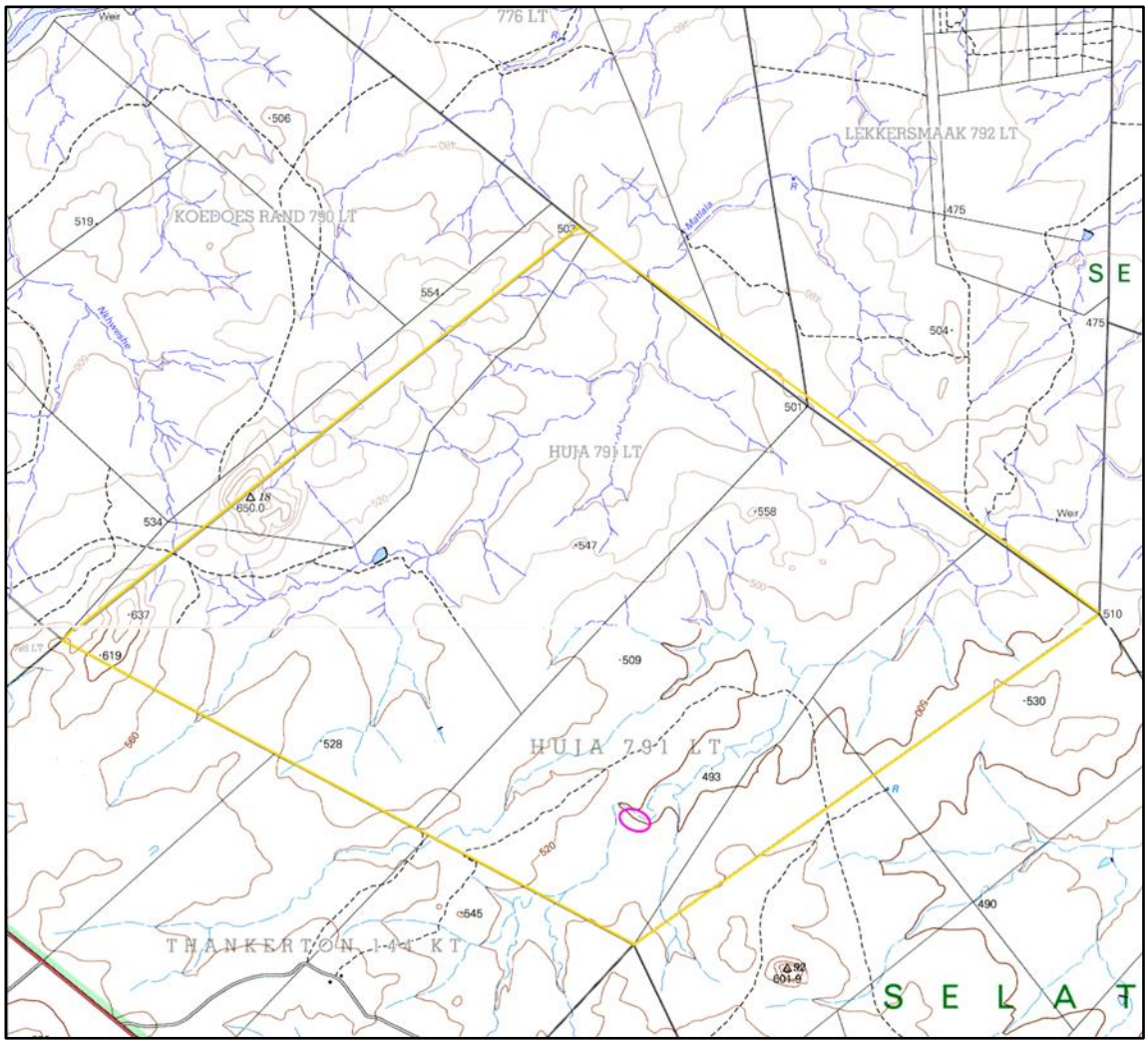

Figure 4.10. A Topographical map of the study area dated 1997-2002. The location of the farm Huja 791 LT is shown with a yellow border the study area with a pink border. Footpaths are visible in the south as well as northeast where there is a dam. No developments are visble wihtin the study area (Topographical Map 1997; Topographical Map 2002).

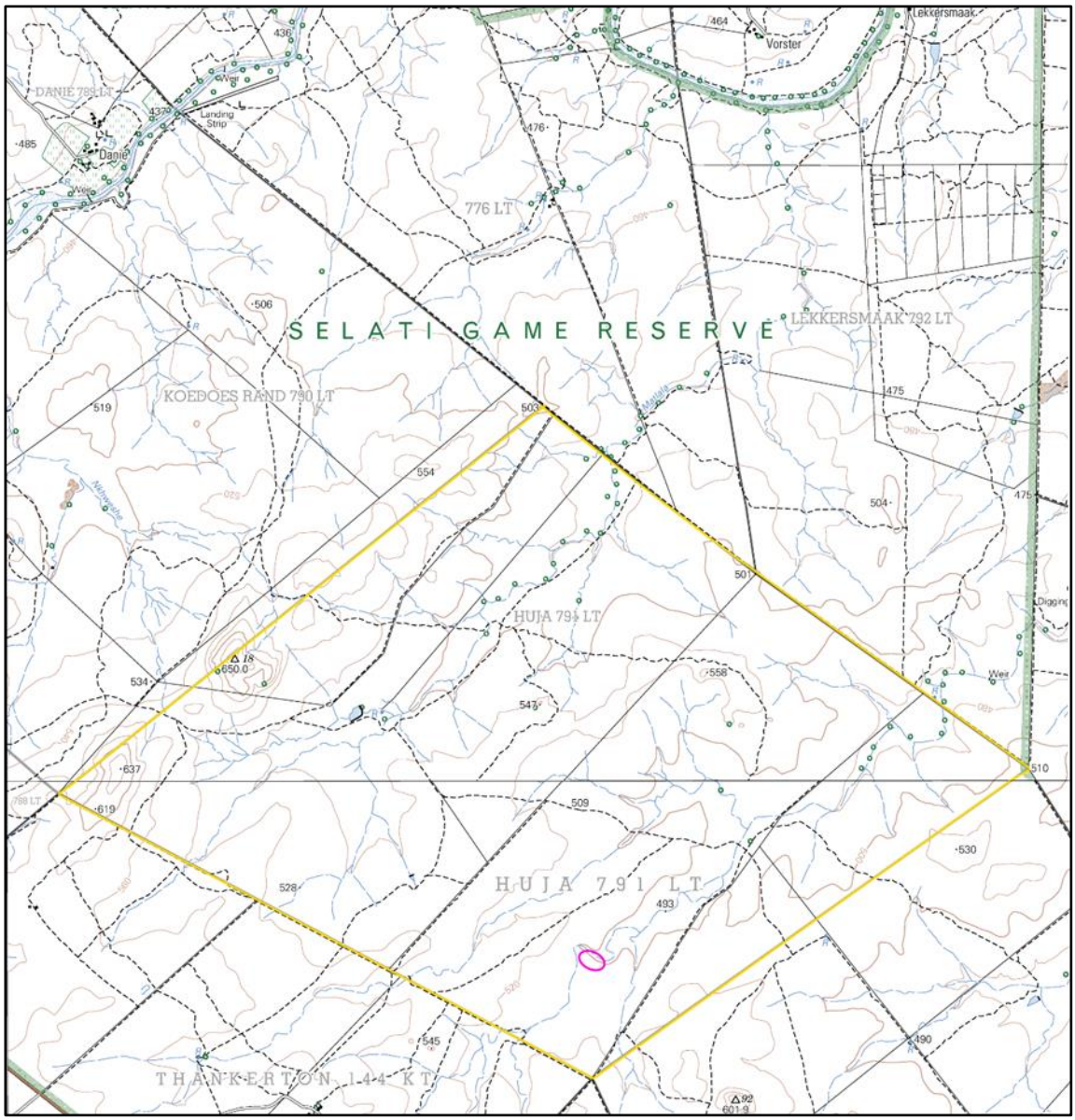

Figure 4.11. A Topographical map of the study area, dated 2008. The location of the farm Huja 791 LT is shown with a yellow border and the study area with a pink border. No developments can be seen within the study area, but several footpaths traverse the farm (Topographical Map 2008).

4.1.6. Concise historical overview of the Selati Game Reserve

Famed Lowveld farmer Mr Hugh Lanion Hall leased land on the Selati River from the Crown and started farming cattle on the farm Ermelo in 1943. In 1957 land became available for purchase from the British Government and H.L. Hall & Sons purchased the farms Huja, Hoed, Koedoesrand and Arundel all located south of the Selati River.

Between the years 1957 and 1991 a number of individuals bought adjacent farms for livestock farming purposes. They are Mr Piet Warren, Piet Mare, Henry Dunn and Eugene and Deon Thomas. In the 1990's cattle farming started to make way for establishment of private game reserves as conservation became more popular. In 1992 Dr Rob Snaddon, great grandson of H.L. Hall and also Managing Director of the Hall & Sons enterprise initiated a meeting by all the landowners north and south of the Selati River in order to investigate their willingness to establish a combined wilderness reserve for the conservation of wildlife and flora.

The majority of landowners supported the initiative and it was decided that the Reserve would be named the "Triangle Game Company". In September of 1993 the formal proclamation and establishment of the Selati Game Reserve was held at the camp of Henry Dunn, located on the Selati River. The first general manager of the reserve, Mr Andre Scholtz, subsequently started work by removing fences between the farms and acquired white rhino and an assortment of game species from surrounding farms and the KNP.

The name of the reserve was formally proclaimed in 1994 as The Selati Game Reserve.

A launch function formally proclaiming the establishment of the Selati Game Reserve was held at Henry Dunn's camp, Willie, on the Selati River on 13 September 1993. Seven founder members, including current members Hall and Sons, Piet Warren, Henry Dunn, the Thomas brothers, and Piet Mare, signed the Constitution and shareholders' agreements, formally bringing the reserve into existence. To mark this momentous occasion, the fence between the Willie and Arundel farms was ceremoniously cut by Bob Snaddon, Rob's father and the previous MD of Hall and sons.

4.1.7. Historical overview and development of the farm Huja 791 LT

A number of sources regarding the history of the study area were consulted in the National Archives of South Africa. The record of historical landowners, as well as the general use of the property will be discussed in this section.

Record of historical landowners

It is unclear when the farm currently known as Huja 791 LT was proclaimed. Until 1929, the farm was known as Huja 1182 and thereafter, until the 1950s, it was known as Huja 484, Letaba District. Until at least 1957, it belonged to the Union Government. (NARSSA SAB, *MNW: 682 MM2981/23;* NARSSA SAB, *URU: 3653 925)*

The following information could be found regarding the recent ownership of Huja 791 LT:

Registration date	Owner
1957	H L Hall & Sons Group Services
1997	H L Hall & Sons Projects (Pty) Ltd

(NARSSA SAB, *URU: 3653 925;* Windeed Search Engine 2022)

History of land use

In 1923, the Ministers of the Union of South Africa recommended to the Governor-General to approve the lease of the farms Koedoesrand 1183 and Huja 1182 to Arend Brink, James Bernard Hubbard and Willem Pieter Stapelberg. The lease was for a period of 21 years from 1 July 1923 at a rental of £20:14:0 payable half-yearly, without an option to purchase (NARSSA SAB, *URU: 620 1530*).

However, in 1926, the Ministers recommended that the lease be cancelled with effect from 31 December 1925, as the lessees having surrendered the lease (NARSSA SAB, *URU: 843 2020).*

In 1929, the Governor-General was again requested to cancel a joint lease agreement entered into with William Richard Collins, Paul Hendrik Nel, Jacob Stephanus Brink, Carel Gert Steenkamp and Arend Brink for the farms Transport 1177, Hoed 1181, Huja 1182, Koedoesrand 1183, Arundel 1175 and Thankerton 1176, District Pietersburg as from 30 June 1929. As from 1 July 1929, the farms Arundel 1175, Koedoesrand 1183 and Huja 1182 was to be leased, jointly, by William Richard Collins, Paul Hendrik Nel, Jacob Stephanus Brink, Carel Gert Steenkamp and Arend Brink. The latter lease contained an option to purchase the farms at a valuation of £2148, payable in installments (NARSSA SAB, *URU: 1055 1423).*

It was only in 1957 when the Government finally sold several farms, including Huja 484, to H.L Hall and Sons Ltd. for a purchase consideration of £3234.2.9 (NARSSA SAB, *URU: 3653 925).*

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 1.7 million 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 900 AD this included objects 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 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 stone tools like these in the Olduwai Gorge in Tanzania during the 1960s. The stone tools are named after this gorge and are known as relics from 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 *Paranthropus robustus*, which became extinct about 1 million years ago (Esterhuizen & Smith in Delius, 2007).

Approximately 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. 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 Early Stone Age (ESA) tools have been found.

Middle Stone Age (MSA)

A greater variety of tools with diverse sizes and shapes appeared by 250 000 before present (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 that 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).

As discussed in section 3.1.1 some Middle Stone Age stone tools were found in an erosion donga on the Antwerpen Game farm in the Hoedspruit district. In addition to this some Stone Age flakes were located by Dr Kusel north of Klaserie. He did not identify the specific period but flakes may point to Middle or Later Stone Age origin. During the 1970's and 1980's PhD research conducted by Prof Andrie Meyer of the University of Pretoria resulted in the discovery of Stone Age sites in the vicinity of Skukuza (SK4) and near Pretoriuskop (PR34) in the Kruger National Park (Meyer, 1986). The central Lowveld is under-researched and surveyed in terms of the occurrence of Stone Age remains. The use of this landscape by Stone Age people is however highly probable and therefore evidence of their presence in the form of stone tools is also probable.

4.2.2. Iron Age representation in the Eastern Lowveld of Mpumalanga and Limpopo

The Iron Age in Southern Africa is divided into Early Iron Age (AD 200-1000), Middle Iron Age (AD 1000-1500) and Late Iron Age (AD 1500-1840's).

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 Southern Africa. It is believed that these people may have been responsible for making of the famous Lydenburg Heads, ceramic masks dating to approximately 600AD.

Iron Age people are known for their manufacture and use of pottery vessels. These are functional but also have distinctive shapes and profiles accompanied by artistic decoration motifs. These motifs and styles were transferred by female potters to their daughters and in that way cultural identity was transferred and left as markers in the archaeological record. Researchers use these characteristics of pottery remains to group people and trace their geographical movements through time and space.

Southern migration and settlement of Iron Age farmers basically occurred in a Western stream and Eastern stream (see fig. 4.12). Southern African ceramic units can be grouped into different clusters which we call Traditions. Based on Iron Age people's different language origins or groups there are two main Traditions who settled Southern Africa namely the Urewe and Kalundu Tradition. Each unit belongs to a time segment also known as a Phase and the unit by itself is referred to as a facies. Changes through time in these facies could lead to new Branches or Sub-branches (Huffman, 2007).

Usually a name ascribed to a certain facies includes the group of people who produced the pottery style for example the Msuluzi people produced the Msuluzi style. Names is also given to facies at the place where they were first discovered or excavated by archaeologists for example Happy Rest facies (500-600 AD) originally found at Happy Rest Nature Reserve near Makhado, Limpopo.

Huffman bases formal pottery analysis on a multi-dimensional approach. This takes into consideration the vessel profile, decoration motif and the design layout i.e. where the motifs are placed on the vessel. Depending on the complexity of decoration, there are up to five identified positions of decoration or motif on a vessel. Different facies are distinguished by their unique combination of these three elements (Huffman, 1980, 2007).

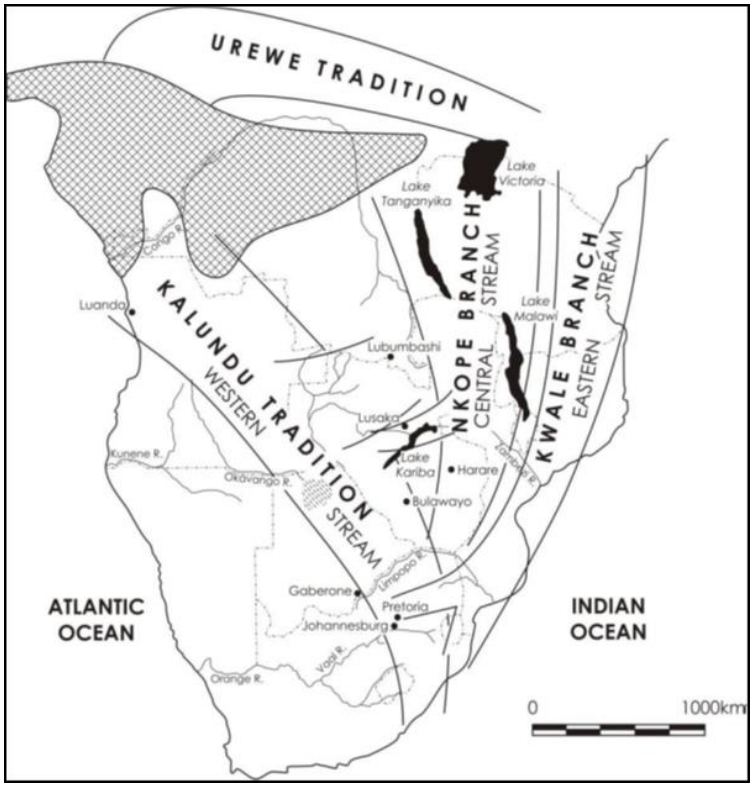

Figure 4.12. Early Iron Age movement towards South Africa in terms of the Kalundu Tradition (Western Stream) and Urewe Tradition (Eastern Stream). Included are the two branches of the Urewe Tradition, the Nkope and Kwale Branch. Taken from Huffman, 2007.

A summary of Iron Age pottery facies, their age, origin and distribution which can be expected in the Eastern and central Lowveld of Mpumalanga and Limpopo is listed in Table 4.1. This is an indication of expected Iron Age archaeological finds in the central Mpumalanga Lowveld and Limpopo.

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, followed by N.J. van der Merwe and Scully. M. Klapwijk (1973, 1974) also excavated an EIA site at Silverleaves and Evers and van den Berg (1974) excavated at Harmony and Eiland, both EIA sites.

Recent archaeological research by G. Jordaan (Jordaan, 2016), based on previously located Iron Age settlement sites in the Kruger National Park (Meyer, 1986) nearby Skukuza and Tshokwane, resulted in a Masters Dissertation and positive identification of two Early Iron Age settlements (AD 200-1000) in the KNP.

Table 4.1. Iron Age Pottery and distribution in Eastern Mpumalanga and Limpopo (Huffman, 2007).

Pottery facies	Date range	Tradition	Distribution
Silver Leaves	AD 280-450	Urewe – Western stream	Expected east and north of Mbombela and north of Phalaborwa with easternmost boundaryLimpopo River
Mzonjani	AD 450-750	Urewe – Western stream	Expected east and north of Mbombela including the whole of the KNP through Phalaborwa to Musina including Polokwane.
Garonga	AD 750-900	Urewe - Western stream	Phalaborwa
Doornkop	AD 750-1000	Kalundu - Eastern stream	Lydenburg and north-west to Polokwane
Klingbiel	AD 1000-1200	Kalundu – Eastern stream	Lydenburg north-west to Polokwane and south-east to Mbombela
Kgopolwe facies	AD 1030-1350	Kalundu - Eastern stream	Phalaborwa
Maguga	AD 1200-1540	Kalundu – Eastern stream	Mbombela and east towards KNP and south-east including Eswatini
Marateng	AD 1650-1840	Urewe - Western stream	Lydenburg and north west to Polokwane

4.2.3. Historic people in northern and north-eastern Mpumalanga and Limpopo

The Mpumalanga and Limpopo Lowveld is home to numerous language variants among its people. They comprise North-eastern and Eastern Basotho, Swazi and a number of Tsonga speaking people. Ethnographers state that the earliest of these people to settle in this area was the Sotho speakers followed by Tsonga and Swazi's (Barnard, 1975:8).

Each of these language groups consisted of various tribes each with its own history, language dialects, customs and residential areas. The North-eastern Basotho's comprise the BaPhalaborwa, the BaŠai of bahaMašišimala, the bahaMamidja, baMahlô, baLetswalo, baKgaga and baLobedu.

The BaLobedu, residing north, north-east and north-west of Duiwelskloof is well-known for their queen Modjadji and her revered ability for rainmaking.

The BaPhalaborwa settled in the old Transvaal after moving from Zimbabwe around the year 1700. They originally settled at the lower reaches of the Steelpoort River and were well-known for their iron working ability. They later moved to an area between the Olifants and Great Letaba Rivers which they named Mahubedung which means “the red place” (Barnard, 1975:9).

They discovered much iron ore near Loolwe hill which they mined and worked on a large scale. As a result of tstetse fly, and very hot and dry climate they did not farm with livestock or crops but made a living from bartering their iron implements consisting of agricultural hoes, spear points, axes and arrow heads for grain from other tribes. They named their residential area Phalaborwa which means “better than the south” (Barnard, 1975:9). In the late 20th century the BaPhalaborwa resides in an area on the northern shore of the Selati River a short distance west of the town Phalaborwa.

The bahaMamidja or Bakoni fled their original homeland in the vicinity of Machadodorp and Lydenburg where they have been residing since AD 1650’s as a result of violent conflict during the difaqane period (AD 1820’s) to settle near Leydsdorp. Here, on the banks of the Olifants River, they bartered with traders from Delagoa Bay for commodities including green, red and blue beads known as *mabêtlwa* as well as red and green linen, gun powder and lead (Barnard, 1975:10). An affiliated Bakoni group known as the BaKgaga, settled a short distance north-west of Leydsdorp before AD 1 700. In the late 20th century they were known to reside south of Tzaneen, neighbouring the BaPhalaborwa of Mogoboya (Barnard, 1975:10).

In the year 1838 when Louis Trichardt was underway to Delagoa Bay, he travelled through an area settled by Bakoni under chief Sekôrôrô on the eastern slopes of the Drakensberg. The chief helped him with 40 labourers to aid in making his way passable to Delagoa Bay (Barnard, 1975:10).

It is therefore possible to find evidence of settlement by Iron Age people in the form of stone-built residential enclosures, broken pieces of pottery, evidence of salt-working and iron smelting stretching from Early Iron Age times to the end of the Late Iron Age and the mid to late 19th century.

5. Site descriptions, locations and impact significance assessment

No sites or features of heritage significance was located or recorded during the physical survey. At survey orientation site SO 1 a single lower grinding stone was found but it has low heritage significance as no additional associated sites or features was recorded within the project area during the physical survey. Its presence may be ascribed to the fluid nature of people's movements across this landscape during Iron Age and historic times.

A total of five survey orientation locations were documented, sites SO 1-5 which includes a GPS location and photographs of the landscape at that particular location.

The survey orientation sites are tabled in Appendix B and their photos in Appendix D. A map of their location is also provided in Appendix C.

Tables indicate the ***site significance rating scales and status*** in terms of possible impacts of the proposed actions on any located or identified heritage sites (**Table 5.5 & 5.6).**

Table 5.1. Summary of located sites and their heritage 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 or structures	None	N/A
Historical features and ruins	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	High Significance	Conservation, nomination as national site
Provincial Significance (PS)	Grade 2	High Significance	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)	GPA	High/ Medium Significance	Mitigation before destruction
Generally Protected B (GPB)	GPB	Medium Significance	Recording before destruction
Generally Protected C (GPC)	GPC	Low Significance	Destruction

5.1. Description of located sites

Survey orientations:

5.1.1. Site SO 1.

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

Description: Survey orientation location.

Impact of the proposed development/ activity: N/A

Recommendation: N/A


Photo view south

5.1.2. Site SO 2.

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

Description: Survey orientation location.

Impact of the proposed development/ activity: N/A

Recommendation: N/A


Photo view east

5.1.3. Site SO 3.

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

Description: Survey orientation location.

Impact of the proposed development/ activity: N/A

Recommendation: N/A


Photo view west

5.1.4. Site SO 4.

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

Description: Survey orientation location.

Impact of the proposed development/ activity: N/A

Recommendation: N/A


Photo view south

5.1.5. Site SO 5.

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

Description: Survey orientation location.

Impact of the proposed development/ activity: N/A

Recommendation: N/A

 Photo view west

TABLE 5.3. General description of located sites and field rating.

Site No.	Description	Type of significance	Degree of significance	NHRA heritage resource & rating
SO1	Survey orientation location	N/A	Archaeological: N/A Historic: N/A	None
SO2	Survey orientation location	N/A	Archaeological: N/A Historic: N/A	None
SO3	Survey orientation location	N/A	Archaeological: N/A Historic: N/A	None
SO4	Survey orientation location	N/A	Archaeological: N/A Historic: N/A	None
SO5	Survey orientation location	N/A	Archaeological: N/A Historic: N/A	None

TABLE 5.4. Site condition assessment and management recommendations.

Site no.	Type of Heritage resource	Integrity of cultural material	Preservation condition of site	Relative location	Quality of archaeological/ historic material	Quantity of site features	Recommended conservation management
SO 1	N/A	N/A	N/A	Huja 791 LT, Selati GR	Archaeology: N/A Historically: N/A	-	N/A
SO 2	N/A	N/A	N/A	Huja 791 LT, Selati GR	Archaeology: N/A Historically: N/A	-	N/A
SO 3	N/A	N/A	N/A	Huja 791 LT, Selati GR	Archaeology: N/A Historically: N/A	-	N/A
SO 4	N/A	N/A	N/A	Huja 791 LT, Selati GR	Archaeology: N/A Historically: N/A	-	N/A
SO 5	N/A	N/A	N/A	Huja 791 LT, Selati GR	Archaeology: N/A Historically: N/A	-	N/A

TABLE 5.5. Significance Rating Scales of Impact

Site No.	Nature of impact	Type of site	Extent	Duration	Intensity	Probability	Score total
SO 1	Accommodation construction	N/A	N/A	Short term	Low (1)	Improbable (1)	2
SO 2	Accommodation construction	N/A	N/A	Short term	Low (1)	Improbable (1)	2
SO 3	Accommodation construction	N/A	N/A	Short term	Low (1)	Improbable (1)	2
SO 4	Accommodation construction	N/A	N/A	Short term	Low (1)	Improbable (1)	2
SO 5	Accommodation construction	N/A	N/A	Short term	Low (1)	Improbable (1)	2

***Notes:** Short term ≥ 5 years, Medium term 5-15 years, Long term 15-30 years, Permanent 30+ years

Intensity: Very High (4), High (3), Moderate (2), Low (1)

Probability: Improbable (1), Possible (2), Highly probable (3), Definite (4)

TABLE 5.6. Site current status and future impact scores

Site No.	Current Status	Low impact (0-2 points)	Medium impact (3-5 points)	High impact (6-8 points)	Very high impact (9-10 points)	Score Total
SO 1	Neutral	0	-	-	-	-
SO 2	Neutral	0	-	-	-	-
SO 3	Neutral	0	-	-	-	-
SO 4	Neutral	0	-	-	-	-
SO 5	Neutral	0	-	-	-	-

5.2. Cumulative impacts on the heritage landscape

Cumulative impacts can occur when a range of impacts which result from several concurrent processes have impact on heritage resources. The importance of addressing cumulative impacts is that the total impact of several factors together is often greater than one single process or activity that may impact on heritage resources. No significant heritage sites or features were located during the physical survey and therefore no cumulative impacts are identified. Also see section 6.1. Recommended management measures.

6. Summary of findings and recommendations

A single lower grinding stone was located at survey orientation location SO 1 but it has low heritage significance as no additional associated sites or features was recorded within the project area during the physical survey.

A total of five survey orientation locations were documented, sites SO 1-5 which includes a GPS location and photographs of the landscape at that particular location.

In terms of the archaeological component of the Act (25 of 1999, section 35) no significant sites or features were documented.

In terms of the built environment in the project area (section 34 of the Act) no sites or features were identified in the study area.

In terms of burial grounds and graves (section 36 of the Act) no graves or gravesites were identified in the study area.

It is not within the expertise of this report or the surveyor to comment on possible palaeontological remains which may be located in the study area.

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. Monitoring during construction activities is recommended as part of the proposed implementation of a chance find protocol in the EMP (Also see section 6.1).

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 has assessed the situation. It should be noted that if such a situation occurs it may have further financial implications.

6.1. Recommended management measures and chance find protocol

The possibility of the occurrence of sub surface artefacts cannot be excluded. Therefore if finds such as stone tool concentrations, pieces or concentrations of pottery or bone and fossils are found, a chance find protocol is recommended. This is done by including a chance find protocol in the EMP which may consist of the following:

- The contractors and workers should be notified that archaeological sites might be exposed during the construction work.
- Should any heritage artefacts be exposed during excavation, work on the area where the artefacts were discovered, shall cease immediately and the Environmental Control Officer shall be notified as soon as possible;
- All discoveries shall be reported immediately to a heritage institution such as a museum or SAHRA, preferably one at which an archaeologist is available, in order to evaluate finds. Acting upon advice from these specialists, the Environmental Control Officer will advise the necessary actions to be taken;
- Under no circumstances shall any artefacts be removed, destroyed or interfered with by anyone on the site; and
- Contractors and workers shall be advised of the penalties associated with the unlawful removal of cultural, historical, archaeological or palaeontological artefacts, as set out in the National Heritage Resources Act (Act No. 25 of 1999).

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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

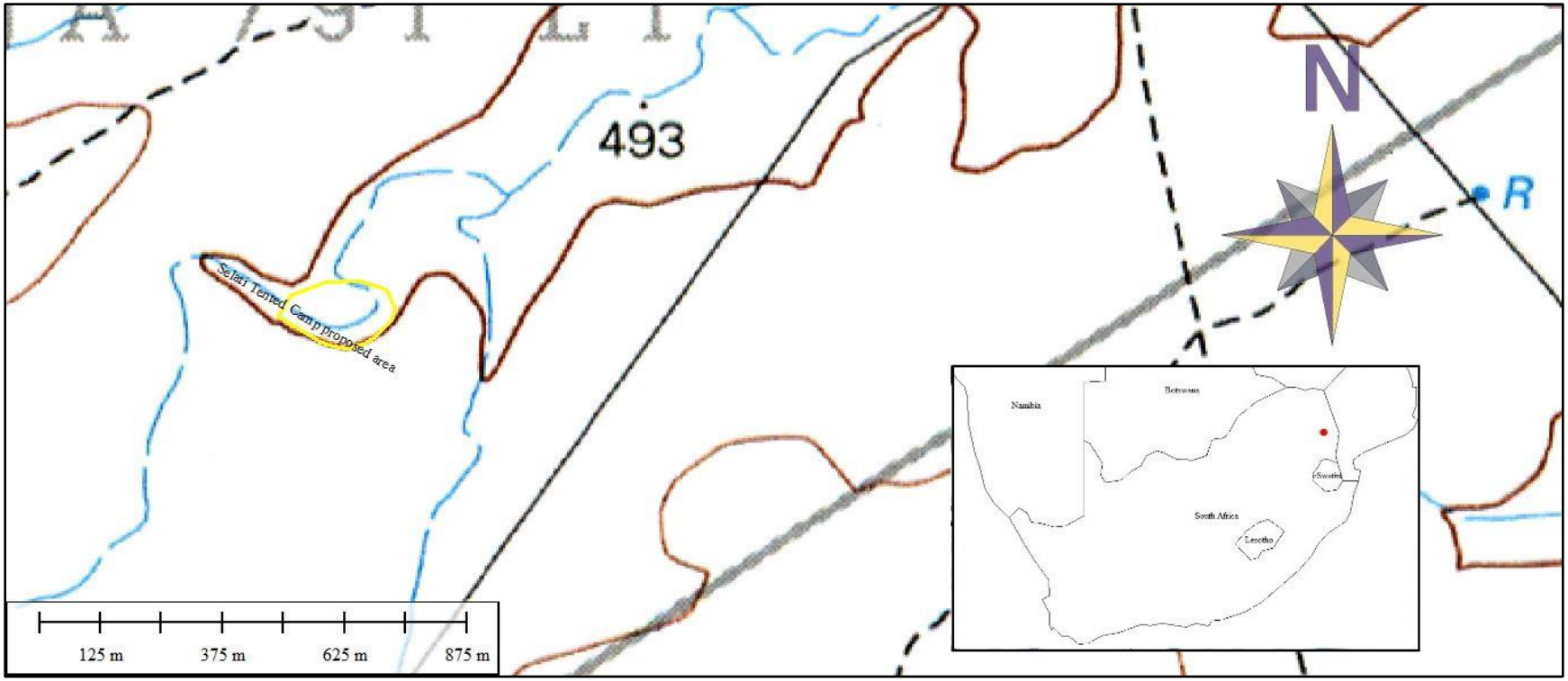
List of sites

No sites or features of heritage significance were recorded. A total of five survey orientation sites were recorded. The sites were named SO 1-5.

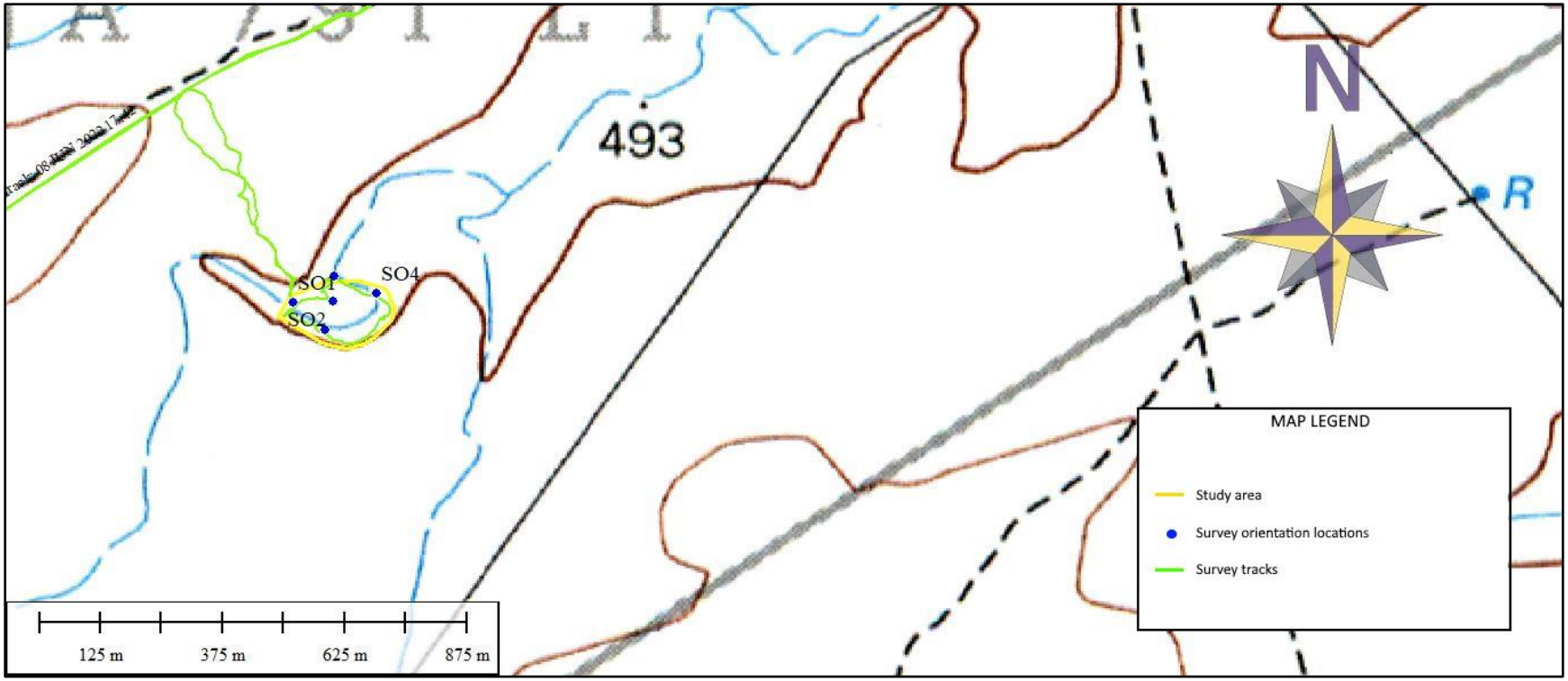
Table A. Survey Orientation Locations.

Site Name	Date of compilation	GPS Coordinates		Photo figure No.
SO 1	27/04/2022	S24°00,9044'	E030°48,3211'	1
SO 2	27/04/2022	S24°00,9033'	E030°48,3657'	2
SO 3	27/04/2022	S24°00,8758'	E030°48,3668'	3
SO 4	27/04/2022	S24°00,8947'	E030°48,4129'	4
SO 5	27/04/2022	S24°00,9353'	E030°48,3560'	5

Appendix C



Regional Map 1:50 000 Topographical Map 2430 BB (1997).



Topographical Map 1:50 000 2430 BB (1997)

Aerial view: Google Earth 2022.

Appendix D

Survey Orientation Photos

Fig. 1. Site SO1. Photos taken in an eastern and western direction. Note the single lower grinding stone.

Fig. 2. Site SO2. Photos taken in a southern and western direction.

Fig. 3. Site SO3. Photos taken in a northern and southern direction.

Fig. 4. Site SO 4. Photos taken in a northern and western direction.

Fig. 5. Site SO 5. Photos taken in an eastern and southern direction.