

Phase 1 Archaeological Survey on Portions of the farms Guillaume 480
JU, Steenbok 493 JU and Wanhoop 485 near the town of Komatipoort,
Nkomazi District, Mpumalanga Province.

Compiled by:



For **Enpact Environmental Consultants**

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25 November, 2013

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Executive summary

Site name and location: Portions of the farms Guillaume 480 JU, Steenbok 493 JU and Wanhoop 485 located near the town of Komatipoort, Mpumalanga Province. This report deals with the proposed Mfumfane Vegetable Farming Project.

Purpose of the study: An Archaeological and historic study in order to identify heritage resources on the farms Guillaume 480 JU, Steenbok 493 JU and Wanhoop 485 JU near Komatipoort, in respect of the proposed Mfumfane Vegetable Farming Project. Extent 800 ha.

1:50 000 Topographical Map: 2531 DB (1984)

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Client: Mpumalanga Dept. of Agriculture Rural Development and Land Administration.

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Description and findings:

An Archaeological resource survey was undertaken by Kudzala Antiquity CC in respect of a proposed vegetable farming project initiated by the Department of Agriculture Rural Development and Land Administration in Nkomazi Local Municipality, Mpumalanga Province. The land identified for this project is located close to the eMangweni township. Current land use on the proposed development area is a mixture of cattle farming (grazing) and extensive subsistence and small scale commercial agriculture including vegetable and cotton farming.

The study was done with the aim of identifying sites which are of heritage significance on the identified area 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). Note that this report does not address the palaeontology of the area, SAHRA may require additional palaeontological desktop studies to be undertaken.

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

No sites or features of historical or archaeological significance were located during the survey.

Disclaimer: *Although all possible care is taken to identify all sites of cultural importance during the investigation of study areas, it is always possible that hidden or sub-surface sites could be*

overlooked during the study. Kudzala Antiquity CC will not be held liable for such oversights or for costs incurred as a result of such oversights.

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

1. Introduction

Kudzala Antiquity CC was commissioned to conduct an Archaeological resources survey on portions of Guillaume 480 JU, Steenbok 493 JU and Wanhoop 485 in Mpumalanga Province. The survey was conducted for the Department of Agriculture Rural Development and Land Administration through Enpact Environmental Consultants CC.

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

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

The national estate may include:

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

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

- sites of significance relating to slavery in South Africa;
- movable objects including:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

2. Description of surveyed area

The study area falls within the Nkomazi Local Municipality, near the town Komatipoort, Mpumalanga Province. The survey was carried out on approximately 800 ha of Tshokwane-Hlane Basalt Lowveld near Komatipoort. Limiting factors include extensive small cultivated fields of the local community which include vegetable and cotton farming. Which may limit the visibility of archaeological and heritage sites and features.

Veld type: The vegetation is located in the Savanna Biome and classed as Tshokwane-Hlane Basalt Lowveld. It is characterised by flat plains and open tree savanna often dominated by tall *Sclerocarya birea* and *Acacia nigrescens* with a moderate shrub layer and dense herbaceous layer (Mucina and Rutherford, 2009).

Geology: Karoo Supergroup Letaba Formation basalts give rise to black, brown and red clay soils (Mucina and Rutherford, 2009). The survey was conducted on foot and with the use of a motor vehicle in an effort to locate cultural remains.

3. Methodology

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

Social Consultation: During the survey, farmers on the property were consulted to establish whether any graves and other sites of possible heritage significance are located in the area. The informants consulted in this regard were Mr Solomon and Mrs Daisy Ngwenya. They have been farming here with cotton since 1995.



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

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

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

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

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

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

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

3.1. Desktop study

The purpose of the desktop study is to compile as much information as possible on the heritage resources of the area. This helps to provide an historical context for located sites. Sources used

for this study include published and unpublished documents, archival material and maps. Information obtained from the following institutions or individuals were consulted:

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

3.1.1. Previous Archaeological studies in the area

An archaeological impact study focusing done by JCC Pistorius in respect of the construction of a new powerline between Nkomazi substation and the Fig Tree substation did not identify any sites of heritage significance (Pistorius, 2008).

In 2011 Van Vollenhoven compiled an Archaeological Impact Assessment for the proposed KaNgwane South Anthracite Mine and the following year (2012) the same specialist compiled a report for the KaNgwane Anthracite Mine (Van Vollenhoven, 2011; van Vollenhoven, 2012).

Finds included remains of insignificant buildings and a farm dam. Sites of higher significance included those with Middle and Late Stone Age tools and some with Iron Age pottery remains.

3.2. Significance of sites

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

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

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

- **Types of significance**

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

- **Degrees of significance**

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

- **Spheres of significance**

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

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

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

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

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

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

Graves are considered very sensitive sites and should never under any circumstances be jeopardized by development activities. Graves are incorporated in the National Heritage

Resources Act under section 36 and in all instances where graves are found by the surveyor, the recommendation would be to steer clear of these areas. If this is not possible or if construction activities have for some reason damaged graves, specialized consultants are normally contacted to aid in the process of exhumation and re-interment of the human remains.

4. History and Archaeology

4.1. Historic period

4.1.1. Early History

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 Sotho, or more particularly Koni-origin.

Historians agree that the earliest Africans to inhabit in the Lowveld in Mpumalanga were of Sotho, or more particularly Koni-origin (Packard 2001). According to the source of J. S. Bergh, the Komatipoort area is situated in the South African Lowveld, which is on average lower than 900 meters above sea level and drops gradually to the east (Bergh 1999). The same source indicates that there are no prominent Iron Age sites situated in close proximity to the area under investigation (Bergh 1999).

A map is provided on which one can see the migration of Swazi tribes from Swaziland in north western and north eastern directions, passing close-by the current Komatipoort. This took place during the “Difaqane” period, which occurred roughly from the early 1820’s to the late 1830’s, when many tribes were displaced throughout South Africa (Bergh 1999). In 1905, the British authorities in South Africa commissioned a book from its War Office, in which information on the black tribes in Transvaal would be recorded for military purposes. The author of this book, Major R. H. Massie, grouped tribes according to the administrative “Divisions” in which they were found. The bulk of the Swazi people found in the eastern administrative division lived in the district of Barberton, where they are said to have settled in about the year 1865. This settlement took place after the “wholesale killing-off” which took place on the death of the great Swazi chief Umswazi. According to this source, the British had found the area practically uninhabited, as the Swazis

under *Sapusa* (probably the Swazi chief Sobhuza) had exterminated the Basuto tribe that used to live in the area some years before (Massie 1905).

It seems that, by the 1930's, the Komatipoort area was a region where malaria occurred during the rainy season. This was probably also the case during the nineteenth century. During the first half of the nineteenth century, the Tsetse fly was also prolific in this area (Bergh 1999). For this reason pastoralists would have preferred to avoid the moist low-lying valleys and thickly wooded regions where these insects preferred to congregate (Shillington 1995). It is unlikely that populations would be dense in areas where malaria and the "sleeping sickness" was a constant threat to humans and their stock. In the source of A. C. Myburgh, it is mentioned that a large part of the western area of the Barberton district was a drainage basin of the Kaap or Umlambongwane River (Myburgh 1956). Myburgh confirms that for the greatest part of the nineteenth century, the present-day Barberton area was malarious and infested with the Tsetse fly and that it was thus useless to pastoralists. He noted that, after Rinderpest broke out in 1897, Tsetse fly completely disappeared from the area. Pastoralists could thus only move into the area from the end of the nineteenth century. The western uplands of the Barberton district were not good cattle country and, though not as fly-infested as lower-lying areas, were avoided by the Swazi. The Sotho people who originally settled in the area had few cattle (Myburgh 1956).

The first Europeans arrived in the Cape in 1652, and expansion to the northern parts of South Africa only started in the late 1820's. The Great Trek, as this northern movement from the Cape Colony was called, resulted in a massive increase in the extent of that proportion of modern South Africa dominated by people of European descent (Ross 1995). As can be expected, the migration of whites into the northern provinces would have a significant impact on the black people who populated the land. This was also the case in Mpumalanga, the then Eastern Transvaal area.

The two major results of European settlement in what is today known as the Barberton district was, firstly, that only Europeans could own land, except in two released areas in the extreme east of the district. This left several tribes of note without any sufficient land where they could live undisturbed. The European farmers with cattle required few herdsmen, and were averse to large, permanent black populations on their farms. Vegetable farmers would also employ several workers, including mainly women and children. These people would stay in self-made shelters on the farms. There were also some stable, permanently settled workers on farms. Those black workers with too much cattle were often asked to move from a farm if the farmer felt that his grazing area was threatened (Myburgh 1956). The second result of the European settlement was the institution of a migrant labor system and some workers flocked to the area from beyond the country's borders (Myburgh 1956).

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 intentions of expanding their territory into the northern Boer republics. This eventually led to the Anglo-Boer War, which took place between 1899 and 1902 and which was one of the most turbulent times in South Africa's history. Between 1900 and 1902 the town was used as a base by Major Ludwig Von Steinaecker and his group known as 'Steinaecker's Horse'. They were a group of mercenaries and bushwhackers and were recruited by the British in order to fight Boer guerrillas during the War. The Lebombo Intelligence Scouts, one of the burghers' corps established in 1901, also had a prominent role to play in this area during the War (SA Military History, 2003).

From 1860 to 1881, the population of Europeans in the central Transvaal was already very dense and the administrative machinery of their leaders was firmly in place. Many of the policies that would lead the apartheid laws later on had already been developed (Bergh 1999). In November 1864, for example, the broad design of the guidelines concerning the pass-system for blacks, the provision of labour, the obligatory tax and the carrying of firearms, had been published in the Government Gazette (Bergh 1999). In 1860, the Transvaal was again divided into a number of districts, facilitating the administration of blacks through the instalment of a greater number of officers. While there were only seven districts in 1860, the Transvaal was divided into 15 districts by 1886. Blacks in isolated regions would especially feel the threat to their autonomy as white control became increasingly rigid (Bergh 1999). In 1904 approximately half of the black population in the Transvaal were living on private land, owned by whites or companies. According to the Squatters' Law of 1895, no more than five families of "natives" could live on any farm or divided portion of a farm, without special permission from the Government (Massie 1905). This law was however not rigidly enforced in practice and large numbers of blacks still occupied certain places.

Native people living on white-owned properties paid an annual rent in labour or money, varying in amount. Those adult black cultivators living on Crown lands paid an annual rental of £1, in addition to poll tax. They were, however, not charged for water, wood or grazing, and they were not restricted as to the amount of land that they could cultivate (Massie 1905). There are several indications that the Swazi people in the Transvaal had good relations with its European (Boer and British) inhabitants. In 1876, for example, when war broke out between the Republic and the BaPedi, Swazi forces assisted the burgher army (Ross 1995).

Some of the blacks, who stayed on farms during the first part of the twentieth century, were probably labour tenants. Through the system of labour tenancy, black people could live on farmers' land, whereas a large part of the black population was restricted to the Natives Reserves, as set out in the Natives Land Act of 1913, which established a clear legal distinction

between the African Reserves and white farming areas. Though the Natives Land Committee saw labour tenancy as an evil, they acknowledged that it was the only system by means of which the average farmer could develop his land by 1918. Farmers were indeed opposed to any restriction of the system (Union of South Africa 1918).

Myburgh describes the general confusion in the Barberton district by the early 20th century as follows: "Certain tribes also were settled by the Boer Government in defined locations, but during the late war some of these took the opportunity of moving to more favourable localities, and now their places of residence are in some cases not settled even now, though the work of locating them is being actively pushed on by the present Administration. By these various disturbing agencies the tribes have become so much scattered, that it is scarcely possible to describe any one tribe as a whole, portions of several tribes being found in almost every district." (Massie 1905). This illustrates the uncertainty that whites felt regarding the distribution of black people in the early 1900's.

The system of land tenure was explained as follows. Those native black people, who did not live in towns, would either stay in:

- a) Locations or reserves specially set apart for them,
- b) Land regularly acquired and owned by themselves,
- c) Land, the property of white owners, or
- d) Crown lands (Massie 1905).

In the case where the native blacks lived on Government locations they had common rights regarding water, wood and grazing. They would pay no rent to the Government for the use of these lands. With the first Boer occupation of the area, it was decided that no blacks could own land, but the Pretoria Convention of 1881 provided that they could be allowed to acquire land if the transfer of the property was registered in the name of the Native Location Commission. By 1904 the Commissioner for Native Affairs was the trustee for all the lands purchased by blacks (Massie 1905).

In the early 1930s, a petition was set up by the hereditary chiefs, *indunas* and headmen of the Swazi tribes of the Transvaal, living in the districts of Barberton, Carolina and Ermelo, representing a black population of 60 000 people. Herewith they tried to bring to the attention of the Union Parliament that they have never had any land or location reserved for them up to that date. The petitioners noted that it was laid down in the Native Land Act No. 27 of 1913 that blacks would have Native Areas reserved to them within which they could develop along their own lines. With this petition the Swazi people asked to be given areas in which they could stay, live and develop separately. On 25 March 1932, the petition was signed by, among others, Chief Mhola

Dhlamini, Chief Maguba Shongwe, Chieftainess Monile Dhlamini, Chief Luggedhlane Ngomane, Chief Hoyi Ngomane, Chief Maqekiza Ngomane, Chief Mbuduya Mahlalela and Chief Myomo Ntiwane, all residing in the Barberton district (NASA, SAB: GG50/1443).

In the Surplus People Project Report, the forced removal of people to the Kangwane area, or homeland, is discussed. This area could be regarded as a “dumping ground” that was allocated to South Africa’s Swazis, and consisted of two blocks of land. The first of these, the Nsikazi reserve, was a finger of land stretching along the western boundary of the Kruger National Park, and had been under black occupation for over 50 years. The second block was adjacent to the western and northern boundaries of Swaziland, and consisted of the Nkomazi and Mswati/Mlondozi reserves released under the 1935 Land Act (Surplus people project 1983). The area under investigation formed part of this second block by 1994. The history of this homeland must undoubtedly be of interest if a more detailed study of this farm area is done.

4.1.2. Historic maps of the farms under investigation

Since the mid 1800's up until the present, South Africa had been divided into various different districts. Since 1845, the site where the farms under investigation are located today formed part of the Lydenburg District. This remained the case up until 1902, when the Barberton district was proclaimed. The ward Komatipoort, where the farms were located, also existed from this time. During the 1920s the farm area still formed part of unsurveyed land within the Barberton district, and it is only in 1930 that the farms Guillaume 437, Steenbok 433 and Wanhoop 428 appeared on a map of the Komatipoort area. The farm area still fell within the Barberton district by 1994. (Bergh, 1999; Anon 1920s; Surveyor-General 1930).

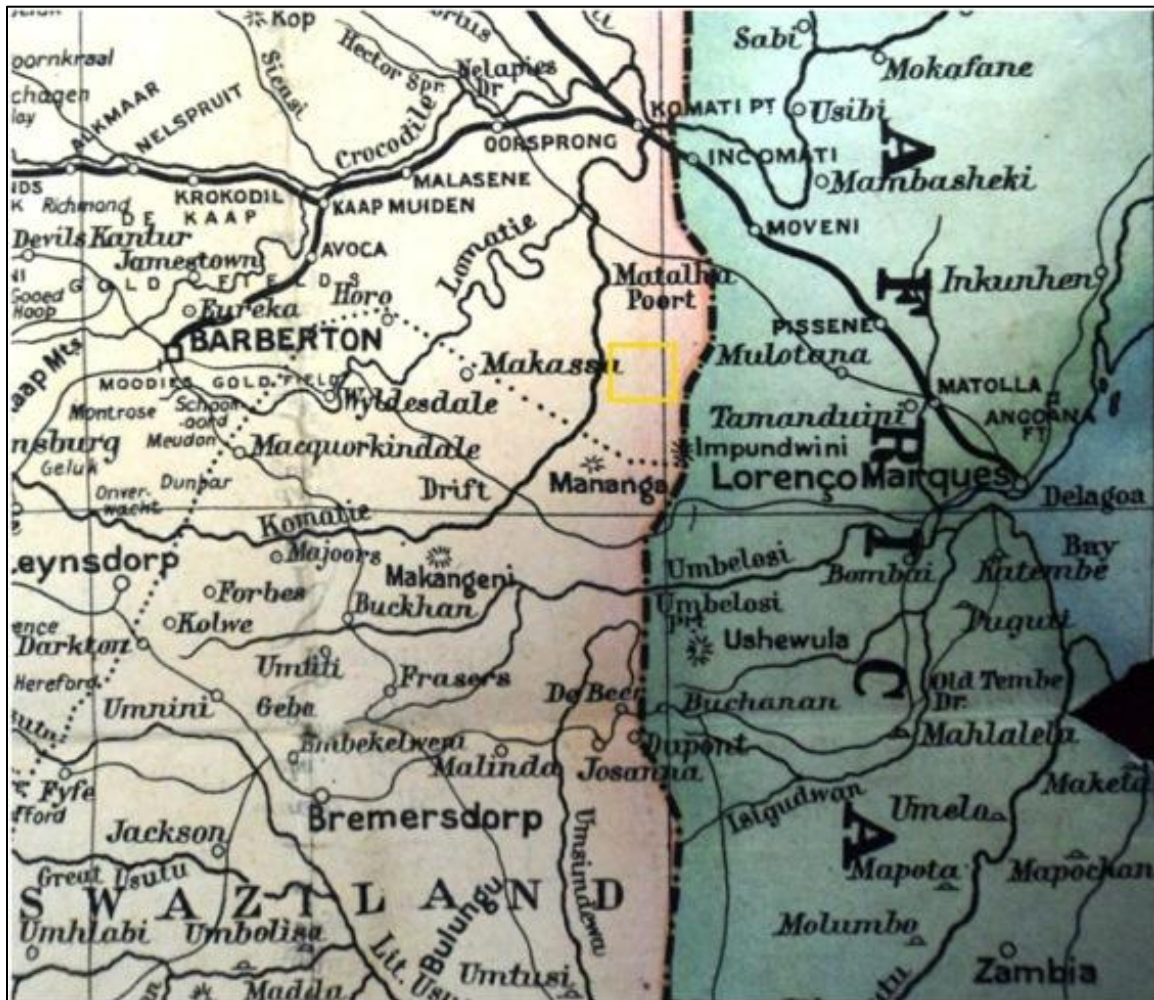


Fig. 4.1. Map of the Transvaal in 1900. The area where the farms would later be located is indicated with the yellow border. The farms were situated to the west of the Mozambican border, south of the Matalha Port and near the Komati River, which would later form the western border of the farm Guillaume. Komatipoort can be seen near the Mozambican border, north of the farm area (Philip 1900).

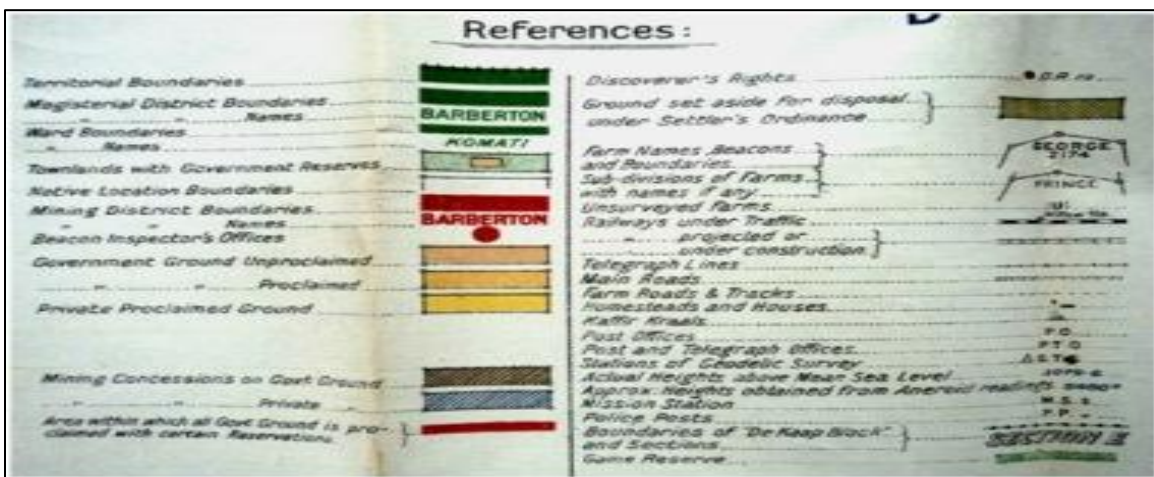


Fig. 4.2. Map and key of the Komatiport district in 1911. The yellow border shows the area where the farms were approximately located. No developments can be seen in this area apart from a main road. The farm area formed part of Government Proclaimed Land at the time. The farms were part of the Komati ward of the Barberton district (Surveyor-General 1911).

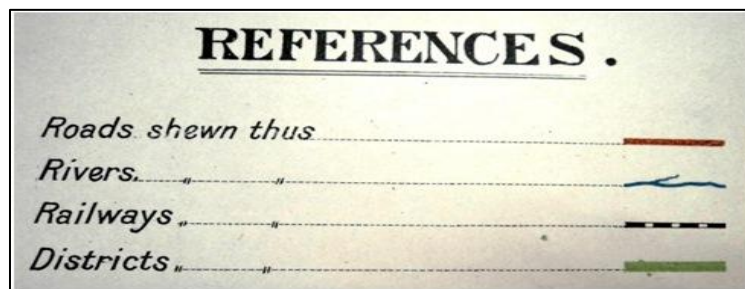
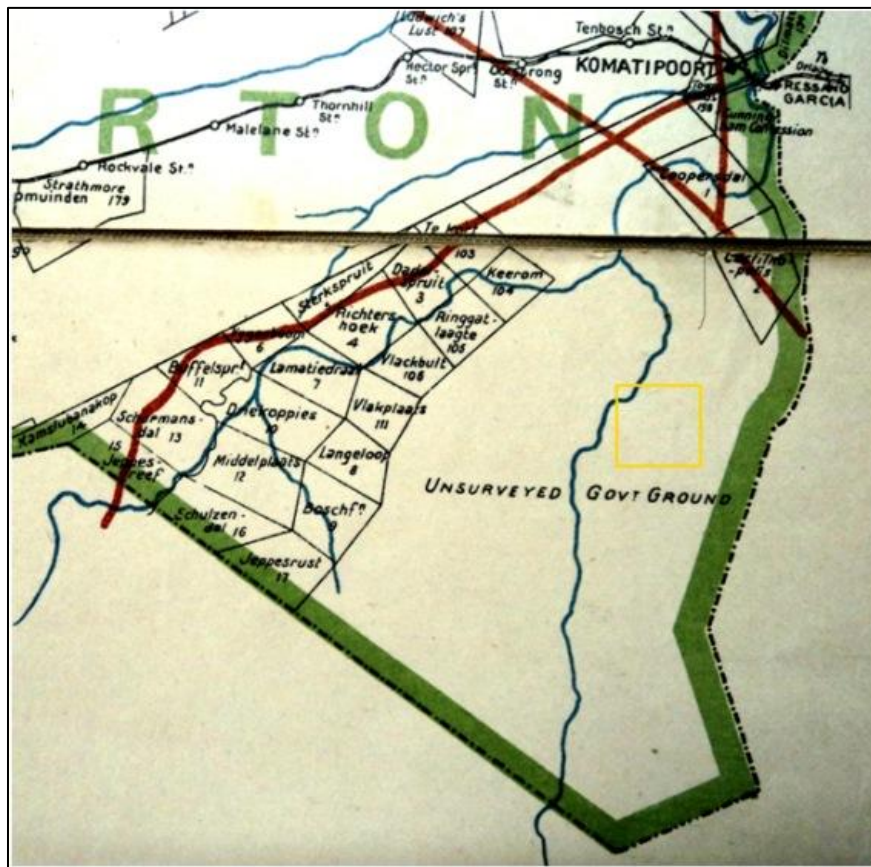


Fig. 4.3. Map and key of the Barberton district in 1920. The approximate farm area is indicated by the yellow border. This area formed part of un-surveyed government land at the time (Anon 1920s).

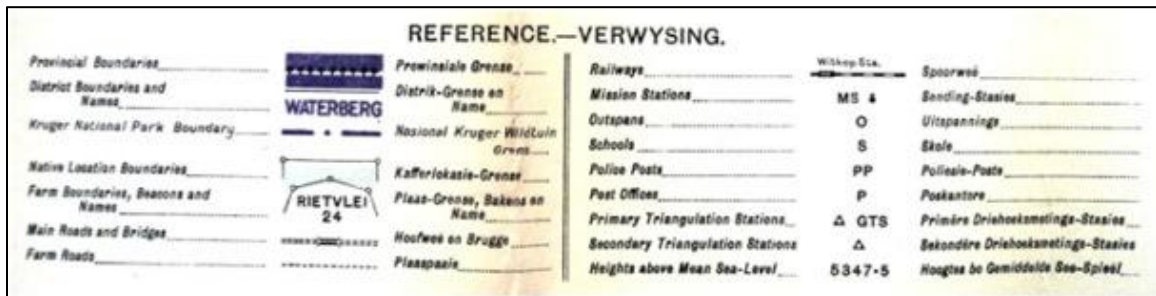
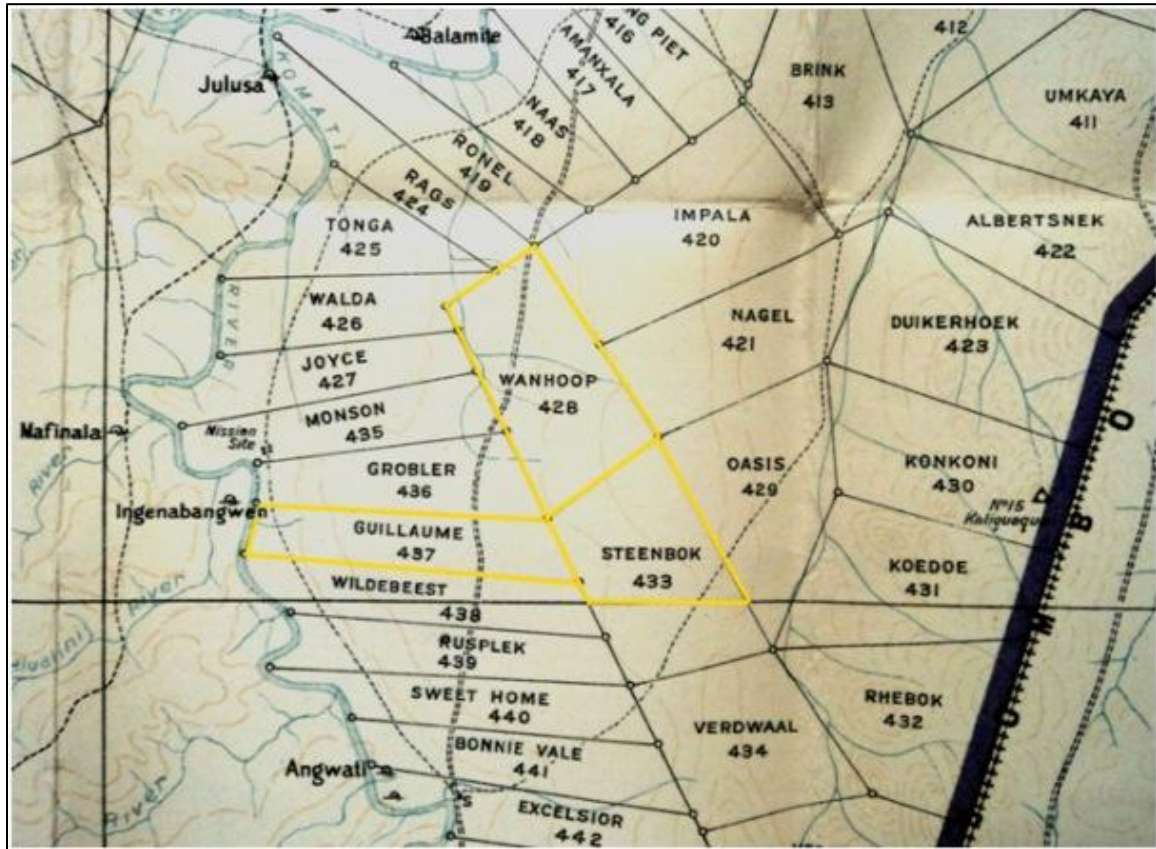


Fig. 4.4. Map of the Komatiport district in 1930. Apart from a main road that intersected Wanhoop and Guillaume, no other developments can be seen. The farms were at the time known as Guillaume 437, Steenbok 433 and Wanhoop 428 (Surveyor-General, 1930).

4.1.3. Historical overview of the ownership and development of the farms Guillaume 480 JU, Steenbok 493 JU and Wanhoop 485 JU

A brief overview of the historical ownership and development of the farms under investigation follows. Sources such as archival documents and maps, as well as modern-day topographical maps were consulted.

The history of the Lebombo Flats area has direct bearing on the history of each individual property, and therefore provides some context. Hereafter the findings on each of the other properties will be discussed. Although a lot of information could be found with regards to Steenbok 493 JU, much less was available on Wanhoop 485 JU and almost nothing on the history of Guillaume 480 JU.



Fig. 4.5. Map of the Barberton Magisterial District – Ward Komatipoort, during 1906. The area shaded in red on this map by the Native Commissioner was the area known as Lebombo Flats. The potential “Native Area” is shaded in blue (NASA SAB, NTS: 3530 420/308).

By April 1926, the area known as Lebombo Flats in the Barberton district was occupied mainly by Bantu tribes. Rumours had however started to spread that the land would be occupied by "Europeans" in the near future (NASA SAB, NTS: 3530 420/308).

In May 1926 Lebombo Flats was described by the Native Commissioner as a flat country lying between the Lebombo Range on the Portuguese Border and the Komati River, but it was also used to apply to the Lebombo Range itself, where a Chief named Mbudula resided with the majority of his followers. No portion of this land fell within the recently determined potential Native Area in the Barberton district (NASA SAB, NTS: 3530 420/308).

By July 1926 the Secretary for Lands finally provided an answer regarding the settlement of white folk in the Lebombo Flats. He noted that the land in question was intended for settlement by "Europeans" but that it was not expected that it would be ready for disposal until the following year (NASA SAB, NTS: 3530 420/308).

In September 1926 one G. F. Bennett made a supplication to the government on behalf of Chief Mbudula Ka Nomahasha. This tribe had originally possessed a large piece of land, but a part was taken over by the Portuguese, another portion fell into Swaziland and another portion was taken by the Transvaal. Mbudula feared that he would soon have no land left where his tribe could reside outside European farms. He asked government to consider turning the land on which he resided into a Native Area, as he had a large following with large herds of cattle. Having to leave the area would cause great hardship for this community; white farm owners would not tolerate black cattle owners on their farms. In March 1927 the Secretary for Native Affairs noted that it was not anticipated that Chief Mbudula would be required to move from his present site (NASA SAB, NTS: 3530 420/308).

In September 1932 the Secretary of Native Affairs wrote to the Secretary of Lands, stating that he had no objection against making the portion of the Lebombo plain located in the Released Native Area open for prospecting. No further information was provided regarding the removal of black people from the area (NASA SAB, NTS: 3530 420/308).

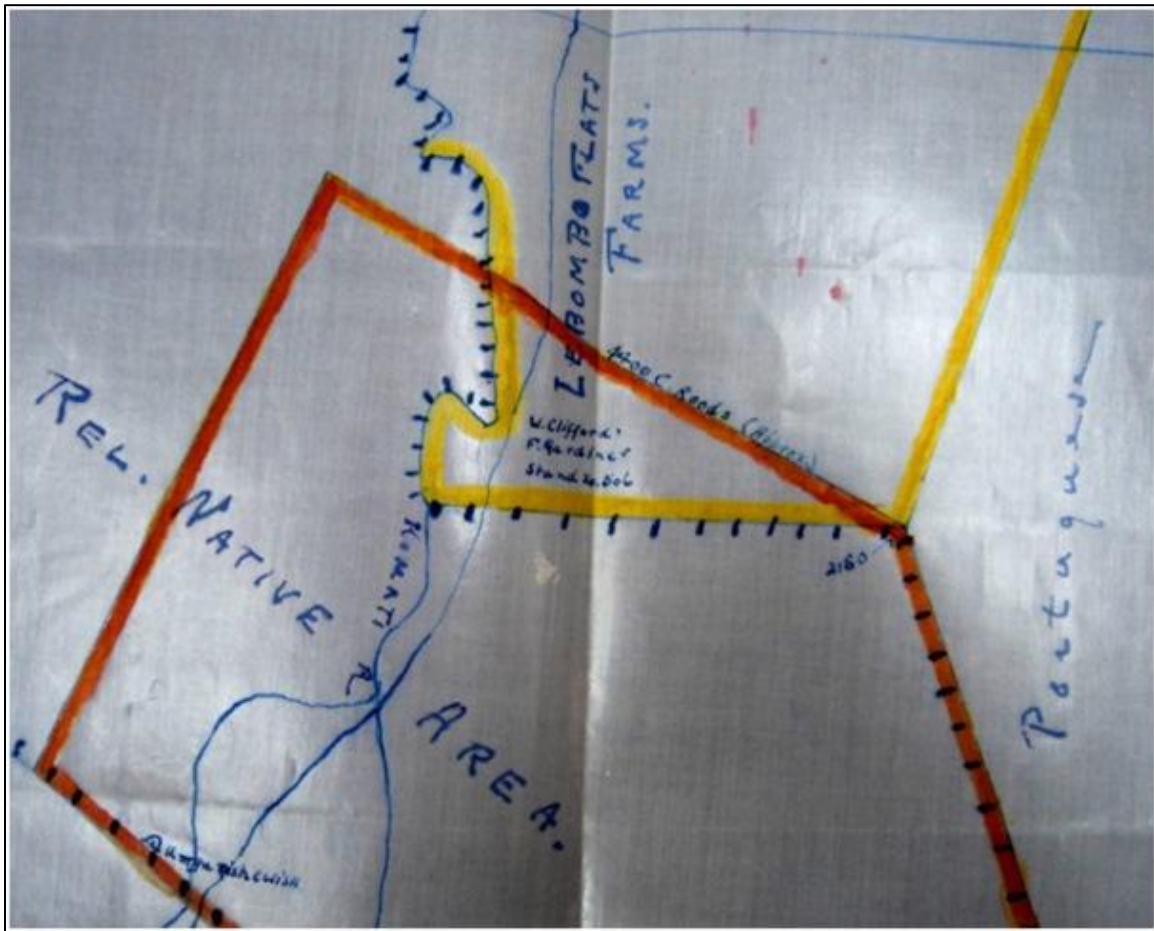


Fig. 4.6. Map of area open for prospecting (NASA SAB, NTS: 3530 420/308).

Guillaume 480 JU:

No information could be found on the history of the farm Guillaume 480 JU in the National Archives of South Africa.

Steenbok 493 JU:

In 1951 it was proclaimed that the farm Tenbosch 234 would cease to be a Released Area and that in its place various other farms of which the South African Native Trust was the owner, would become the new Released Area. This was due to the pastoral and agricultural value of the farm Tenbosch. Farms included in the new Released area were the following:

Portion 1 of Vlakkult 106;

Portion 1 of **Wanhoop 428**

Fig Tree 444

Murray 443

Excelsior 442

Bonnie Vale 441

Sweet Home 440

Rusplek439

Wildebeest 438

Guillaume 437

Konkoni 430

Oasis 429

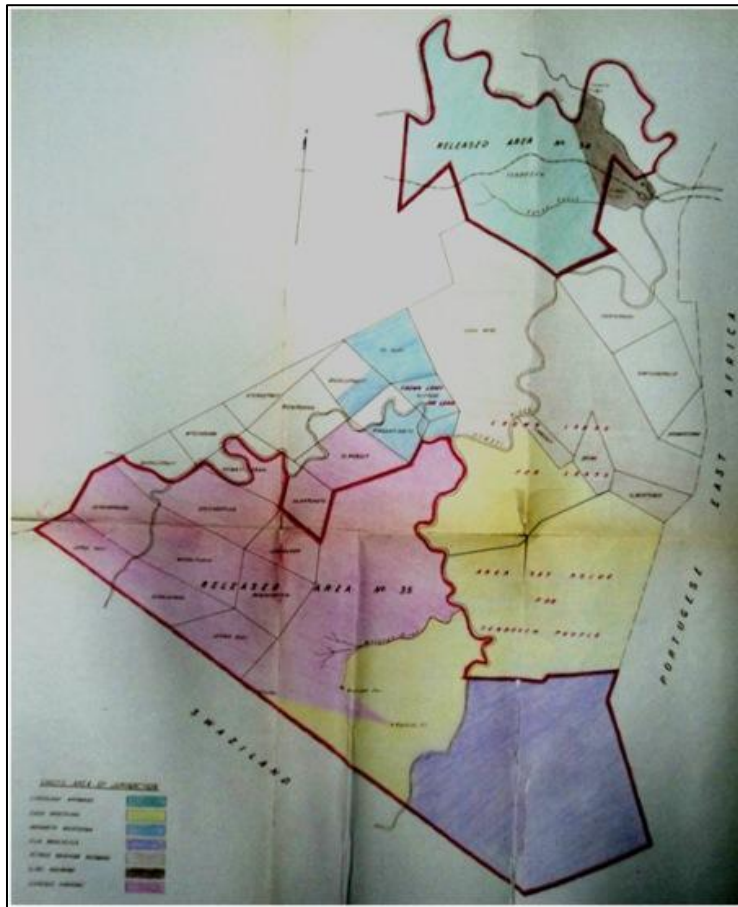
Duikershoek 423

Nagel 421

Steenbok 493 JU

These properties were communally known as the Lebombo Flats (NASA SAB, NTS: 3844 3097/308).

The proclamation was signed by Ernest George Jansen, the Governor-General of the Union of South Africa, as well as H. F. Verwoerd, the Governor-General-in-Council at the time (NASA SAB, NTS: 3844 3097/308).




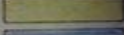



CHIEFS AREA OF JURISDICTION	
LUCEDLANE NGOMANE	
GASA MKATSHWA	
MRAMBISO MKATSHWA	
GUJA MANLALELA	
PETRUS AKAPANA NGOMANE	
ELIRS NGOMANE	
SIGNEDJE SHONGWE	

Fig. 4.7. Map and key of tribal areas. The area under investigation fell under the “Area set aside for Tenbosch people”. Judging from this map the area of interest in this report (marked yellow) fell under the jurisdiction of Chief Gasa Mkatshwa at the time (NASA SAB, NTS: 3844 3097/308).

By July 1951 plans were underway for the removal of black people from the property Tenbosch to the Lebombo Flats “Native Area”. It was suggested by the Secretary for Native Affairs that the arable lands in the new area would be laid out in morgen plots along the course of the rivers but not within 150 yards of the river banks. It was stressed that the removals would have to be effected as speedily as possible. Questions such as the supply of water for agriculture and

residential purposes were regarded as priorities. An area of approximately 25 000 morgen was set apart for the resettlement of people, and about 1068 families would be moved (NASA SAB, NTS: 3844 3097/308).

The Director of Native Agriculture assessed the new area of settlement in June 1951, and was of the opinion that the area in its present state was only fit for ranching. Crops had been mostly unsuccessful in this area in previous years. It was suggested that each tenant would be allowed to keep 10 head of cattle, but it was admitted that the area would have to be much larger to allow for this. The Director furthermore recommended that more land would have to be made available, including arable land, to allow for the growing of crops by black people living in this area (NASA SAB, NTS: 3844 3097/308).

It seems that the people on the farm Tenbosch were not at all in favour of leaving the land, and the various chiefs pleaded with the government to be left where they were. They were concerned with the scarcity of water at Lebombo Flats, and did not want to leave their traditional lands. The tribes were however assured by the Native Commissioner that they would not be moved until water access has been developed and stabilised on the land. Several families living on the Lebombo farms would also have to be removed to other areas before the "Tenbosch Natives" could be moved there (NASA SAB, NTS: 3844 3097/308).

In July 1952 it was noted by the Secretary for Native Affairs that removals from Tenbosch would take place no later than 31 October 1952. The Acting Chief Native Commissioner set out some of the logistics regarding the move in July 1952. He noted that a convoy of at least 25 Lorries would be required and that the removal of these people would take a period of three months. As the move was to be completed by the end of October, it was deemed essential that a start be made not later than the first week of August 1952 (NASA SAB, NTS: 3844 3097/308).

By late October 1952, removals had however not yet taken place. The Secretary of Lands Wrote to the Secretary for Native Affairs, and noted that it had been decided for the time being that the removals would not take place. The Minister had however instructed that attention must be given to the allotment of lots in the Tenbosch area to white settlers, thereby systematically forcing black inhabitants off the land (NASA SAB, NTS: 3844 3097/308).

Speculation surrounding the removal of black people to the Lebombo Native Reserve also had an influence on business owners in the region. One Lennox Houghton Anderson, the owner of two stores on Tenbosch and Low Hills (adjacent to Te Kort), wrote to the Native Commissioner in Barberton to apply for trading rights in the Lebombo Reserve, in the area between Tonga and Fig Tree. He had apparently been trading in the Lowveld for 24 years and complained that his stores had become "completely worthless" due to the depopulation of the area (NASA SAB, NTS: 1303 2449/162).

In June 1952 Anderson filled out an application form for land on Steenbok. He noted that the distance for the nearest adjacent trading site was 9 ½ miles, and that this was the Figtree Store (NASA SAB, NTS: 1303 2449/162).

The Native Commissioner was in favour of considering Anderson's application, since he was considered a fit and proper person, was prepared to pay a rental of £20 per month and was prepared to fence the trading site within six months from the date of granting. The Commissioner noted that the population to be served by Anderson's business was at the time still unknown, as the people have not yet been removed from Tenbosch to the Lebombo Flats. It was however believed that there would be sufficient scope for the business after the resettlements (NASA SAB, NTS: 1303 2449/162).

In the end a conclusion regarding the opening of the business was however not reached. In September 1953 the Secretary for Native Affairs wrote to the Chief Native Commissioner in Pietersburg, stating that Anderson's application could only be considered after the resettlements. Then it would have to be dealt with on the basis of the normally applicable policy. The store could only be opened if it was essential and if no black person was interested in opening one (NASA SAB, NTS: 1303 2449/162).

On 10 June 1955 the Assemblies of God Church applied to establish a church on the farm Steenbok 433 on a stand measuring half a morgen. The church would be known as Figtree and would be a Swedish denomination. At that time Olaf M. Sorensen was the Head of the Church and this church group was founded in South Africa in 1910. The church's application was recommended by the Head Native Commissioner in November 1955, as the population of that area numbered 1000 and there was no other church on the farm at the time. It is not however certain if the establishment of the church actually took place (NASA SAB, NTS: 744 1129/110).

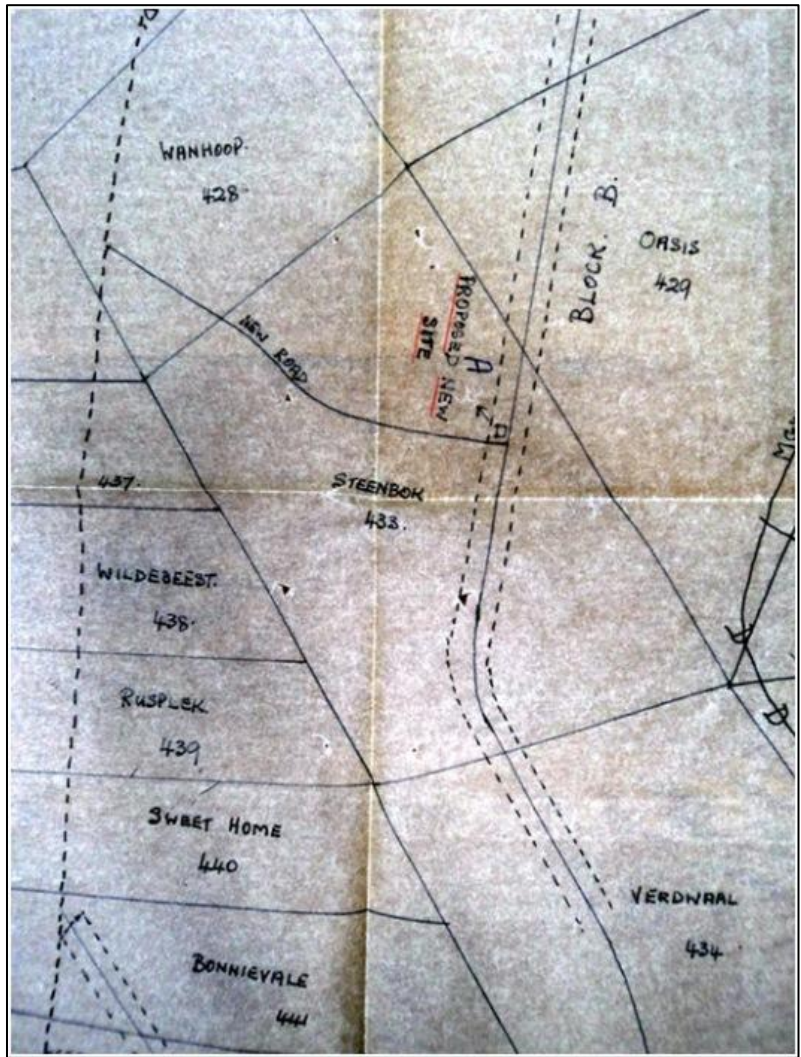


Fig. 4.8. Map of proposed new site on the farm Steenbok. (NASA SAB, NTS: 1303 2449/162).

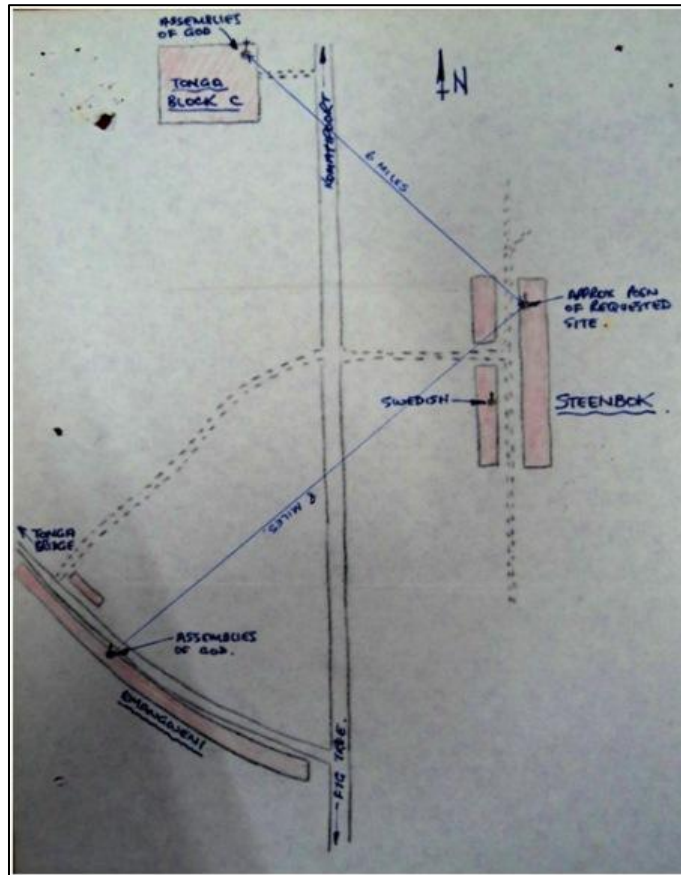


Fig. 4.8. Plan of the church site (NASA SAB, BAO: 1/1704 D47/1038/25/1).

It seems that the Assemblies of God Swedish Church may not have been successful in establishing a church on Steenbok in 1955, as the Church once again applied to establish a church on the farm Steenbok on 16th August 1966. A ¼ morgen site was applied for, and the site nearest to the church would be the Swedish Holiness (Zulu) Mission, which was located 2 miles from the proposed site. If the application was approved the area would immediately be fenced and the church would be completed within one year. The Church had been working in this black residential area since 1954. The area under discussion was of a rural nature, and sparsely inhabited, and it was predicted that the membership of the congregation would not reach 100. It is for this reason that the application was denied by the Secretary for Bantu Administration and Development in March 1967. It was however noted that the application would be considered more favourably in future if the population in the area increased (NASA SAB, BAO: 1/1704 D47/1038/25/1).

In September 1976, the Swedish Holiness Union Mission once again sent a letter to the Secretary General for Cooperation and Development, applying for a permit to occupy land on the farm Steenbok. The church finally received permission to settle on the site on 27 October 1981. The Mission would be allowed to occupy a site, in extent not exceeding $\frac{1}{4}$ morgen, situated in the Steenbok residential area, Lebombo Flats, in the district of Barberton (NASA SAB, BAO: 2/376 T8/4/4/2/B10/31).

On 23 January 1981 the Church of Nazarene applied for a site to establish a church on the farm Steenbok 493 JU. The church would potentially serve 1500 families, of which 1339 were residing on the farm Steenbok at the time. The terrain would be located more than 300 Cape foot from the nearest public road, and 25 kilometres from the nearest white residential area. The terrain was located 18 kilometres from the closest township. The only other church that existed in the area (Kamhlushwa) at the time was the Swedish Mission Church. This church was located one kilometre from the site of the proposed church (NASA SAB, BAO: 4/384 GB6/3/4/2/B10/47).

At the time of the application, Rev. John Mahlalela was the Minister in charge of the Church of Nazarene. The application for the site was recommended by the Secretary of the Nkomazi Regional Authority in March 1983 (NASA SAB, BAO: 4/384 GB6/3/4/2/B10/47).

The church building plan was approved in 1985 and by April 1986 construction was completed. The church received a permit to occupy the building on 14 July 1986 (NASA SAB, BAO: 4/384 GB6/3/4/2/B10/47).

Wanhoop 485 JU

In December 1951, the Chief Native Commissioner in Pietersburg sent a letter to the Secretary for Native Affairs, setting out the plans for the intended construction of a stock dam on the farm Wanhoop 428 in the Barberton district. This dam, which would be known as the Impala dam, would be used solely for stock watering purposes, as it would be a midway between the Komati River and the Ngwenyene Spruit, and therefore well situated. The terrain on which the dam would be built was well grassed and very flat, and stretched over an area measuring five square miles. The cost of the construction of the dam was calculated at £1019-15-0 (NASA SAB, NTS: 10475 D803).

Construction on the dam started in 1951, and it was completed on 5 February 1953. 78 Labourers worked on the construction of the dam, and a total of 36 days was spent on the building of the dam. The dam was constructed according to the specifications of the above building plan. The workers' fees were paid by the Native Affairs Department (NASA SAB, NTS: 10475 D803).

4.2. Archaeology

4.2.1. Stone Age

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

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

The Early Stone Age (ESA)

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

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

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

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

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

Middle Stone Age (MSA)

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

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

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

Later Stone Age (LSA)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

4.2.2. Early Iron Age

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Recent research by the National Cultural History Museum resulted in the excavation of an Early Iron Age site in Sekhukuneland, known as 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 farm area is located within a large Late Iron Age (1000-1800 A.C.) terrain. (Ross 1995: 6-7; Packard 2001: 594; Bergh 1999: 6-8; 82-83)

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

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

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

5. Located sites, description and suggested mitigation

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

Table 5.1. Summary of located sites and their significance

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

Table 5.2. Significance rating guidelines for sites

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

6. Findings and recommendations

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

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

7. Bibliography

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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 photo locations

During the survey, general photos were taken to document the survey area. Listed are the GPS locations of where the photos were taken.

9.1. Site name: Mfumfane Vegetable Farming Project area.

Date of compilation: 16/11/2013

GPS reading: S25°44'22.98" E031°51'13.33"

Photo: Fig. 1, 2.

9.2. Site name: Mfumfane Vegetable Farming Project area.

Date of compilation: 16/11/2013

GPS reading: S25°44'56.43" E031°50'43.77"

Photo: Fig. 3, 4.

9.3. Site name: Mfumfane Vegetable Farming Project area.

Date of compilation: 16/11/2013

GPS reading: S25°44'55.32" E031°51'16.27"

Photo: Fig. 5.

9.4. Site name: Mfumfane Vegetable Farming Project area.

Date of compilation: 16/11/2013

GPS reading: S25°43'29.76" E031°51'19.55"

Photo: Fig. 6.

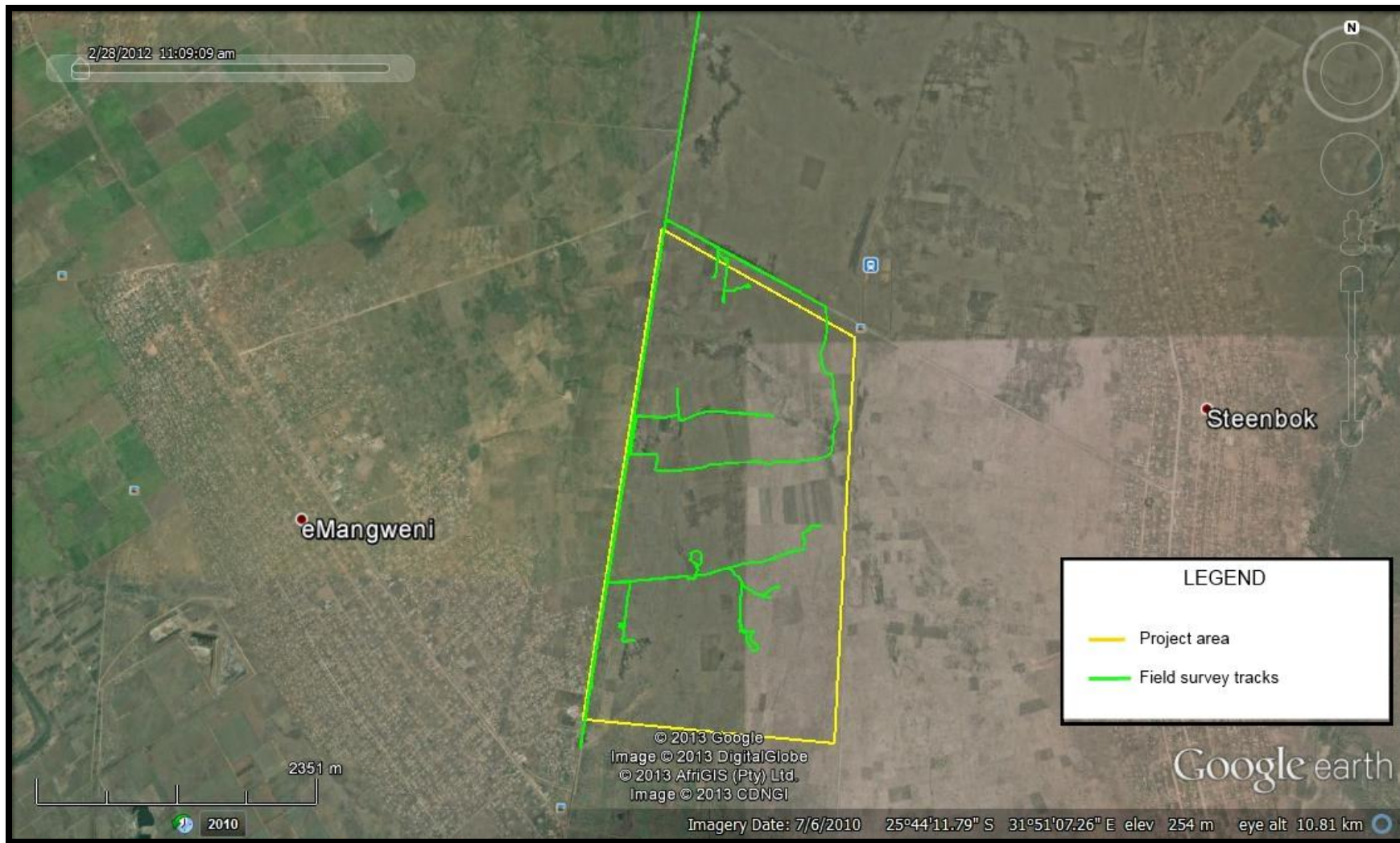
9.5. Site name: Mfumfane Vegetable Farming Project area.

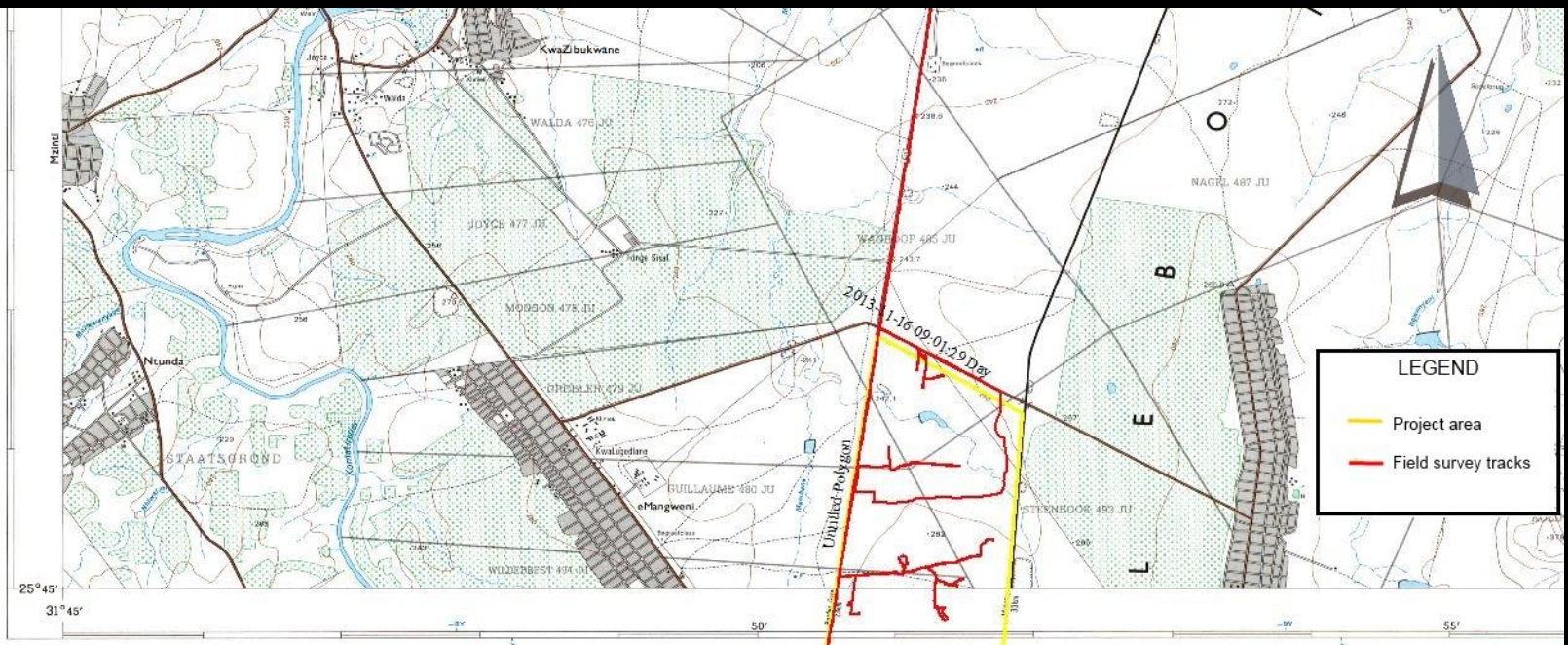
Date of compilation: 16/11/2013

GPS reading: S25°44'53.22" E031°51'03.59"

Photo: Fig. 7.

Appendix C





LEGEND

- Project area
- Field survey tracks

25° 45'
31° 45'

Gedruis deur die Hoofdirektor van Opmetings en Kaarteleg, Pretoria. Moortrey
Published by the Chief Director of Surveys and Mapping, Private Bag, Moscowy



VEREENIGING
REFERENCE
National Route
Aerial Route
Main Road

Gemiddelde magnetiese dalklans 15° 6' Wes van
Waar Noord (1267.5). Gemiddelde jaarlikse
verandering 2° Ooswaarts (1893-1985).

Maas: magnetiese dalklans 15° 6' West of
True North (1267.5). Yearly variation

Hoogtes is in meter bo gemiddelde seevlak
Heights are in metres above mean sea level

KONTOERLUSRUIMTE 20 METRE CONTOUR INTERVAL 20 METRES

Gauss se Konforme Projekie, Middelleraans 30° Oos, Clarke 1880 Sterwiel

Die nulllyn van die Suid-Afrikaanse Koordinatstelsel word
aangegeef deur swart strepe 10 000 meter van die
Koördinaatwaarde in omtrent 10 000 meter.
Die nulllyn van die aangrensende land word op dieselfde
die buitekant van die graaddeelneming aangedui.

The grid lines of the South African Coordinate System are
marked by short black lines at 10 000 metre intervals, with

Appendix D

Photos of located sites



Fig. 1. General photo taken in southern direction.



Fig. 2. General photo taken in northern direction.



Fig. 3. General photo of one of the numerous cultivated lands. Photo taken in eastern direction.



Fig. 4. Similar cultivated land opposite that in fig. 3. Photo taken in north-eastern direction.



Fig. 5. A photo of the areas where cattle grazing is taking place. Photo taken in northern direction.



Fig. 6. General photo taken in north-eastern direction.



Fig. 7. A general photo in a northern direction from the central part of the study area.