

MANAGEMENT PLAN FOR ITHALA MANAGEMENT UNIT

Date	24 March 2021
Dates visited	January 2020 & 8-12 March 2021
Compiled by	Celeste Rossouw (Senior Heritage Officer)

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to compile a collective management plan for all types of heritage sites surveyed in the past and recently, to identify types of heritage sites, for instance the mines or industrial archaeological sites, which were not surveyed and needed to be included in the plan.

Five surveys, covering the Ithala Game Reserve, from the earliest to the last, are: Dr Gavin Whitelaw (KZN Museum) and Mike Moon (1989); Elize Becker (Archaeology Department, Compliance Section, at the KwaZulu-Natal Amafa and Research Institute) completed on the 24 October 2006; Anton J Pelsler/APAC/A Pelsler Archaeological Consulting, contracted by the KZN Amafa & Research Institute, completed his survey in April 2015; Celeste Rossouw (Senior Heritage Officer) and Siyabonga Mbatha (Heritage Officer) of the Rock Art Section in the Archaeology Department identified, mapped and completed a survey report for a San rock art painting site and a cluster of Zulu rock art engraving sites; and lastly, Ms Rossouw did a survey of the industrial archaeological sites, which were not done previously, from 15-19 March 2021.

All these sites were mapped on Google Earth Pro, to give an indication of the areas covered inside Ithala Game Reserve; and to allow us to group identified artefacts (upper and lower grinding stones and potsherds) and features such as livestock pens and hut floors, as belonging to a specific site. However, care must be taken to note that even if a site is definitely an historical site, it will often also contain scatters of Stone Age artefacts, such as blades, scrapers and hand axes.

These survey reports mainly included the identification, mapping and description of different types of heritage resources and sites. However, conservation goals, objectives and strategies

are lacking. This document will endeavour to address these gaps. Secondly, the management plan will respond to the goal of Ithala's Integrated Management Plan, namely, the long term conservation of heritage sites and resources linked with the sustainable usage of such sites.

The objectives linked to sustainable usage would be education, research and low-impact tourism. Strategies would include generic actions to conserve and utilise different types of heritage resources and sites for instance Stone Age, Iron Age, Historical and Rock Art sites as well as site specific plans, if, for instance, it is decided that certain sites will be opened for public visitation and some low-impact development, is necessary.

All sites specific management plans must comply with the Burra Charter as well as the National Heritage Resources Act No. 25 of 1999 and the KwaZulu-Natal Amafa and Research Institute Act No. 5 of 2018.

METHODOLOGY

A desktop study was completed. Satellite photos on Google Earth were perused; and primary and secondary written and internet sources were studied.

All the identified artefacts and archaeological features recorded in the previous survey reports were mapped on Google Earth Pro to establish a "footprint" of heritage sites already surveyed and to give an indication of gaps.

Sites linked to industrial archaeology (shaft and adit mines/horizontal passages that are driven into the slopes of mountains where gold bearing quartz are present) were surveyed in 2021. These features and accompanying built environment, industrial machines and equipment were identified during the field survey; their location was recorded by means of a Global Positioning System (GPS) that was recorded with an E-trex Garmin GPS and complete photographs of each mine, including historical equipment were recorded with a Canon 30x Optical Zoom SX710 HS camera.

These new mining sites were mapped on Google Earth as part of rooting all types of heritage sites in a locational manner within the landscape of Ithala Game Reserve.

Taken into consideration that a survey report for mining sites were not included in previous surveys, the first part of this management plan will include a survey report of these heritage resources.

CONTENT

The management plan will include a list of stakeholders; the background history of Ithala Game Reserve and a survey completed by Celeste Rossouw (2021) of sites not covered in previous surveys.

A summary of previous surveys, including Google Earth Pro maps of these sites, to allow us to group sites together and to enable the reader to obtain a holistic view of land covered by these surveys, will be provided.

The goal, objective and strategies linked to the conservation of different archaeological and historical sites must communicate with goals, objectives and strategies included in Ezemvelo KwaZulu-Natal Wildlife's Management Plan to ensure that outcomes are integrated. For instance, EKZNW stipulates that the aesthetic values of natural and cultural sites must be conserved, however, only strategies to conserve biodiversity and landscapes were included in their plan.

Finally, attention will be given to the legislation applicable to the conservation of heritage sites and a bibliography will be included.

STAKEHOLDERS

Name	Contact details	Responsibility
Rickert van der Westhuizen	082 347 4647 P.O. Box 51, Louwsburg, 3150 Rickert.VanDerWesthuizen@kznwildlife.com	Ecologist
Pete Ruinard	082 903 7218 P.O. Box 42, Louwsburg, 3150, Pieter.Ruinard@kznwildlife.com	Conservation Manager
Allan Smale	034 983 2540 P.O. Box 98, Louwsburg, 3150 Allan.Smale@kznwildlife.com	Ntshondwe Resort Manager
Gary Bawden	Gary.Bawden@kznwildlife.com	
Bernadet	033 394 6543	Head of the

Pawandiwa	bernadetp@amafapmb.co.za	Archaeology Department at the KZN Amafa & Research Institute
Celeste Rossouw	082 891 5518 celester@amafapmb.co.za	Senior Heritage Officer, Rock Art Section at the Institute
Siyabonga Mbatha	033 394 6543	Heritage Officer, Rock Art Section, at the Institute
Sithembiso Mkhize	Sithembisomkhz20@gmail.com 079 249 6490/074 200 9888	Field Ranger (mining areas)
Edmond Rouliard	082 654 7109	His grandparents were the owners of land where mines were located on for interview purposes
Sam Ndwandwe		District Manager of North Western section of EKZNW (including Zululand/D26 and DC25 or Utrecht, Dannhuaser and Newcastle).
Shiren Rambarath	Shiren.Rambarath@kznwildlife.com	Management Effectiveness (MET)

PALAEONTOLOGICAL & ARCHAEOLOGICAL BACKGROUND

1) PALAEONTOLOGY

A) Upper Beaufort layer

Plenty of fossilised tree stumps were identified and documented within the Spioenkop Management Unit; these eco-facts can be as old as **250 million years** and belongs to the **Upper Beaufort layer**. Material, characteristic of this layer, is sedimentary rock, for example: sandstone and shale which were laid down in semi-arid conditions in locations such as rivers, flood plains and meandering river valleys. Palaeontological remains include fossilised plant material, ranging from minute examples of leaves to fossilised trees; other material includes the first primitive fishes and the first reptiles, who were most herbivores but some carnivore.

B) Molteno layer

Overlaying the Beaufort layer is the Stormberg group and in this group's lowest level we find the Molteno layer.

The Molteno layer consists of blue-grey sandstone which dates up to 220 million years. Eco-facts consist of the earliest form of dinosaur track marks. Examples are found at the foot hills of the Drakensberg.

C) The Elliot layer/"Redbands"

This layer is also part of the Stormberg group and was deposited on the Molteno formation between 180-170 million years ago. Material consists of red sandstone, shale and red and purple mudstone. Types of fossils present are large dinosaur fossils as well as slowly evolving, but to a lesser extent, mammal fossils. The location of these layers in the landscape can be found on the slope of mountains.

D) The Cave Sandstone layer or Clarens Formation

This layer formed between 170-160 million years ago. Dinosaur fossils continued into this period although they became rarer while mammal fossils are more. Visual forms in the landscape where these layers are present are the sandstone "*krantz*" and cliffs where we find the majority of San rock paintings.

2) ARCHAEOLOGY

A) STONE AGE

Earlier Stone Age

Time: 1 500 000 – 250 000 years ago

Human species

Homo habilis: present in Gauteng and in East Africa, not excavated in KZN yet. They date between 2, 6 million – 1, 5 million years.

Homo erectus: lived throughout Africa (except in tropical forests), southern Europe, southern Asia, India and Indonesia. Not found in the Americas or in Australia.

Ways of life: hunters-gatherers who lived mostly near rivers, springs and lakes. They seldom lived in caves or rock shelters. They used fire, but could probably not make it or control it.

Stone artefacts/tools: large cores such as hand-axes and cleavers that were all-purpose tools for digging, chopping and cutting were most common. These tools did not go through much development in a million years (Deacon, Jannette, 2009: interview).

Middle Stone Age

Time: 250 000 25 000 years ago

Human species:

Archaic Homo sapiens: 250 000 – 120 000

Homo sapiens sapiens: 120 000 – 25 000

All modern humans are from Africa. The first group of homo sapiens sapiens moved from Eastern Africa to the Middle East at about 100 000 years ago. From there they migrated to India, to Indonesia and finally to Australia by 60 000 years ago.

A second group moved from Africa by 70 000 years ago and they migrated to the Middle East and from there to Western Europe by 40 000 – 35 000 years ago. After this they returned to Asia.

At about 14 000 – 12000 years ago they moved from north-east Asia to North and South America.

Ways of life: Middle Stone Age people were also hunters-gatherers, but by 120 000 years ago they were also eating shellfish, fish and marine mammals such as seals. They were able to make and control fire and they often lived in caves and rock shelters.

They created rock art. Of the oldest rock art in the world is found in South Africa at Blombos Cave, dating 75 000 years ago. The oldest rock painting in southern Africa, were found in Namibia at Apollo 11 Cave, dated at 27 500 years ago. Both sites were associated with Middle Stone Age artefacts.

Stone tools/artefacts: Middle Stone Age tools are generally made of flakes rather than cores and they are also mainly smaller than Early Stone Age tools. They are most typically triangular points used for spears and blades used as knives that were hafted to wooden handles with gum (mastic) from plants and sinew or strings made from plant fibres. There were several phases of development referring to tool manufacturing and new styles developing (Deacon, Jannette, 2009: interview).

Late Stone Age

Date: 25 000 – 250 years ago.

Human species: modern man, Khoekhoen-speaking people and San.

Khoekhoen-speaking people: they obtained sheep and cattle from Iron Age Bantu-speaking farmers in Botswana about 2 200 years ago and then moved to South Africa, arriving at the Cape at about 2 000 years ago.

Ways of life: they were hunter-gatherers that also ate sea food. They lived mostly in rock shelters and caves but also made shelters of reeds, branches and grass. After 2 000 years ago the Khoekhoen people brought their sheep, cattle and pottery to the Western Cape. They lived in houses covered with reed mats.

Most of the rock paintings and engravings in South Africa were made by the Stone Age People. The oldest dated paintings date to 10 200 years ago and can be found in the Wonderwerk Cave near Kuruman in the Northern Cape. The San mainly painted with brushes and their paintings contain much more fine detail as well as difficult postures than rock art paintings made by the Khoekhoen people, who mainly painted with their fingers.

Stone tools: most of the tools made by the Late Stone Age people are smaller than those of the Middle Stone Age. Stone scrapers are mostly found and were used for preparing skins to make leather clothing and bags; adzes were used for wood working to make arrows and bows; and microliths were used for arrowheads and knives. The stone tools were hafted to wood or bone handles with mastic. Bows and arrows were introduced at approximately 18 000 years ago. Ostrich eggshell beads, shell beads and other ornaments were often made, and so were bored stones to weight digging sticks (Deacon, Jannette, 2009: interview).

B) IRON AGE

I) EARLY IRON AGE: AD200-900

Generally it is believed that the Early Iron Age peoples mainly planted crops before 500AD and that they did not keep livestock, however some excavations like those of Dr Ina Plug in the Kruger Game Reserve delivered proof of domesticated animals such as cattle and sheep earlier than 500AD in these settlements.

Before 500AD the settlements were much smaller than after 500AD and were mostly about 2 hectares large, for example sites at Lake St. Lucia; Mzonjani 15km north of Durban as well as Enkwazini. During the pioneer phase of the Early Iron Age people focussed more on crops, hunting and the exploitation of sea resources such as fish and shell-fish, than livestock farming. They mainly stayed close to the coast, or to the river in valleys or in wooded areas (Unisa: ACE202-J 1992: 72 & EKZNW: 11).

After 500AD Bantu-speakers practiced mixed farming focussing on both livestock such as cattle, goats and sheep, and also planted crops such as millet, sorghum and cowpeas. They settled, mainly, in large permanent settlements or villages in deep and fertile river valleys that were suitable for crop farming and also provided sweet veld that were good for grazing purposes.

Early Iron Age cultures applied a system called “slash-and-burn” to clear areas of trees and vegetation to enable them to plant their crops. The areas where trees and vegetation were removed were burnt before planting commenced and this process was repeated each year (Unisa: ACE202-J 1992: 73).

There are two schools of thought pertaining to the Iron Age: some academics, like Martin Hall believed that cattle were only more important than other livestock after AD900 and the same applies to bride wealth or “*lobola*” in the form of cattle. However, Thomas Huffman believes that cattle were already more important than other livestock before AD900 and that the “*lobola*”-system was also more antique (Unisa: ACE202-J: 73 & Huffman, T 2007: 340-341).

As cattle herds increased through time, societies’ views regarding cattle changed and they became stratified since cattle now shifted from being communal property to private property. The practice of “*lobola*”, namely the exchange of cattle for wives underpinned kinship relations and political power (Huffman, T 2007: 340).

During the Early Iron Age, excavations proved that these cultures could mine, smelt and forge their own iron farming equipment like hoes as well as weapons such as spears; items made of copper was also excavated from Early Iron Age sites to a lesser extent (Unisa: ACE202-J: 73).

Salt production was present during the Early Iron Age and artefacts made of soapstone and ivory were also excavated (Unisa: ACE202-J, 1992: 73).

The pottery made by the Early Iron-Age people were attractively decorated while the pottery of the Late Iron Age was no longer decorated to such an extent and many pots were also of poorer quality than those belonging to the Early Iron Age (EKZNW: 11).

The Early Iron Age can be distinguished from the Late Iron Age as settlements of the Late Iron Age were much smaller homesteads in comparison with the large villages of the Early Iron Age. While Early Iron Age cultures settled mainly in river valleys, the societies of the Late Iron Age settled on top of the mountain or on the slope of the mountain.

II) Middle Iron Age (AD900-1300)

Starting in the 10th century, the Zimbabwe Culture, defined by class distinction and sacred leadership, developed in the Shashe-Limpopo basin and it was the Zhizo¹

¹ The Zhizo people were under the authority of the K2 group, yet they maintained their own material culture signature. Leokwe people may therefore have had a role based on their “First People” status because Leokwe Hill rendered Early Iron Age pottery and conforms to a rain-making hill and some Leokwe people were ritual specialists. However, once sacred leadership had developed in the basin, their rainmaking role would have

who stayed at Leokwe Hill (this group came to the Sashe-Limpopo basin by \pm AD900 and the ceramic style disappeared about AD1000 \pm 25) and Leopard's Kopje cultures/groups (AD1000-1200 linked with the K2 site and Shona-speaking people) that led the way that culminated in the formation of Great Zimbabwe, 250km away in 1300AD (Huffman, 2007: 362, 371).

Class distinction: Zimbabwe society was stratified into two socio-economic classes: nobles and commoners. Noble senior families of different lineages formed a single, bureaucratic upper class and restricted wealth, status and political power to themselves by forming symmetrical or equal marriage alliances from the same high status family groups. Commoners entered into asymmetrical alliances by one family being the father-in-law family and the other, the son-in-law family to the other group (Huffman, T.N. 2007: 366).

Class distinction manifested in the built environment since commoners lived in small homesteads close to agricultural lands, while nobles lived in special sections of the district, in provincial and national capitals (Huffman, T.N. 2007: 366).

Class distinction also manifested in religion as status and nobility were legitimised by the ideology of "sacred leadership": In the Great Zimbabwe culture (AD1300-1450) the leaders had a mythical relationship with God and only they could ask God for the fertility of his people and his land, etc. In other cultures, for instance the Nguni culture, rain makers are special doctors not the chiefs, who must try to influence supernatural forces through manipulation of rain medicine (Huffman, T.N. 2007: 366). Only after the introduction of Christianity, it became common to appeal to God via the ancestors in other parts of Southern Africa. Secondly, the Zimbabwe Culture believed that the ancestors appointed or approved their leader's position. Accordingly, sacred leadership was not hereditary. Although other pre-colonial societies in Southern Africa maintained social-ranking, no other group's or culture's social differentiation was marked as poignantly as that of Great Zimbabwe: no other society had the combination of ancestral links to god for rain, fertility and sanctioned leadership; symmetrical marriage arrangements and different settlement patterns for

disappeared. Archaeological evidence from the bottom of Leokwe Hill supports this theory, since top stratum of the excavation contained Mapungubwe pottery and calibrated radiocarbon dating suggests that Leokwe occupation was over by the end of the Mapungubwe period (Huffman, 2007: 385).

commoners and nobles, than the culture of Great Zimbabwe (Huffman, T.N. 2007: 366).

Reasons for the development of the Middle Iron Age is the increase in trade not in increased agricultural activities taken into consideration that Zhizo communities moved to the Shashe-Limpopo not because the climate improved (it only improved by 1000AD) but because of an increase in ivory trade, this accounts for the location of the Zhizo settlements far away from the flood plains (Huffman, 2007: 368).

The first spatial shift referring to the built environment took place at K2 because of the intensification in social ranking. Accordingly the elite Zimbabwe Pattern developed out of cultures at K2 (AD 1000-1200±20. It was inhabited for 200 years) and Mapungubwe (AD1220-1300) (Huffman, 2007: 362, 373). Mapungubwe had been a rain-making hill as its shape, early pottery, and natural cisterns and associated cupules show. By living on top, the Mapungubwe leader acquitted the power of the place. His new location emphasised the link between himself, his ancestors and rainmaking. By the time that the palace was established here, sacred leadership had evolved. Commoners outside the capital kept on living as homesteads organised as Central Cattle Patterns. This dual settlement system is evidence for the evolution of a class-based society (Huffman, 2007: 376).

Between AD1220-1250 when Mapungubwe pottery developed, Mapungubwe sheltered about 5000 people over an area of 30 000km² and from the level of territory and social complexity Mapungubwe was South Africa's first state. The K2 period (AD1000-1200±20) had three times as many homesteads as the Zhizo period. Accordingly, the large Mapungubwe population was a process that started in the K2 period, rather than an abrupt result of a specific event (Huffman, T.N. 2007: 376).

Local population increase and the increase in capital sizes had an impact on agricultural production. At both K2 and at Mapungubwe the leaders placed their capitals close to second best farm land and reserved the best for the local people or commoners. The produce to support a large capital came from specifically designated fields known as *zunde* in Shona and *dzunde* in Venda, everyone helped to cultivate these fields as part of tribute, including residents of the capital. Town residents would also have needed agricultural land to support their families and as capitals grew more fields would have been needed (Huffman, 2007: 382). Both K2

and Mapungubwe farmers lived on the edge of the Kolope delta where the tributary meets the floodplains (Huffman, 2007: 382). Floodplains are able to hold more water and for longer periods than soils, furthermore, the high rainfall from AD1000-1300 extended the rainy season and warm temperatures in the basin may have also extended the growing season (Huffman, 2007: 384). With higher rainfall, more use of the same fields was possible and nutrients were replaced through flooding (Huffman, 2007: 384). Population growth permitted by periodic flooding was an important factor for the evolution of Mapungubwe (Huffman, 2007: 384).

The other major factor was long-distance trade. The coastal trade generated more wealth than was possible through cattle. This wealth was also different from cattle since it could be stored and its value manipulated. Evidently, so much wealth was generated that normal redistribution channels of Iron Age chiefdoms were inadequate, and ruling families could become an upper class (Huffman, 2007: 384).

III) LATE IRON AGE: AD 1300-1840 (Huffman, T. 2007: 393)

The Late Iron Age can be divided into two types of settlement patterns: the pre-colonial interior grassland settlement and settlements linked to the historical or contact period (post-colonial). The pre-colonial sites can also be divided into two historical periods, namely: the Moor Park type and the Mgoduyanuka type. These three categories were also identified in rock engravings.

a) Pre-colonial sites

i) Moor Park Settlement Patterns 1300s-1700s

Radiocarbon dates place Moor Park between about AD 1300 and 1700. Moor Park type of settlements was first discovered close to Estcourt in the Midlands of KwaZulu-Natal (Huffman, Thomas, 2004: 88).

Moor Park walling is the first walling type in South Africa that was associated with the Central Cattle Pattern in South Africa. This type of walling extends from about Bergville to Dundee. Moorpark walling partially served defensive purposes (Huffman, Thomas 2004: 89).

Figure No.1: Sketch of a Moor-Park walling on Makebeni Hill near Estcourt. After Davies 1974 (Huffman, Thomas, 2004: 92).

Moor Park walling emphasised the front/back axis: low hut platforms supported beehive huts in the residential zone behind cattle enclosures and middens. Located on spurs and the end of hills, stonewalls cut the settlement off from the remaining terrain. Perimeter walls enclose about two-thirds of a settlement, leaving the back that was protected by steep slopes (Huffman, Thomas 2004: 89).

The first appearance of this defensive walling occurred with a drop in temperature during the start of the Little Ice Age, ensuing decline in agricultural productivity that must have created severe tension as groups competed for productive land and women to work them. Groups raided each other's livestock and women. The need for defence may not have been necessary throughout this period, and there may have been other, less defensive sites occupied during peaceful phases (Huffman, Thomas 2004: 89).

ii) Mgoduyanuka sites dating between the 1600s and 1700s located in the interior grassland

Pre-colonial grassland settlements occurred during the 1600s and 1700s and communities practiced mixed farming. They settled on moderate slopes and not on the most elevated or on the low-laying areas. Entrances of cattle pens showed up-hill and homesteads were close to each other, not more than 50m from their nearest neighbour and they tended to occur in clusters. Sometimes two or more stock pens were discovered that were located on the same contour and made out one unit. This was also identified in engravings (Maggs, T. 1988: 417-418 and 429). Sometimes lines were engraved that represented pathways from the top entrances (Maggs, T. 1988: 429). The Mgoduyanuka site near Bergville was selected as an excellent example of this type of settlement format and similar settlements occur at Kopleegte, Spioenkop Dam Nature Reserve, Strydpoort and Hattingsvlakte. Many of these pre-colonial sites are located between Bergville and Estcourt although one also occurs in Ladysmith (Maggs, T. 1988: 419).

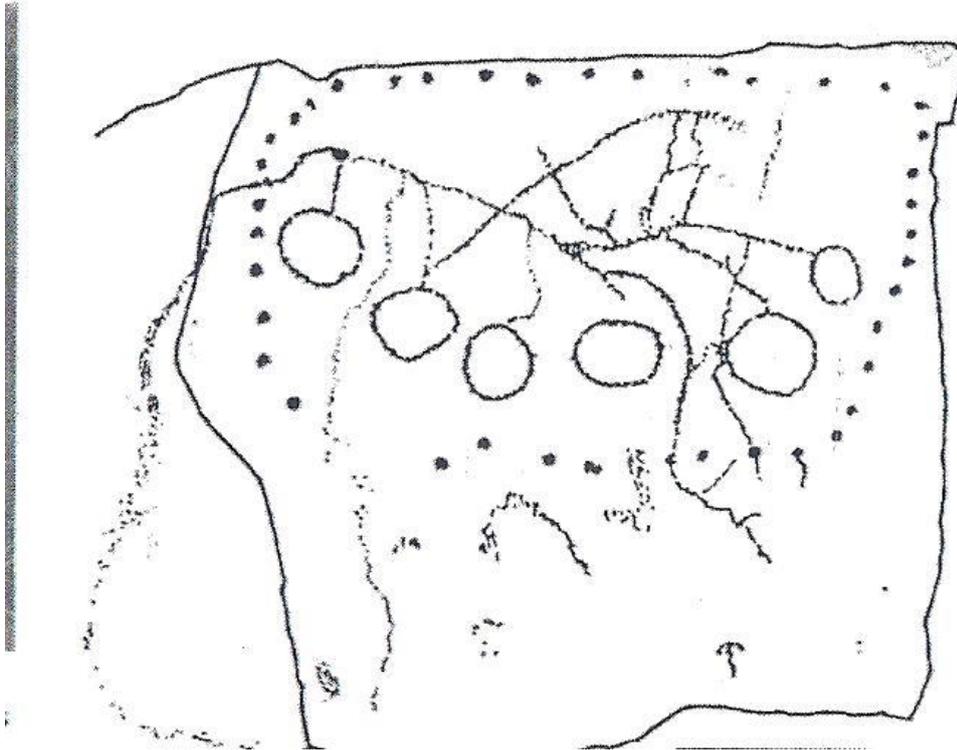


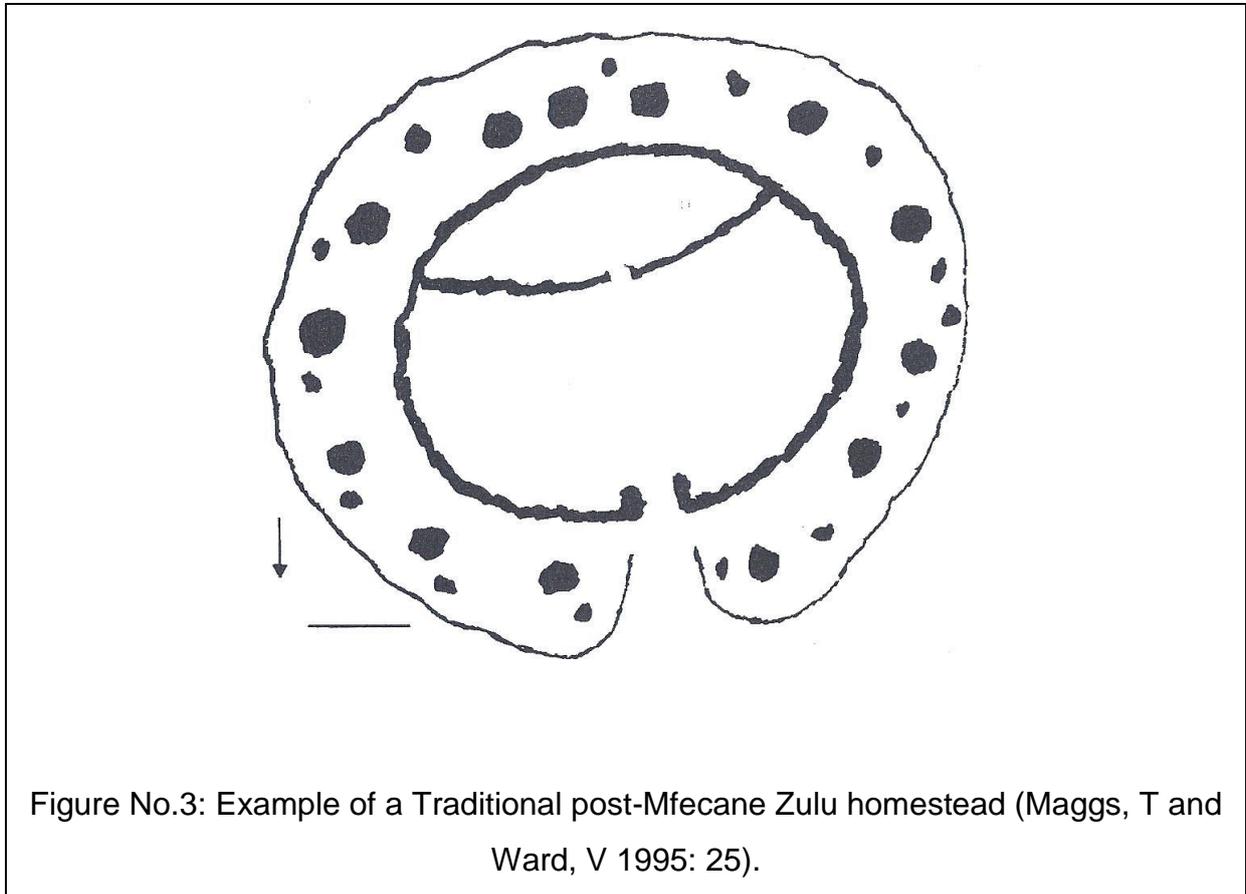
Figure No.2: shows an Mgoduyanuka site engraving on the farm Hattingsvlakte near Colenso (Maggs, T. 1998: 20).

b) Post-colonial, historical or traditional Zulu homesteads dating from the 1820s in the Savannah areas marginal to the grasslands of the Thukela Basin

In the Savannah areas marginal to the grasslands of the Thukela Basin, the post-colonial, Historical or Traditional Zulu Homestead pattern occurs that makes out a central cattle pen surrounded by huts and an outer periphery wall (Maggs, Tim and Ward, Val, 1995: 24-25).

The entrance of the cattle pen faces down-hill in the majority of 19th century and even contemporary Zulu homesteads (Maggs, T and Ward, V 1995: 24). The Colonial style homestead shows more structural detail as not only the huts, but also the grain bins next to each hut were indicated as well as calf-pens that were built as secondary structures inside the central livestock pen at the uphill end (Maggs, T & Ward, V 1995: 25). Sometimes two or three calf pens were engraved inside the main cattle pen (Maggs, T & Ward, V 1995: 26). Sheep and goat pens were never inside a

cattle pen since they were engraved close to the homestead or attached to the outer wall of the central cattle pen (Maggs, T and Ward, V 1995: 27).



Interpretation of the rock art engraving and geometric representation above

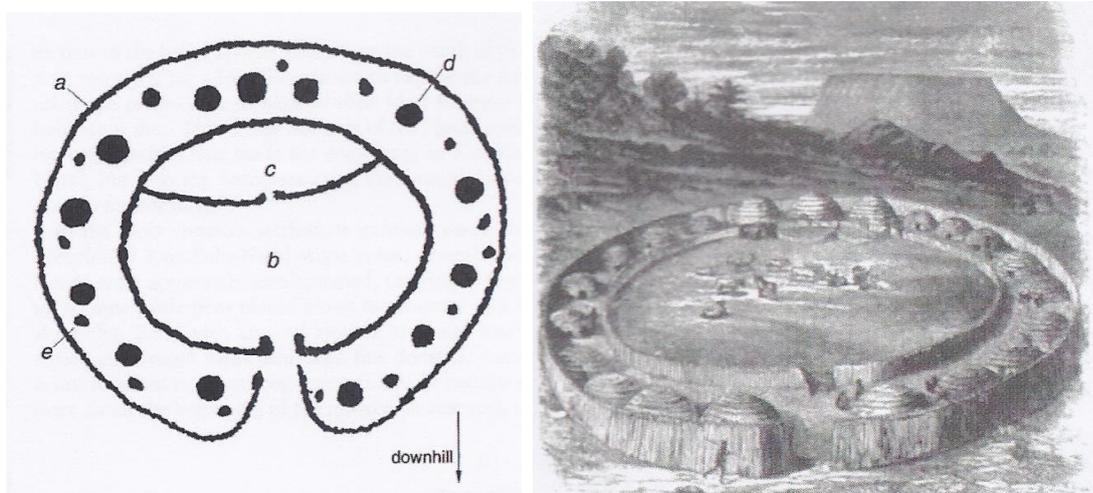


Figure No. 4: Display a Historical or Modern Post-1820s contact Iron Age Site. Figure No.5 displays a sketch of such site.

Key:

- a) Periphery wall, this wall only appeared in historical times or the contact phase.
- b) Cattle pen
- c) Calf pen
- d) Hut
- e) Grain bin

Example of a more detailed settlement pattern interpretation that will also be erected at this site

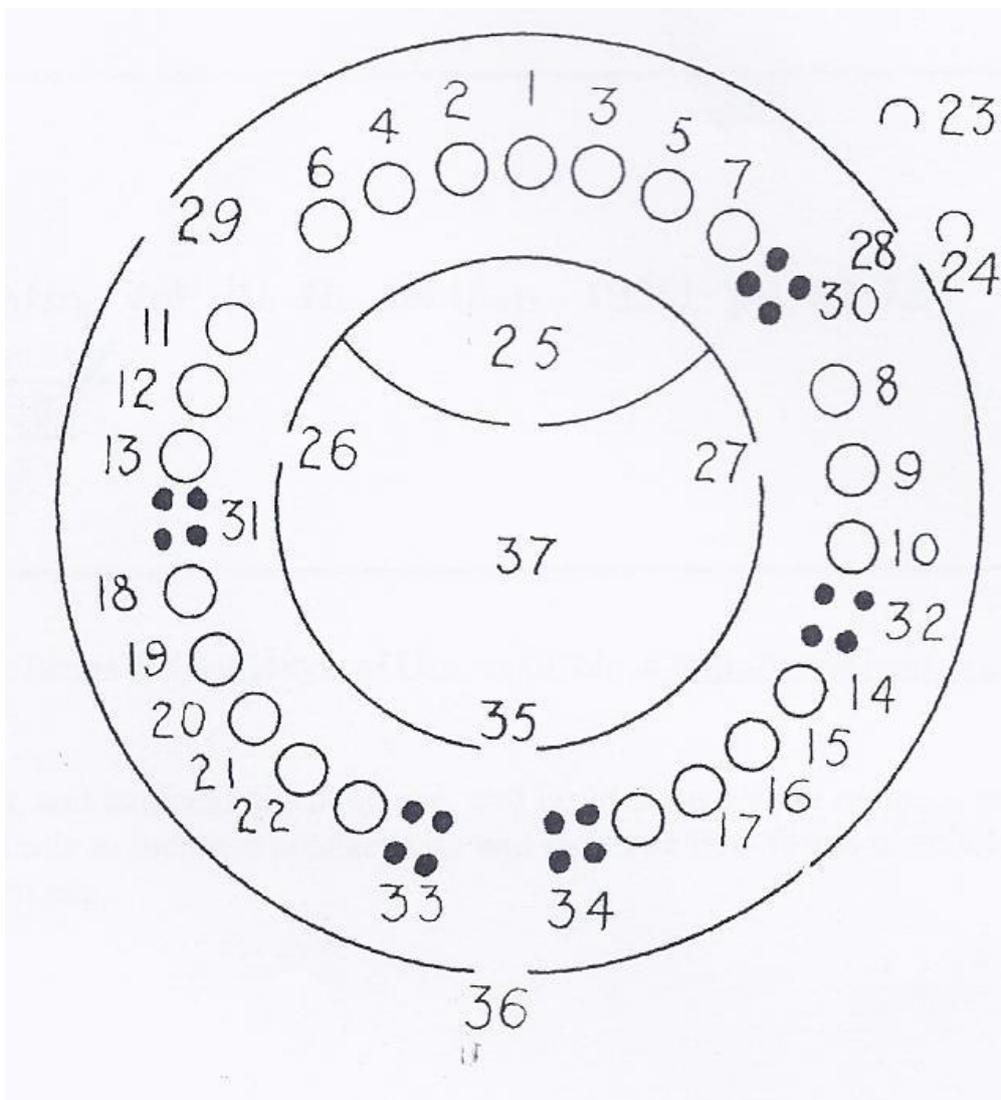


Figure No. 5: Displays a more detailed settlement pattern.

Zulu village (reproduced with permission of Dr. E. J. Krige from her book, *The Social System of the Zulu*). 1, Indlunkulu, or hut of Great Wife; 2-7, Huts of wives affiliated to the Indlunkulu; 8, Hut of inGqadi or Right-hand wife; 9-10, Huts affiliated to inGqadi; 11, Huts of iKohlwa or subordinate wife; 12-13, Huts of wives affiliated to iKohlwa; 14-22, Huts for sons who have not left the village, boys, girls, gate-keepers, deposed Great Wife, visitors, messengers, etc.; 23-24, Kraals for goats and sheep; 25, Enclosure for calves; 26, Small entrance to cattle kraal, iKohlwa side; 27, Small entrance to cattle kraal, indlunkulu side; 28, Private entrance to village, indlunkulu side; 29, Private entrance to village, iKohlwa side; 30-34, Storage huts for grain, vegetables and beer; 35, Main entrance to cattle kraal; 36, Main entrance to village; 37, Cattle kraal.

Figure No. 6: Interpretation of the lay-out of Figure No. 18.

BACKGROUND HISTORY OF ITHALA

Introduction

The Ithala Game Reserve (IGR) draws its name from the Thalu River which flows through the Game Reserve and from the word “Ithala” which means “hidden shelf where valuables are stored” (EKZNW Integrated Management Plan 2009-2013).

The IGR covers an area of 29 653ha and lies, between the town of Louwsburg and the Phongola River. The reserve is 50km from Vryheid. IGR is bordered by commercial landowners on the eastern and western boundaries, traditional authority areas on the northern boundary and commercial landowners and the town of Louwsburg on the southern boundary (EKZNW Integrated Management Plan 2009-2013).

State formation originated in this area

To go back to the earlier history of the inhabitants of this area: from the mid-1700s inhabitants of the Phongola-Mzimkhulu region lived in numerous, small-scale political units which varied in size from 100-1000km² with a population of 1000 people or fewer under a political structure known as a chiefdom. The ruling chief exercised a light-felt “managerial” and ritual authority over people who recognised his rule and paid tribute to him (Duminy, A & Guest, B 1989: 58).

This type of community was made up of a fluctuating number of local communities composed by shifting clusters of homesteads based on ties of kinship (real and fictive), client-ship and marriage (Duminy, A & Guest, B 1989: 58).

Political cohesion was achieved via an act of allegiance from the chief subordinates through the partial redistribution of accumulated tribute by the chief to important political adherents (Duminy, A & Guest, B 1989: 58).

Communities were generally fluid and unstable and entities enlarged, split up, formed and reformed, peacefully as well as violently as people fought over material resources. This fluidity and instability is because power was not centralised and the chief was therefore not able to command enough men to confront factions. Even if the chief allocated land, the notion that land was commonly held prevented the emergence of marked imbalances in

distribution of power. However from the mid-1700s and especially after 1775 changes occurred and one chief could sub-ordinate others by means of manipulating rights to local resources. This happened because they obtained power over strategic points in trading routes in the area of the Thukela River and Delagoa Bay. These chiefs had greater wealth and could attract more adherents. They could also apply more coercive force, but not to such a scale to incorporate other groups under their direct control. The subordinate groups were still a bit autonomous in varying degrees. Even if these chiefs who controlled the trade route had more power, they still did not have a permanent and centrally controlled apparatus of repression and exploitation since they were not fully fledged states yet (Duminy, A & Guest, B 1989: 58-59).

State formation, political centralisation and geographical expansion took place in three distinct areas: East of Maputo River where the Mabhudu chiefdom was located; in Northern Zululand at Magudu where the Ndwandwe chiefdom was located and between the Mfolozi and Mhlathuze Rivers, where Dingiswayo's Mthethwa was established (Duminy, A & Guest, B 1989: 59).

Different researchers introduced different reasons for state formation. For instance Bryant thought this process was initialised by great men like Shaka; while Gluckman and Omer-Cooper thought the process was initialised because of competition over resources because of decline in productivity referring to agricultural and grazing land because of unscientific farming procedures. Though, the real reason for state formation and centralisation was the effects of international trade as well as changes in the functions performed by bodies of young men known as the "*amabutho*". They were originally circumcision schools of men of the same age, who recognised the chief's authority, for purpose of going through rituals that marked change to manhood from youth. These men were periodically under the ritual authority of the ruling chief and could be used for the chief's own services. The "*amabutho*" hunted elephant on the chief's behalf. The ivory obtained functioned as a source of wealth and prestige goods. Wealth then enlarged the chief's dependants and increased his coercive power from imported goods through trade as well as tribute received from subordinates, especially in the form of cattle. The wealthy chief could distribute more of these products to significant subordinate chiefs. Secondly, the "*amabutho*" was now used excessively to hunt elephant, maintain political subordination of lesser chiefdoms and to extract increased tribute from them. The militarisation of the "*amabutho*", linked with international trade, led to state formation: the Mabhudu, Ndwandwe and Mthethwa were growing and expanding

geographically in the late 1700s and were the first three states. The change of the amabutho's role was the clearest in the earliest forms of state formation of Dingiswayo's Mthethwa with the reign of Khayi from the last quarter of the 18th century; and especially under the rule of Dingiswayo. Changes meant that chiefdoms that were subjected were no longer incorporated into the core group who claimed kinship to the ruling class but were placed on a secondary stratum (Duminy, A & Guest, B 1989: 61-66).

Emphasis on the same origin was now placed on the distinction between the older or core groups and newly subjected ones who were excluded from rights and privileges; and subjected to demands and tribute for cattle and labour. A similar two-phase pattern was established by the Ndwandwe group, but it was not as clear as with the Mthethwa group.

Other groups that started with state formation after the Mthethwa and Ndwandwe group but who were less centralised² are: the Qwabe at the coastal region south of Mhlatuze; the Mbo and Ngcobo in the Thukela Valley; the Hlubi at Uzinyathi/Buffalo River and the Dlamini and Ngwane at Swaziland.

By 1810 the rivalry between Dingiswayo's Mthethwa and Zwide's Ndwandwe was the biggest. In the early 1800s competition worsened because of draughts called, Madlathule³. The bay was not good any more for grazing and cattle had to be raided in the south.

Later, when there was a decline in the ivory trade at Delagoa Bay, trade in cattle raised because of British and American whalers who used the Bay to obtain meat. As cattle was needed, wars for territorial conquest to obtain more grazing land under permanent control of expanding chiefdoms as well as more cattle, became a structural necessity. This process increased in the early 1800s. More cattle was needed to distribute as reward amongst "amabutho"⁴, because of greater defensive need of the chiefdoms on the peripheries of the expanding Ndwandwe and Mthethwa who developed because of trading, located between the Thukela and Buffalo/uMzinyathi Rivers and stretching into the Valley of Phongola.

Battles between the Ndwandwe, Mthethwa and Shaka's Zulu groups

In 1816 the battle between the Ndwandwe and Mthethwa occurred. They were facing each other across a frontier between the mouth of the Mfolozi River, in the area of Vryheid. In

² They could not obtain close control over subjected groups and the distinction between the dominant and subordinate groups were not that clear.

³ Or...let him eat and remain silent.

⁴ The militarization of the "amabutho" started at least in the early 1800s.

1817 Zwidwe's Ndwandwe attacked Dingiswayo's Mthethwa and Dingiswayo was killed. Zwide now ruled the area from the Phongola River to the Tugela River. However, because of the strategies applied by the upcoming Zulu leader called Shaka, Zwide attacked again but Shaka succeeded in defending his area and the Ndwandwe had to retreat. In 1819, Zwidwe launched a third attack against iNkosi uShaka at the Mhlatuze River and the Ndwandwe was defeated. The Zulus drove Zwidwe over the Phongola River. The Zulu people now reigned over the area between the Phongola and Thukela Rivers (Duminy, A & Guest, B 1989: 67).

The reason for the Zulus success was less Shaka's role as the legendary founder of the Zulu nation but more the increased militarisation of the *amabutho* system: after the defeat of the Ndwandwe a great number of rebellious chiefdoms who have suddenly been subjected under Zulu rule, had their young men taken by Shaka and drawn into his *amabutho* militarised units. These young men were now occupying specially built royal homesteads also called *amakhanda* and they were forbid to marry without the *iNkosi's* authority.

The *amabutho* system diverted labour from fathers' homesteads or *umuzis* for state purpose; the young men were socialised to identify Shaka as their leader and source of welfare. Different *amabuthos* had different statuses as they were organised to serve specific individuals which lead to a more fixed hierarchy.

Gender: Female *ibutho*

Female *ibutho* also existed; this placed the productive and reproductive value of women also under state regulations. These girls were placed into groups according to their age and were permitted only to marry a man from a male *amabutho* specified by the *iNkosi* (Duminy, A & Guest, B 1989: 70).

These women were housed at the *Nkosi's isigodlo*, and they were gifts from important subjects or minor chiefs; and kept physically secluded in the royal quarters at the *iNkosi's amakhanda*. In popular terms they were seen as functioning as a harem, however, these women were actually the *iNkosi's* "sisters" and "daughters" at his dispose to marry to wealthy men. In return the *iNkosi* would obtain bride wealth (Duminy, A & Guest, B 1989: 70).

State formation resulted in a change of gender roles in the homestead structure, and although some women of the Zulu aristocracy were able to attain very high status and wealth as heads of *amakhanda*, the most women were now not only subordinate to their fathers and husbands,

but also to the *iNkosi*. Women had to do more labour at home, since the men were taken as soldiers in the *amabutho* system (Duminy, A & Guest, B 1989: 70-71).

The expansion of Shaka's power

The larger the Zulu society got, the more cattle and grazing was needed and in 1819 the Zulus extended their control over chiefdoms that were previously tributary's to Zwide and more northwards to extract tribute from the Mabhudu. The Zulu group also kept control over trade routes to Delagoa Bay. In the early 1820s groups in the Lower Thukela and coastal areas became clients of the Zulus and in 1825 Shaka started to raid in Mpondo country.

In 1826, Shaka moved his capitol from Buluwayo (near Eshowe) to Dukuza (near Stanger) and colonised the coastal region between the Thukela and Mkhomazi Rivers by establishing *amabuhto* and groups of royal cattle posts. This brought Shaka close to the British traders at Port Natal by 1824.

The three tiers of the Zulu state

The first one included the king and aristocracy of the Zulu ruling house as well as associated groups included in the first stage of expansion. The second tier, also known as the *amatungwa*, included the rest of the Zulu chiefdoms from where the *amabutho* were drawn. Their labour power underpinned the existence of the Zulu state. The third and last tier included the *amalala* (menials), *amanhlwenga* (destitutes) and *iziyendane* (those with a strange hair style) (Duminy, A & Guest, B 1989: 72).

More recent or historical background of Ithala during the contact phase (or phase of contact with Europeans)

- a) Battle between the Boers, assisted by King Mpande (specifically King Mpande's military commander, iNkosi Nongalaza), iNkosi Matiwane⁵ and Jobe⁶ against King Dingane in beginning of 1840

In October 1839 Prince Mpande and 17 000 of his followers with 27 000 cattle, fled south of the Thukela River to Mvoti to seek sanctuary amongst the Dutch Boers in Natal, since

⁵ iNkosi Matiwane's Ngwane stayed close to the area of where Elandsplaagte is located today.

⁶ Jobe's two sons offered their services to the Boers. Jobe stayed at the area where the Sunday and Washbank Rivers joined.

Mpande became disillusioned by the savagery of his half-brother, King Dingane. In exchange for protection, Mpande agreed to join the Boers against King Dingane who lost a lot of cattle, looted by King Dingane (Van der Walt, J.C. 2006: 38). The Boers wanted to avenge the death of 532 people, including 56 women and 185 children of their own at Blaauwkrantz and the looting of 25 000 cattle, 40 000 sheep and some horses, that took place on 17 February 1838. Pretorius's objectives also included that each Boer could catch two Zulu children to be taken as apprentices and indentured as unpaid domestic workers until the age of 21 years; Pretorius wanted to annex a large part of Zululand to obtain St Lucia Bay that could function as an independent harbour (Van der Walt, J.C. 2006: 29, 39).

To appease the Boers, King Dingane's iNkosi Ndlela returned to Umngeni River with 60 tusks of ivory. Later King Dingane also returned 50 oxen and 316 horses to the Boers. The third in command to King Dingane, iNkosi Dambuzu⁷ and his servant, Kombazana also took 20 cattle to the Boers as compensation from Dingane in January 1840. However, the Dutch thought they were spies and Prince Mpande urged the Boers to kill iNkosi Dambuza. Both Dambuza and Kombazana were court-martialled, found guilty of murder and shot (Van der Walt, J.C. 2006: 39). Mpande said it was Dambuza who suggested that Dingane kill Piet Retief and his party and that Dambuza was in charge of the iMpi that killed the women and children at Blaauwkrantz. Mpande stated that Dingane murdered his own people, including women and children; and that Dingane also took him (Mpande) to KwaMatiwane but his mother pleaded with Dingane to spare his life (Van der Walt, J.C. 2006: 40).

The so-called "Cattle Commando" consisting of 335 Boers on horseback and 60 wagons, left Sodwall Laager near Winterton on 15 January 1840 (Van der Walt, J.C. 2006: 39). While the Dutch travelled from the west, Jobe's sons, Matiwane's Ngwane and iNkosi Nongalaza travelled a separate coastal route via the drift on the Lower Thukela River, then via Empangeni towards the amaMaqnoqo Hills near present day Magudu. The Dutch followed their offensive route from Sodwall Laager to the Washbank River by 27 January 1840, or close to where Dundee is today. From there they moved to Steenkoolspruit, Sandspruit, Buffalo River and then to Blood River/Ncome, from here they moved in the direction of Ntabankulu (where Gluckstad is today) (Jansen, E.G. 1938: 89-93). This was the same route taken during the Battle of Blood River.

⁷ He was the commander of the Zulu iMpi who attacked the Dutch at Blaauwkrantz and he was also one of the commanders during the Battle of Blood River or Ncome.

When the Dutch were at Blood River on 29 December 1840, news reached their commando on 30 December 1840 that the iMpi of nKosi Nongalaza had defeated the iMpi of Dingane: the iMpi of Mpande destroyed two regiments of Dingane, while a third joined Mpande's iMpi. About 2000 Zulus died in the battle of the Cattle Commando or the Battle of amaQongqo Hills (Van der Walt, J.C. 2006: 40). Pretorius even looted cattle and informed his men to hunt down Dingane's followers as far as the uPhongola River in the vicinity of Leeupoort and Golela. The Boers obtained approximately 40 000 cattle and more than 1 000 children during their expedition. On 10 February 1840 Pretorius crowned Mpande as King of the Zulu Nation to succeed King Dingane (Van der Walt, J.C. 2006: 41).

On 14 February 1840, Pretorius annexed the area between the Thukela River in the south and the iMfolozi River in the north, including St Lucia Bay as the property of "De Volksraad der Suid-Afrikaanse Maatschappij". The annexed territory was to compensate the Boers for the cost of war and ammunition. The Republic of Natalia now stretched from the uMzimvubu River (Port St. Johns) in the south to the Black iMfolozi in the north (P.H. Zietsman, the War Secretary recorded this) (Van der Walt, J.C. 2006: 41).

On 24 February 1840 the distribution of 40 000 cattle commenced at Klip River. During April 1840 five Swazis arrived at Pietermaritzburg with news that King Dingane had been murdered in Swaziland. They provided the Swazis with King Dingane's copper arm bands as proof of his death. Pretorius rewarded them with 25 cattle and five blankets (Van der Walt, J.C. 2006: 43).

b) Battle of eTshaneni Mountain/Ghost Mountain featuring two groups of Zulu adversaries: iNkosi Zibhebu against Prince Dinizulu and his allies, the Boers in 1884

Originally the land was given by King DiniZulu (of the Usuthu) to the Dutch colonists who assisted him in his battle against the Uzibhebhu (EKZNW Integrated Management Plan 2009-2013).

At the end of the Anglo-Zulu War of 1879, the British government divided Zululand into thirteen regions and the British placed them under the authority of *amakhosi* who had been loyal to the British throne (accordingly not the traditional *amakhosis*). King Chetshwayo was incarcerated in the Castle of Cape Town (<http://www.battlefieldsroute.co.za/the-zulu-civil-war/>).

When the British granted Cetshwayo permission to return to Ondini, several skirmishes took place between Cetshwayo and his Usutu supported by the Royalist amabutho (the emGazini and the Buthelezi groups) against Sibhebhu's Mandlakazi group on 30 March 1883 in Msebe River Valley (<http://www.battlefieldsroute.co.za/the-zulu-civil-war/>). nKosi Zibhebhu and nKosi Hamu was supported by their white mercenaries, Johan Colenbrander, John Eckersley and Grosvenor Darke, killed 4000 of Cetshwayo's people (Van der Walt, J.C. 2006; 143).

On the 21st of July 1883 Zibhebhu's Mandlakazi attacked Ondini and Cetshwayo barely escaped with his life to take refuge at the Shezi community in the Mome Gorge and was resettled in Eshowe by Sir Melmoth Osborne (<http://www.battlefieldsroute.co.za/battle-of-ondini/>). Zibhebhu's Mandlakazi kept on killing the uSuthu and Dinizulu's advisors informed him to contact the Boers of the Transvaal (Van der Walt, J.C. 2006: 143). On 21 May 1884, at Zalflaager, near Hlobane, they poured a bottle of castor oil over Prince Dinizulu's head and anointed him King of the Zulu Nation. Urged on by Dinizulu's adviser, Ndabankulu of the Ntombela and Mehlokazulu kaSihayo, 100 Boers under Louis Botha, Lucas Meijer, as well as some Germans from Luneberg, some English, Scottish and Irish adventurers also joined Dinizulu and his 1000 Usuthu warriors, in his fight against Zibhebhu and his 3000 Mandlakazi warriors (Van der Walt, J.C. 2006: 143-144; Gillings, Ken, 2011: 29-30).

After fighting the Battle of eTshaneni/Ghost Mountain on 5 June 1884, the might of the Mandlakazi was broke and on 16 August 1884 Dinizulu signed a document on behalf of the Zulu Royal House agreeing to the Boer land claim. The Boers obtained 2 710 000 acres or 13 600 km² from DiniZulu whereupon they established the Nieuwe Republiek (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nieuwe_Republiek). This included the best grazing land and a corridor to St Lucia Bay as a proposed harbour. Vryheid was the new capital as well as the town of Melmoth in the Proviso B area. In October 1886 the British government recognised the Boers as the legal owners of farms in Zululand, but after Fred Markham discovered gold in Zululand in July 1886, the British annexed Zululand as a Colony in 1887 (Van der Walt, J.C. 2006: 144-145).

The Zulu Civil war (1880-1884) led to the final economic destruction of the Zulu people. Their cattle wealth was destroyed even more by the rinderpest and severe drought. Most of the young men now had to go and work as paid labourers in Natal and Transvaal (Van der Walt, J.C. 2006: 145).

The farming activities of the Boers caused much of the soil erosion in Ithala as well as the fact that it was used as a “labour-farm” afterwards, where Zulu people’s families stayed behind when they went to work in the Colony of Natal or in the Zuid-Afrikaansche Republic/Transvaal.

Survey of Mining sites: Pre-colonial and Colonial

Pre-colonial mine

On a grassy ridge, not far from Nthondwe Camp, is a Late Iron Age mining site.

Iron Smelting

The melting point of iron is 1 537°C for pure iron

Method of producing iron

- Alternative layers of iron ore , charcoal and flux/melting ingredient depending on the type of iron ore is added: if the iron ore contains lime, quarts or granite flux is added; if the iron ore contains silica, lime is added as flux.
- Oxygen is fed to the oven from its bottom via clay nozzles called tuyères.
- The air blown into the bottom gets heated to between 500-600°C.
- Oxygen in the air binds with the carbon in the charcoal
- and carbon dioxide is formed,
- which then turns into carbon monoxide.
- The heat generated by this chemical reaction contains the temperature at $\pm 1\ 500^{\circ}\text{C}$ inside the oven.
- The stream of upward moving gasses mixes with the material being introduced from the top of the oven.
- At a temperature of between 1 100°C to 1 200°C the iron ore starts to melt.
- The iron ore reacts with the carbon in the charcoal and turns into a liquid form.
- The upward moving carbon monoxide reduces the iron oxide to iron.
- Slag forms because of the reaction between the iron ore and the flux (material to allow melting of the ore).
- The function of the flux is to remove impurities from the iron ore
- to produce a melted slag/silica
- The melted iron collects at the bottom of the oven beneath a layer of slag.
- Every 3-6 hours the iron at the bottom of the oven, that still contains impurities is reworked again.
- The slag is drained every couple of hours.

Material artefacts find at smelting sites

- Hard clay floors

- An oven that can be tall or sometimes 80cm high and 60cm wide
- Charcoal
- Flux such as pieces of granite/quartz or lime
- Rock hammer
- Rock anvil to beat iron ore
- Pieces of the clay nozzles or tuyères
- Iron tools such as hammers or assegai spear blades or hoes
- Potsherds are also sometimes present at these sites

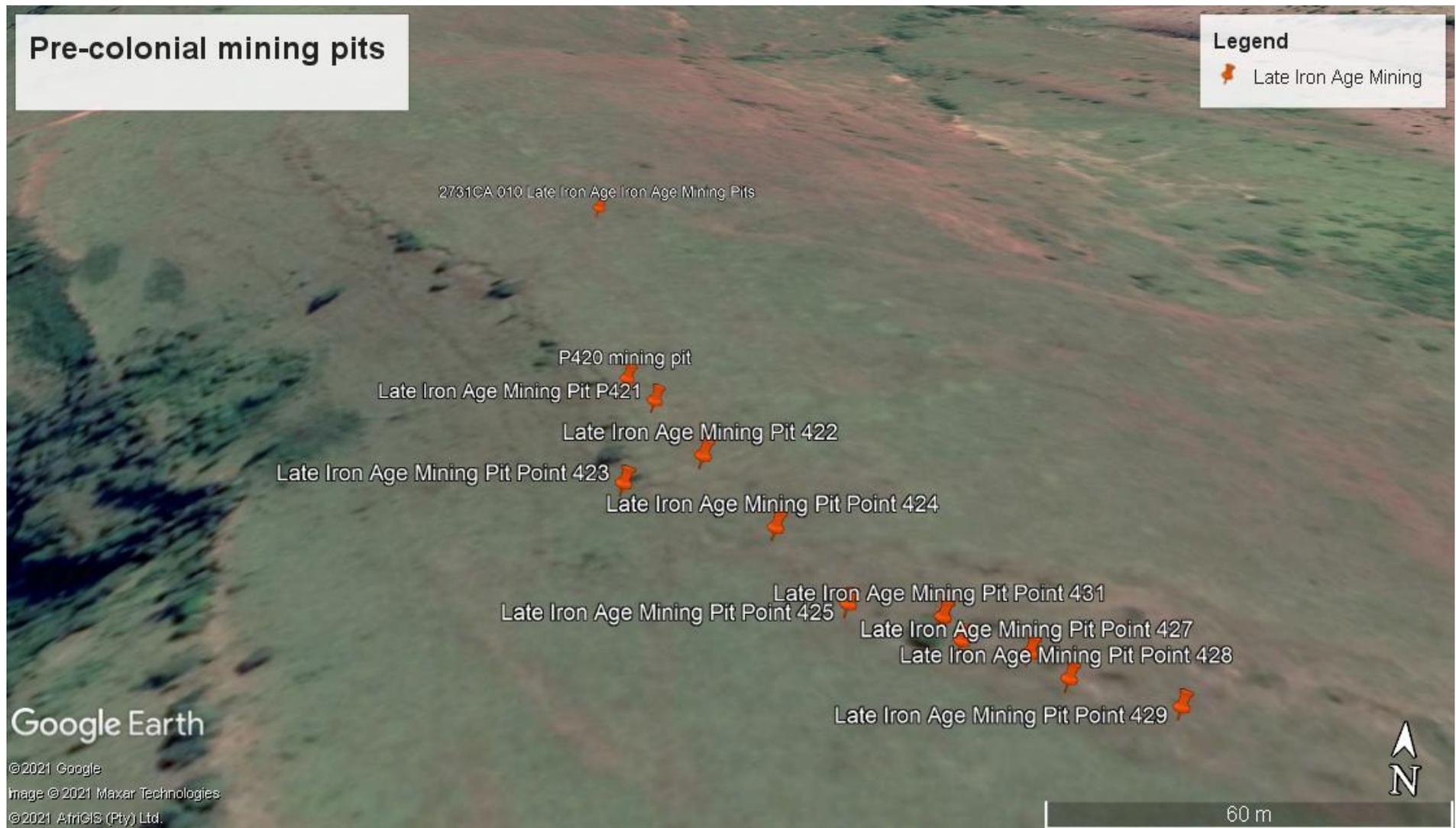


Figure No.7: Pre-colonial Late Iron Age Mining Pits (2021 Google, 2021 AfriGIS (Pty) Ltd, storage: the Institute).

Point 420 on the Google Earth Pro Map

Accuracy: 4m

Elevation: 971, 43m

GPS coordinates: S27°31'01.2" E31°14'08.8"

Size: 2mx3m diametre



Figure No.8: Pre-colonial mining pit, number one, Point 420 (Rossouw, C. 15 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Pre-colonial mining pit, number two, within 5m from Point 420



Figure No.9: Pre-colonial mining pit number two (Rossouw, C. 15 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Point 421 on Google Earth Map

Accuracy: 5m

Elevation: 975, 39m

GPS coordinates: S27°31'01.6" E31°14'09.1"

Size: 5mx3m



Figure No.10: Pre-colonial mining pit number three (Rossouw, C. 15 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Point 422 on Google Earth Pro Map

Accuracy: 5m

Elevation: 975m

GPS coordinates: S27°31'02.5" E31°14'09.6"



Figure No.11: Pre-colonial mine number four (Rossouw, C. 15 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Point 423 on Google Earth Map, pit number Five

Accuracy: 5m

Elevation: 976m

GPS coordinates: S27°31'02.7" E31°14'09.6"

Size: ½-1m deep and 2mx3½m



Figure No.12: Pre-colonial mine number five (Rossouw, C. 15 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Pre-colonial pit number six, within 5m of Point 423



Figure No.13: Pre-colonial pit number six (Rossouw, C. 15 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Point 424 on Google Earth Pro, Pit Number Seven

Accuracy: 5m

Elevation: 978m

GPS coordinates: S27°31'03.4" E31°14'10.2"

Size: 3½mx2m and ½ deep



Figure No.14: Pre-colonial mining pit number seven (Rossouw, C. 15 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Point 425 on Google Earth Pro, Pre-colonial Mining Pit Number Eight

Accuracy: 5m

Elevation: 974m

GPS Coordinates: S27°31'04.1" E31°14'10.7"

Size: 7mx2m



Figure No.15: Pre-colonial mining pit number eight (Rossouw, C. 15 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Point 426 to Point 427 pre-colonial mining pit number nine (elongated trench)

Accuracy: 5m

Point 426 – start of the mining pit

Elevation: 979m

GPS coordinates: S27°31'04.4" E31°14'11.4"

Point 427 – end of mining pit

Elevation: 979m

GPS coordinates: S27°31'04.5" E31°14'11.8"

Size: 15m long, 1m deep and 2½m wide

Point 428 Pre-colonial Mining Pit Number Ten

Accuracy: 5m

Elevation: 979m

GPS coordinates: S27°31'04.7" E31°14'12.0"

Size: 6mx3m and 1½m deep.



Figure No.16: Pre-colonial mining pit number ten (Rossouw, C. 15 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Point 429 on Google Earth Pro, Pre-colonial Mining Pit Number Eleven

Accuracy: 5m

Elevation: 978m

GPS coordinates: S27°31'04.9" E31°14'12.6"

Size: 8mx3m and 1m deep



Figure No.17: Pre-colonial mining pit number eleven (Rossouw, C. 15 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Point 430 on Google Earth Pro, Pre-colonial Mining Pit Number Twelve

Accuracy: 4m

Elevation: 978m

GPS coordinates: S27°31'05.2" E31°14'13.1"

Size: 5mx6m and 2m deep



Figure No.18: Pre-colonial mining pit number twelve (Rossouw, C. 15 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Point Number 431 Pre-colonial Mining Pit Number Thirteen

Accuracy: 4m

Elevation: 978m

GPS coordinates: S27°31'04.2 E31°14'11.3"

Size: 4mx2m and 1m deep



Figure No.19: Pre-colonial mining pit number thirteen (Rossouw, C. 15 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Colonial Mines – The Wonder Gold Mine

This mine lies up a steep-sided valley about two kilometres from the Pongola River and is located on the farm, Wonderfontein. Prospecting occurred over this territory in the closing part of the 19th century and the opening of the present century.

On Wonderfontein, gold bearing quartz is found in reefs, where the quartz occurs as lenses in the shale, which are irregularly distributed. The reefs vary in thickness from 1,2m to a few to a few centimetres.

Under the management of Mr Seal, actual mining commenced in April 1905; and when the Inspector of Mines visited the site in July 1905, he found three European miners, including Mr Seal and 20 labourers working there. He documented that an adit (horizontal tunnel as opposed to a vertical shaft) was driven in on the reef for 41m. A sump (a minor connection between different levels of a mine dug downwards from a higher level. When worked upwards from a higher level, it is called a raise) measuring 12m, was also recorded at the time. The Inspector also reported that a cross-cut (a tunnel dug through country rock in order to reach the reef) had been driven through the rock, measuring 23m. This cross-cut was expected to meet the reef at about 26m.

The gold was in the greatest quantity where the quartz was most solid, and where the quartz was most friable and somewhat banded, the gold values were lowest.

The mine opened and closed several times up to 1938 (EKZNW, Commercial Operations, The Story of Gold Mining in the Ithala Game Reserve: 2-6).

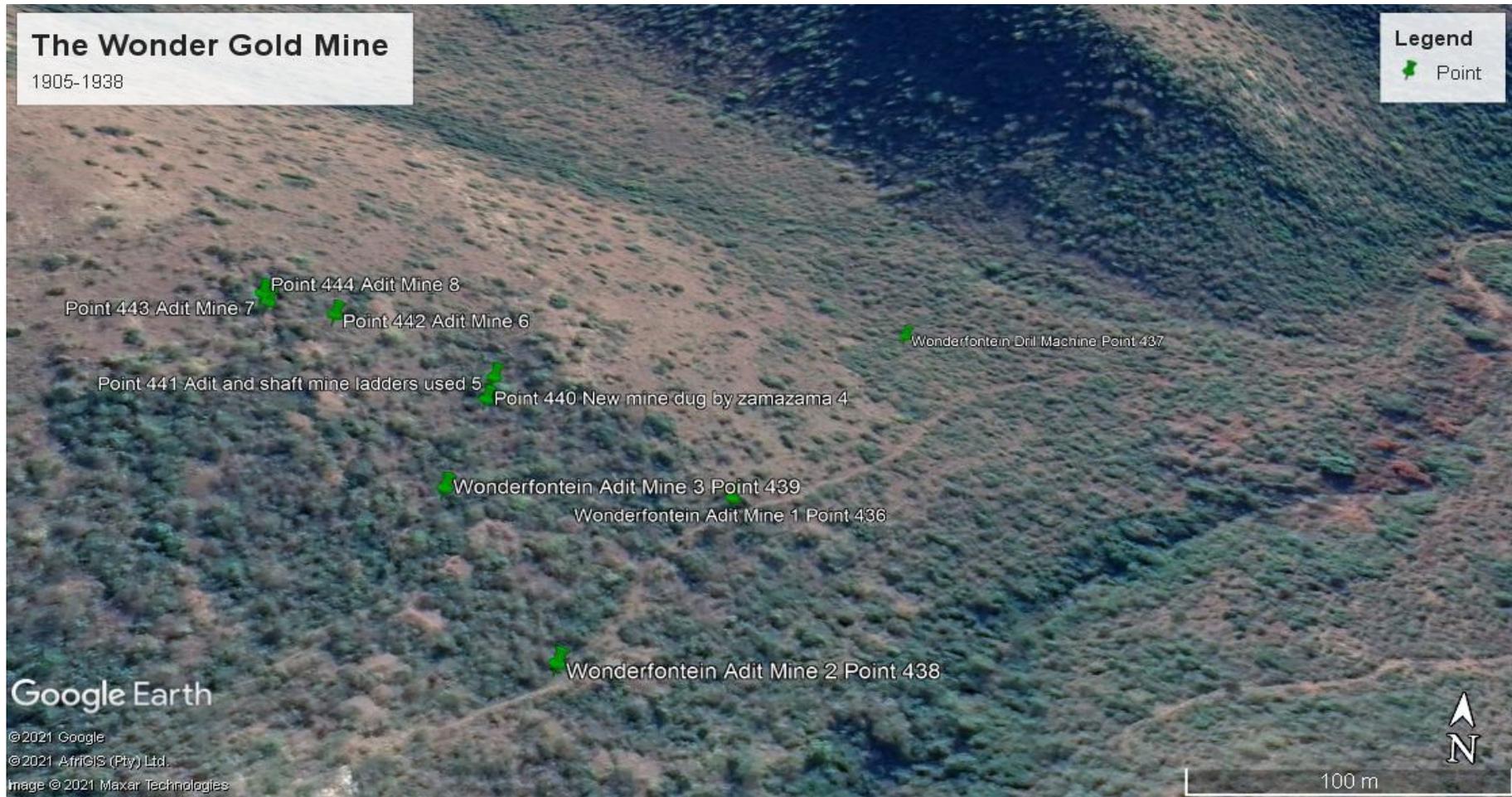


Figure No.20: Historical features at the Wonder Mine (Rossouw, C. 15 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Point 437: mining equipment at Wonder Mine

GPS coordinates: S27°28'13.9 E31°15'02.6"



Figure No.21: Mining Equipment, Robey & Co. Ltd Makers, No. 22463, Working Pressure 100LBS per SQ.INC at Wonder Mine (Rossouw, C. 17 March 2021, storage: the Institute).



Figure No.22: Drilling equipment, Ruenart & Lenz 58E (Rossouw, C. 17 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Point 438 Adit Mine

GPS coordinates: S27°28'13.5" E31°15'01.3"

Size: 2mx1m



Figure No.23: Adit mine with coco-pan train truck and some broken tracks in front of the mine (Rossouw, C. 17 March 2021, storage: the Institute).



Figure No.24: Coco-pan and part of a Sirocco Portable Fan 7658 (Rossouw, C. 17 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Point 439 Adit mine

GPS coordinates: S27°28'11.8" E31°14'59.7"

Accuracy: 5m

Size: 2½mx2m



Figure No.25: Adit Mine at Wonderfontein with “zama-zama” or illegal miners inside (Rossouw, C. 17 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Risk: the “Zama-zama” miners are using this cave as a “house”.

Point 440: a new mine, in the process of being dug by the Zama-zama

GPS coordinates: S27°28'10.3" E31°14'59.8"

Size: 1mx1m



Figure No.26: A new mine being dug by the “Zama-zama” miners (Rossouw, C. 17 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Point 441: shaft mine

This mine is a rare example of a shaft mine amongst the majority of adit mines and ladders were used.

GPS coordinates: S27°28'09.9" E31°14'59.8"

This mine is just above the illegal mine, in the process of being dug by the “Zama-zama”.

Size: 3mx2m



Figure No.27: The first shaft mine documented in the Wonder Mine Complex (Rossouw, C. 17 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Point 442: neatly dug adit mine

Accuracy: 8m

GPS coordinates: S27°28'09.9" E31°14'57.9"

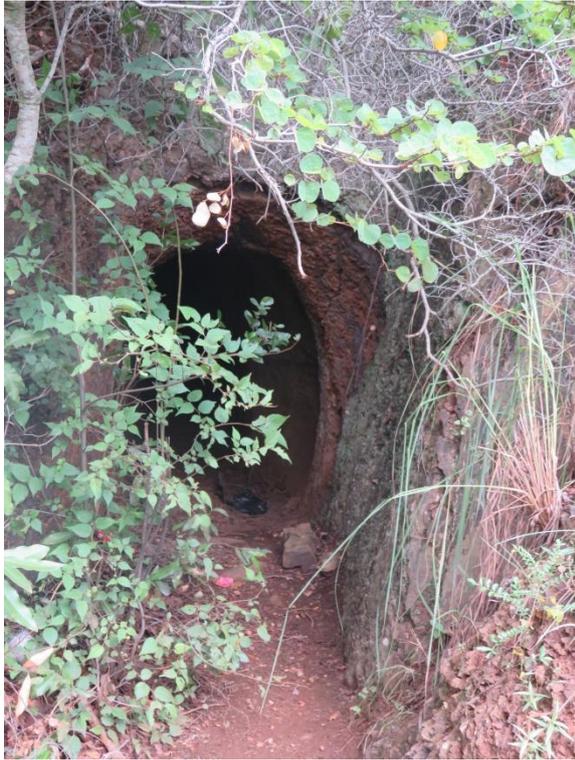


Figure No.28: A very neatly dug adit mine measuring 2½mx1m (Rossouw, C. 17 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Point 443: Three adit mines

GPS coordinates: S27°28'10.1" E31°14'57.2"

Size: 2½mx1m



Figure No.29: Adit mine (Rossouw, C. 17 March 2021, storage: the Institute).



Figure No.30: Two adit mines in close proximity to the one above (Rossouw, C. 17 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Ngotshe Mine

The mine lies on the farm Vergelegen. Prospecting started as early as 1898. Formal mining commenced in late 1913 when Eureka Syndicate was formed by what the Mines Inspector described as a practical group of young men who worked for themselves. By the end of 1914 mining operations produced a total of 48 380kg fine gold. However, because of a lack of funding the Eureka Syndicate ceased operation at Vergelegen in July 1915.

The mine remained untouched until 1943 when Mr HH Smith established the Ngotshe Mine. He stayed over in Louwsburg over the weekend and worked during the week with a party of bearers. Dynamite was collected from Hlobane station in a Scotch cart drawn by oxen and the trip took two days.

In the late 1940s, Mr Smith obtained the services of Mr Wachsmutt who hailed from Louwsburg. Wachsmutt managed the mine on behalf of Mr Smith, who lived in Johannesburg. At the height of the activities, the mine employed four whites who lived in a cluster of rondavels above the mine and about 25 black people who were accommodated in a stone barrack near the stamp mill. After the Scotch cart was laid to rest, dynamite was transported to the mine in a converted army lorry.

After the departure of Mr Wachsmutt in the 1960s, the mine was managed by an ex-army man, Sergeant van der Merwe, who passed away in 1967.

The mine remained unworked until Ezemvelo KwaZulu-Natal Wildlife (then the Natal Parks Board) bought Vergelegen in 1973 as part of the Ithala Game Reserve.

Mining Methods

Mining methods were more modern than at Wonder Mine: drilling was accompanied by pneumatic drills and internal combustion engines were used to operate the winch which pulled the skips up the inclined shafts at the central and south workings.

Near the central working, a small assay furnace was used to measure the quantity of gold in the ore. Below the main workings, were located the stamp mill and reduction works. Ore from the various workings was carried there in a 4-wheel drive army lorry. The reduction works were supervised by a qualified metallurgist. The stamp battery was driven by a 6-cylinder lorry engine and the ore was fed into it by teams of black workers using wheel barrows.

The crushed rock and water oozing through the mesh covering the stamp blocks was treated in various ways. A vibrating table, called the James Table, floated off the lighter fractions or tailings while the ridge table gradually concentrated and collected the gold particles.

The finer gold particles, in the solution remained in the tailings. They were ducted through hydro-cyclone classifier which used the cyclone principle to concentrate further the heavy materials containing gold, while allowing the lighter materials to flow off as waste. After further concentration in settling tanks, the slime was pumped to cyanide tanks where cyanide was added and the resultant mixture agitated with compressed air in order to achieve thorough mixing. The cyanide had the effect of dissolving the gold, rendering the solid material relatively barren. Filtration then took place and the gold was precipitated out of the liquid by the addition of zinc. After this, calcining and smelting, took place in the smelt house (EKZNW, Commercial Operations, The Story of Gold Mining in the Ithala Game Reserve: 6-8).



Figure No.31: the Ngotshe Mine lies on the farm Vergelegen, a few kilometres south-east from the Wonder Mine at a much higher altitude (Google Earth Pro 2021, 2021 AfriGIS (Pty) Ltd, storage: the Institute).

Point 445: old ruin of a room/accommodation

GPS coordinates: S27°29'16.5" E31°17'06.4"



Figure No.32: Old house ruin (Rossouw, C. 17 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Point 446: old Chevrolet car wreck

GPS coordinates: S27°29'17.1" E31°17'00.4"



Figure No.33: Old Chevrolet wreck (Rossouw, C. 17 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Point 447: 4-wheel drive army truck was used to transport ore from various workings

GPS coordinate: S27°29'16.6" E31°17'00.1"



Figure No.34: Old 4-wheel drive army truck used to transport dynamite and ore (Rossouw, C. 17 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Point 448: Shaft mine

GPS coordinate: S27°29'16.0" E31°17'00.3"



Figure No.35: Shaft mine (Rossouw, C. 17 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Point 449: Shaft mine

GPS coordinate: S27°29'17.0" E31°16'59.1"



Figure No.36: Tank and pulley close to another shaft mine (Rossouw, C. 17 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Point 450: Dry stone barrack for black labourers close to the stamp mill

GPS coordinate: S27°29'24.6" E31°16'56.5"



Figure No.37: Dry stone wall barrack for black labourers (Rossouw, C. 17 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Point 451: Position close to the stamp mill (about 25m)

GPS coordinates: S27°29'27.7" E31°17'00.5"



Figure No.38: Stamp mill (Rossouw, C. 17 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

The direct GPS position of the stamp mill could not be taken as a bramble infestation blocked the way.

Point 452: Shaft mine

GPS coordinates: S27°29'18.8" E31°16'51.9"



Figure No.39: Shaft mine (Rossouw, C. 17 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

Point 453: Shaft mine

GPS coordinates: S27°31'31.8" E31°14'13.9"



Figure No.40: Shaft mine (Rossouw, C. 17 March 2021, storage: the Institute).

**Survey done by Elize Becker, Archaeology Department, Compliance Section of the KZN
Amafa & Research Institute in 2006**

The survey will include a copy of all the sites surveyed by Ms Becker as well as Google Earth Pro Maps, indicating the position of the surveyed features.

Number	Feature	GPS Coordinate
1.	Upper Grinding Stone	S 27 30.558 E 31 12.371'
2.	Grave	S 27 30.599' E 31 12.463
3.	Stone Tool Working Area	S 27 30.568' E 31 12.498'
4.	Bone	S 27 30.521 E 31 12.547'
5.	Middle and Late Stone Age	S 27 30.500' E 31 12.552'
6.	Burnt Pottery	S 27 30.488 E 31 12.552'
7.	Collapsed Stone Walls – Hilltop	S 27 30.474' E 31 12.556'
8.	Grave Site	S 27 30.524' E 31 12.592'
9.	Grinding Stone(Lower)	S 27 30.542' E 31 12.593'
10.	Grinding Stone (Lower)	S 27 30.540' E 31 12.601'
11.	Iron Age Site	S 27 30.603 E 31 12.616'
12.	Stone Tool Flakes	S 27 30 623' E 31 12.605'
13.	Upper Grinding Stone	S 27 30.654' E31 12.603'
14.	Stone Wall	S 27 30. 651' E 31 12.595
15.	Upper and Lower Grinding Stone	S 27 30.654' E 31 12.596'
16.	Spear Heads	S 27 30.561 E 31 12.619
17.	Late Stone Age Tools	S 27 30.561 E 31 12.619
18.	Stone Tool Flakes	S 27 30.647' E 31 12.600'
19.	Hut Floor	S 27 30.691 E 31 12.586'
20.	Stone Tool Flakes	S 27 30. 709' E 31 12.592'
21.	Stone Tool Flakes	S 27 30.728' E 31 12.561'
22.	Hut Floor	S 27 30.818' E 31 12.517'
23.	Hut Floor	S 27 30.825' E 31 12.499'
24.	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 30.829' E 31 12.487'
25.	Hut Floor	S 27 30.835' E 31 12.478'
26.	Flake Debris	S 27 30.647 E 31 12.600'
27.	Hut Floor	S 27 30.691 E 31 12.586'
28.	Iron Smelting	S 27 30.701' E 31 12.590'
29.	Flake Debris	S 27 30.709 E 31 12.592'
30.	Flake Debris	S 27 30.728 E 31 12.561'
31.	Hut Floor	S 27 30.818' E 31 12.499'
32.	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 30.829' E 31 12.487'
33.	Hut Floor	S 27 30.835' E 31 12.478'
34.	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 30.829' E 31 12.478'
35.	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 30.823' E 31 12.468'
36.	Hut Floor	S 27 30.813' E 31 12.451'
37.	Grinding Stone(Lower)	S 27 30.818' E 31 12.437'
38.	Grinding Stone(Upper)	S 27 30.813' E 31 12.437'
39.	Eroded Stone Tools	S 27 30.803' E31 12.401'
40.	Iron Age Settlements	S 27 30.734 E 31 12.364'
41.	Hut Floor	S 27 30.686' E 31 12.358'
42.	Upper and Lower Grinding Stone	S 27 30.674' E 31 12.348'

43.	Hut Floor	S 27 30.646' E 31 12.329'
44.	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 30.594' E 31 12.305'
45.	Cattle Enclosure	S 27 32.654' E 31 18.214'
46.	Grave Site – a)	S 27 32.625' E 31 18.217'
	b)	S 27 32.625' E 31 18.218'
	c)	S 27 32.625' E 31 18.219'
	d)	S 27 32.623' E 31 18.223'
	e)	S 27 32.618' E 31 18.246'
	f)	S 27 32.619' E 31 18.247'
	g)	S 27 32.624' E 31 18.255'
	h)	S 27 32.593' E 31 18.295'
	i)	S 27 32.596' E 31 18.296'
47.	Hut Foundation	S 27 32.595' E 31 18.304'
48.	Stone Encirclement	S 27 32.589' E 31 18.309'
49.	Stone Encirclement	S 27 32.576' E 31 18.314'
50.	Stone Encirclement	S 27 32.581' E 31 18.302'
51.	Stone Encirclement	S 27 32.579' E 31 18.299'
52.	Grave	S 27 32.555' E 31 18.262'
53.	Stone Encirclement	S 27 32.517' E 31 18.271'
54.	Iron Smelting	S 27 32.500' E 31 18.269'
55.	Stone Encirclement	S 27 32.497' E 31 18.267'
56.	Stone Encirclement	S 27 32.499' E 31 18.267'
57.	Grinding Stone(Upper and Lower)	S 27 32.489' E 31 18.277'
58.	Stone Encirclement	S 27 32.487' E 31 18.226'
59.	Scattered Stone Tools	S 27 32.490' E 31 18.315'
60.	Royal Grave	S 27 32.481' E 31 18.345' 1
61.	Grave	S 27 32.466' E 31 13.343'
62.	Grave	S 27 32.460' E 31 18.339'
63.	Cattle Enclosure	S 27 32.452' E 31 18.302'
64.	Stone Tool Working Area	S 27 32.409' E 31 18.297'
65.	Stone Wall	S 27 32.398' E 31 18.293'
66.	Stone Wall	S 27 32.387' E 31 18.300' 1
67.	Scattered Stone Tools	S 27 32.375' E 31 18.299'
68.	Cattle Enclosure	S 27 32.359' E 31 18.293'
69.	Cattle Enclosure	S 27 32.369' E 31 18.293'
70.	Flake Debris	S 27 32.404' E 31 18.273'
71.	Hut Floor	S 27 32.489' E 31 18.251'
72.	Grave	S 27 32.494' E 31 18.254'
73.	Iron Smelting	S 27 32.570' E 31 18.247'
74.	Grave – Head Stone 1948	S 27 32.583' E 31 18.247'
75.	Grave	S 27 32.583' E 31 18.248'
76.	Grave – Child	S 27 32.283 E 31 18.249'
77.	Grave	S 27 30.892' E 31 14.503'
78.	Grave	S 27 30.889' E 31 14.500'
79.	Grave	S 27 30.890' E 31 14.500'
80.	Undecorated Pottery	S 27 30.911' E 31 14.501'
81.	Cattle Enclosure	S 27 30.920' E 31 14.502' 31
82.	Pottery	S 27 30.914' E 31 14.484'
83.	Pottery	S 27 30.917' E 31 14.477'
84.	Structure	S 27 30.885' E 31 14.521'

85.	Stone Encirclement	S 27 30.882' E 31 14.516'
86.	Structure	S 27 30.874' E 31 14.508'
87.	Grave	S 27 30 616' E 31 14.863'
88.	Cattle Enclosure	S 27 30.573' E 31 14.945'
89.	Cattle kraal	S 27 30.557' E 31 14.956'
90.	Cattle Kraal	S 27 30.583' E 31 14 983'
91.	Fire Place	S 27 30.668' E 31 14.991'
92.	Fire Place	S 27 30.675' E 27 30.675'
93.	Structure	S 27 30.688' E 31 14.998'
94.	Stone Wall	S 27 30.690' E 31 15.009'
95.	Collapsed Stone Circle	S 27 30.725' E 31 15.009'
96.	Collapsed Stone Circle	S 27 30.735' E 31 15.066'
97.	Cattle Enclosure	S 27 30.761' E 31 15.026'
98.	Cattle Enclosure	S 27 30.765' E 31 15.017'
99.	Cattle Enclosure	S 27 30.767' E 31 15.007'
100.	Cattle Enclosure	S 27 30.772' E 31 15.007'
101.	Cattle Enclosure	S 27 30.791' E 31.15.023'
102.	Grave Site Grave 1	S 27 30.810' E 31 15.027'
103.	Grave 2	S 27 30.812' E 31 15.029'
104.	Grave 3	S 27 30.811' E 31 15.032'
	Grave 4	S 27 30.811' E 31 15.033'
105.		
106.	Grave 5	S 27 30.807' E 31 15.035'
107.	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 30.790' E 31 15.152'
108.	Stone Wall	S 27 30.789' E 31 15.153'
109.	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 30.789' E 31 15.154'
	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 30.789' E 31 15.156'
110.		
111.	Cattle Enclosure	S 27 30.666' E 31 15.044'
	Stone Wall	S 27 30.695' E 31 14.915'
112.		
113.	Grave	S 27 30.717' E 31 14.922'
114.	Undecorated Pottery	S 27 30.721' E 31 14.922'
115.	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 30.717' E 31 14.914'
116.	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 30.725' E 31 14.900'
117.	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 31.828' E 31 16.594'
	Cattle Enclosure	S 27 31.828' E 31 16.600'
118.		
119.	Cattle Enclosure	S 27 31.821' E 31 16.808'
120.	Hut Floor	S 27 31.359' E 31 16.237'
121.	Hut Floor	S 27 31.363' E 31 16.236'
122.	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 31.803' E 31 16.606'
123.	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 31.795' E 31 16.603'
	Hut Floor	S 27 31.796' E 31 16.599'
124.		
125.	Grinding Stone (Lower)	S 27 31.796' E 31 16.589'
126.	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 31.793' E 31 16.576'
127.	Grave	S 27 31.318 E 31 16.299'
	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 31.350' E 31 16.255'
128.		
129.	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 31.352' E 31 16.252'
	Hut Floor	S 27 31.354' E 31 16.249'

130.		
131.	Hut Floor	S 27 31.358' E 31 16.239'
132.	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 31.796' E 31 16.571'
	Hut Floor	S 27 31.804' E 31 16.563'
133.		
134.	Hut Floor	S 27 31.813' E 31 16.551'
	Hut Floor	S 27 31.809' E 31 16.550'
135.		
136.	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 31.296' E 31 16.352'
	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 31.300' E 31 16.340'
137.		
138.	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 31.309' E 31 16.326'
139.	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 31.309' E 31 16.316'
140.	Grave	S 27 31.318' E 31 16.299'
	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 31.350' E 31 16.255'
141.		
	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 31.352' E 31 16.252'
142.		
	Hut Floor	S 27 31.354' E 31 16.249'
143.		
144.	Hut Floor	S 27 31.358' E 31 16.239'
145.	Structure – S 27 31.546' E 31 16.463'	S 27 31.546' E 31 16.463'
146.	Cattle Enclosure	S 27 31.537' E 31 16.496'
147.	Stone Wall	S 27 31.522' E 31 16.474'
148.	Structure	S 27 31.529' E 31 16.470'
149.	Structure	S 27 31.527' E 31 16.465'
150.	Hut Floor	S 27 31.511' E 31 16.406'
151.	Hut Floor	S 27 31.211' E 31 16.342'
152.	Grinding Stone (Lower)	S 27 31.209' E 31 16.342'
153.	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 31.231' E 31 16.374'
154.	Stone Tools – MSA	S 27 31.244' E 31 16.368'
155.	Hut Floor	S 27 31.366' E 31 16.165'
156.	Hut Floor	S 27 31.365' E 31 16.163'
157.	Stone Wall	S 27 31.362' E 31 16.162'
158.	Hut Floor	S 27 31.358' E 31 16.161'
159.	Hut Floor	S 27 31.356' E 31 16.161'
160.	Hut Floor	S 27 31.354' E 31 16.158'
161.	Hut Floor	S 27 31.353' E 31 16.155'
162.	Hut Floor	S 27 31.348' E 31 16.153'
163.	Hut Floor	S 27 31.351' E 31 16.142'
164.	MSA Stone Tools	S 27 31.239' E 31 16.335'
165.	MSA Stone Tools	S 27 31.234' E 31 16.340'
166.	Grinding Stone (Upper and Lower)	S 27 31.220' E 31 16.338'
167.	Fire Place	S 27 31.213' E 31 16.340'
168.	Collapsed Stone Wall	S 27 31.344' E 31 16.194'
169.	Grave	S 27 31.343' E 31 16.189'
170.	Scattered Stone Tools	S 27 31.242' E 31 16.305'
171.	Cattle Enclosure	S 27 31.238' E 31 16.310'
172.	MSA Stone Tools	S 27 31.232' E 31 16.316'
173.	MSA Stone Tools	S 27 31.235' E 31 16.324'
174.	Grave	S 27 31.346' E 31 16.190'

**Maps including the features surveyed by Ms Elize Becker in 2006
(5 sites) of mainly Late Iron Age/Historical significance including
some Stone Age scatter zones in between**

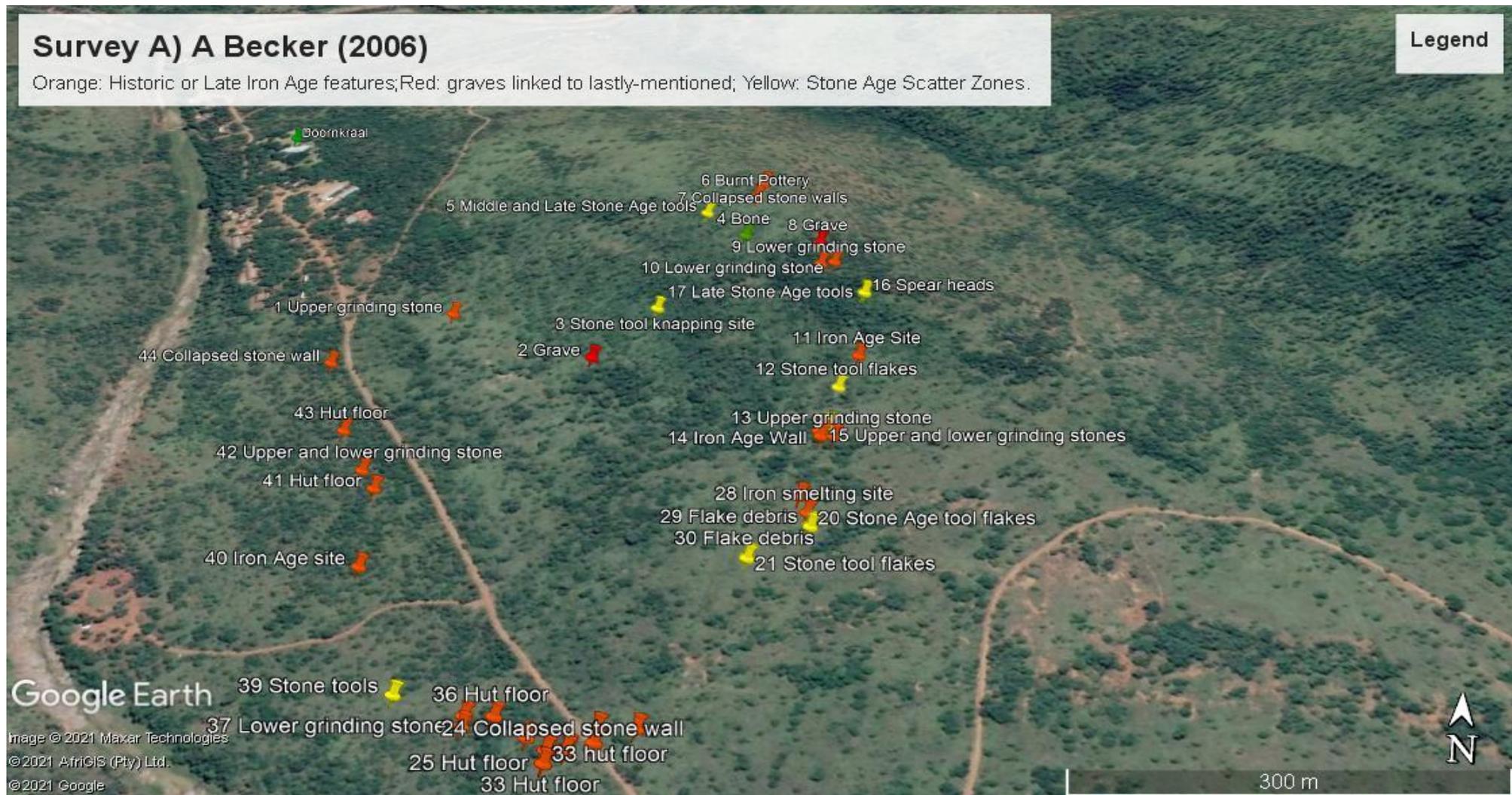


Figure No.41: Google Earth Pro image of Survey A. of E Becker 2006 (Google Earth Image @2021 Maxar Technologies, storage: the Institute).

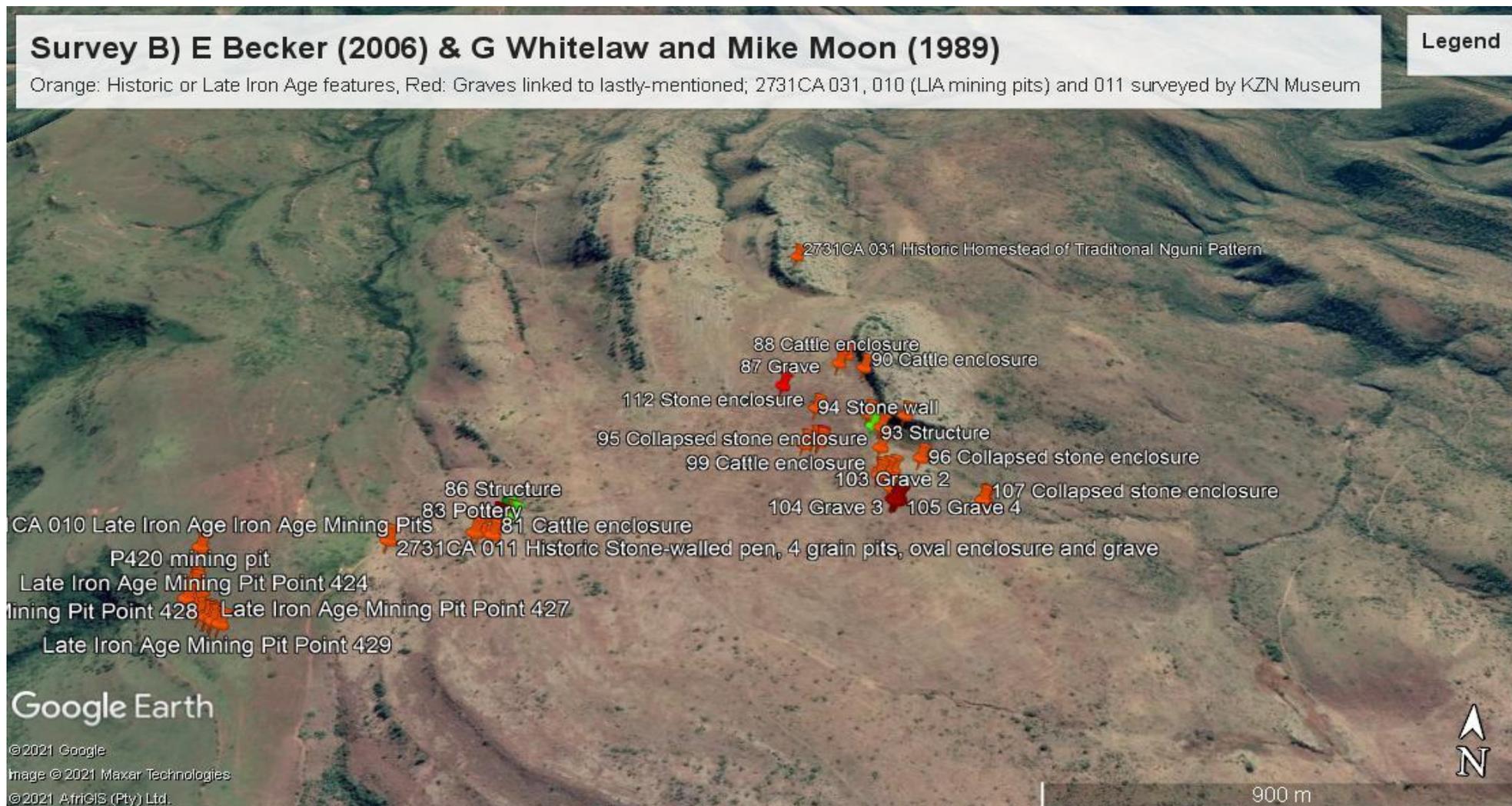


Figure No.42: Survey B) by E Becker 2006 and some sites surveyed by KZN Museum in 1989 (Google Earth@2021 AfriGIS (Pty) Ltd; storage: the Institute).

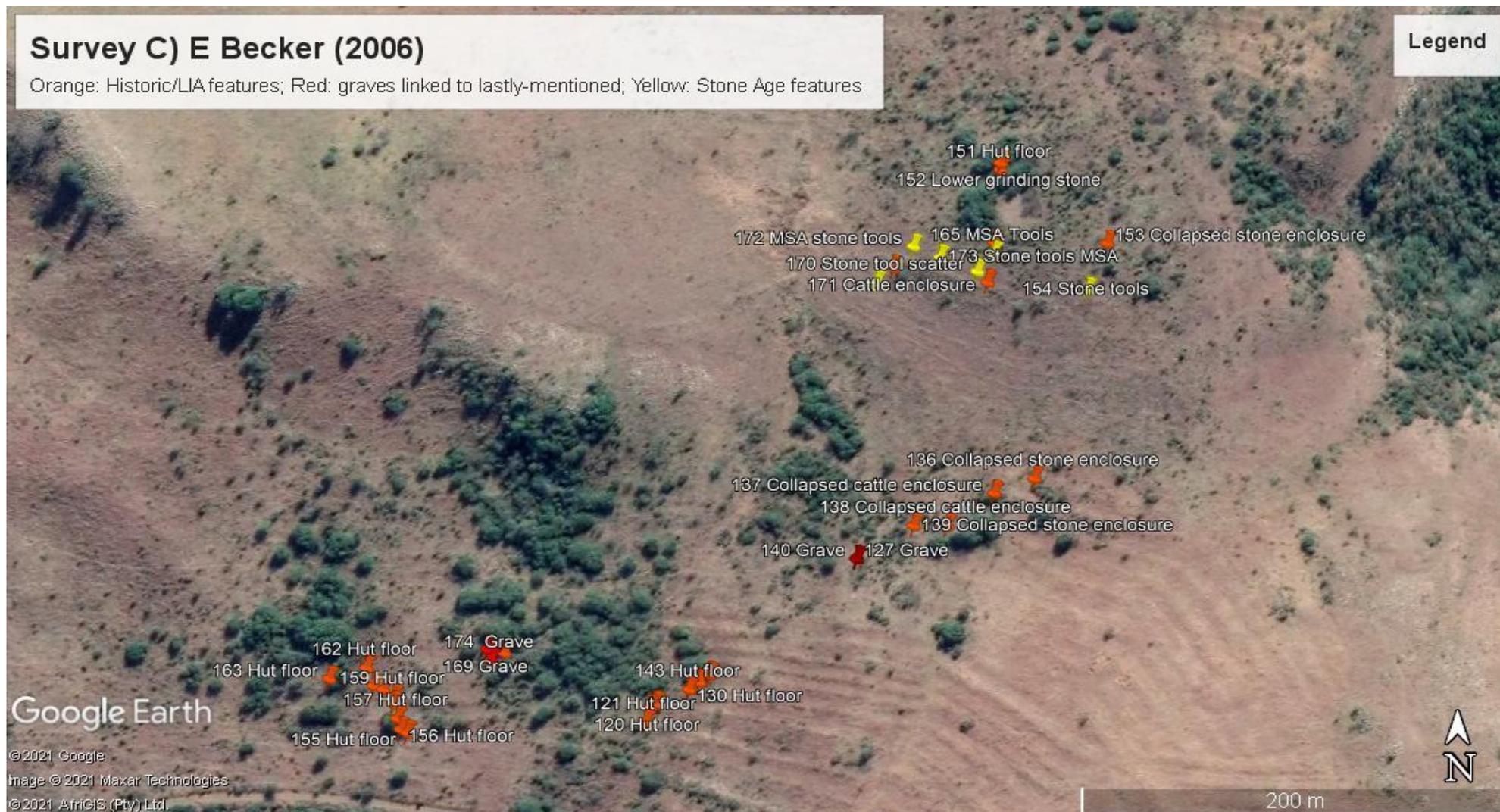


Figure No.43: Survey C) Becker done in 2006 (Google Earth@2021 AfriGIS (Pty) Ltd; storage: the Institute).

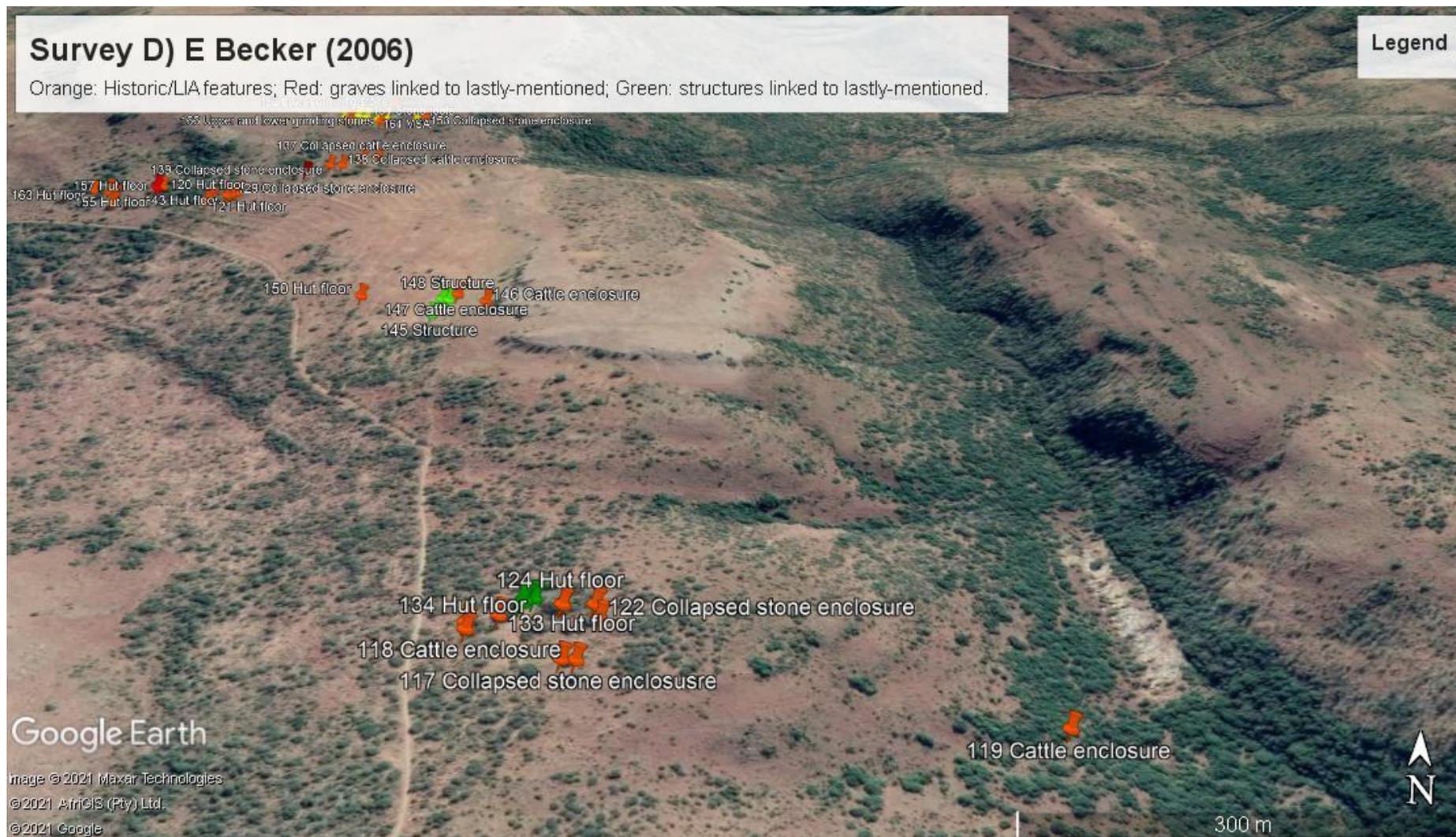


Figure No.44: Survey D) of E Becker (Google Earth@2021 AfriGIS (Pty) Ltd; storage: the Institute).

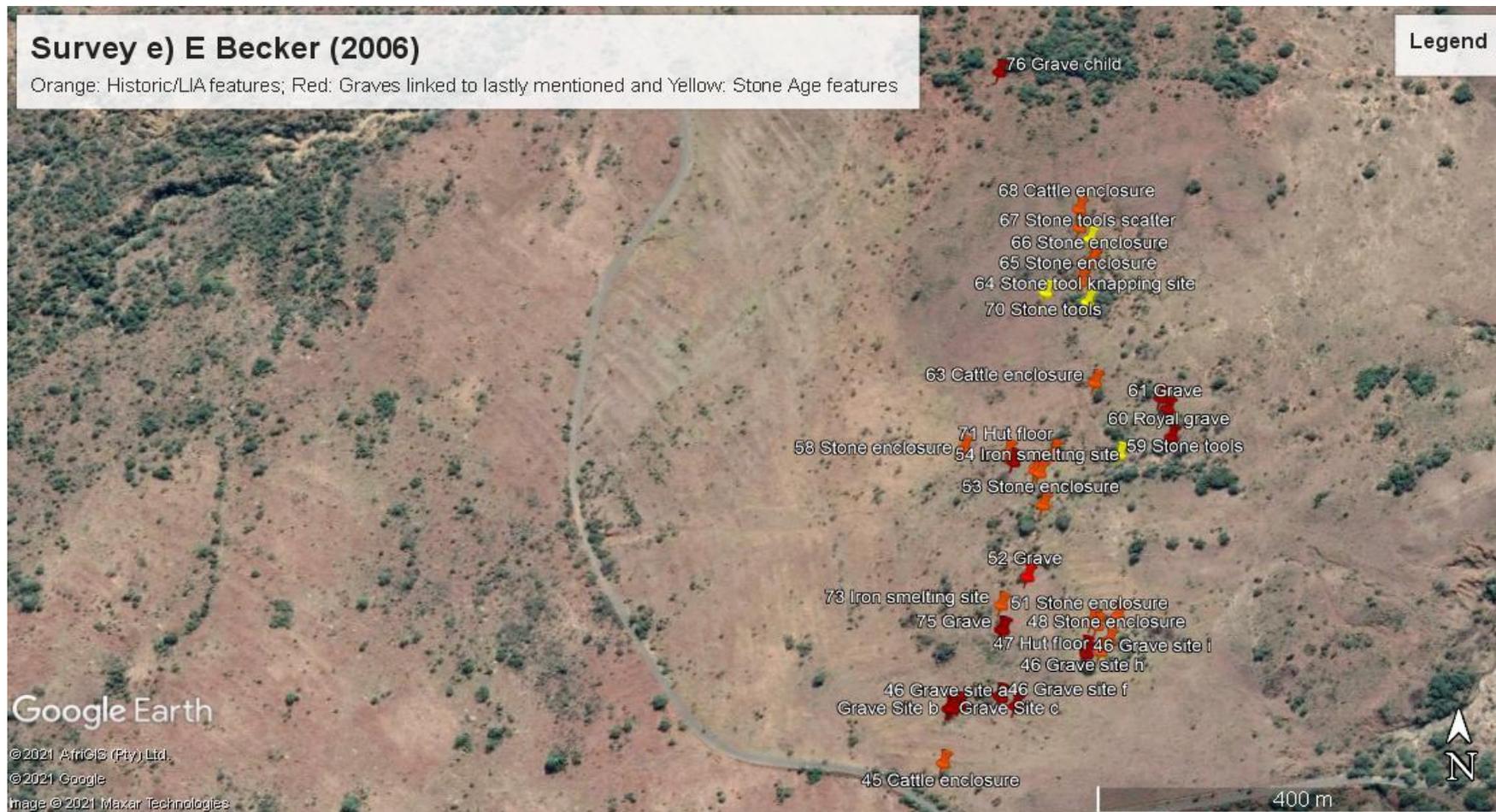


Figure No.45: Survey E) by Elize Becker (2006) (Google Earth@2021 AfriGIS (Pty) Ltd; storage: the Institute).

Survey by Gavin Whitelaw and Mike Moon (1989)

National Site Number	Official and Local Name	GPS coordinates	Type	Description
2731CA 028 2731CA Coronation	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 35 12 E31 14 40	Middle Stone Age and Historic	A few Middle Stone Age flakes; upper grindstone and 20m of stone walling.
2731CA 029	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 34 43 E31 14 35	Late Iron Age and Historic	2 stone circles, 4m in diameter, a bead and pottery.
2731CA 030	Ithala Game Reserve	S 27 33 32 E31 13 21	Stone Age	Flakes of quartz and quartzite.
2731CB 009 2731CB Louwsburg	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 32 10 E31 20 10	Late Iron Age and Historic	Broken upper and lower grinding stones.
2731CB 007	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 32 18 E31 17 01	Middle Stone Age	Made from quartzite. Possible hornfels.
2731CB 010	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 31 53 E31 20 05	Historic	Old ruin/homestead. Outer row of bricks has straw impression; inner row of bricks are made of sun-dried clay. Livestock pens are nearby.

2731CB 011	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 31 36 E31 19 42	Middle Stone Age and Historic	Extensive stone-walling, circles and terraces over an area of 100x75m. An upper grindstone was found and several MSA artefacts.
2731CB 015	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 32 10 E31 16 24	Late Iron Age and Historic	Remains of a 20 th century homestead; potsherds and grindstones were found.
2731CB 019	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 33 54 E31 15 51	Late Iron Age	Scatter of pottery, slag and a piece of tuyère over an area of 15x15m. A low-walled stone circle, filled in to create a pile of stones – perhaps a grave. Other stone piles also present, perhaps linked to later occupation.
2731AC 007	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 29 48 E31 12 07	Late Iron Age, Rock Art and	Zulu settlement pattern

			Historic	engravings (2); Other stones have only huts engraved on them (2); while others (2) have a mass of pecked marks. One stone cairn was also found.
2731CA 012	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 35 10 E31 12 58	Historic	Stone-walled livestock pen measuring 16m in diameter with 2 entrances: on the down-hill side (1m), while uphill, left side the entrance measures 2.2m (people who milked cows). Grain pits in the uphill right side of the pen. 3 houses: 2 rectangular and 1 circular made of dressed stone.
2731CA 011	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 30 56 E31 14 22	Historic	Stone-walled pen, 14m in diameter with 2 entrances. 4

				grain pit openings in the uphill side of the livestock pen. A cairn is present, possibly a grave. Another two piles of rocks are present 40m away from the enclosures and about 100m away from the livestock pen is a another small enclosure.
2731CA 010	Ithala Game Reserve or Ntabayensimbi	S27 30 58	Late Iron Age	Mineral mining site: the site consists of a series of excavations ranging from 3m to 9-10m and up to 1.5m deep. The pits were dug where an iron seam was exposed.
2731CA 023	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 34 28 E31 14 32	Middle and Late Stone Age artefacts and	Artefacts include points, blades, small

			Historical features	scrapers and cores in quartz, hornfels and quartzite. Excellent example of post-1820 Nguni settlement pattern with remains of huts, grouped around the upper side of the isibaya. Grindstones and other artefacts are scattered around. Site merits conservation – Open Air Museum?
2731CA 031	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 30 17 E31 14 52	Historical	Homestead site of the traditional Nguni pattern
2731CB 006	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 32 14 E31 17 32	Middle Stone Age and one Early Stone Age artefact.	Points, a few blades, a large number of cores, few scrapers and only 1 Early Iron Age tool, a large hand axe.

2731CB 012	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 30 34 E31 22 54	Historic	Rock-rabbit capturing site with potsherds and some bone – a very recent historic site.
2731CB 013	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 30 33 E31 22 50	Rock Art Painting Site, Stone Age	Paintings consist of 4 eland, indeterminate antelope (7) and patches of red paint and black figures. There is a scatter of Late Iron Age artefacts down the hill side.
2731CB 014	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 30 32 E31 23 40	Middle Stone Age artefacts in donga.	Quartzite, quartz and hornfels were used as material.
2731CB 016	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 32 24 E31 16 05	Middle Stone Age	Flakes and cores are present.
2731CB 018	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 33 41 E31 15 57	Late Iron Age or Historic	Slag, upper grindstones (some used as hammers) one lower grindstone. Stone circle (4m diameter) and pottery. Circle

				not associated with iron slag.
2731CB 008	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 32 42 E31 19 43	Middle Stone Age	Artefacts and a stone-walled livestock kraal.
2731CB 017	Ithala Game Reserve Ntshondwe/Tierkop	S27 32 34 E31 17 09	Late Iron Age: Site is on the northern side of the saddle above the Ntshondwe Camp between the 2 dolorite peaks.	Hiding place during war: shelters created by collapsed boulders, contains pottery.
2731AC 004 Hartland	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 27 38 E31 12 50	Late Iron Age and Historical	3 upper grindstones and pottery. In the centre of the site is a stone cairn, possibly a grave.
2731AC 005	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 27 48 E31 12 52	Historic	Many lower and upper grindstones. Modern artefacts such as screw-top bottles, metal drums and a wooden platter was found. Homestead

				might be related to the terraced hillside to the west.
2731AC 006	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 29 17 E31 12 16	Historic	Large semi-circle stone walling, upper and lower grindstones. There are some terracing, perhaps for the construction of a hut. More screw-top bottles, metal drum lids and barbed wire.
2731CA 017 Coronation	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 33 51 E31 14 14	Late Stone Age, Late Iron Age and Historic	Site is between 2 streams. Artefacts consists of 2 thumb nail scrapers, flakes, small cores, pottery scattered over 30m (no decorated pottery was found), 4 upper grindstones, 'n broken lower grindstone and 1

				anvil/lower grindstone.
2731CA 016	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 33 38 E31 12 57	Late Stone Age, Late Iron Age and Historic	1 broken lower grindstone, 2 upper grindstones, 1 potsherd, 2 stone flaks and 2 Late Stone Age cores.
2731CA 015	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 32 38 E31 13 12	Late Iron Age and Historic	Possible Moor Park settlement and one broken lower grindstone.
2731CA 014	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 35 06 E31 12 34	Middle Stone Age	Quartzite flakes and an occasional core.
2731CA 013	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 35 14 E31 13 02	Historic	Stone-walled homestead, rectangular kraal with rectangular and circular houses. Ten grain pits in the kraal, some with flat stones covering them.
2731CA 18	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 34 37 E31 13 38	Late Iron Age	Pottery, dolerite lower grindstone and 2 concentrations of slag.

2731CA 019	Ithala Game Reserve	Uncertain	Historic	Terracing above Loop Road with a 13m diameter ruin, with 2 ash heaps and a 3.5m stone paved floor in front.
2731CA 020	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 35 18 E31 14 25	Middle Stone Age and Late Iron Age	Middle Stone Age flakes and pottery.
2731CA 022	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 34 40 E31 14 32	Historic	Broken lower grindstones, 2 upper grindstones and pottery. Old Worchester sauce bottle (green glass and top took a glass stopper).
2731CA 024	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 34 30 E31 14 22	Late Iron Age and Historic	Pottery and an upper grindstone.
2731CA 025	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 34 34 E31 14 20	Historic	Stone-walled structures (very recent). Some are rectangular and other circular. Pottery and upper and lower grindstones are

				present.
2731CA 026	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 33 27 E31 13 44	Historic	Pottery, 11 upper grindstones and broken lower grindstones. Shale paving is present, possible for a grain bin holder.
2731CA 027	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 33 29 E31 14 16	Late Iron Age and Historic	Pottery (one with a hole drilled into it) broken lower grindstone and upper grindstones.

Google Earth Maps with positions of above-listed heritage sites

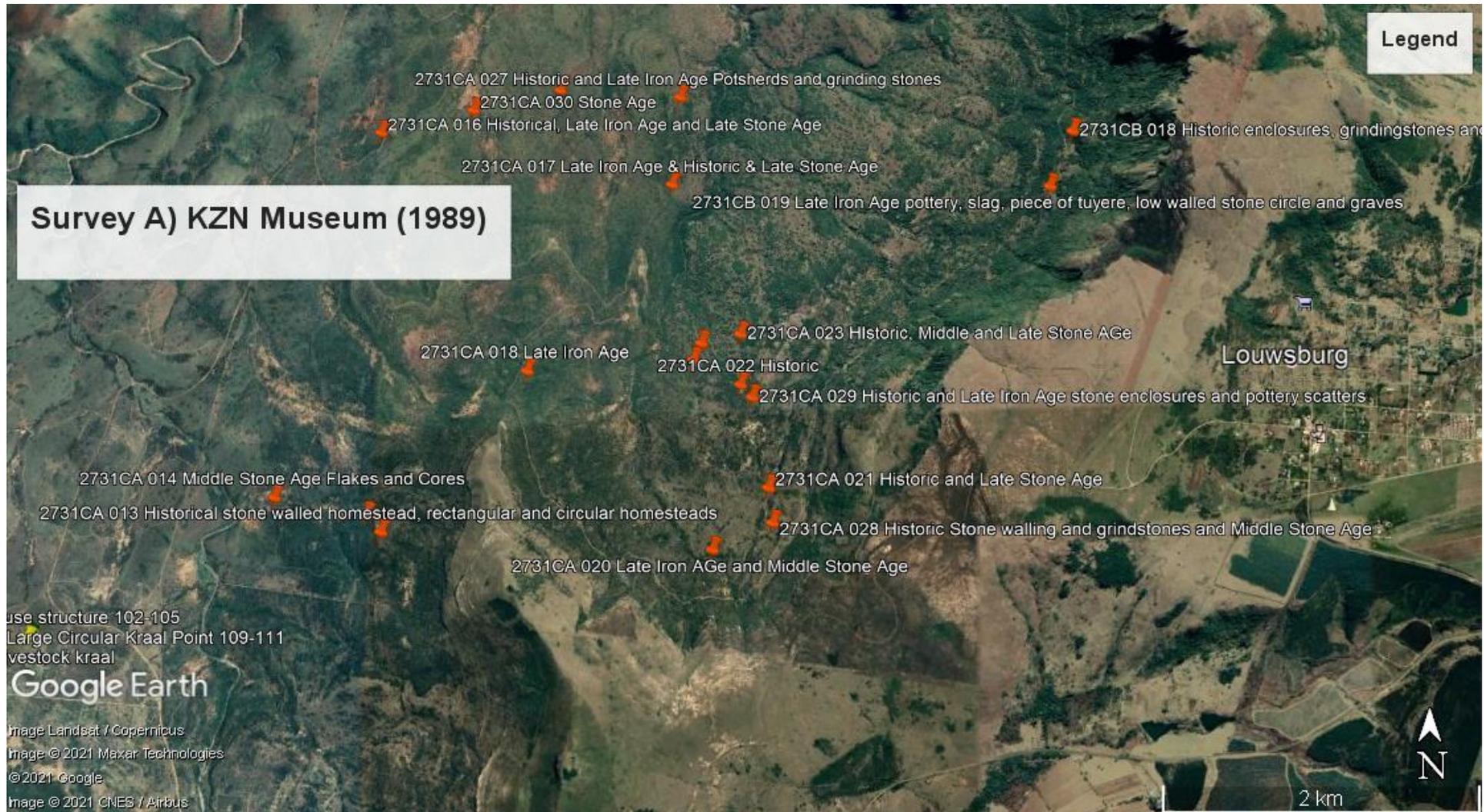


Figure No.46: Survey A of G Whitelaw and Mike Moon in 1989 (Google Earth@2021 AfriGIS (Pty) Ltd; storage: the Institute).

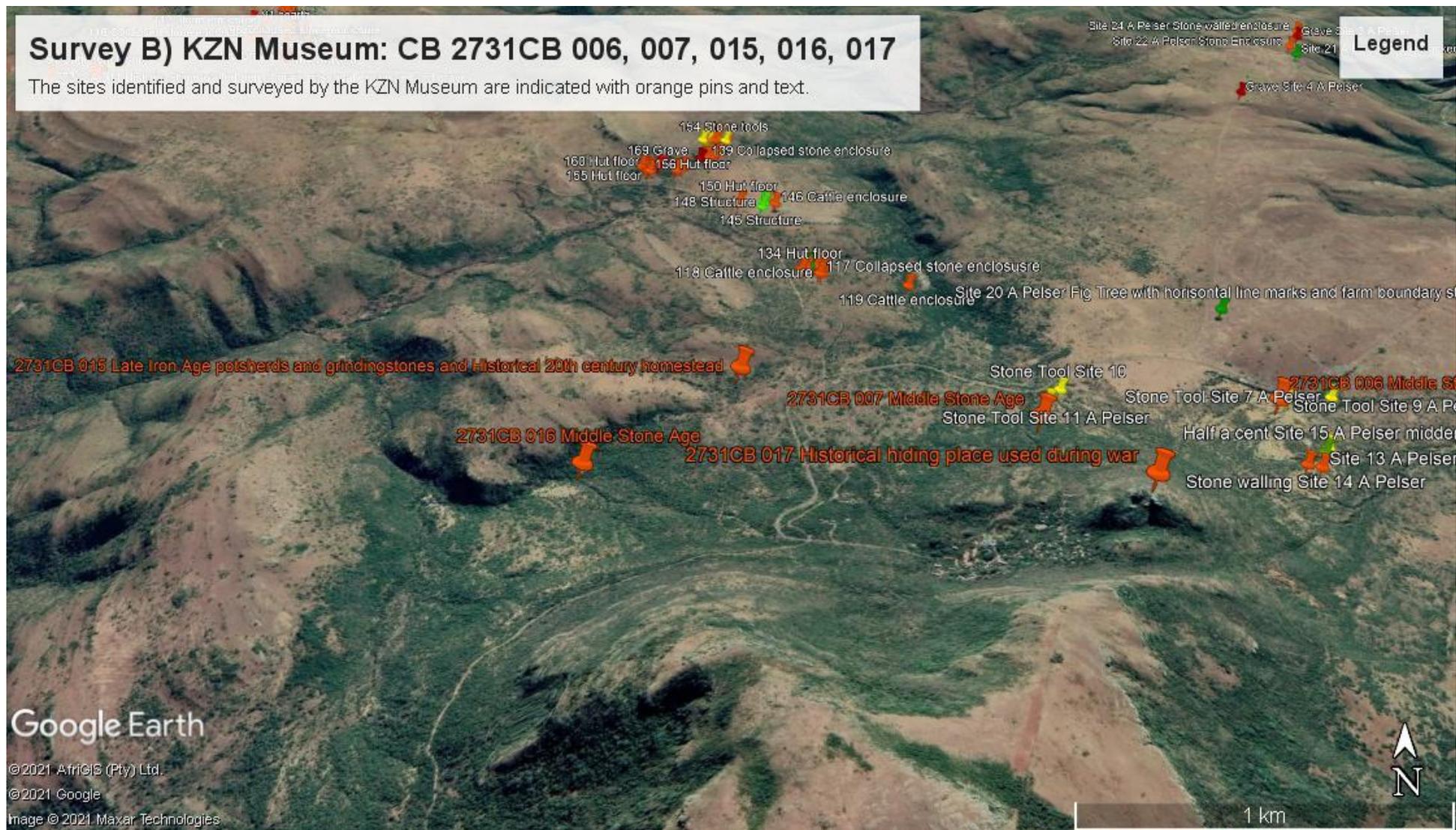


Figure No.47: Survey B) done by KZN Museum in 1989 (Google Earth@2021 AfriGIS (Pty) Ltd; storage: the Institute).

Rock Art Sites surveyed at Ithala Game Reserve on the 17th of May 2016 by C Rossouw and S Mbatha

Rocks 1-4 were all found on the left hand side of the road about 2km from the Thalu Camp and about 1km after going over a small bridge/drift. GPS positions were documented for each rock since they were all more than 5m from each other and not found in clusters as was the case with engraving sites at Madaka Game Reserves where the rocks were sometimes less than one meter from each other. Only one GPS recording was then done for the whole cluster.

Engraved Zulu Settlement Patterns, Rock 1



Figure No.48: indicates the first rock engraving found about 2km from the Thalu Camp and a small kraal with distinctive entrance walls is visible as well as six engraved dots above the kraal.

GPS co-ordinates: S27° 29' 51.1" E31° 12' 08.6"

Accuracy: 6m

Elevation: 600m

Engraved Rock 2

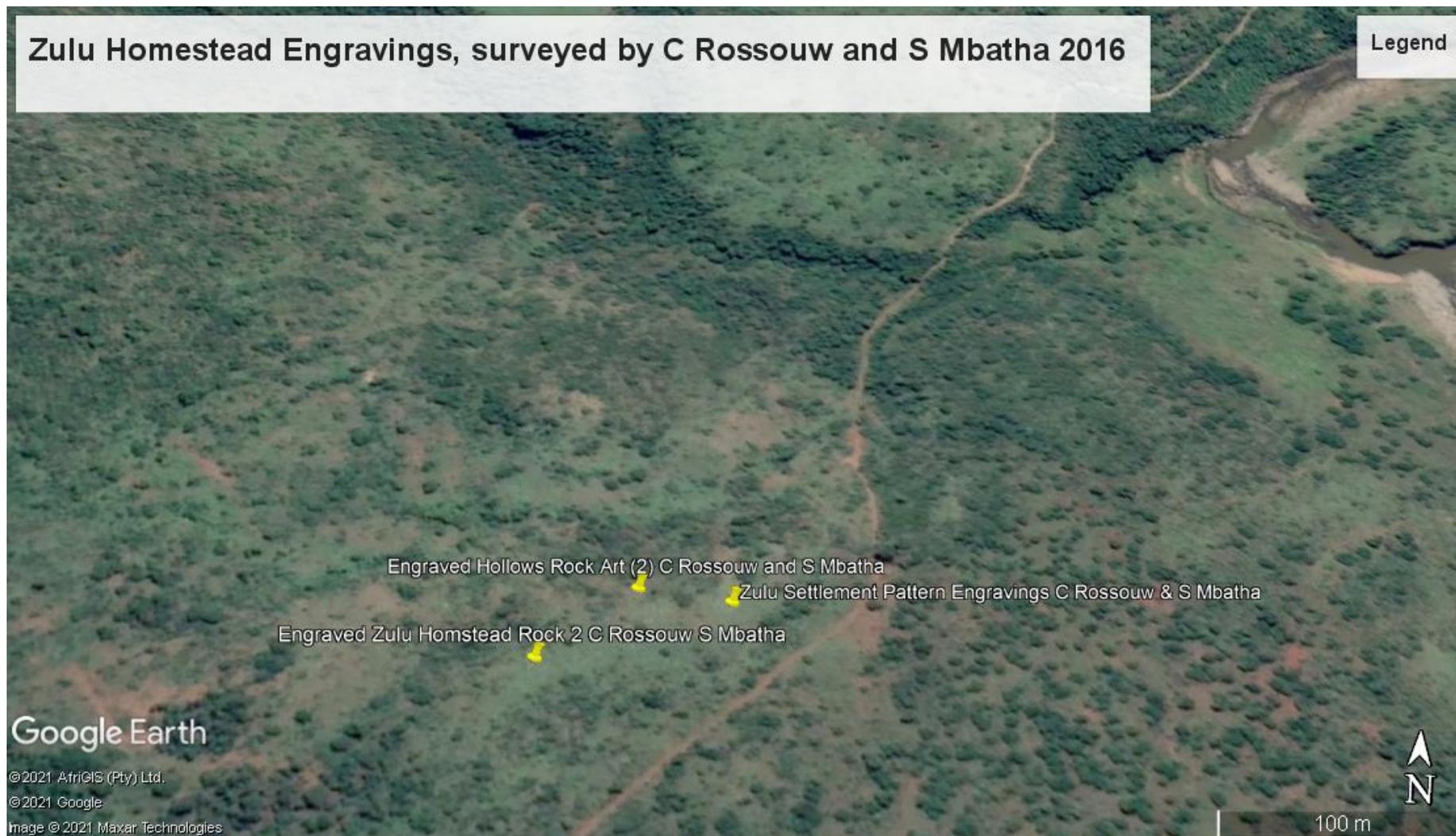


Figure No.49: The location of the Zulu settlement pattern engraved rocks (Google Earth@2021 AfriGIS (Pty) Ltd; storage: the Institute)



Figure No.50: shows a vague engraving resembling the figure eight with two engraved dots far above it.

GPS co-ordinates: S27° 29' 52.3" E31° 12' 05.7"

Accuracy: 3m

Elevation: 609m

Engraved Rock 3

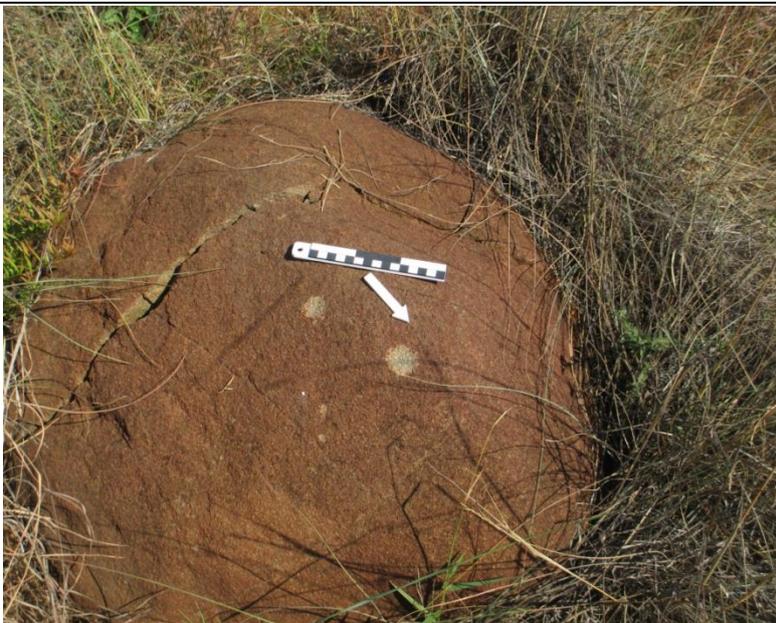


Figure No.51: showing two hollows.

GPS co-ordinates: S27° 29' 51.0" E31° 12' 07.1"

Elevation: 606m

Accuracy: 3m

Engraved Rock 4



Figure No.52: is an example of the most detailed engraving found in this cluster of engravings and includes an enclosed kraal as well as enclosed homesteads surrounding the kraal.

Two square rooms or settlement areas are also shown; one is very close the entrance and a smaller one to the northern edge of the large rock.

Cairn or isivivane

This cairn was found just across the road from Rock 4 and the cairn might be representative of a grave or rocks piled together after planting fields or heaps of rubble that were previously part of a kraal that was pushed together.



Figure No.53: shows a cairn in close proximity across the road from Rock 4

Rondavel 1



Figure No.54: shows a *rondavel* with walls of dressed sandstone consisting of larger squares packed on the inside and outside of the wall with random rubble and mud between the two main rock walls. The wall was not painted or plastered. The inside was plastered with daga. The wall is about 80cm thick.

GPS coordinates: S27° 30.873' E31° 14,507'

Elevation: 3135ft

Accuracy: 8m

Rondavel 2



Figure No.55: shows the second *rondavel* about 8m from the first *rondavel*.



Figure No.56: shows the building method of the walls

GPS coordinates: S27° 30,881' E31° 14, 507'

Elevation: 3132ft

Accuracy: 5m

Rock Art Painting Site at Ithala Game Reserve

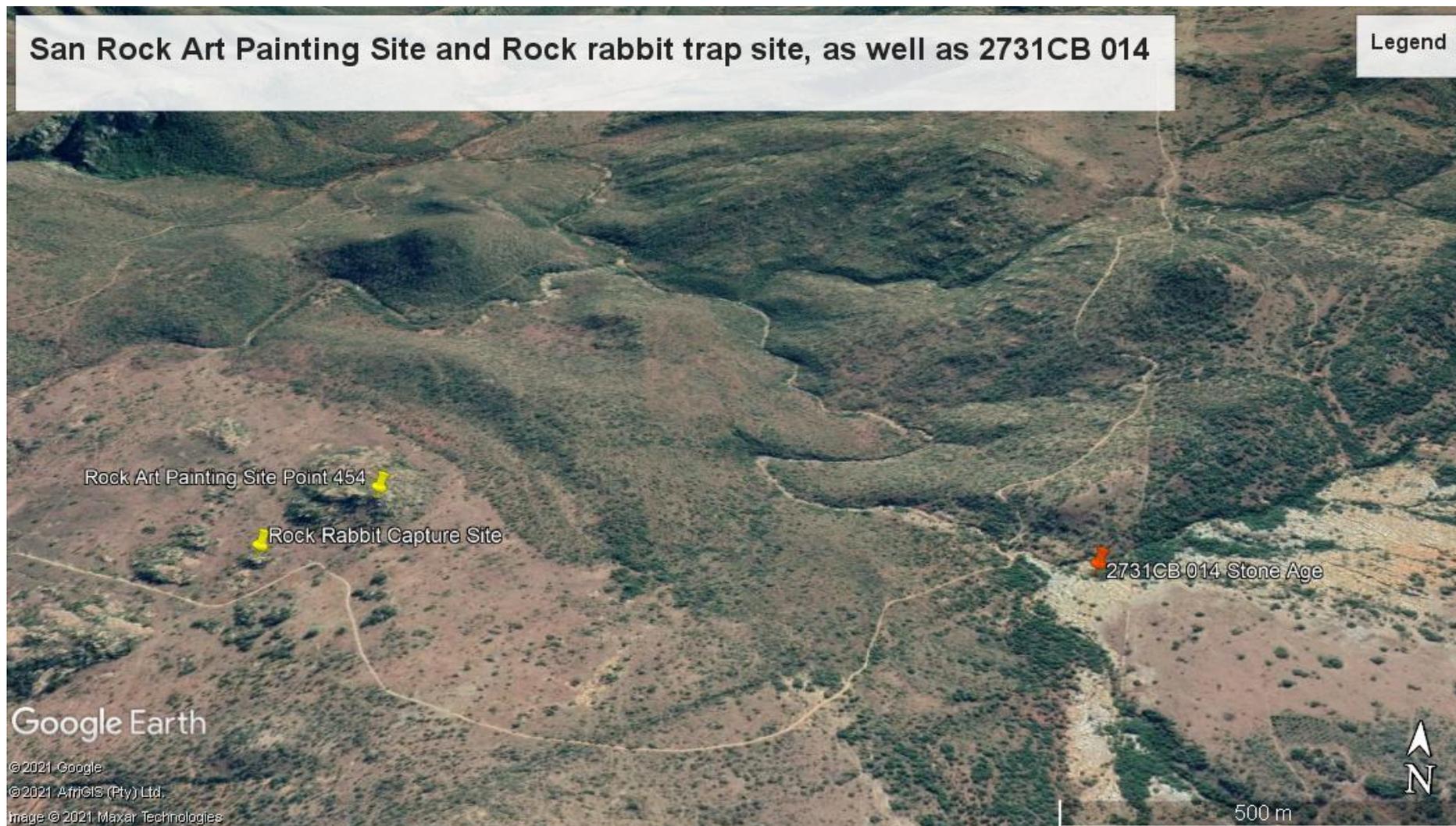


Figure No.57: San rock painting site and rock rabbit trap site (Google Earth AfriGIS (Pty) Ltd, storage: The Institute).

Site description: The site is located about 3km south from the Emhlangeni Bush Camp. The site is 7m long, 3-4.5m deep and approximately 1-2m high. The site is well screened by vegetation. No graffiti is present but the site is compromised by natural factors such as water-wash areas covering the art and natural exfoliation. The site contains a deposit. The deposit is covered with granite-type of sand/ rubble.



Figure No.58: shows the shelter's floor that contains a deposit and is well screened by vegetation.



Figure No.59: indicates one red monochrome eland and one indeterminate red monochrome antelope. The site contains mainly eland and a few indeterminate antelope.

Rock Art Site Recording Form

Site name	Ithala Rock Art Painting Site
Official Site Name	Ithala Game Reserve Painting
National site number	2731CB 013
District and 1:50 000 map sheet no:	2731 Louwsburg
GPS Latitude and Longitude	S27° 30' 33" E31° 22' 50"
Elevation	736m
Accuracy	3m
Direction to site	Enter Ithala Game Reserve east of Louwsburg at the gate to the farm previously known as Langverwacht 495. Follow the road and past a shed that previously held farming equipment. Continue until the road forks where you take the right hand side. After about 1.5-2km the road peters out but one can turn right (east) here. The site is on a fairly prominent granite koppie to the north.
Community land area/name	Sate land – Ezemvelo KwaZulu-Natal Wildlife, Ithala Game Reserve close to Vryheid in the Zululand District Municipality and in the Abaqulusi Municipality
Head of the area	Pete Ruinard – the Conservation Manager of Ithala Game Reserve Rickert van der Westhuizen - Ecologist
Head's address/telephone/cell no:	Pete Ruinard, e-mail: Pete.Ruinard@kznwildlife.com or ruinardp@kznwildlife.com . Rickert van der Westhuizen: 082 347 4642 and e-mail: Rickert.Van_Der_Westhuizen@kznwildlife.com .
Recorder's name	Ms. Celeste Rossouw, Senior Rock Art Officer and Mr. Siyabonga Mbatha, Rock Art Monitor
Recorder's address	195 Langelibalele/Longmarket Street, Pietermaritzburg, 3201
Date of Visit	17 May 2016

Archaeological deposit: Present/Absent/Unknown	A deposit is present since the first recording in 1989 described a scatter zone consisting of Late Iron Age artefacts in the shelter and on the slope. However, no artefacts were found when we visited the shelter on the 17 th of May 2016.
Type of site (rock shelter, boulder, cave?)	Shelter
Aspect/Cave mouth faces north/south/east/west?	North facing
Approximate size of the rock shelter floor?	7m
Approximate area of wall covered with paintings (separate paintings can be listed separately left to right)	3m
Natural damage to paintings (water, lichen, animals, etc.)	Mineral leaching, dust accretion and natural exfoliation pose a big threat to the paintings, many of which are very faded.
Have the paintings or rock shelter walls been damaged by graffiti? Over what area?	No graffiti were present.
Approximate number of paintings: 10	Red: 10 Black: White: Yellow: Bichrome: Polychrome:
Number of human figures: 0	Male: Female: Indeterminate:
Number of animals: 9	Indeterminate antelope: 4 Elephant: Eland: 5 Feline: Rhebuck: Hartebeest: Baboon: Mountain Reedbuck: Wildebeest: Wild pig:
Number of hand prints	Plain: Patterned:
Number of non-representational Patterns: 1	Dots: Lines: Grids: Smears: 1 Zigzags: Finger paint:
Iron Age Settlement Pattern Designs Not applicable	Geometric: Representational:

U-Shapes and Y-Shapes (may represent aprons and loincloths) Not applicable	U-Shapes: Y-Shapes:
Describe unusual images:	Rain animal: Flying buck: Animal-headed being wearing a kaross: Animal-headed being not wearing a kaross: Animal-headed snake: Other:
Is the cave floor rocky or sandy or ashy?	Ashy
Location of the site (on top of mountain, in stream bed, half way up the cliff, etc.)	On top of a granite koppie
Records made (photo/slides/drawings/tracing)	Digital photos and hand written recordings

Risk Assessment: People do not pose a threat to the site only the mineral leaching, exfoliation and dust pose a problem.

Access Control: The site is not open to the public; however the ecologist informed Ms. Rossouw and Mr. Mbatha that it is being visited. Perhaps rock art custodians should be identified and accredited. These custodians must be staff or interns working for Ezemvelo KwaZulu-Natal Wildlife with fire arm licences since there animals such as elephants and rhinoceros are present and people are not allowed to go outside of their vehicle.

Conservation of the site



Figure No.60: shows water-wash areas covering the art.

Water wash areas cover many of the painted images. No recommendation is given as drip lines are currently not being installed in protected areas and the successful functioning of drip-lines is under investigation.



Figure No.61: indicates faded paintings that are being affected by natural exfoliation and dust accretion.

Anton Pelser Archaeological Consulting (April 2015)

Type	GPS coordinates	Figure No
Palaeontological Sites		
Petrified Wood	S27.52794 E31.37042	Site 1
Petrified Wood	S27.53130 E31.32921	Site 2
Late Iron Age or Historical Grave Sites		
Grave	S27.52684 E31.36989	Site 1
Grave	S27.52935 E31.31157	Site 2
Grave	S27.51159 E31.30257	Site 3
Grave	S27.51724 E31.29768	Site 4
Stone Age Sites		
Stone Age	S27.52572 E31.37119	Site 1
Stone Age	S27.52276 E31.37124	Site 2
Stone Age	S27.53341 E31.31636	Site 3
Stone Age	S27.53340 E31.31858	Site 4
Stone Age	S27.53660 E31.29267	Site 5
Stone Age	S27.53661 E31.29272	Site 6

Stone Age	S27.53678 E31.2943	Site 7
Stone Age	S27.53929 E31.29315	Site 8
Stone Age	S27.53695 E31.29264	Site 9
Stone Age	S27.53652 E31.28474	Site 10
Stone Age	S27.53715 E31.28416	Site 11
Iron Age/Colonial Period		
Agricultural terracing (related to time when Europeans had been given farms in the area by Dinizulu in 1884 and the original occupants continued to occupy the area as tenant farmers or as labourers A Pelsler, 2015: 24).	S27.52810 E31.37174	Site 1
Agricultural terracing	S27.52866 E31.37189	Site 2
Agricultural terracing	S27.51791 E31.37156	Site 3
Agricultural terracing	S27.52040 E31.37309	Site 4
Agricultural terracing	S27.52255 E31.37325	Site 5
Old Shed – built environment	S27.53786 E31.29150	Site 6
Late Iron Age or Historical	S27.53786 E31.29150	Site 7
Late Iron Age or Historical	S27.53800 E31.29129	Site 8
Late Iron Age or Historical	S27.53731 E31.29309	Site 9
Late Iron Age or Historical	S27.53847 E31.29288	Site 10
Late Iron Age or Historical	S27.53932 E31.29316	Site 11
Late Iron Age or Historical	S27.53942 E31.29330	Site 12
Late Iron Age/Colonial Period site/(s): Decorated and undecorated pot sherds as well as a belt buckle.	S27.54010 E31.29209	Site 13
Stone walling, close to Site No.13.	S27.54010 E31.29209	Site 14
Midden, might be historical,	S27.53430 E31.28595	Site 15

found ½cent coin.		
Historical site: stone packed rondavels and boundary wall.	S27.52990 E31.27620	Site 18
Late Iron Age or Historical site: circular enclosure, lower grinding stone, bored stone and stone platform.	S27.52856 E31.31199	Site 19
Historical site: farm boundary stone and fig tree with engraved markings.	S27.53245 E31.29178	Site 20
Stone packed rondavels and rectangular livestock pen	S27.51335 E31.30189	Site 21
Possible Late Iron Age stone walled enclosures	S27.51258 E31.30182	Site 22
Possible Late Iron Age stone walled enclosures	S27.51148 E31. 30270	Site 23
Possible Late Iron Age stone walled enclosures	S27.51114 E31.30270	Site 24
Agricultural Terracing	S27.48389 E31.30250	Site 25
Old shed	S27.51251 E31.29398	Site 26

Google Earth Maps of sites surveyed by Anton Pelsler (A Pelsler Archaeological Consulting) in 2015

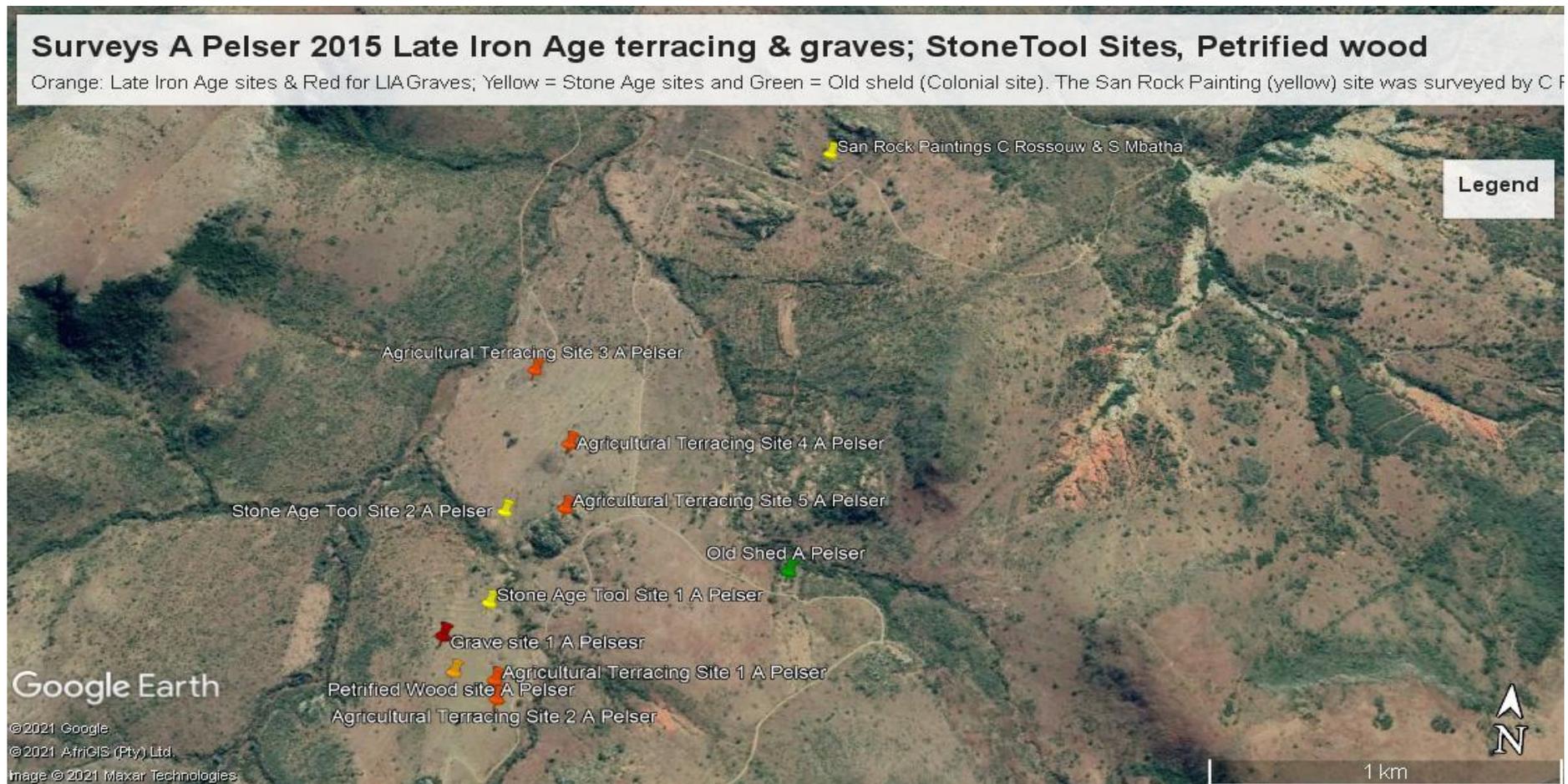


Figure No.62: Site A surveyed by Anton Pelser (Google Earth AfriGIS (Pty) Ltd, storage: The Institute).

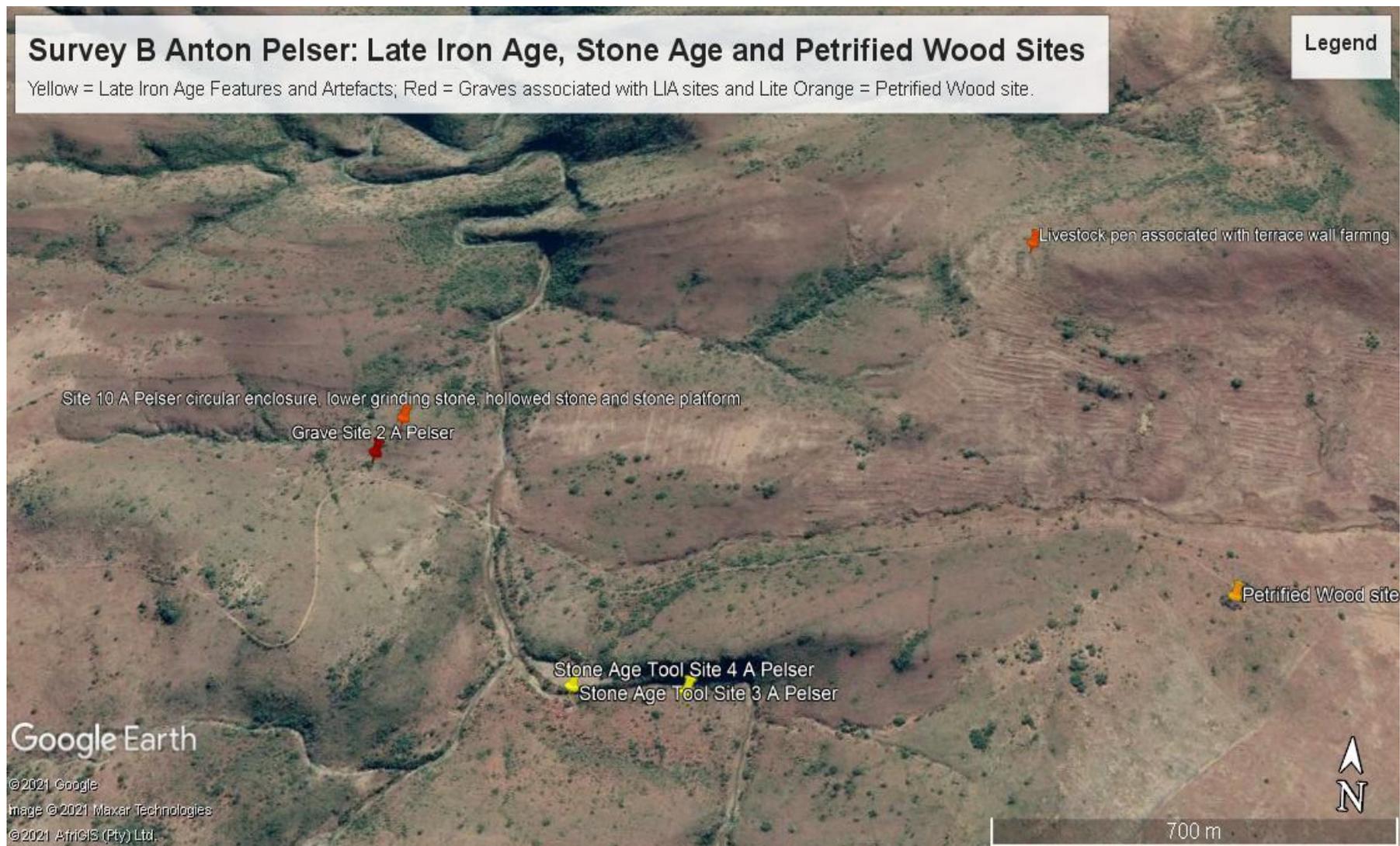


Figure No.63: Site b surveyed by Anton Pelser (Google Earth AfriGIS (Pty) Ltd, storage: The Institute).

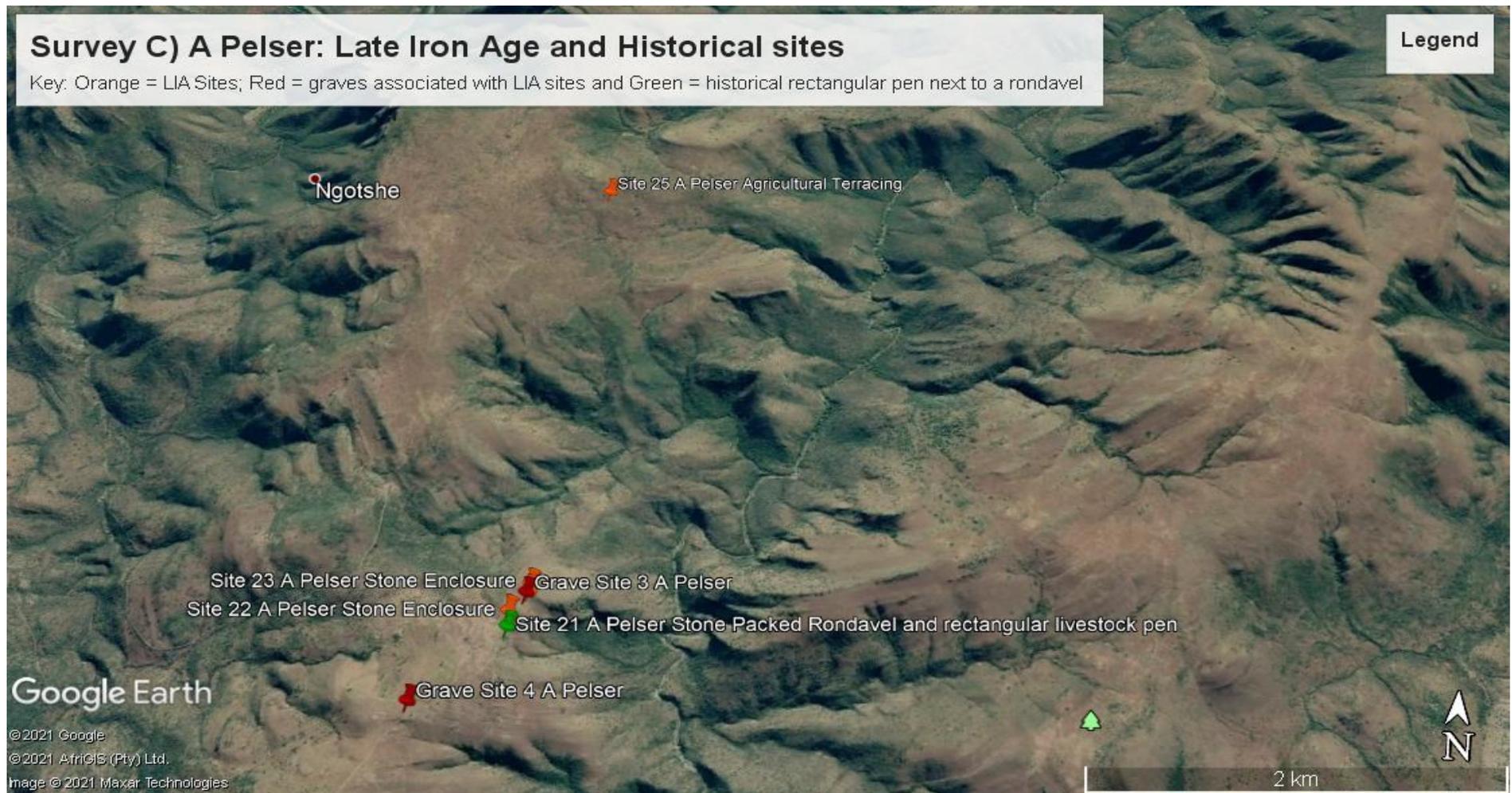


Figure No.64: Survey C by Anton Pelsers (Google Earth AfriGIS (Pty) Ltd, storage: The Institute).

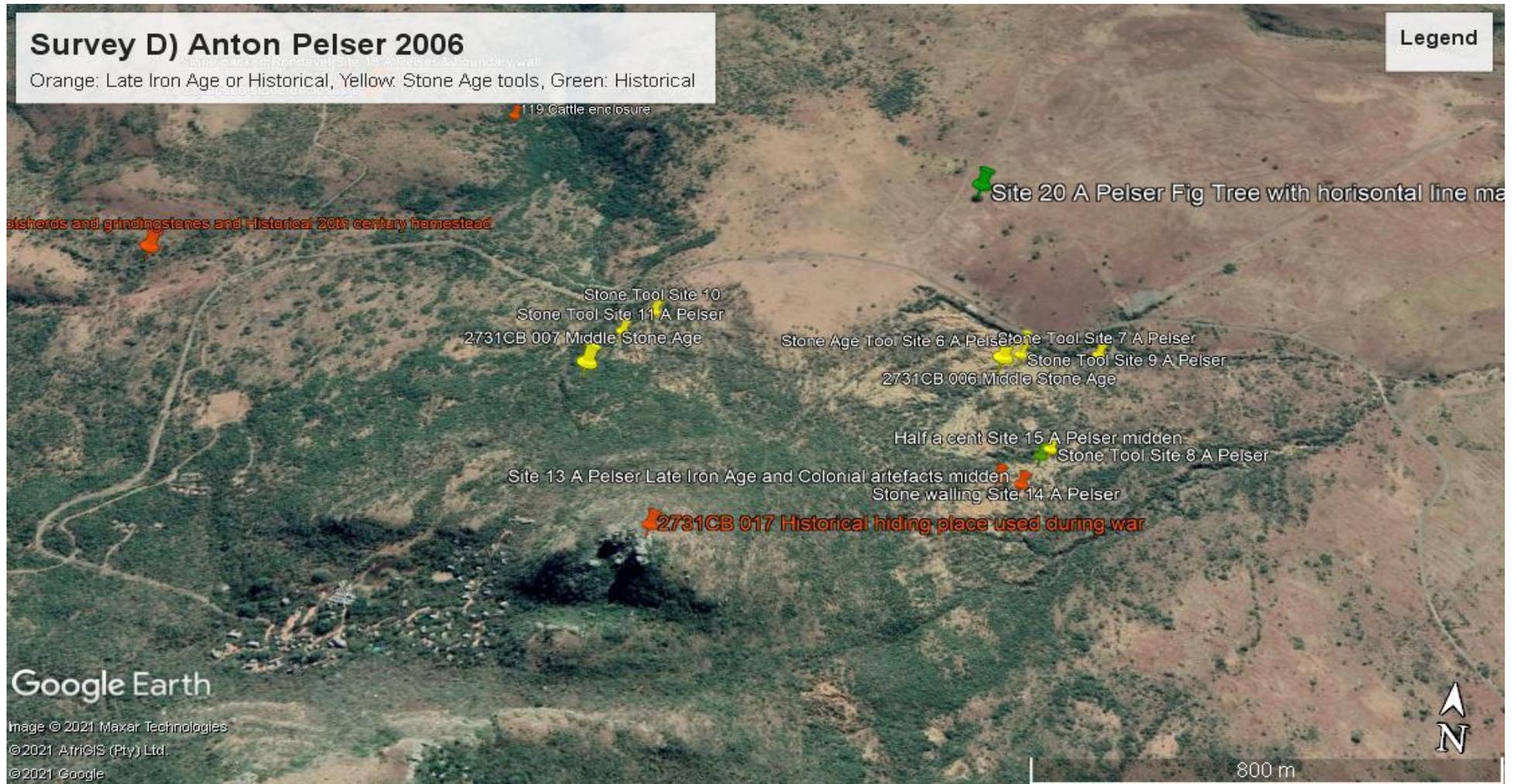


Figure No.65: Survey D by Anton Pelsers (Google Earth AfriGIS (Pty) Ltd, storage: The Institute).

MANAGEMENT

GOAL: THE LONG TERM CONSERVATION AND SUSTAINABLE USAGE OF CULTURAL HERITAGE SITES

OBJECTIVES

- A) To identify sites that can be opened for low impact tourism purposes and to develop them.
- B) To distinguish new research opportunities regarding cultural heritage sites, landscapes, artefacts and resources.
- C) To link public or low impact tourism destinations with teaching and to cater for syllabus appropriate educational programmes.

STRATEGIES LINKED TO TOURISM OPPURTUNITIES

Superimpose conservation and developmental zones over heritage sites surveyed to establish in which environmental zone they are, based on Ezemvelo KwaZulu-Natal's biodiversity and landscape conservation areas. These zones will prescribe the type and extent of development that can be applied, as well as material and construction methods that are appropriate.

Consult with the Officer-in-Charge, Ecologist and Community Liaison Officers of EKZNW to establish which sites are the most accessible, easy to reach and located close to already developed pathways, so that new roads do not have to be created.

Development must be limited to the minimum and must be reversible. For instance, it would be best to open a heritage site, e.g. a Late Iron Age settlement, which is close to a low hill that could provide a good look-out point over the archaeological or historical footprint. This would allow visitors to view the area without accessing it; and walking over archaeological features such as hut floors that would result in cracks and breakage, compromising the significance of the site.

If there is no low hill, a buffer of at least 5m must be kept around the site and a psychological barrier such as painted stones must be created around the area.

Pathways can be made by scraping the grass away, taking care never to remove the top soil as this constitutes development and will compromise the research value of the site since it will disturb the archaeological stratigraphy.

Guests should only access through a central booking system and must be accompanied by a KZN Amafa & Research Institute heritage custodian. The custodian will accompany the guests, relate the code of conduct applicable at the site and will supervise the guests' behaviour.

Visitors enjoy being accompanied by a guide or custodian more than accessing the site with a pamphlet since guests can now ask questions and the guide can also learn more from the visitor.

Where there are no custodians, it is best to erect signage that could interpret the feature such as hut floors, grain bin holders, periphery walls and areas where crops were grown. However, this is only allowed in the zones where more development is allowed.

If graves are present, it is best to allow a buffer of 25m around them taking into consideration that many more graves may be present in close proximity to those that are visible but the ledgers and headstones might be missing. Ground penetrating radar will be necessary to identify if other graves are existing.

The following sites are recommended as tourism destinations

a) Iron Age mineral mining site (Page Nos.27-38)

2731CA 010	Ithala Game Reserve or Ntabayensimbi	S27 30 58	Late Iron Age	Mineral mining site: the site consists of a series of excavations ranging from 3m to 9-10m and up to 1.5m deep. The pits were dug where an iron seam was exposed.
------------	---	-----------	---------------	--

The presence of only mined excavated pits, make this an ideal site to open to the public. It is not too far from the road to park the cars and hike to the site. The guide can use a poster with a diagrammatic presentation of an oven, to introduce Iron Age smelting practices to the visitors. Copies of laminated photographs can also be handed to the visitors of examples of Iron Age sites with ovens, slag, pieces of tuyères (clay nozzles used to introduce air into the oven), rock hammers, flux - such as pieces of granite/quartz or lime and all other material linked to Iron Age smelting practices. Potsherds are also sometimes present at these sites as well as hard clay floors.

The reason for opening a mining site rather than a smelting site, is that lastly-mentioned will stand too high a chance of being impacted on by people walking over oven clay floors and destroying them, or by visitors, illegally, collecting artefacts (a permit from the Institute) is necessary for this.

b) Late Stone Age/San painting and rock rabbit-capturing site (Page Nos.85-90)

2731CB 012	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 30 34 E31 22 54	Historic	Rock-rabbit capturing site with potsherds and some bone – a very recent historic site.
2731CB 013	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 30 33 E31 22 50	Rock Art Painting Site, Stone Age	Paintings consist of 4 eland, indeterminate antelope (7) and patches of red paint and black figures. There is a scatter of Late Iron Age artefacts down the hill side.

These two sites are closer to the road and easy accessible, they are not too far from each other and in walking distance about 5 minutes.

The fact that guests can view both the San art as well as a site linked to one of the economic activities of their ways of life, makes this an especially attractive site for school groups.

The rock art reflects both the ways of life of the San as well as their socio-economic organisation. However, the eland was not mostly painted because it was part of their diet; the San believed that, where the eland is, there one can find their god's protection. The eland was their god, /Cagn's, most favourite animal. Archaeological excavations proved this since the majority of fauna material excavated where not eland bones but rather oribi or other smaller antelopes. The paintings on the

shelter's walls are not necessarily a reflection of the availability of antelope. For example, there are very few paintings of springbuck although they were even more plentiful than eland.

Any rock art site can only be opened if there is a management plan for the site as well as trained rock art custodians as per the Institute's Rock Art Access Policy.

The rock art custodians will relate the code of conduct, supervise the guests' behaviour and accompany them to and from, the rock art, and rock-rabbit-capturing sites. Depending on the age of the visitor group, this can be made into a big adventure: for instance students can be informed to be silent when walking to the rock art site, to encourage respect for the rock art, since the majority of the art was done by shamans who were the religious leaders of the society, ensuring that hunting is successful, that all the people are well and healthy and that rain will fall. Visiting a rock art is like visiting the San's church. One may only leave ones footprints.

To make the visit even more exiting, the guide can inform the students or visitors of wood used to make the bow and arrow as well as poison used to be added onto arrow points. Guests can also be explained how the San made fire and with which types of wood.

c) Ithala Game Reserve Ntshondwe Camp historical and Late Iron Age sites (Page No.96)

2731CB 017	Ithala Game Reserve Ntshondwe/Tierkop	S27 32 34 E31 17 09	Late Iron Age: Site is on the northern side of the saddle above the Ntshondwe Camp between the 2 dolerite peaks.	Hiding place during war: shelters created by collapsed boulders, contains pottery.
------------	--	------------------------	---	--

There is already a site developed (Bushbuck Trail, close to Ntshondwe Camp) with signage present behind the hotel. However the signs are old and faded and some of the text can be improved. Replacement of signage is recommended to allow for archaeologically, and anthropologically informed content and an improved experience of the site. Ms. Rossouw can prepare signage for the sites.

The trail to the site should be cut kept clear; and checked for soil erosion after heavy rains.

Visitors can go with a hiking brochure but it is recommended that they walk with a guide since this offers them the opportunity to ask more questions and the guide can also learn more from the visitors.

d) Rock Art Settlement Pattern Engraving Site (Page Nos.79-82)

2731AC 007	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 29 48 E31 12 07	Late Iron Age, Rock Art and Historic	Zulu settlement pattern engravings (2); Other stones have only huts engraved on them (2); while others (2) have a mass of pecked marks. One stone cairn was also found.
------------	---------------------	------------------------	--	---

The Zulu-settlement pattern engraving site is also a very good site to develop as a tourist attraction: it is close to the road; easy accessibly and site guides at Ithala will be trained by the KZN Amafa & Research Institute as Rock Art and Heritage Custodians to accompany visitors to the site.

It is best not to create trails here and to allow the guests to “spread out” when walking to the site to ensure that no trails are created. This would ensure that the sites’ location is not so discernible to ensure guests only go to the site when accompanied by an Institute-accredited Rock Art and Heritage Custodian.

e) Historic or historic-and-mixed Late Iron Age settlement patterns (they are close to the mining site, Page No.62)

2731CA 012	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 35 10 E31 12 58	Historic	Stone-walled livestock pen measuring 16m in diameter with 2 entrances: on
------------	---------------------	------------------------	----------	---

				<p>the down-hill side (1m), while uphill, left side the entrance measures 2.2m (people who milked cows). Grain pits in the uphill right side of the pen. 3 houses: 2 rectangular and 1 circular made of dressed stone.</p>
2731CA 011	Ithala Game Reserve	S27 30 56 E31 14 22	Historic	<p>Stone-walled pen, 14m in diameter with 2 entrances. 4 grain pit openings in the uphill side of the livestock pen. A cairn is present, possibly a grave. Another two piles of rocks are present 40m away from the enclosures and about 100m away from the livestock pen is</p>

				a another small enclosure.
--	--	--	--	----------------------------

Either one or both of these sites can be opened. They are close to the road, easy accessible and also close the Iron Age mining site. This would make a good multi-cultural experience, to visit a specialised Iron Age mining site as well as an historical, post-1820s settlement pattern linked to the history of the Nguni culture.

The same recommendations apply here, it is better to have a guided experience than allowing people to go on their own. It is beneficial to the long term protection of archaeological sites if people are accompanied by Institute-accredited heritage custodians and it also improves on the visitors' experience and ensures good customer care.

If people are accompanied by guides, no signs are needed and this agrees with best practice guidelines of minimum intervention at historical and archaeological sites.

COMMUNITY CONSERVATION AND TOURISM STAKEHOLDERS

Several private conservation initiatives are possible and may be proclaimed as CCAs (Community Conservation Areas).

The following local families are present in the Buffer Zone of the Ithala Management Unit: Msibi, Dlamini, Sibiya, BM Zulu, Mavuso, Simelane and MT Shangase.

The following private nature reserves are neighbouring Ithala, for instance: Shilwane, Madaka Hunting Reserve and the Susanna farm.

Some sections of the Louwsburg Municipality are also included in the Ithala Management Unit.

DISTINGUISH NEW RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES

Do a desktop study of research already covered and identify gaps.

All researchers must apply to EKZWN for a research permit as well as a letter of consent to the KZN Amafa & Research Institute, if the research does not include direct intervention. If the research includes an excavation, the researcher must apply for a permit on the SAHRIS system to the Institute.

A copy of research published must be handed to EKZWN and the Institute for their libraries.

EDUCATION

Consult with the Resort Manager and guides to establish what educational facilities and programmes already exist within the management unit of Ithala.

Link these programmes with the current school syllabus.

Improve the interpretation centre at Ntshondwe Camp.

Train the guides and accredit them as Institute Rock Art Custodians or Heritage Custodians in a 4-day training regime.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Becker, E. 2006 “Survey for the The KwaZulu-Natal Amafa Heritage”, Unpublished, stored at: the Institute.
- Duminy, Andrew & Guest, Bill (editors), 1989, “Natal and Zululand from earliest times to 1910: A new history”, Shuter & Shooter (Pty) Ltd: Pietermaritzburg.
- Ezemvelo KwaZulu-Natal Wildlife, 2013 “Ithala Game Reserve Integrated Management Plan 2009-2013” Compiled by Ecotourism Afrika Trust: Pietermaritzburg
- Ezemvelo KwaZulu-Natal Wildlife, “The Story of Gold Mining at Ithala Game Reserve”, Commercial Operations: Pietermaritzburg.
- Ezemvelo KwaZulu-Natal Wildlife, “Ithala Game Reserve Visitor’s Map”, Commercial Operations: Pietermaritzburg.
- Ezemvelo KwaZulu-Natal Wildlife, “Bushbuck Trial Site Interpretation”, Commercial Operations: Pietermaritzburg.
- Huffman, Thomas N. 2004 “The archaeology of the Nguni Past” Southern African Humanities, Pp.79-111, Vol 16, Dec 2004: Pietermaritzburg.
- Huffman, Thomas, N. 2007 “Handbook to the Iron Age: the archaeology of pre-colonial farming societies in Southern Africa”, University of KwaZulu-Natal Press: Pietermaritzburg.
- Jansen, E.G. 1938 “Die Voortrekkers in Natal”, Nasionale Pers, Beperk: Pretoria/Jansen, E.G. 1938 “The Voortrekkers in Natal”, National Press Limited: Pretoria.
- Ken, Gillings, 2011 “Battles of KwaZulu-Natal: A pictorial souvenir of the Battles of KwaZulu-Natal 1818-1906”, Art Publishers: Durban, Johannesburg & Cape Town.
- KwaZulu-Natal Amafa Heritage, 2004 “Mgungundlovu: Self-guided Trail” brochure: Pietermaritzburg.
- The KwaZulu-Natal Amafa and Research Institute, *Policy with regards to rock art conservation in the province of KwaZulu-Natal, Addendum A: Guidance and Procedures with regard to access rock art sites in the province of KwaZulu-Natal* (Pietermaritzburg, 2017),
- KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Government, 2018 “The KwaZulu-Natal Amafa & Research Institute (Act No. 5 of 2018)”, Provincial Printers: Pietermaritzburg.

KwaZulu-Natal Amafa & Research Institute, 2018 “*uMgungundlovu: Multi Media Centre, King Dingane’s Royal Residence and Piet Retief’s Monument*” brochure: Pietermaritzburg

KwaZulu-Natal Museum, archives and data-base.

Maggs, T. 1998 “*Cartographic Content of Rock Art in Southern Africa*” in The History of Cartography: Cartography in Traditional African, American, Arctic, Australian, and Pacific Societies, edited by David Woodward and G Malcolm Lewis, Volume 2, Book 3. Chapter No 2: Cartographic Content of Rock Art in Southern Africa.

Maggs, T 1988 “*Patterns and perceptions of stone-built settlements from the Thukela Valley Late Iron Age*” Ann. Natal Museum, Vol 29(2), pp. 417-432) Oct 1988.

Maggs, T. 1995 *Neglected Rock Art: The Rock Engravings of Agriculturalist Communities in South Africa*”, South African Archaeological Bulletin no 50, pp. 132-142.

Maggs, T & Ward, V 1995 “*Rock engravings by agriculturalist communities in savanna areas of the Thukela Basin*” Humanities, pp 17-40, Dec 1995, Natal Museum: Pietermaritzburg.

Pelser, A. April 2015 “*Final report on a survey of the cultural heritage resources in the Ithala Game Reserve, near Louwsburg, KwaZulu-Natal (2731 Louwsburg) for Amafa AkwaZulu-Natali*”, Unpublished: stored at the Institute.

Republic of South Africa, 1999 “*National Heritage Resources Act (No.25 of 1999)*”, Government Printers: Pretoria.

Rossouw, C. 23 May 2016 “*Report on surveys undertaken at Ithala and Madka Reserves*”, unpublished, stored at: the Institute.

Universtiteit van Suid-Afrika, Department Antropologie en Inheemse Reg, 1992 “*Argeologie: Enigste studiegids vir ACE202-J*”, Universiteit van Suid-Afrika: Pretoria/University of South Africa, Department of Anthropology and Indigenous Law, 1992 “*Archaeology: Only study guide for ACE202-J*”, University of South Africa: Pretoria.

Universtiteit van Suid-Afrika, Departement Antropologie en Inheemse Reg, 1992 “*Argeologie: Enigste studiegids vir ACE201-H*” Universiteit van Suid-Afrika: Pretoria/University of South Africa, Department of Anthropology and Indigenous Law, 1992 “*Archaeology: Only study guide for ACE201-H*”, University of South Africa: Pretoria.

Van der Walt, J.C. 2006 “*“Zululand true stories 1780 to 1978”*”, Dr J.C. van der Walt: Richards Bay.

Internet

<http://www.battlefieldsroute.co.za/battle-of-ondini/>

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nieuwe_Republiek

Interview

LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK

KWAZULU-NATAL AMAFA & RESEARCH INSTITUTE ACT 5 OF 2018

General Protection: Battlefield sites, archaeological sites, rock art sites, palaeontological sites, historic fortifications, meteorite or meteorite impact sites

40.(1) No person may destroy, damage, excavate, alter, write or draw upon, or otherwise disturb any battlefield site, archaeological site, rock art site, palaeontological site, historic fortification, meteorite or meteorite impact site without the prior written approval of the Institute having been obtained on written application to the Institute.

(2) Upon discovery of archaeological or palaeontological material or a meteorite by any person, all activity or operations in the general vicinity of such material or meteorite must cease forthwith and a person who made the discovery must submit a written report to the Institute without delay.

(3) The Institute may, after consultation with an owner or controlling authority, by way of written notice served on the owner or controlling authority, prohibit any activity considered by the Institute to be inappropriate within 50 metres of a rock art site.

(4) No person may exhume, remove from its original position or otherwise disturb, damage, destroy, own or collect any object or material associated with any battlefield site, archaeological site, rock art site, palaeontological site, historic fortification, meteorite or meteorite impact site without the prior written approval of the Institute having been obtained on written application to the Institute.

(5) No person may bring any equipment which assists in the detection of metals and archaeological and palaeontological objects and material, or excavation equipment onto any battlefield site, archaeological site, rock art site, palaeontological site, historic fortification, or meteorite impact site, or use similar detection or excavation equipment for the recovery of meteorites, without the prior written approval of the Institute having been obtained on written application to the Institute.

The National Heritage Resource Act No. 25 of 1999, definition 1(d), section 35, section 50 (heritage inspectors), and for offences and penalties, section 51

Section 35 Archaeology, palaeontology and meteorites

- (1) Subject to the provisions of section 8, the protection of archaeological and palaeontological sites and material and meteorites is the responsibility of a provincial heritage resources authority: Provided that the protection of any wreck in the territorial waters and the maritime cultural zone shall be the responsibility of SAHRA.
- (2) Subject to the provisions of subsection (8) (a), all archaeological objects, palaeontological material and meteorites are the property of the State. The responsible heritage authority must, on behalf of the State, at its discretion ensure that such objects are lodged with a museum or other public institution that has a collection policy acceptable to the heritage resources authority and may in so doing establish such terms and conditions as it sees fit for the conservation of such objects.
- (3) Any person who discovers archaeological or palaeontological objects or material or a meteorite in the course of development or agricultural activity must immediately report the find to the responsible heritage resources authority, or to the nearest local authority office or museum, which must immediately notify such heritage resources authority.
- (4) No person may, without a permit issued by the responsible heritage resources authority –
- (a) destroy, damage, excavate, alter, deface or otherwise disturb any archaeological or palaeontological site or any meteorite;
 - (b) destroy, damage, excavate, remove from its original position, collect or own any archaeological or palaeontological material or object or any meteorite;
 - (c) trade in, sell for private gain, export or attempt to export from the Republic any category of archaeological or palaeontological material or object, or any meteorite; or
 - (d) bring onto or use at any archaeological or palaeontological site any excavation equipment or any equipment which assist in the detection or recovery of metals or archaeological and palaeontological material or objects, or use such equipment for the recovery of meteorites.

Appointment and powers of heritage inspectors

50 (2) By force of this section, each member of the South African Police Services and each custom and excise officer is deemed to be a heritage inspector.

Offences and Penalties

51 (1) Notwithstanding the provisions of any other law, any person who contravenes – (b) section 35(4) is guilty of an offence and liable to a fine or imprisonment or both such fine and imprisonment as set out in item 2 of the Schedule.

51 (2) The Minister, with the concurrence of the relevant MEC, may prescribe a penalty of a fine or imprisonment for a period not exceeding six months...

51 (3)(a) The Minister or the MEC, as the case may be, may make regulations in terms of which the magistrate of the district may – levy admission of guilt fines up to a maximum of R10 000,00 for infringement....and

(b) serve a notice upon a person who is contravening a specified provision of this Act or has not complied with the terms of a permit issued by such authority, imposing a fine of R50,00 for the duration of the contravention, subject to a maximum of 365 days.

Permit requirements:

What constitutes development?

Definition 1 (d)

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

- (a) construction, alteration, demolition, removal or change of use of a place or structure on the place,
- (b) carrying out any works on or over or under the place;
- (c) subdivision or consolidation of land comprising a place, including the structures of airspace;
- (d) construction or putting up for display signs.
- (e) any change to the natural or existing condition or topography of land;
- (f) any removal or destruction of trees or removal of vegetation or topsoil.

Section 36(1) General Protection

Structures:

Any proposed demolition, addition or alteration of structures or parts thereof, which are older than 60 years, shall be subject to the following:

- (a) thirty days prior to the commencement of such a proposed activity a permit shall be applied for from Amafa.
- (d) Conditions stipulated in terms of permits issued under this provision shall be of such nature so as to facilitate the recycling of historical building materials and the revision of design proposals.
- (e) Where a permit is refused, the Council shall within a three-month period give consideration to the protection of the site in terms of one of the formal classifications provided for in section 19 to 25 (e.g. Heritage Landmark, Provincial Landmark, Heritage Object, Heritage Conservancies, Provisional Protection or designating a suitable buffer area as a Sensitive Site).

Heritage resources management:

(1) Any person wishing to undertake a project described in terms of the following categories:

- (a) construction of a road, wall, power line, pipe line, canal or other similar form of linear development or barrier exceeding 300m in length.
- (b) construction of a bridge or similar structure exceeding 50m in length; and
- (c) any development that will change the character of an area of land or water –
 - (i) exceeding 5 000m² in extent;
 - (ii) involving three or more existing erven, or subdivisions thereof, or
 - (iii) involving three or more erven, or subdivisions thereof, which have been consolidated within the past five years; or
 - (iv) the costs of which will exceed a sum set in terms of regulations; or
 - (v) any other category of development provided for regulations, shall the earliest stages of initiating development, notify the Council of Amafa and furnish it with details regarding the location, nature and extent of the proposed development.

(2) within 14 days of receipt of the notification the Council will notify the person that he/she must submit and Heritage Impact Assessment Report at the cost of the person proposing the development.

(3) the HIA must include the following

- (a) identification and mapping of heritage resources in the area affected;
- (b) an assessment of the significance of such heritage resources
- (c) an assessment of the impact of the development on the resources
- (d) an evaluation of above-mentioned in relation to socio-economic benefits derived from development
- (e) should heritage resources be adversely affected by the proposed development, the consideration of alternatives; and
- (f) plans for mitigation of any adverse effects during and after completion of the proposed development

(4) The HIA will be considered timeously by the Council, which shall then decide whether the proposed development can proceed or not; whether any limitations or conditions are to be applied to the development, what general protections apply and what formal protections can be applied to such heritage resource.

Applying guidelines of the Burra Charter to Rock Art Management in South Africa

Preamble: The Burra Charter was adopted by the Australian National Committee of the International Council on Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS) in 1979. Revisions were adopted in 1981, 1988 and 1999. The Burra Charter provides guidance for the conservation and management of places with cultural significance.

Strategies: The management of rock art sites includes the following strategies: maintenance, physical conservation as well as visitor management.

1) Maintenance According to the Burra Charter, article 1.5, maintenance can be defined as the continuous protection of the setting, fabric and contents, distinguishing it from repair, which would indicate restoration or reconstruction.

Maintenance includes baseline documentation, condition assessment reports and continuous monitoring (regular inspections and the replication of recording methods). This is based on the rationale of minimum intervention and preventative care e.g. checking that the fire breaks are carried out, removing dead wood inside caves and rock shelter that poses a fire threat, trimming shrubs that are rubbing against rock art panels, checking that the visitors' infrastructure (fences, walk ways, signage) are maintained and repaired if necessary.

2) Physical conservation: According to the Burra Charter, "conservation means all the processes of looking after a place so as to retain its cultural significance"(Article 1: Definitions 1.4) This also includes direct intervention at a site, e.g. stabilisation, adaptation, restoration and reconstruction.

a) Stabilisation or preservation (article 1.6) can be defined as preserving what exists as it is or retarding deterioration (not improvement) e.g. establishing a drip line, consolidation treatment to stabilise paintings and engravings.

b) Adaptation: According to article 1.9, 1.10, 1.11, 6, 7 and 21 adaptation embodies, modifying a place to suit compatible uses and it is acceptable where it will supplement the conservation of the place and if it does not substantially subtract from the cultural significance of a site.

Adaptation must be limited to which is essential to allow use of the place in accordance with the Statement of Goals and Objectives, e.g. modifying a site to allow for low impact tourism (The construction of fences, signage, board walks, benches, etc. at rock art sites).

c) Restoration involves returning the existing fabric to a known earlier state by removing accretions without introducing new materials (article 1.7 & 19). This can only be done if there are sufficient evidence of an earlier state and only if removing the fabric reveals the cultural significance of the place/setting.

This process is limited to the removal of post-contact graffiti (younger than 100 years) as well as the removal of stains caused by lichen, vascular plants and the removal of birds and insect nests obliterating the art.

d) Reconstruction: implies returning a site as near as possible to a known earlier state (article 1.8 & 20). This is aimed at legibility as well as the aesthetic presentation of a site/artefact. New as well as old materials are used in the process. Reconstruction must be limited to the completion of a dilapidated entity (it should not involve the majority of the fabric).

Reconstruction is not applicable in South Africa as there are no San descendants left to renovate their rock art by retouching original panels (It is however allowed in Australia, where the original artists are living and still paint and renovate their art).

3) Visitor management: The management of visitors includes the employment of guides, custodians, the development of interpretive programmes as well as the construction and maintenance of visitors' facilities. E.g. signs, physical barriers, walk ways, which correlates intrinsically with strategies related to adaptation. (See physical conservation strategies).

POLICY WITH REGARDS TO ROCK ART CONSERVATION IN THE PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL

INTRODUCTION:

The KwaZulu-Natal Amafa & Research Institute, as statutory body, is responsible to protect and manage rock art sites. Section 40 of the KwaZulu-Natal Heritage Act No. 5 of 2018 allows for the establishment of this Policy.

1) PURPOSE:

To manage and conserve rock art sites, thereby contributing to limitation of destructive processes.

2) LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK:

- 1) The KwaZulu-Natal Amafa & Research Institute Act No. 5 of 2018. (Section 40)
- 2) The National Heritage Resources Act No. 25 of 1999. (Section 35)

3) RESPONSIBILITY:

The KwaZulu-Natal Amafa & Research Institute has appointed a Senior Heritage Officer, Rock Art, to implement this Policy. This person will liaise with all necessary interested and affected parties involved with the management of rock art sites on private farms, on communal/traditional land, inside protected areas and on commercial forestry land.

4) POLICY:

- 1) No person may access an area within 50 meter of a rock art site unless he/she adheres to the access and control measures instituted by the provincial heritage resources authority, The KwaZulu-Natal Amafa & Research Institute in consultation with the land owner and/or manager. (Addendum A)
- 2) Direct interventions (including stabilisation, low impact adaptation, restoration and tracing) require permits from The Institute and if they site is located within a protected area, the applicant will also have to apply to Ezemvelo KwaZulu-Natal Wildlife for a permit (Addendum B: Graffiti removal, Stabilisation – insertion of a drip line, removal of birds'/wasps'/insect mud nests or algae/lichen/plant material from the parent rock, Tourism adaptation, Tracing).
- 3) Visitors must behave appropriately at rock art sites at all times. (Addendum C)
- 4) Recognising that rock art should be accessible for public viewing, landowners and/or managers can identify sites which will be officially opened under controlled circumstances and actively managed. (Addendum D)

5) MONITORING AND REVISION:

This Policy will be monitored for its effectiveness in achieving the goals and objectives as stated in this document.

6) ADOPTION AND AMMENDMENTS:

Draft Policy to be tabled at The Institute’s Council Meeting, amendments to be made if necessary.

Adoption/Amendment

Signed on behalf of The KwaZulu-Natal Amafa & Research Institute

At.....

Date.....

.....
Chairman of Council
The KZN Amafa and Research Institute

.....
Signature

7) DEFINITIONS

a) The KZN Amafa & Research Institute the Institute is the provincial legislative body mandated to conserve heritage, such as historically important sites, architecturally important buildings, traditional building techniques, public monuments & memorials, traditional burial places, military cemeteries, graves, cultural objects, archaeological and palaeontological sites and artefacts, shipwrecks, meteorites and rock art.

b) Access: Entering into any area within 50 meter of a rock art site in KwaZulu-Natal.

c) Rock art: is a form of painting, engraving or other graphic representation executed by a human on a loose stone or a fixed rock surface, including an area of 50 meter surrounding the site. Rock art is at least 100 years old.

d) Graffiti: includes any act of deliberate defacement of rock art which includes added graffiti in the medium of paint, charcoal and chalk as well as engraved graffiti in the form of incisions/pecking made on the rock substrate, removing the patina.

e) “Alter”: means any action affecting the structure, appearance of 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.