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FIRST PHASE ARCHAEOLOGICAL & HERITAGE INVESTIGATION OF THE PROPOSED 222 ERVEN RESIDENTIAL DEVELOPMENT AT 27HA ERF 1, KURUMAN, NORTHERN CAPE PROVINCE

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The Ga-Segonyana Local Municipality on behalf of the John Talolo Gaetsewe District Municipality is planning the surveying and development of a total of 222 residential and service erven covering 27ha on Erf 1 at Kuruman in the Northern Cape. YB Mashalaba & Associates from Bloemfontein, have been appointed as the Environmental; Consultants.

Many heritage impact assessments around Kuruman, Kathu, Groblershoop and Olifantshoek and along the Sishen-Saldanha railway line produced archaeological material and farm buildings. In the case of Erf 1, Kuruman, archaeological remains in the form of scattered flaked cores and core flakes were found on dolomite outcrops to the west and east of the site.

No graves or any other cultural or historical features were found at the Kuruman site. Mitigation measures will be necessary in case graves or other human skeletal or unidentified heritage resources are found during the construction phase. This possibility seems quite unlikely. The southern part of the site is covered with seemingly sterile red sand, but it is possible that Middle and Later Stone Age lithic material could be found.

INTRODUCTION & DESCRIPTION

The Ga-Segonyana Local Municipality on behalf of the John Talolo Gaetsewe District Municipality is planning and surveying a total of 222 residential and service erven covering 27ha on Erf 1 at Kuruman in the Northern Cape. YB

Mashalaba & Associates from Bloemfontein have been appointed as the Environmental Consultants.

Scope and Limitations

This report addresses the Heritage Impact Assessment (HIA) for the 222 residential erven and services on Erf 1 at Kuruman.

The survey is based on a visual inspection of the area. The southern part of the site contains a red sand cover with a substantial stand of trees, shrubs and grass. Dolomite outcrops occur on an east-west arrangement through the site (Fig.20). The surface cover in the rocky area (Fig. 13&14) consists of Kathu Bushveld shrubs and bushes with a wide scatter of Kameeldoring (*Erioloba*) trees across the whole site (Fig.5,17,18). Over three hundred individual *Erioloba* trees were plotted by the botanist during the survey. Thick stands of Trassiedoring / Candle-pod acacia (*Acacia hebeclada*), Driedoring (*Rhigozum trichotomum*) Blinkblaar Wag-'n-Bietjie (*Ziziphus mucronata*) and Haak-en-Steek / Umbrella thorn (*Acacia tortillis*), also occur at the site.

Methodology

1. Standard archaeological survey and recording methods were applied.
2. Rapport building with local neighbours.
3. A study of the literature to obtain information about the history, archaeology and heritage remains of the area.
4. The site was inspected on foot.
5. The layout of the area plotted by GPS and coordinates transferred to Google Earth.
6. The site and its surroundings and features recorded on camera.
7. Mitigation measures were considered.
8. Suggested access, by-pass and service roads were investigated.

INVESTIGATION

The current heritage investigation provided the opportunity to examine the 27ha land proposed for the residential developments at Kuruman. The site was visited on 3 November 2014. Arno Pelser from YB Mashalaba & Associates Consultants CC from Bloemfontein gave directions to the stand. During the site visit, I was accompanied by Dr Johan du Preez, ecologist and plant specialist from Green SA, Consultants from Bloemfontein.

The study aims to locate and evaluate the significance of cultural heritage sites, archaeological material, manmade structures older than 60 years, and sites

associated with oral histories and graves that might be affected by the proposed developments. In many cases, planted and self-sown trees and other types of vegetation represent a major part of the historical environment of human settlements in villages and towns, on farmyards or even deserted places in the open veld. These features are taken into consideration during any cultural investigation.

The site was examined for possible archaeological and historical material and to establish the potential impact on any cultural material that may be found. The Heritage Impact Assessment (HIA) is done in terms of the National Heritage Resources Act (NHRA), (25 of 1999) and under the National Environmental Management Act, 1998 (Act. 108 of 1998).

HISTORICAL ENVIRONMENT

Kuruman was founded by the missionary Robert Moffat at a fresh water spring, known as the "Eye of Kuruman" in 1821. This geological feature spills out a huge amount of water from deep underground. The settlement became the first mission station of the London Missionary Society north of the Orange River, where the Moffat Church was completed in 1838. David Livingstone also started his missionary career here in 1841. The town was established as a magisterial district in British Bechuanaland in 1887. The origin of the name Kuruman is uncertain, but it is generally accepted as being a variation on the name of an 18th-century San leader, Nkudumane (Du Plessis 1973, Raper 2004).

Ironically, the Kuruman River, which is dry except for occasional flash floods after heavy rains, gives its name to the town. The town of Kuruman is widely known as the 'Oasis of the Kalahari'. Blessed with a permanent and abundant source of water, that flows from Gasegonyana, commonly called "The Eye" delivering nearly 20 million litres of water daily from the dolomite Ghaap Plateau and dolerite dykes and sills.

The Wonderwerk Cave lies 43km south of Kuruman towards Daniëlskuil. Archaeological excavations, suggest dates of more than a million years ago. Spanning the stone age, finds include Acheulean hand axes and cleavers, indications of the controlled use of fire, grass bedding, animal remains including extinct species, engraved stones, and a wide range of Later Stone Age artefacts. Rock paintings were made in red and yellow ochre from the vicinity.

Several of the ancient Batswana tribes, including the different Thlaping and Thlaro sections as well as other smaller groups, take their 18th and 19th century roots back to the area around Kuruman, Mafikeng, Vryburg, Taung, Groblershoop, Olifantshoek and the Langeberg (Majeng) and Korannaberg ranges. This area includes the districts as far as Pilansberg, Marico, Lichtenburg, Wolmaransstad, Potchefstroom, Rustenburg and Klerksdorp (Breutz 1953, 1954, 1963, Van Warmelo 1935, Massie 1905).

This specific part of the Northern Cape had been occupied by European farmers since about 1911 in an area previously inhabited by the Batswana. When Britain annexed Bechuanaland in 1885 the land of the indigenous inhabitants had been limited to a number of reserves. In 1895, when British Bechuanaland was incorporated into the Cape Colony, the land inside the reserves remained the property of the Tswana and could only be alienated with the consent of the British Secretary of State. Batswana resistance to White colonisation led to the Langeberg Rebellion of 1896-97 and permission for alienation followed soon afterwards. Farms in the confiscated reserves were surveyed and made available to White farmers. Chief Toto for one was offended by the White farmers and their families who settled in the area on farms such as Skaapklouf, Steenbokklouf and Gasikoa, which the Batswana considered as their best cattle posts and natural water springs. Toto claimed that his land stretched further west up to the Griqualand West border. This border problem originated from the neglect by government surveyor M.W. Theal, to clearly stipulate the western border of the Reserve. To resolve the uncertainty, another surveyor J.C. Wessels, was sent in 1894 to mark out the western border of the reserve and to measure the ten related farms situated in the south west.

The territory between the Vaal and the Molopo Rivers played an important role in the lives of the southern Tswana tribes of the region, in particular the Batlharo of Mankurwane and Barolong of Montshiwa. Shortly after 1881 when the Transvaal Republic (ZAR) gained their independence from Britain, full-scale hostilities broke out between the Boers and the Tshidi-Barolong of Montshiwa. Both these parties obtained the assistance of different groups of mercenaries to fight for them. One of these hired adventurers turned out to be the notorious Scotty Smith, renowned cattle and horse thief, diamond smuggler, gun-runner, elephant hunter and mercenary soldier (Edgecombe 1979).

After an extended period of siege and when his people were facing starvation, Montshiwa had to surrender to the Boers in 1882. The establishment of the Republics of Goosen (1882) and Stellaland (1883) by the European colonists, followed shortly afterwards. At the same time, the Tlhaping of chief Mankurwane aroused hostilities by an attack on a Taaibosch-Korana settlement of David Massouw at Mamusa near Schweizer-Reneke (Van Den Berg 1996). In 1883, a large British force under General Sir Charles Warren was sent out to put an end to the Republics of Stellaland and Goosen. An area, which included the two Republics, was annexed to Britain as the crown Colony of British Bechuanaland in 1885. This had been followed by a transfer of the land under the jurisdiction of the Government of the Cape Colony in 1895, thus also placing Mankurwane and Montshiwa under total British rule.

The Batlhaping and Batlharo, southern branches of the Batswana, reached Majeng (Langeberg), Tsantsabane (Postmasburg) and Tlhaka le Tlou (Olifantshoek), with the largest Tlhaping settlement at Nokaneng (Nokanna). The Tlharo occupied the Langeberg, and more specifically between Olifantshoek

(Ditlou) and Dibeng. After clashes with the Korana, who came into the area in about 1770, the Thlaping and Tlharo had to leave Nokaneng and the Langeberg region by 1790. The Thlaping moved to Dithakong, while the Tlharo settled north and north-west of the Thlaping. At the beginning of the 19th century, the Thlaping joined Robert Moffat's mission station near Kuruman. The Tlharo settled between Kuruman and the Langeberg, reaching the Kuruman River and the Korannaberg by 1820. The hostile conduct of the Bergenaars (vagabond groups of outcast Griekwa, Korana, Namakwa and other people of mixed descent) left the Langeberg relatively unoccupied during the early decades of the 19th century. From about the 1840s the situation stabilised sufficiently to allow the Tlharo, under chief Makgolokwe to stay in the Langeberg. Their main settlement was on the farms Pudahush and Toto, with outposts at Ditlou, Gamanyana and Gamasep. Other tribe members spread to Gatlhose, Maremane, Dibeng and Kathu. By 1859 the London Missionary Society was already active amongst the Batlharo and by 1862 a school existed at Pudahush.

To close the previously "open" western border, Griqualand West was annexed by Britain in 1871, placing the boundary line only about 30km south of Olifantshoek. This action resulted in a serious revolt by the Black occupants of Griqualand West in 1878. The unrest also affected British Bechuanaland, with a section of the Langberg Batlharo under Sampie, the son of Makgolokwe (and half brother of Toto from the second hut, see Breutz 1963), who decided to join the rebels gathered around Ditlou and Pudahush. In 1897 a task force under General Sir Charles Warren marched on the Langeberg, where the rebels had been defeated in a series of skirmishes. To keep an eye on the situation, Warren remained in the area for some time, placing his base at Ditlou, with another section of his force at Gamasep. After this, peace had been restored in the whole of British Bechuanaland and a general pardon was proclaimed. Throughout these hostilities, Makgolokwe and his son Toto (Totwe) remained quiet and loyal at Dibeng and were allowed to return to Pudahush after the war. In 1881 the total border police force had been withdrawn from Bechuanaland, allowing a state of disorder to develop in the area. Makgolokwe passed away in the same year and was succeeded by his son Toto (Snyman 1986, 1987).

Totwe (Toto) Makgolokwe became the paramount chief of the Batlharo tribe. After defeating the British military force in 1897, he became the hero of the Langeberg Rebellion. The British authorities subsequently brought in reinforcements which defeated the Batlharo and captured both Toto Makgolokwe and Kgosi Galeshewe. Toto was convicted for protecting and sheltering Galeshewe. Toto's eldest son Phemelo Toto was also arrested and taken with him to Robben Island, where Toto died soon afterwards.

Kgosi Galeshewe was a chief of the Thlaping tribe in the Northern Cape. Following an attack on Cornforth Hill near Taung in 1878, a raid in which Francis Thompson and his nephew were savagely murdered, Galeshewe was captured and subsequently sentenced to twelve years imprisonment for his part in the uprising. In 1897, during a rinderpest outbreak, he again clashed with the police

and military at Phokwane near Hartswater. As a result, he was imprisoned for his part in the Langeberg Rebellion. He died at Magogong, near Hartswater in 1927. The Kimberley township of Galeshewe is named after him.

Shortly after annexation by the Cape Colony, rebellion erupted in the former Crown Colony of British Bechuanaland. Joining forces in the Langeberg Mountains, Tlhaping and Tlharo resisted a considerable government force for nearly eight months. The origins of the rebellion can be taken back to the long-standing grievances of the Tlhaping and Tlharo, mainly out of competition for land and the frustration caused by the white administration, which meant taxes, police interference and new laws, for the chiefs, the responsibility of a new legal system together with the arrival of Christianity and a decrease of authority of the chiefs. On the other hand, there had been the white man's own mounting frustration. The annexation of the territory by the Cape seems to have stimulated rebellion in order to make new land available. Amongst the Tlhaping and Tlharo, new grievances and pressures became acute immediately before the rebellion. These included total distrust of the Cape Colonial government, further fears of loss of land, and anxiety concerning threats to their growing involvement in a market economy. Finally the consequences of a rinderpest outbreak together with dynastic politics appear to have tipped the scales in favour of rebellion (Saker & Aldridge 1971).

From 1882 a noticeable shift of Batlharo tribe members to the Langeberg, caused a rapid increase in the followers of Tlharo. This movement followed after struggles between the Tlharo and the Tlhaping, Korana, Rolong and their White allied freebooters. By 1884 the Tlharo tribe was still prepared to acknowledge British rule over their territory, but after several raids by Mankurwane and his Tlhaping, the Batlharo of Toto were preparing for armed resistance.

Since 1910 onwards, a need arose in the former Langeberg Reserve for a centre to serve the growing farming community. This led to the laying out of residential lots at Olifantshoek in 1911 and resulted in the establishment of a village management board in 1917 (Snyman 1986, 1987).

The report of the Land Commission of 1886 added the Langeberg, Deben, Kathu, Gatlhose and Maremane region to the territory of the Batlharo. These land grants did not bring any notable change to the security situation and Toto's territory remained a haven for stock thieves. Between 1889 and 1890, the land surveyor M.W. Theal started to measure and layout the farms in the area around Toto's reserve. After the annexation of Bechuanaland the first group of traders moved into the area to settle at Bishops Wood (1886), Mapedi (Lynputs) from 1888, Gamagara (1889), Magoloring (Aarkop) and Mount Temple in 1888.

It is accepted that farms such as Langkloof, Inglesby, Lukin, Gamanyana, Pudahush, Toto, Luka and Hopkins, had been named after major role players in the Langeberg Rebellion. A recent study, which aimed to understand the historical background and heritage resources of the area, did not produce any proof or

references confirming these farms as the original and actual living sites of the different Batswana tribes (Dreyer 2014). The inspection did likewise not produce any archaeological or historical remains of earlier tribal occupations in the Langeberg and Korannaberg ranges, either.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL BACKGROUND

Compared to other parts of the Northern Cape, it seems that not much is known about the archaeology of the 18th and 19th century history of the Langeberg region. A number of heritage investigations refer to Stone Age material from the area (Groenewald 2013). Pelser & Lombard (2013) mentions graves and lithic material at a site 15km north of Postmasburg and close to the Beeshoek mine on rocky ridges and on the flood plain along the Orange River. Rock engravings are also mentioned from both Beeshoek Mine and Paling farm. The Paling site is probably associated with a cave shown on a map dating from 1881.

A basic assessment along the Groblershoop - Marydale power line, revealed a single site of cultural heritage significance. A few other out of context stone tools were identified (Van Vollenhoven 2014).

Beaumont and Boshier (1974) describe ancient specularite mines around Postmasburg and Beeshoek and refer particularly to finds at Doornfontein, 16km north-west of Postmasburg. The farm Paling is also mentioned as to have Stone Age material from all phases, mentioning artefacts such as core flakes, blades, segments and scrapers made out of Silcrete, jasper, quartzite, horn fells and banded iron stone (See also Thackeray et al. 1983).

IRON AGE ARCHAEOLOGY

Dramatic climate changes resulted in a rapid population growth along the east coast of South Africa. Increased pressure on the natural resources and attempts to control trade routes during the early 19th century brought the emergence of powerful leaders in the coastal area. Subsequent power struggles developed into a period of instability on the central Highveld. This time of strife or wars of devastation, known as “difaqane” (Sotho/Tswana) or “Mfecane” (Nguni), affected many of the Black tribes in the interior. Attacks from east of the escarpment initiated by the AmaZulu impis of Chaka in about 1822, were sustained by the AmaNdebele of Mzilikazi and the AmaNgwane of Matiwane into the Free State, North West Province and Northern Cape, thus uprooting among others, the Batlokwa of Sekonyela and Mantatise and various smaller Sotho/Tswana tribes further inland. On their turn, the Batlokwa drove off the Bafokeng of Sebetoane from Kurutlele near Senekal in the Free State, who, in their effort to escape the pursuit by the AmaNdebele forces, eventually landed up in the Caprivi (Dreyer & Kilby 2003). This period of unrest directly affected the peoples of the interior, resulting in the displacement of scores of tribesmen, women and children. The

stronger tribal groups, such as the AmaNdebele of Mzilikazi, assimilated many of these Batswana refugees.

Early European missionaries and travellers ventured into the central parts of the country during the 19th century and the Rev James Archbell established the missionary at Thaba Nchu by 1834. These marauding hordes affected the lives of the Batswana people living at Dithakong near the mission station of Robert and Mary Moffat near Kuruman.

The Later Iron Age phase brought people who smelted metals, cultivated crops, kept livestock and produced an abundance of pottery in a variety of shapes and sizes. Extensive stone-walled enclosures characterise their permanent settlements. These living places are known from the prominent Sotho/Tswana settlements along the Sand, Renoster and Vals Rivers near Ventersburg, Kroonstad and Bothaville, at Klerksdorp, Rustenburg and in the Magaliesberg.

A number of Taaibos Korana and Griqua groups, remnants of the Later Stone Age peoples, managed to survive the assimilation by Sotho/Tswana tribes at Mamusa near Schweizer Reneke (Van den Berg 1996).

The Iron Age archaeology of the Free State, Northern Cape and North West Province is characterised by a wide distribution of stone-walled sites on the flat-topped ridges and hills. There is detail and consistency in the arrangement and design of these structures. People's expression of culture has left its imprint on the material environment. The settlement patterns display human perceptions with regard to social clustering, economic system and political organisation. Patterns culminate in the arrangement of huts, byres and middens in a particular order and in relation to one another. Spatial organisation in general is characterised by the central position of stock enclosures and the placing of the main dwelling area on the perimeter of the settlement. Although a variety of different classes and types of settlements have been defined, these are all variations of the Central Cattle Pattern (CCP), a specific model for the organisation and use of space in Zulu and Sotho/Tswana settlements.

The classification of sites is based on the assumption that settlement layout is destined and arranged by cultural perceptions. The identification of different ethnic groups is thus possible from the way in which these traditional peoples organised their different living places in terms of space and time. The result was directed by cultural preference (choice) and function. The significance of livestock, personal status, kinship, social organisation and the diverse roles of men, women and offspring have always been important in the understanding of settlement patterns (Huffman 2007).

The Later Iron Age classification of settlement patterns formulated by Maggs (1976) and Mason (1986), produced a standardised archaeological framework for the ordering of structures and sites characterised respectively by stock

enclosures with connecting walls, in certain cases including corbelled huts (Type V), surrounding walls (Type N) and huts with bilobial courtyards (Type Z). Associated pottery assemblages with different decoration styles confirm the classification of sites based on layout (Maggs 1976:290). Different settlement patterns also produced huts of different materials in different styles.

The remains at Type Z sites normally associated with Batswana settlement show up as a ring of scalloped stone-walls surrounding several stock enclosures. From this, it is concluded that these dwellings consisted of a cone on cylinder hut with stone-walled courtyards at both front and rear, forming a bilobial layout. The huts are arranged around a cluster of central cattle byres. Raw materials have been substituted at different localities, resulting in a variation in settlement pattern where clay walls replaced stone-walling of the front lobe as at Bothaville (Maggs 1976) and at the Willem Pretorius Game Reserve on the Sand River, near Ventersburg (Dreyer 1997). The occupation of the sites with bilobial dwellings is ascribed to Batswana (e.g. Thlaping and Rolong) groups. It is also possible to link Kubung people to every known site of this kind (Maggs 1976).

Pottery decorations associated with these settlements are characterised by shallow line incisions in bands and triangles below the rim and on the shoulder, combined with straight or curved lines and areas of red ochre burnish on the body of clay vessels (Maggs 1976).

According to radiocarbon dating and oral tradition, these Type Z sites were occupied from the 16th and 17th to early 19th century at Ventersburg, and 18th to early 19th century at Bothaville. A single bone sample from Jansfontein in the Doringberg, near Ventersburg, produced a calibrated date of 1670, which is slightly later than the Ventersburg date (Dreyer 1992). Taylor's Group II sites produced a date between AD 1650 and 1800 with the settlements at Askoppies around late 1670s, early 1680s and early 1800 (Pelser 2005).

LOCALITY

Kuruman is situated between Vryburg and Kathu along the N14 main road to Upington (Fig.1). The town has a long history that started in the early 19th century with the advance of the Christian missionaries into the area.

The Ga-Segonyana Local Municipality on behalf of the John Talolo Gaetsewe District Municipality is planning the surveying and development of a total of 222 residential and service erven covering 27ha on Erf 1 at Kuruman (Figs.2-5). YB Mashalaba & Associates from Bloemfontein have been appointed as the Environmental Consultants.

The following GPS coordinates (Cape scale) were taken (Map 6).

A	27°27'02"S 023°25'32"E	Altitude 1333m	(Figs.1&2).
B	27°27'01"S 023°25'24"E	Altitude 1333m	(Figs.3&4).
C	27°26'55"S 023°25'24"E	Altitude 1330m	(Figs.5&6).
D	27°26'52"S 023°25'31"E	Altitude 1336m	(Figs.7-9).
E	27°26'44"S 023°25'30"E	Altitude 1333m	(Figs.13-15).
F	27°26'44"S 023°25'36"E	Altitude 1334m	(Figs.17-20).
G	27°26'53"S 023°25'42"E	Altitude 1332m	(Figs.21&22).
H	27°26'54"S 023°25'51"E	Altitude 1335m	(Figs.23&24).
J	27°26'45"S 023°25'49"E	Altitude 1334m	(Figs.25&26).

FINDS

A number of CRM projects have been undertaken between the Garona Sub-station on the Sishen-Saldanha railway line and the Orange River in recent years (Dreyer 2006, 2012, 2014, Pelsler & Lombard 2013, Webley 2013, PGS Heritage 2009, 2010). These projects have identified temporary scatters of Middle Stone Age material across the landscape, but concluded that the artefacts do not appear to be concentrated sufficiently to represent sites. They were rated to be of low significance and no mitigation measures were proposed.

A joint field survey was undertaken with staff from Landscape Dynamics, Eskom and other specialists in February 2013 (Webley 2013). Spot checks were made along the route to establish the potential impacts to heritage remains. The fieldwork identified small scatters of Middle Stone Age material made on banded ironstone on both sides of the river. These scatters appear to be denser on small quartz koppies. Sites comprising hornfels cobbles and quartz artefacts (which may represent Later Stone Age sites), were found along the eastern banks of the Orange River. No or graves were recorded. No buildings or structures older than 60 years will be impacted.

During the present survey, scatters of worked stone artefacts were spotted at a number of places in association with calcrete and dolomite outcrops (Fig.10-12,16). The collections were widespread and no dense concentrations occurred.

No other cultural or historical remains or graves were found at the site.

Although the red sand deposit in the south seems to be sterile, it is possible that there could have been stone tool activities and dwelling places during the Later Stone Age (Morris 2012, Webley 2013).

IMPACT ASSESSMENT

The proposed new residential developments will have no serious and destructive effect on any historical remains at the Kuruman site.

Scatters of worked stone artefacts were spotted at a number of places in association with calcrete outcrops. The collections were widespread and no dense concentrations occurred.

No other cultural or historical remains or graves were found at the site. Mitigation measures will be necessary in case graves or other human skeletal or unidentified heritage resources are found during the construction phase.

Further planning of the proposed project may continue.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is accepted that the First Phase Heritage Impact Assessment for the proposed residential developments at Kuruman has been conducted successfully.

The sub-soil presence of archaeological and / or historical remains, features or artefacts are always a strong possibility and needs to be kept in mind at all times. Care should therefore be taken during all development activities that if any material of cultural importance or human skeletal remains are discovered, a qualified archaeologist should be called in to investigate. This would include the discovery of previously unknown graves.

MITIGATION

Mitigation measures will be necessary in case graves or other human skeletal or unidentified heritage resources are found during the construction phase.

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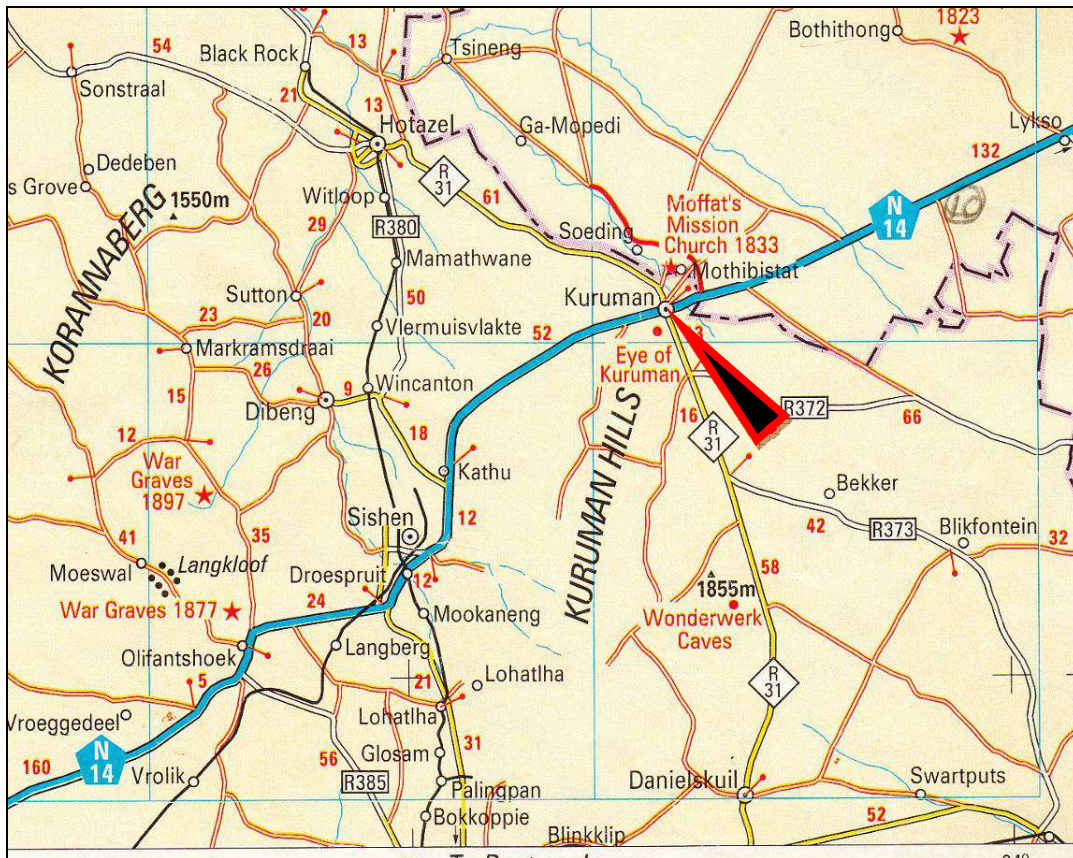
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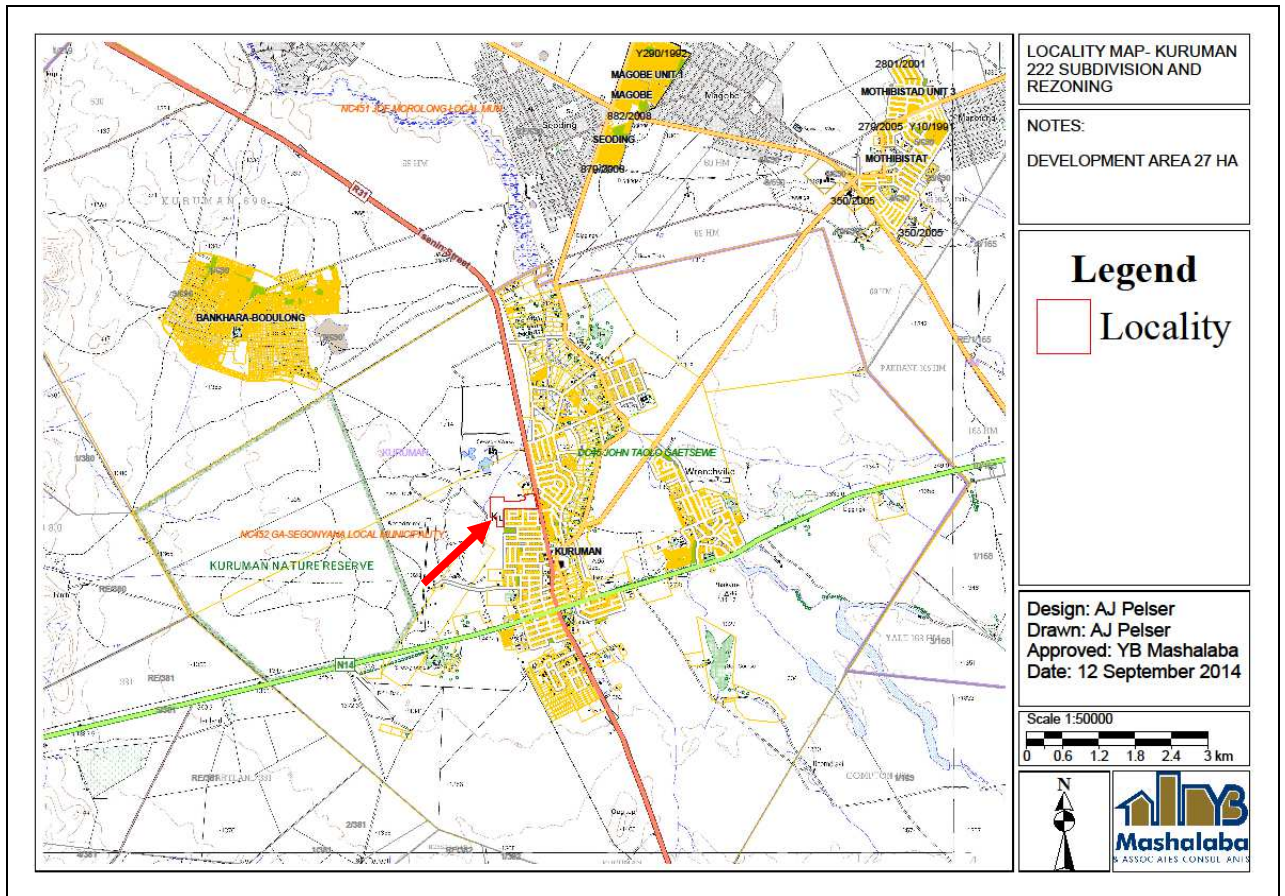
LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS:



Map 1 Locality of Kuruman along the N14 in the Northern Cape Province.



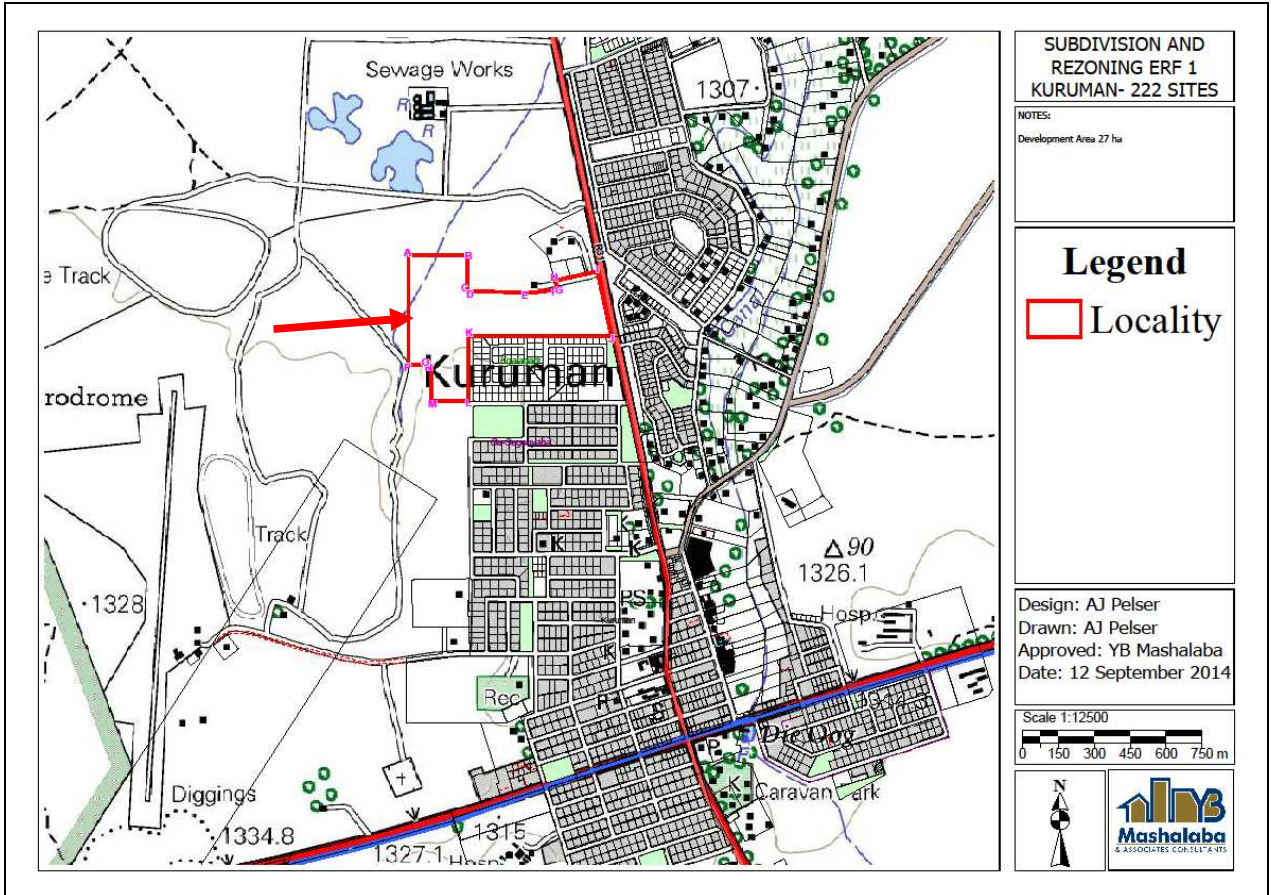
Fig.1 Point A at Kuruman residential development.



Map 2 Locality of the development area at Kuruman, Northern Cape.



Fig.2 Point A at Kuruman residential development.



Map 3 Locality of the development area at Kuruman, Northern Cape.



Fig.3 Point B at the residential development, Kuruman.



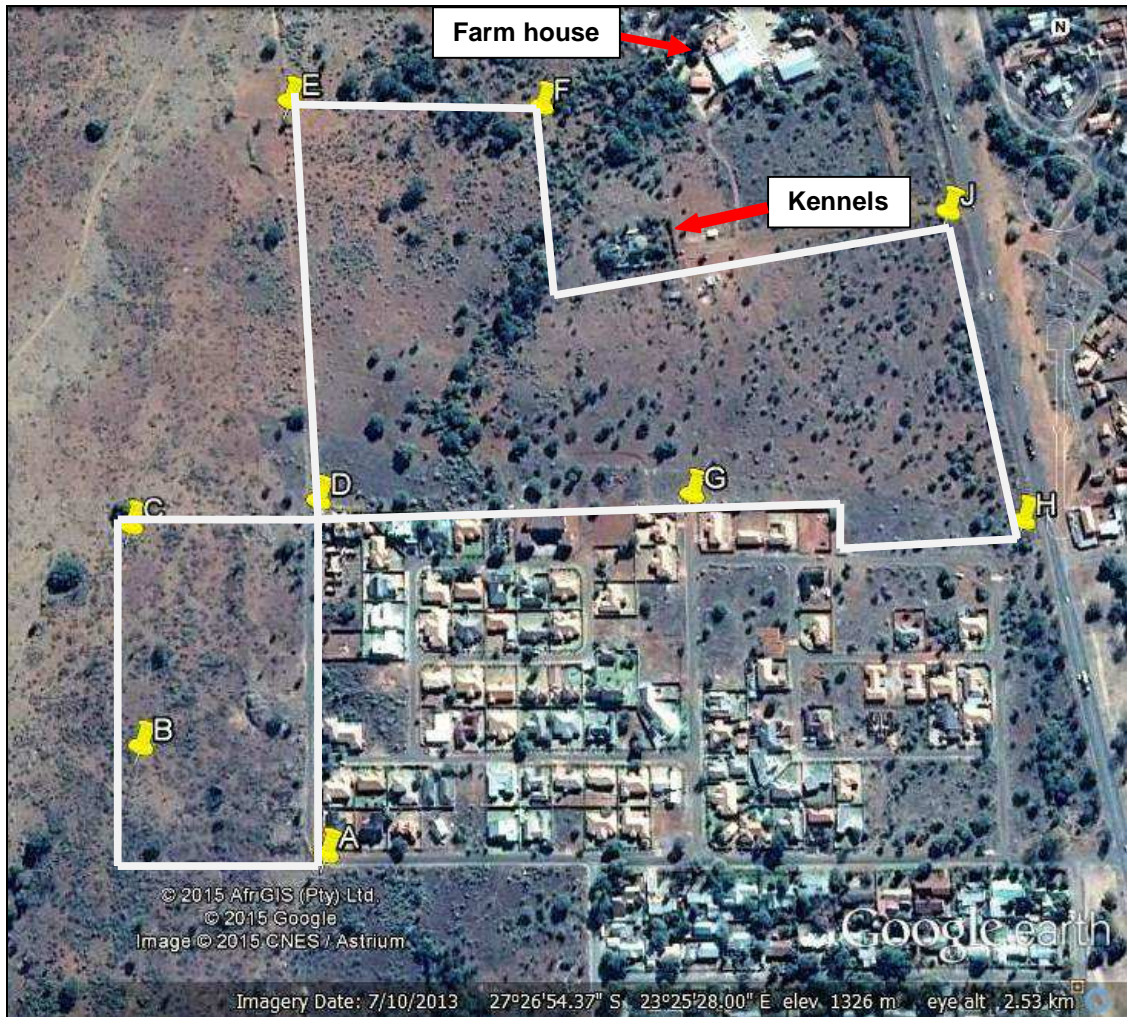
Map 4 Locality of the development area at Kuruman.



Map 5 Locality of the development area at Kuruman.



Fig.4 Point B of the residential development at Kuruman.



Map 6 Locality of the development area at Kuruman. Coordinate points indicated.



Fig.5 Point C of the residential developments at Kuruman.



Fig.6 Point C of the residential developments at Kuruman.



Fig.7 Point D of the residential developments at Kuruman.



Fig.8 Point D of the residential developments at Kuruman.



Fig.9 Point D of the residential developments at Kuruman.



Fig.10 Stone flakes from Point D, Kuruman (Pocket knife = 84mm).



Fig.11 Stone flakes at Point D at Kuruman (Pocket knife = 84mm).



Fig.12 Stone flakes at Point D at Kuruman (Pocket knife = 84mm).



Fig. 13 Soil quarry at Point E, residential developments at Kuruman.



Fig.14 Stratigraphy inside the quarry at Point E, residential developments at Kuruman.



Fig.15 Point E of the residential developments at Kuruman.



Fig.16 Stone flakes at Point E at Kuruman (Pocket knife = 84mm).



Fig.17 Point F of the residential developments at Kuruman.



Fig.18 Point F of the residential developments at Kuruman.



Fig.19 Point F of the residential developments at Kuruman.



Fig.20 Dolomite bank near Point F of the residential developments at Kuruman at Kuruman.



Fig.21 Point G of the residential developments at Kuruman



Fig.22 Point G of the residential developments at Kuruman



Fig.23 Point H of the residential developments at Kuruman



Fig.24 Point H of the residential developments at Kuruman



Fig.25 Point J of the residential developments at Kuruman



Fig.26 Point J of the residential developments at Kuruman