

# A FIRST PHASE CULTURAL HERITAGE IMPACT ASSESSMENT OF THE PROPOSED P 50-1 ROAD UPGRADE NEAR ESHOWE, KWAZULU-NATAL.



## **ACTIVE HERITAGE cc.**

For: Royal Haskoning DHV

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05/06/2017

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**LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

EIA	Early Iron Age
ESA	Early Stone Age
HISTORIC PERIOD	Since the arrival of the white settlers - c. AD 1820 in this part of the country
IRON AGE	Early Iron Age AD 200 - AD 1000 Late Iron Age AD 1000 - AD 1830
LIA	Late Iron Age
LSA	Late Stone Age
MSA	Middle Stone Age
NEMA	National Environmental Management Act, 1998 (Act No. 107 of 1998 and associated regulations (2006).
NHRA	National Heritage Resources Act, 1999 (Act No. 25 of 1999) and associated regulations (2000)
SAHRA	South African Heritage Resources Agency
STONE AGE	Early Stone Age 2 000 000 - 250 000 BP Middle Stone Age 250 000 - 25 000 BP Late Stone Age 30 000 - until c. AD 200

**EXECUTIVE SUMMARY**

A first phase cultural heritage survey of the proposed P 50-1 near Eshowe, KwaZulu-Natal identified no heritage sites on the actual footprint. Various heritage sites occur in the greater Eshowe area but none of them are threatened by the proposed development. The site of Fort Chater is situated approximately 135m to the east of the road earmarked for upgrading. However, there are no physical remains indicating the presence of the Fort and the relevant site is not threatened by the proposed development. There is no known archaeological reason why the proposed development may not proceed as planned. However, it must be noted that the greater Eshowe area is rich in heritage sites and attention is drawn to the South African Heritage Resources Act, 1999 (Act No. 25 of 1999) and the KwaZulu-Natal Heritage Act (Act no 4 of 2008) which, requires that operations that expose archaeological or historical remains should cease immediately, pending evaluation by the provincial heritage agency.

## 1 BACKGROUND INFORMATION ON THE PROJECT

**Table 2. Background information**

Consultant:	Frans Prins (Active Heritage cc) for Royal Haskoning DHV
Type of development:	This project forms part of the Empangeni Road Rehabilitation Programme funded by the Province of KwaZulu-Natal Department of Transport and covers the rehabilitation of P50-1 from km 18,00 to km 26,00 (Eshowe). Main Road 50-1 is the major route that connects Eshowe and Nkandla. The route varies in surface width from 10m wide (km 18,00 to km 22,00) to 7,0m wide (km 22,00 to 26,00). The rehabilitation of P50-1 will also include widen of surface road width to achieve 10,0m cross-section from km 22,00 to km 26,00 in accordance with Departmental Standard details "Type 2C" standard.
Rezoning or subdivision:	Not applicable
Terms of reference	To carry out a First Phase Heritage Impact Assessment (HIA).
Legislative requirements:	The Heritage Impact Assessment was carried out in terms of the National Environmental Management Act, 1998 (Act No. 107 of 1998) (NEMA) and following the requirements of the National Heritage Resources Act, 1999 (Act No. 25 of 1999) (NHRA) and the KwaZulu-Natal Heritage Act, 1997 (Act No. 4 of 2008)

### 1.1. Details of the area surveyed:

Main Road P50-1 is located north west of Eshowe in the Empangeni Region Kwa-Zulu Natal (Figs 1 - 3). This is 26 km long road that starts at the intersection with P47-4 (R66) and proceeds in a northwest direction towards Nkandla and ends at km 26. The work to be carried out commences at km 18, 00 and ends at km 26, 00 towards Nkandla.

The GPS coordinates for the road earmarked for upgrading are as follows:

Start: 28° 51' 10.90" S 31° 21' 02.23" E

End: 28° 51' 40.22" S 31° 18' 59.40" E

## **2 BACKGROUND TO ARCHAEOLOGICAL HISTORY OF AREA**

The archaeological history of the Province of KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) dates back to about 2 million years and possibly older, which marks the beginning of the Stone Age. The Stone Age in KZN was extensively researched by Professor Oliver Davies formerly of the Natal Museum. The Stone Age period has been divided into three periods namely: Early Stone Age (ESA) dating between 2 million years ago to about 200 000 years ago, Middle Stone Age (MSA) dating between 200 000 years ago to about 30 000 years ago, and the Later Stone Age (LSA) which dates from 30 000 to about 2 000 year ago. The Stone Age period ends around approximately 2 000 years ago when Bantu speaking Age farmers from the north arrived in southern Africa. The Iron Age is also divided into three periods, namely: Early Iron Age (EIA) dating between AD 200 and AD 900, Middle Iron Age (MIA) dating between AD 900 and AD 1300, Late Iron Age (LIA) dating between AD 1 300 and 1 820.

### **2.1 Stone Age**

#### **2.1.1 Early Stone Age (ESA)**

The ESA is considered as the beginning of the stone tool technology. It dates back to over 2 million years ago until 200 000 years ago. This period is characterised by Oldowan and Acheulean industries. The Oldowan Industry, dating to approximately between over 2 million years and 1.7 million years predates the later Acheulean. The Oldowan Industry consists of very simple, crudely made core tools from which flakes are struck a couple of times. To date, there is no consensus amongst archaeologists as to which hominid species manufactured these artefacts. The Acheulean Industry lasted from about 1.7 million years until 200 thousand years ago. Acheulean tools were more specialized tools than those of the earlier industry. They were shaped intentionally to carry out specific tasks such as hacking and bashing to remove limbs from animals and marrow from bone. These duties were performed using the large sharp pointed artefacts known as handaxes. Cleavers, with their sharp, flat cutting edges were used to carry out more heavy duty butchering activities (Esterhuysen, 2007). The ESA technology lasted for a very long time, from early to middle Pleistocene and thus seems to have been sufficient to meet the needs of early hominids and their ancestors. Although not identified on the footprint, ESA tools occurrence have been reported in other sites in KZN. Apart from stone artefacts, the ESA sites in this Province have produced very little as regards other archaeological remains. This has made it difficult to make inferences pointing to economical dynamics

of the ESA people in this part of the world. The diet of ESA peoples has therefore had to be reconstructed on the basis of evidence from elsewhere that it comprised primarily of animal and plant foods (Mazel 1989).

### **2.1.2 Middle Stone Age (MSA)**

The MSA dates to between 200 000 and 30 000 years ago, coinciding with the emergence of modern humans. The MSA technology is therefore believed to have been manufactured by fully modern humans known as *Homo sapiens* who emerged around 250 000 years ago. While some of the sites belonging to this time period occur in similar contexts as those of ESA, most of the MSA sites are located in rock shelters. Palaeoenvironmental data suggest that the distribution of MSA sites in the high lying Drakensberg and surrounding areas was influenced by the climate conditions, specifically the amount and duration of snow (Carter, 1976). In general, the MSA stone tools are smaller than those of the ESA. Although some MSA tools are made from prepared cores, the majority of MSA flakes are rather irregular and are probably waste material from knapping exercises. A variety of MSA tools include blades, flakes, scrapers and pointed tools that may have been hafted onto shafts or handles and used as spearheads. Between 70 000 and 60 000 years ago new tool types appear known as segments and trapezoids. These tool types are referred to as backed tools from the method of preparation. Residue analyses on the backed tools from South African MSA sites including those in KZN indicate that these tools were certainly used as spear heads and perhaps even arrow points (Wadley, 2007). A few sites with impressive MSA deposits have been excavated in KZN. Perhaps the best known ones are Sibudu Cave and Umhlatuzana Cave to the south of the study area, and Border Cave to the north of the study area. All these sites provided impressive evidence for fine resolution data and detailed stratigraphy (Wadley & Jacobs, 2006).

### **2.1.3 Late Stone Age (LSA)**

Compared to the earlier MSA and ESA, more is known about the LSA which dates from around 30 000 to 2 000 (possibly later) years ago. This is because LSA sites are more recent than ESA and MSA sites and therefore achieve better preservation of a greater variety of organic archaeological material. The Later Stone Age is usually associated with the San (Bushmen) or their direct ancestors. The tools during this period were even smaller and more diverse than those of the preceding Middle Stone Age period. LSA tool technology is observed to display rapid stylistic change compared to the slower pace in the MSA. The rapidity is more evident during the last 10 000

years. The LSA tool sequence includes informal small blade tradition from about 22 000 – 12 000 years ago, a scraper and adze-rich industry between 12 000 – 8 000 years ago, a backed tool and small scraper industry between 8 000 – 4 000 years and ending with a variable set of other industries thereafter (Wadley, 2007). Adzes are thought to be wood working tools and may have also been used to make digging sticks and handles for tools. Scrapers are tools that are thought to have been used to prepare hides for clothing and manufacture of other leather items. Backed tools may have been used for cutting as well as tips for arrows. It was also during Later Stone Age times that the bow and arrow was introduced into southern Africa – perhaps around 20 000 years ago. Because of the bow and arrow and the use of traps and snares, Later Stone Age people were far more efficient in exploiting their natural environment than Middle Stone Age people. Up until 2 000 years ago Later Stone Age people dominated the southern African landscape. However, shortly after 2 000 years ago the first Khoi herders and Bantu-speaking agro pastoralists immigrated into southern Africa from the north. This led to major demographic changes in the population distribution of the subcontinent. San hunter-gatherers were either assimilated or moved off to more marginal environments such as the Kalahari Desert or some mountain ranges unsuitable for small-scale subsistence farming and herding. The San in the coastal areas of KZN were the first to have been displaced by incoming African agro pastoralists. However, some independent groups continue to practice their hunter gatherer lifestyle in the foothills of the Drakensberg until the period of white colonisation around the 1840's (Wright & Mazel, 2007). According to the Natal Museum archaeological database Later Stone Age sites have been located in the near vicinity of the footprint but these are mostly restricted to surface scatters. Also dating to the LSA period is the impressive Rock Art found on cave walls and rock faces. Rock Art can be in the form of rock paintings or rock engravings. The province of KZN is renowned for the prolific San rock painting sites concentrated in the Drakensberg. Rock art sites do occur outside the Drakensberg including Zululand, however, these sites have not been afforded similar research attention as those sites occurring in the Drakensberg. However, there are no rock art sites found within the immediate vicinity of study area, which may be due to the lack of the suitable geology.

## **2.2 Iron Age**

### **2.2.1 Early Iron Age (EIA)**

Unlike the Stone Age people whose life styles were arguably egalitarian, Iron Age people led quite complex life styles. Their way of life of greater dependence on



agriculture necessitated more sedentary settlements. They cultivated crops and kept domestic animals such as cattle, sheep, goats and dogs. Pottery production is also an important feature of Iron Age communities. Iron smelting was practised quite significantly by Iron Age society as they had to produce iron implements for agricultural use. However no smelting sites were discovered in the study area as it is the northern KZN that is rich in abandoned iron smelting sites (Maggs, 1989). Although Iron Age people occasionally hunted and gathered wild plants and shellfish, the bulk of their diet consisted of the crops they cultivated as well as the meat of the animals they kept. EIA villages were relatively large settlements strategically located in valleys beside rivers to take advantage of the fertile alluvial soils for growing crops (Maggs, 1989). The EIA sites in KZN date to around AD 500 to AD 900. Extensive research in the province of this period led to it being divided in the following time lines according to ceramic styles (Maggs, 1989; Huffman 2007):

- \_ Msuluzi (AD 500);
- \_ Ndongondwane (AD 700 – 800);
- \_ Ntshekane (AD 800 – 900).

The archaeological data base of the KwaZulu-Natal Museum indicates that ten Early Iron Age sites occur to the immediate west of the study area in the Thukela River basin. Some well known excavated sites such as Mamba, Whosi and Ndongondwane (Huffman 2007) occur on the banks of the Thukela River.

### **2.2.2 Late Iron Age (LIA)**

The LIA is not only distinguished from the EIA by greater regional diversity of pottery styles but is also marked by extensive stone wall settlements. However, in this part of the world, stone walls were not common as the Nguni people used thatch and wood to build their houses. This explains the failure to obtain sites from the aerial photograph investigation of the study area. Trade played a major role in the economy of LIA societies. Goods were traded locally and over long distances. The main trade goods included metal, salt, grain, cattle and thatch. This led to the establishment of economically driven centres and the growth of trade wealth. Keeping of domestic animals, metal work and the cultivation of crops continued with a change in the organisation of economic activities. Evidence for this stems from the fact that iron smelting evidence was not found in almost every settlement (Maggs, 1989; Huffman 2007).

### 2.3 Historic Period

Oral tradition is the basis of the evidence of historical events that took place before history could be recorded. This kind of evidence becomes even more reliable in cases where archaeology could be utilised to back up the oral records. Sources of evidence for socio political organization during the mid-eighteenth to early nineteenth century in the study area and the larger former Natal Province suggest that the people here existed in numerous small-scale political units of different sizes, population numbers and political structures (Wright & Hamilton, 1989). This period was largely characterised by rage and instability as political skirmishes broke due to the thirst for power and resources between chiefdoms. During the 2nd half of the eighteenth century, stronger chiefdoms and paramountcies emerged. However, these were not fully grown states as there was no proper formal central political body established. This changed in the 1780's when a shift towards a more centralized political state occurred. This shift was mainly characterized by population growth and geographical expansion of states. The most important and largest and strongest states at the time were the Mabhudu, Ndwandwe and Mthethwa. However, other smaller states, also established themselves in the greater Tugela Region. These included in the south the Qwabe, Bhaca, Mbo, Hlubi, Bhele, Ngwane and many others (Wright & Hamilton, 1989). The Zulu kingdom, established by King Shaka however remained the most powerful in the region in the early years of the 19th century. Shaka fought ruthlessly and often defeated his rivals and conquered their cattle, wives and even burnt their villages. These wars are often referred to as Difaqane and this period was characterised by rage and blood shedding. Shaka was assassinated in 1828 at which time he had transformed the nature of the society in the Natal and Zululand regions. He was succeeded by King Dingane (Wright & Hamilton, 1989).

One of the first things *Shaka* did after he became King in 1819 was to establish his new military headquarters and royal palace, which he called *Kwa-Bulawayo*, meaning the oppressed one. This name marked the indignities, sufferings and ill-treatment that he, as a young boy, suffered under his father *Senzangakhona*. Archaeological surveys done during the 1980's confirm that *KwaBulawayo* was more than 350 metres across at its widest, the distance between the *isigodlo* at the top and the lowest gate. Its general layout was similar to King *Dingane*'s better-preserved capital *uMgungundlovu* and King *Cetshwayo*'s capital *oNdini*. These establishments were very large indeed and Henry Fynn, an ivory trader in south east Africa in the early 19th century who made several journeys into Zulu territory at the time of King *Shaka*, estimated that

*KwaBulawayo* was surrounded by an outer palisade over three kilometers in circumference, while his colleague Nathaniel Isaacs believed it contained 1 400 huts. This palace could house about 10 000 warriors. *Kwa-Bulawayo* was originally built on the southern side of the *Mhlathuzi* Valley, not far from his ancestor *Malandela's* capital, *Odwini*. This spot was chosen because *Shaka* probably wanted to be in close proximity of his ancestors. It is situated between *Empangeni* and *Eshowe* on *Ingonyama* Trust Land. *KwaBulawayo* kraal was one of the biggest kraals in Zululand. It is the first Zulu capital visited by whites, amongst them the early English settlers Henry Francis Fynn, Captain Farewell and Nathaniel Isaacs. The erstwhile Historical Monuments Commission has erected a monument and plaque on the site (Derwent 2006). In July 2009, *Kwa-Bulawayo* was still under reconstruction, with six huts and one big cattle-byre at the centre and offices on the site. It is earmarked by Uthungulu District Municipality as a community development project. *Amafa aKwaZulu-Natali* is managing *the* project.

Dutch farmers unhappy with the British rule in Cape Town decided to explore into the interior of the country, away from British rule. Some groups remained in the Eastern Cape, others kept going and a few settled in the Orange Free State and the Transvaal. A great number, led by Piet Retief and Gerrit Maritz, crossed the Drakensberg into Natal.

Here they encountered the Zulus who lured them into a trap and brutally massacred many of them. This was only one of the many failures of the white settler expeditions in the frontier areas and when the shocking news reached the Cape, more groups were sent to the interior to revenge. A series of battles were fought but the most notable was the Battle of Blood River in 1838 where the Boers defeated the Zulus. This ended the Zulu threat to the white settlers and a permanent and formal settlement in Natal was established. However the Zulu kingdom remained independent for a couple of decades. The Republic of Natalia was annexed by the British in 1845 and in 1879 the Zulu kingdom was also invaded (Wright & Hamilton, 1989). The Anglo-Zulu War has been well recorded and an important occurrence took place at Jamesons Drift, to the west of the project area, when a few British soldiers attempted to cross the Thukela River after their defeat at the battle of Isandlwana. Although no relicts or artefacts survive from this encounter the surrounding landscape is still imbued with the meaning of this important period in the colonial history of KwaZulu-Natal.

### **3 BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF THE SURVEY**

#### **3.1 Methodology**

A desktop study was conducted of the archaeological databases housed in the KwaZulu-Natal Museum. In addition, the available archaeological and historical literature covering the greater Eshowe was also consulted. The SAHRIS website was consulted to assess previous heritage surveys done in the area. Aerial photographs of the area was scrutinised for potential heritage sites.

The site was visited on 20 April 2017. A ground survey following accepted archaeological methods and practise was conducted during the site visit. All areas within 30m from the road reserve was surveyed. In addition, all known heritage sites within 150m form the road reserve was revisited (see below).

#### **3.2 Restrictions encountered during the survey**

##### **3.2.1 Visibility**

Site visibility was good.

##### **3.2.2 Disturbance**

No disturbance of any potential heritage features was noted. However, the only known heritage site in the near environs of the footprint, Fort Charter, is archaeologically invisible and the remains covered by cultivated fields and woodlots (see below).

#### **3.3 Details of equipment used in the survey**

GPS: Garmin Etrek

Digital cameras: Canon Powershot A460

All readings were taken using the GPS. Accuracy was to a level of 5 m.

## **4 DESCRIPTION OF SITES AND MATERIAL OBSERVED**

### **4.1 Locational data**

Province: KwaZulu-Natal

Towns: Eshowe

Municipality: Uthungulu District Municipality

### **4.2 Archaeological description of the general area surveyed**

The middle reaches of the Thukela River Valley to the immediate south west of the project area has been thoroughly surveyed by archaeologists during the last 30 years or so. This area was the focus of various research projects by archaeologists associated with the then Natal and Ondini Museums respectively (Huffman 2007). Three Early Iron Age sites have also been excavated in the recent past notably by archaeologist Len van Schalkwyk who has been working in this area for many years (ibid). The records of the KwaZulu-Natal Museum indicate the presence of 2 Early Stone Age sites, 3 Middle Stone Age sites, 6 Intermediate Stone Age sites, 8 Early Iron Age sites, 3 Later Iron Age sites, and 2 Historical sites in this area. However, none of these occur on the actual footprint.

The greater Eshowe area was pivotal in the rise and development of the Zulu kingdom in the 1820's, the Anglo Zulu-War of 1879, and the Bambatha Rebellion of 1910 (Derwent 2006). Various historical period sites occur in or adjacent to Eshowe. These include Queen Nandi's grave, the Manadawe Cross, Norwegian Soldiers Grave, Fort Kwa Mondli, King Cetshwayo's Grave, The Eshowe Jail, the Old Residency, Fort Nongqayi, and the military Ikhanda of King Shaka – KwaBuluwayo. None of these sites are located closer than 1km to the proposed development (Fig 1). They are therefore not threatened and merits no further discussion.

### **4.3 Fort Chater**

#### **4.3.1 Location**

According to the SAHRA national data base Fort Chater, a structure constructed in 1883, is situated approximately 135m to the immediate north of the footprint at S 28° 51' 15.72" E 31° 20' 05.06" (Fig 2). This location was revisited by the consultant but

no physical remains of this former fort is visible on the surface. The reason is that the fort was a hastily constructed temporary feature (see below). Today the area is covered by cultivated lands and woodlots and individual homesteads (Figs 4 - 7). Given the visibility it is impossible to establish the size and or area covered by the Fort in the past.

#### **4.3.2 Historical context**

In May 1883 during the 3<sup>rd</sup> Zulu Civil War, the uSuthu repulsed the local forces raised by Melmoth Osborn, the then resident commissioner of the Reserve Territory, in the battle of Nkandla Forest. Osborn's men fell back on Fort Chater, an earthwork hastily thrown up by British troops of the Natal garrison stationed at Fort Curtis. Fort Chater was close to Entumeni, a Norwegian mission station, and barred the way to Eshowe, the seat of Osborn's administration, against the uSuthu in the Nkandla. During the mid-1884, British troops reinforced the African levies holding this strategic post. The uSuthu in the Nkandla submitted in early September 1884, and the British garrison of Fort Chater was reduced. The fort was abandoned in May 1887 when the Reserve Territory became part of the colony of Zululand (Laband 2009).

#### **4.3.3 Mitigation**

No mitigation is necessary as the site of the former Fort Chater is situated 135m from the footprint and will not be impacted upon by the proposed development. There are also no visible remains of the Fort present. Nevertheless, it is important that the developers respect a buffer zone of 30m around this site as any ground works may expose historical artefacts and features.

## **5 STATEMENT OF SIGNIFICANCE (HERITAGE VALUE)**

### **5.1 Field Rating**

No heritage sites occur on the footprint. However, the site of the former Fort Chater is situated approximately 135m to the immediate north of the proposed road upgrade.

Due to its historical importance the Fort, although presently invisible, has been rated as of high to medium significance (Tables 2 & 3).

**Table 2. Field rating and recommended grading of sites (SAHRA 2005)**

Level	Details	Action
National (Grade I)	The site is considered to be of National Significance	Nominated to be declared by SAHRA
Provincial (Grade II)	This site is considered to be of Provincial significance	Nominated to be declared by Provincial Heritage Authority
Local Grade IIIA	This site is considered to be of HIGH significance locally	The site should be retained as a heritage site
Local Grade IIIB	This site is considered to be of HIGH significance locally	The site should be mitigated, and part retained as a heritage site
Generally Protected A	High to medium significance	Mitigation necessary before destruction
Generally Protected B	Medium significance	The site needs to be recorded before destruction
Generally Protected C	Low significance	No further recording is required before destruction

**Table 3. Evaluation of Fort Chater**

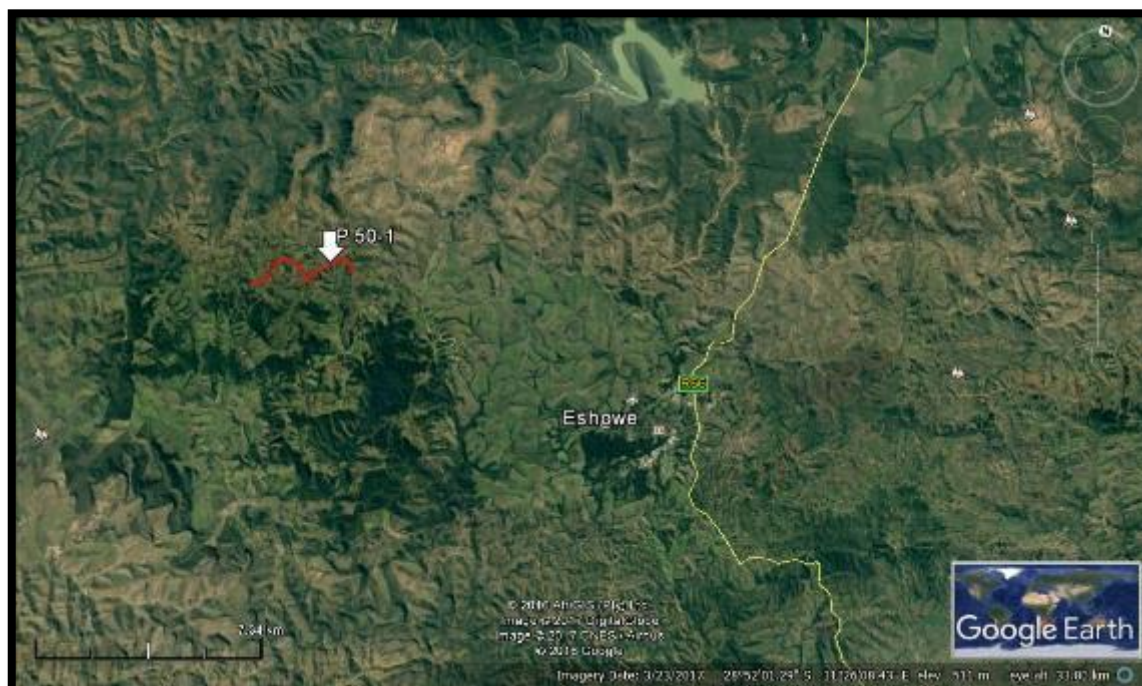
Significance criteria in terms of Section 3(3) of the NHRA		
	<b>Significance</b>	<b>Rating</b>
1.	<b>Historic and political significance</b> - The importance of the cultural heritage in the community or pattern of South Africa's history.	Average
2.	<b>Scientific significance</b> – Possession of uncommon, rare or endangered aspects of South Africa's cultural heritage.	None.
3.	<b>Research/scientific significance</b> – Potential to yield information that will contribute to an understanding of South Africa's natural or cultural heritage.	Average
4.	<b>Scientific significance</b> – Importance in demonstrating the principal characteristics of a particular class of South Africa's cultural places/objects.	Low to average.
5.	<b>Aesthetic significance</b> – Importance in exhibiting particular aesthetic characteristics valued by a community or cultural group.	None.
6.	<b>Scientific significance</b> – Importance in demonstrating a high degree of creative or technical achievement at a particular period.	None.
7.	<b>Social significance</b> – Strong or special association with a particular community or cultural group for social, cultural or spiritual reasons.	None
8.	<b>Historic significance</b> – Strong or special association with the life and work of a person, group or organization of importance in the history of South Africa.	Average
9.	The significance of the site relating to the history of slavery in South Africa.	None.



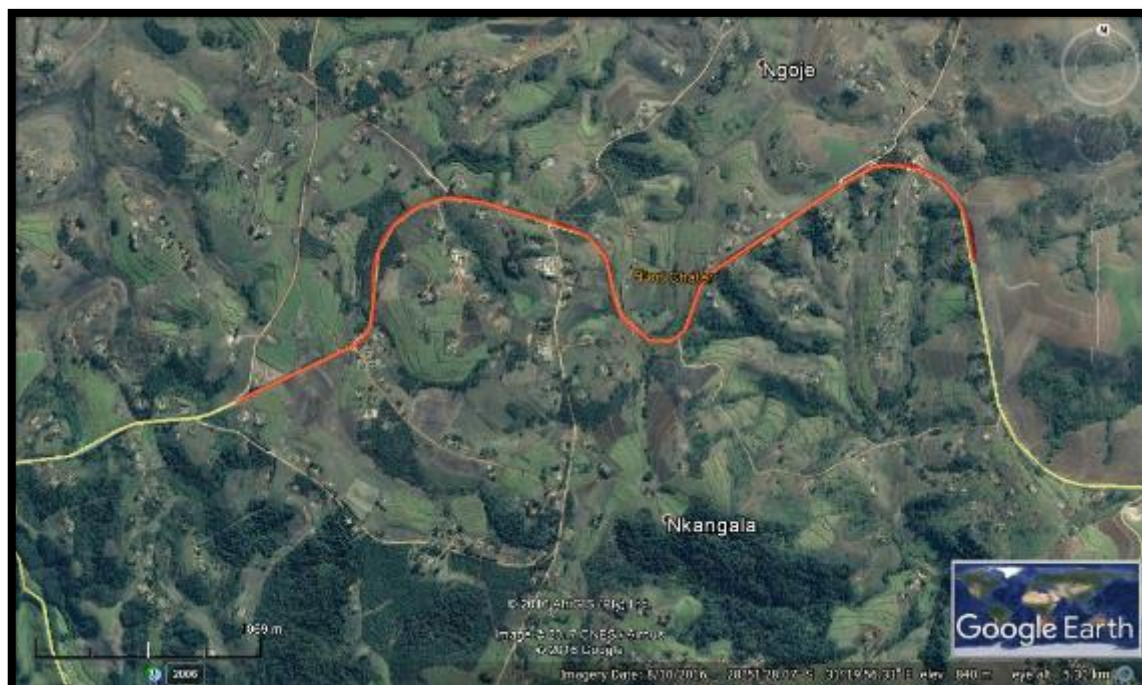
## 6 RECOMMENDATIONS

- The proposed 50-1 Road Upgrade may proceed from a heritage perspective as there are no identified sites on the footprint.
- The site of the former Fort Chater is situated approximately 135m to the immediate north of the footprint, however, there is no need for mitigation.
- It is important, however, to respect a buffer zone of 30m around the site of Fort Chater. No development or alteration of the area is allowed.
- It is also important to note that the greater Eshowe area is very rich from a heritage perspective and there is a slight possibility that excavations and/or ground works may yield “hidden” heritage sites or artefacts. It is therefore important to notice that the KwaZulu-Natal Heritage Act requires that operations exposing archaeological and historical residues, including modern graves, should cease immediately pending an evaluation by the heritage authorities.

## 7 MAPS AND PHOTOGRAPHS



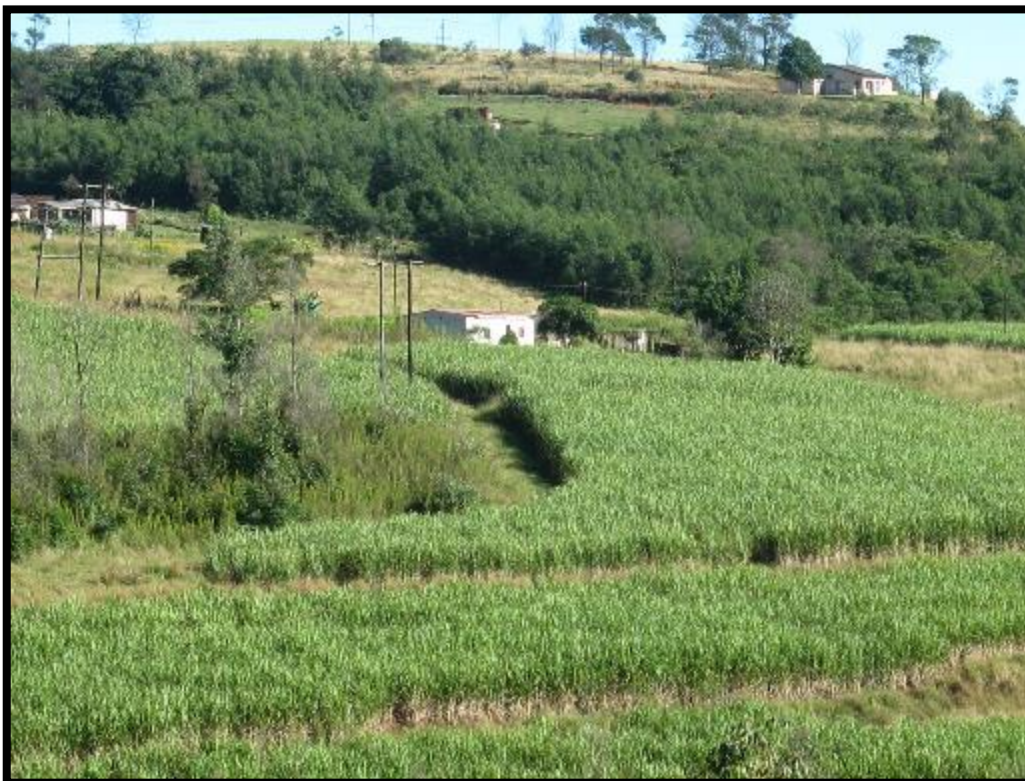
**Figure 1. Google aerial photograph showing the location of the P 50-1 relative to Eshowe.**



**Figure 2. Google aerial photograph showing the location of the P 50-1. Fort Chater (orange polygon) is situated in the centre to the immediate north of the proposed road upgrade.**



**Figure 3. Photograph of the P 50-1 that is earmarked for upgrading.**



**Figure 4. Cane field plantations situated on the site of the former Fort Chater.**



**Figure 5. Old exotic trees adjacent to an existing homestead may relate to the former Fort Chater, however, there are no archaeological remains or features on this site.**



**Figure 6. Dirt road deviating from the P 50-1 and leading to the site of the former Fort Chater.**

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