





## A time of war

WHEN HISTORIANS began to call the Anglo-Boer War the ‘South African War’, they were signalling their recognition that the war was not simply a matter of Boers fighting British, or British fighting Boers, but that Africans also played a prominent role. This chapter is not a step-by-step account of the South African War – the decisions made, battles fought, and atrocities committed. Rather, it shows how Africans in the eastern Transvaal took part in the war, their reasons for doing so, and the way in which various groupings in the region interacted with one another in the course of the hostilities.

### How it started

The British annexed the Transvaal in 1877, but were soon compelled to restore the Boers’ independence. By the end of the 19th century, however, the Transvaal once again began to attract the British. This was because of the gold boom on the Witwatersrand that provided a massive economic incentive to gain, or maintain, control of the area. But the issue that featured especially prominently on the road to war was that of the rights of *uitlanders* (‘outlanders’). *Uitlanders* were people from Britain and other parts of the world who were working in the Transvaal towards the end of the century. Despite British pressure, the Boers continued to deny them political rights. This was an enormously contentious issue central to the disputes that led to the outbreak of hostilities. The war dragged on for three years, with devastating consequences for many groupings in South Africa.

### Helping the British

During the war many Africans helped the British either by fighting with them, working for them, or engaging in anti-Boer activities. Africans had many reasons for doing this. For a start, many harboured grievances against the ZAR and the Boers, which they could now try to redress. This included gaining more freedom from Boer control. The Boers had imposed harsh controls over African chiefdoms. They had to pay tax and provide labour, and if they did not

Facing page: British troops, South African War, Machadodorp.



Sir Redvers Buller.

comply they could be fined and flogged. Africans had also lost much of their land to Boer settlers, and many thought that if the British won the war they would get their old land back. The British encouraged this belief, and made promises to that effect.

Helping the British was attractive in other ways as well. Africans who worked for the British were paid a fairly decent salary – between 40 and 90 shillings a month. This was far more than the Boers had ever paid them. Sometimes the British also provided them with free food, clothing and blankets. Lastly, the British armed all Africans fighting or working for them if they were vulnerable to Boer attack. The Boers were very angry about Africans helping the British; in July 1901 General P H Kritzinger warned Lord Kitchener, commander-in-chief of the British forces in South Africa, that if the Boers caught any Africans working for the British they would be executed, whether armed or not. As a result the British armed Africans working for them, so that they could defend themselves. They also gave firearms to Africans living in chiefdoms so that they could fight the Boers themselves, without the presence of British troops.

### Fighting the Boers

From 1892 the Pedi had been ruled by a regent appointed by the ZAR government. This had provoked a great deal of conflict within Pedi society. Some smaller chiefs were not loyal to the regent and did not pay taxes or provide labour to the Boers, which they were supposed to do. More importantly, the Pedi became divided between those who supported the regent and the ZAR government and those who supported the popular heir to Pedi paramountcy – Sekhukhune II, son of the last king, Sekhukhune. When the war started Sekhukhune II decided that this was his chance to reunite the Pedi under one ruler; he wanted to re-establish the independence his father had lost so many years before. He and his party – the Sekhukhune Party – began to attack the Pedi chiefs who were not loyal to him. But this fighting did not last long. After the British had occupied Lydenburg in September 1900, the British commander, Sir Redvers Buller, ordered an end to intra-Pedi conflict. The warring Pedi parties obeyed, although accusations still flew. For now, though, they turned their attention to fighting their common enemy: the Boers.

The Pedi engaged in three kinds of ‘anti-Boer’ activity. Ordinary Pedi villagers raided the farms of nearby Boer families. This made it difficult and even impossible for Boers to remain on their farms, and many left. The farms were left deserted, and the Pedi assumed they would be able to occupy and keep them. Some Pedi were organised into groups and put under British





Boer unit during the  
South African War.

command. Their job was to round up Boer families in the Lydenburg and Middelburg areas and hand them over to the British forces. The British would then send these families to concentration camps. Lastly, Pedi chiefs were encouraged to prevent Boers from entering their areas, and to ensure that they had no food. Pedi guerrilla fighters built settlements in their areas which they guarded closely. From these settlements they launched patrols to find any Boers who tried to enter the area.

Micha Dinkwanyane, the son of Johannes Dinkwanyane, who had defied the ZAR in the 1870s, was especially successful in hampering the Boers. He blocked the Waterval Valley near Lydenburg and prevented any Boers from passing through it. The valley was the only wagon route Boers could use to transport essential goods such as grain to their fellow combatants on the highveld. By blocking the valley, the Pedi were seriously disrupting their operations. Eventually, it became too dangerous for any Boer commando to move westwards beyond the Steelpoort River.





The Pedi chief Micha Dinkwanyane, who effectively thwarted the movements of Boer commandos during the South African War.

The Ndzundza Ndebele had once been a powerful chiefdom, strong enough to challenge Boer authority. But since their defeat by the Boers in 1883 they were scattered across the Transvaal, many of them working on Boer farms. The Ndzundza chief, Matsitsi, only had a fraction of the power his predecessors had enjoyed. When the war started Matsitsi and the Ndzundza still living under his leadership did not immediately become involved. They were peaceably disposed towards the Boers, and the Boers could even trust them to look after their cattle. But soon the British arrived in the area where the Ndzundza lived, and supplied Matsitsi and his people with firearms. From then on Matsitsi and the Ndzundza fought the Boers in bitter and bloody clashes. They also joined the British and Pedi in one of the major and final battles against the Boers, before the latter conceded defeat.

#### **Steinaecker's Horse and the battle of Mpisana**

In June 1900 the British military authorities formed a unit with orders to patrol the Transvaal border with Moçambique and prevent arms shipments reaching the Boers from Lourenço Marques. The unit was called Steinaecker's Horse. It was a truly multi-ethnic commando of 450 men, made up of whites, Pedi, Swazi, Shangaan, and Thonga. General Ben Viljoen later wrote that the Boers regarded the members of Steinaecker's Horse as a bunch of 'storekeepers, smugglers, spies, and scoundrels of every description'. Another account, entitled 'The Colonials in South Africa', notes that

The corps harassed Boer commandos to the north and south, thereby denying to the enemy the use of the eastern lowlands for rest and recuperation. They also guarded closely the long eastern border against Boer dispatch riders and ammunition runners. In time the corps occupied and pacified the whole low veldt to the Olifant's river, holding over a dozen permanent posts scattered over a large province.

In August 1901 members of Steinaecker's Horse were encamped at the village of the Shangaan chief Mpisana in the north-eastern lowveld. There was a fort at the village, manned by British and African soldiers. At dawn, on 6 August 1901, two Boer commandos led by Commandant Piet Moll and a Commandant Schoeman staged a surprise attack on the village. The British and African soldiers awoke and tried hard to defend the village and themselves. A bloody fight ensued during which the Boers killed a British soldier, wounded two others, and wounded or killed 20 Africans. The Boers soon overran the village.

They took 24 British and 50 African prisoners, and thought the fight was





Members of  
Steinaecker's Horse at  
Fort Mpisana.



Piet Moll's commando.



over. But suddenly Chief Mpisana himself burst onto the scene, leading an all-black commando. They were there to rescue the remaining members of Steinaecker's Horse. But the Boers fought tenaciously, and Chief Mpisana and his commando fled. The Boers then searched the village for spoils of war and were surprised by what they found. Hiding in the huts were a number of African women who, as General Viljoen recorded, were the 'missuses' of the British soldiers. The battle was over, but the tragedy was not. The 24 British soldiers who had been captured were soon released. But the 50 African soldiers were summarily executed by their captors.

### Chief Sikobobo and the attack at Holkrans

Sikobobo was a Zulu chief who lived with his followers in the Vryheid district in the eastern Transvaal. The Zulu in the area had never been on good terms with the Boers, so when the war started they took the side of the British. On 6 May 1902 they attacked the Boers in one of the most violent clashes between Africans and Boers during the war. There are two accounts of what happened. According to one, it all started when the Zulu, under Chief Sikobobo, helped Colonel Bottomley to raid Boers on the Zululand border. As a way of getting back at the chief, the Boers burnt down his village while he was away and then sent him a very insulting letter. The letter was from Field Cornet Jan Potgieter. It stated that the kraals of Sikobobo's people had been burnt down, all his stock taken, and the women and children driven away to Vryheid. Further, Sikobobo and his people were 'no better than fowl lice', he wrote, and Sikobobo should come to Holkrans to take his cattle back before they were all eaten. Sikobobo would not take this insult lying down. He was chief, and had to protect his reputation and honour. On the night of 6 May 1902 he went to Holkrans.

Another story goes that Chief Sikobobo and his *impis* (fighting groups) had been raiding Boer farms and taking their cattle. Some Boers had been killed during the raids. So General Louis Botha went to the British authorities at Holkrans to complain about the attacks. The British did nothing about it. Botha then went to Jan Potgieter and the *burghers* who had suffered from the raids and told them 'to take action against the Zulus'. On 6 May 1902 they raided cattle at Sikobobo's village. That night the Zulu came.

Both accounts agree, though, on what happened on the night of 6 May. Sikobobo's *impis* attacked the Boers at Holkrans. Many Boers were killed while sleeping; some ran away, and some fought back. Some 56 Boers and 50 Zulu men were killed during the fighting, while 10 Boers escaped. The Zulu took three Boers prisoner, and captured 380 head of cattle.



### Fighting at Botšhabelo

Both the Boers and the British coveted Botšhabelo – the Berlin Mission Station near Lydenburg – during the war. Botšhabelo had large houses, a wagon workshop, and a blacksmith's shop where firearms could be repaired. It had shops, cultivated fields, and a skilled African population. But the biggest prize of all was Fort Merensky, built at a time when those living on the mission station were afraid of being attacked by African chiefdoms.

When the war started, British forces occupied the southern part of the mission station and Boer forces the northern part, and they fought each other for control of the fort. Meanwhile, the missionaries and Africans living at the station were placed under great strain. While the British and Boers fought each other they tried to enlist the help of the residents of the station. They also bought all the cattle, horses and sheep on the mission station at prices they 'imposed' on the residents. Many of the African residents could not live with the insecurity and hardship brought on by the war; they left the station, and went to live in areas controlled by African chiefs. These areas were relatively safe from conflict. The Germans living on the station were not so lucky. On 9 July 1900 the British forces arrested four missionaries and four lay people. The British accused them of siding with the Boers, and interned them at Middelburg. According to one source, once the missionaries were gone

The British soldiers looted the houses of the missionaries, the church altar was broken, and holy bread was scattered in the church. The British soldiers also spread the information among the Pedi Christians that the missionaries would not be allowed to return to their mission stations. This unleashed a spirit of licentiousness, and disorder began to prevail at Botšhabelo. There was no missionary or Council of Elders to enforce the rules and regulations of the mission station.

Late in 1900 the British forces effectively took control of the mission station, and began to employ the remaining African residents. These residents could build and repair wagons and do other carpentry work, and the British paid them well for their labour. In this way they induced many Africans to work or fight for their forces.

### Helping the Boers: barter, gifts, and plunder

With so many enemies blocking supply routes and burning farms, the Boers found the going tough. What made it more difficult for them was that Africans were almost always fighting against them. This made the Boers distrust





Africans who had spied for the Boers, captured by the British near Standerton.

A Boer convoy with black 'attendants'.



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2.11 A BOER CONVOY OFFICERS AND ATTENDANTS





General Ben Viljoen  
as a prisoner of war  
on the island of  
St Helena.

Africans. But sometimes the Boers relied on the help of Africans whose territories they traversed. They sometimes bartered with them, and were sometimes given food. Often, the Boers plundered the villages they passed.

In September 1900 General Viljoen and his commando traversed various African chiefdoms in the eastern Transvaal. They walked through a parched land. The region was in the grip of drought, and the veld had been scorched by British soldiers. It was very hot, and water was very scarce. There was not a blade of grass to be seen. For several weeks the commando trekked through the veld, unable to ride their starving and exhausted horses. The only water they could drink was foul and unhealthy, and many men contracted malaria or typhoid fever. They were on the verge of collapse. But African communities gave them handfuls of salt or sugar, and pailfuls of mealies. These exchanges and gifts enabled the Boers to escape starvation, and save their horses from a similar fate.

#### Experiences of a Boer guerrilla

Roland Schikkerling fought with the Boers in the Rooikrans area near Lydenburg. He belonged to a commando, one of a number of small, mobile Boer units that had resorted to guerrilla tactics to try to win the war. But the Boer commandos in the area surrounding Lydenburg were under threat from many quarters. In a diary he kept during the war, which was later published, Schikkerling wrote about the threats he and his fellow Boers faced during the war. In July 1901 his commando was on the run from the British forces, but found its way across the river blocked because 'the natives are all hostile and have closed and obstructed all the drifts, throwing trees and barbed wire into the water'. His commando struggled to find food and friends. Eventually they struck up trade with some neighbouring Africans. On 24 July Schikkerling wrote that:

In exchange for a heifer we obtain from the natives a huge pig which we slaughter with a few sheep. We are doing quite a trade with the natives giving offal and intestines for pumpkins, meal, beans and tobacco.

But such good relations were rare. On 12 September 1901 Schikkerling wrote more about the difficulties facing his commando while camping in the Rooikrans area:

Nearly eight miles to our west there is a succession of blue, rugged hills inhabited by organised bands of hostile natives, armed with Lee-Metforts and Martinis, all thirsty for our gentle blood ... With the English on the



one hand and the natives on the other, life in these parts seems totally embarrassing ...

The hostile attitude and treachery of the natives have greatly simplified our duty towards our neighbour and relieved us of a lot of difficulty and guerrilla etiquette. We now know we have no friends, and need therefore waste no courtesies. We can openly distrust them [Africans], and help ourselves to their cattle and grain, which is a great advantage. Every man's hand, and all living nature, are against us, but our hand also is against every one of them ... They are constantly raiding farms and stealing upon and murdering trekboers.

African refugees,  
South African War.

By the beginning of 1902 Boers were constantly struggling to procure provisions. Schikkerling wrote about a Boer commando in the area between Nooitgedacht and Krugerspost that was struggling to get food. They decided to send 12 of their number to raid a nearby area inhabited by Africans.



The party of Boers came across a semi-abandoned village, where they began to search for food. They suddenly ran into three African men, 'each [armed] with an assegai and a battle axe'. The African men fled when they saw the Boers. Two of them escaped, but the third turned to spear one of the Boers. Before he could throw his spear he was shot and killed. The Boers then plundered the village and made off with eight goats, 'three dead pigs, two bags of mealies, four of kaffir corn, two of tobacco, some potatoes, some lard, odds and ends, and a few trophies from the slain warrior'. 'Quite a goodly supply in times of famine,' wrote Schikkerling.

But as soon as the Boers loaded their bounty on their horses they became anxious. 'In order to lessen the chances of being overtaken by the natives,' they decided to travel on for 'another six miles before halting for the night'. One of the men, named Logan, told the group around the campfire that night that the Africans they had just plundered were known for their ferocity in battle. When he and some companions had previously plundered a village very near the one they plundered that day, they 'were so hotly pressed by the natives that, for almost a whole day, they fell back before the savages, fighting desperately'.

### The *agterryers*

Black men who fought with the Boers usually served as *agterryers* (rear riders). *Agterryers* performed menial tasks for their masters, such as cooking meals and collecting wood and water. However, their main duty was to take care of their masters' horses during battle, and ensuring that their masters could make a quick escape. This was a dangerous job, and many *agterryers* were killed. Africans who fought for the Boers were seldom given guns, so even though *agterryers* were often in the firing line, they couldn't always defend themselves. Many *agterryers* did not choose to perform these jobs; at that time Africans were often forced to work for the Boers for no pay. If they refused they could be fined, imprisoned, or given 25 lashes. But some *agterryers* had served their masters before the war, and were loyal to the Boers.

Sjambok was the *agterryer* for one N J Pretorius, who fought in a commando in the Standerton district. One day, near Waterval, their commando ran into a large group of British soldiers. The British started firing at them and the Boers jumped out of their wagons and ran away, firing at the British as they retreated. But as they were getting away N J Pretorius realised that Sjambok was still in one of the wagons, and was therefore in danger of falling into British hands. Pretorius ran back to rescue him. But the British soldiers were shooting furiously at the wagon in which Sjambok was hiding. Pretorius shot one of the British officers as he ran for the wagon, and when he got to Sjambok



A Boer family in front of their farmhouse in the Lydenburg district which was destroyed by British forces.

ordered him to escape on the fallen officer's horse. Sjambok jumped onto the horse, but as he and Pretorius were escaping another *agterryer*, called Delmas, jumped onto the saddle behind Pretorius. This slowed Pretorius's horse down, and they were in danger of being caught by the British. So Pretorius ordered Sjambok to get off his horse, give it to Delmas, and hide in the tall grass. He would be fetched once the British were gone. But the British found Sjambok hiding in the grass. Sjambok was captured and was brutally interrogated; the British demanded that he tell them who had killed their officer. But Sjambok refused to tell them. For this,

he was tied to a wagon wheel and flogged with a whip. During the period of torture he was given only rice water for nourishment. Still he refused to speak or provide any information that could benefit the British. Eventually, he was threatened with death if it turned out that he in fact had the information, but he kept his peace and in doing so probably saved Pretorius's life.

Sjambok escaped, and rejoined his commando, but was never the same again. He had saved Pretorius's life, but was indignant that Pretorius had made him hide in the grass like a *hensopper* ('hands-upper').

#### Lake Chrissie and the San

A San community lived near Chrissiesmeer – a village at Lake Chrissie, the region's 'Lake District' – and interacted with the farmers there. During the war





A Boer family in the  
concentration camp at  
Volksrust.

many San helped their Boer masters as *agterryers*, and some acted as scouts for the Boers. In February 1901 a large British force, led by General H L Smith-Dorien, advanced towards Lake Chrissie with the objective of marching further into the eastern Transvaal. San scouts kept a close eye on Smith-Dorien, and reported back to the Boers. The Boers and their San scouts were able to stop the advance of Smith-Dorien's horses, but had to fight a fierce battle – the battle of Lake Chrissie – in the process. Some San also took care of Boer families in the area, taking them to hiding places where they were safe from the British.

Many Boer families managed to escape the concentration camps by going into hiding. Their San servants would bring them food and take care of their cattle while they were away from their farms. One San man, called Job, helped a Boer commando escape from the advancing British. He saw the British advancing towards Lake Chrissie and ran to the farm where his master – Commandant Prinsloo – was encamped with his commando. He warned them that the British were coming. He told them he knew a secret way out of the lake area, and the commando followed him through thick mist to safety.

#### The concentration camps

During the war, British and African forces complying with the 'scorched earth policy' destroyed large numbers of Boer farms. This was a plan, devised by Lord Kitchener, to undermine Boer resistance by starving them of foodstuffs and other supplies. Livestock was either driven off or destroyed, crops burnt,



and farmsteads burnt down or blown up. Boer families and African labourers living on these farms were taken to concentration camps. By June 1902 there were 38 concentration camps for Boers in the Transvaal, containing 55 910 elderly people, women and children. There was a similar number of camps for Africans, with a similar number of inmates. These camps were apparently safe environments. But conditions in both Boer and African concentration camps were horrific. People lived in cramped conditions in small tents. Because the tents were so close together, diseases spread very quickly. Epidemics of chicken pox, measles, dysentery and other diseases broke out, killing many people. Inmates were also poorly fed, which reduced their resistance to disease. According to the Medical Officer at Heidelberg in the Transvaal, the inmates of an African concentration camp were having to eat 'the carcasses of animals dead of lung sickness'. The camps were surrounded by barbed wire fences, and it was difficult to escape. By the end of the war about 27 000 Boers and 20 000 Africans had died in the camps. About 80 per cent of the dead of both groups were children under the age of 16.

The African camps had a practical purpose for the British, since men staying there could provide them with labour. For this reason, camps were built close to railway lines so that Africans could be transported easily to where their labour was needed. Men worked as cattle guards, transport drivers or leaders, or for private employers, and those who worked were able to support their families. The British also handed out ploughs, picks, hoes, and pumpkin, corn and maize seeds to African families in the camps, thus enabling them to feed

Concentration camp  
at Barberton.

Overleaf: Concentration  
camp at Barberton.





BARBERTON BURGHER CAMP





BYERLEY  
PHOTO



themselves. The British also hoped the inmates would be able to grow surplus food so that when the war ended they would have enough supplies to take with them on their journeys home. But many African women and children had no males to provide for them, and some men were too old or sick to work or plough, and so the British still had many mouths to feed.

### The aftermath

The war ended on 31 May 1902, with the British defeating the Boers. An interim British administration led by Lord Alfred Milner was set up in the former Boer republics. He instructed the native commissioners in the Transvaal to compensate Africans who approached them for the loss of livestock, grain, seed, and agricultural implements. Africans forwarding a claim needed to have proof of the losses they had suffered, although sometimes this was waived. But those Africans who had helped the British expected a different sort of compensation as well. They had helped the British win the war, and felt entitled to

African concentration camps in the eastern Transvaal during the South African War.



a far greater share of the usual spoils of war. They wanted land and cattle, and also did not want to meet Boer demands for labour, as the Boers were no longer their masters. They made persistent demands to the British along these lines.

The British decided to hold a conference to explain government policy about issues affecting Africans now that the war had ended. This was the Schoonoord Conference, held on 6 September 1902. Some 44 chiefs and

39 headmen from all over the Transvaal attended, on invitation by the Native Commissioner. Sekhukhune II voiced his and other African chiefs' concerns. He said that 'the Pedi had entered into a military alliance with the British on the understanding that the Boers would be driven out of the eastern Transvaal. The evacuated farms would [then] be made available to the Pedi for occupation.' The Native Commissioner responded that 'the new administration could not dispossess the [white] farmers and private companies of their lands'. That was the end of the matter. The Pedi and other African chiefdoms would not receive land in compensation for helping the British to win the war.

Then Africans received another blow: those present were informed that all firearms had to be handed in to the British authorities. This was according to the Arms and Ammunition Ordinance No 17 of 1902, which was also applicable to whites. Anyone wanting to own a firearm had to apply for a licence. Those who failed to hand in their firearms, or obtain a licence for the firearms in their possession, would be arrested and imprisoned. By the end of 1902 Boers and Africans had surrendered between 10 000 and 11 000 firearms. But while almost all Boers on farms in the eastern Transvaal were soon licensed to carry a firearm, it was far more difficult for Africans to get licences. With most of their guns gone, it became far more difficult for African chiefdoms to resist colonial control. This was one of the worst ways in which the British betrayed their African allies who had helped them win the war.

The Pedi did put their foot down on another issue of compensation. After the war those Boers who had lost cattle to the Pedi sent a petition to the British authorities, asking them to order the return of the cattle. In response, the administration issued a directive allowing the Boers to retrieve their cattle. The Pedi were furious. They saw this as a betrayal by the British, a reneging of a 'gentleman's agreement'. They refused to hand back Boer cattle unless the Boers handed back Pedi cattle as well. The Boers refused. The British could do nothing more, and the matter was allowed to drop.

The Pedi and other Africans had one last weapon to use against the Boers after the war had ended: they withheld their labour. This was a huge blow to the Boers as they desperately needed labour to get their farms going again after the destruction. When Africans did work for Boers, they treated them with contempt. Some ignored their instructions, and some laughed in the faces of their masters when ordered to do something. Relations between black and white had changed. Africans had helped the British to win the war, and felt that the Boers were no longer their masters. But this was a temporary change. The Boers would gain strength, and Africans lose more and more freedom, for most of the coming century.



Black and coloured people who died in the 'white' Middelburg concentration camp during the South African War

Name of Deceased	Age	Sex	Cause of Death	Date of Death	Age Group	Comments
Jan 'Basutho'	100	M	bronchitis senility	01 0610	80–100	The oldest known black inmate reported to be 100 years old
Abraham	~50	M	diarrhoea, exhaustion	01 0612	40–80	
Kleinbooi	20	M	malaria	01 0612	15–40	
'Native child'	0.17		measles	01 0616	0–1	2 Months
Slallen	16		heart disease	01 0620	15–40	
Jan	76		bronchitis	01 0625	40–80	Senility, Zulu
Koos	3.0		influenza, dysentery	01 0706	1–5	
Hendrik	16		measles, bronchitis	01 0706	15–40	
Adam	1.58	M	not indicated	01 0718	1–5	1 year. 7 Mos. 4 days (Bushman)
Taboel Annie	0.04	F	not indicated	01 0722	0–1	
Sien	2	M	measles, bronchitis	01 0724	1–5	'Bushman'
Bethseba	0.58	F	pneumonia	01 0724	0–1	
Dalia	40	F	influenza, pneumonia	01 0726	40–80	
Sophia	41	F	measles, bronchitis	01 0726	40–80	
Stephanus	3	M	not indicated	01 0729	1–5	
Mietje	1.5		not indicated	01 0803	1–5	
Willem	0.66	M	measles	01 0804	0–1	
Smardrik	1		measles	01 0809	1–5	
Hans	3.29	M	measles, bronchitis	01 0818	1–5	'Griqua'
Dorthea	1.5	F	measles, bronchitis	01 0821	1–5	'Griqua'
Belfast	4		measles, bronchitis	01 0821	1–5	'Kaffer'
Dina	40	F	bronchitis, chronic	01 0823	40–80	'Griqua woman'
Dina	N.i.	F	not indicated	01 0824		
Ardrina	1.08	F	not indicated	01 0824	1–5	
Johannes Meloek	40	M	died in hospital care	01 0912		
Magriet	0.33	F	pneumonia	01 0915	0–1	
Willem Francois	2.58	M	measles	01 0918	1–5	
Koene			bronchitis			
Bolauw	~19		bronchitis, paralysis	01 0919	15–40	
Salieka	4.33	M	diarrhoea	01 0920	1–5	'Mixed native male'
Hermanus	3	M	measles, diarrhoea	01 0922	1–5	'Mixed native male'
Gideon van Zyl		M	not indicated	01 0925		'Mixed race'
Janie	17		exhaustion	01 0927	5–15	
Mapoch	19		diarrhoea, vomiting	01 0930	15–40	'Basuto'
Native child of Katakela	0.02		dysentery	01 1001	0–1	7 Days.
Jeremias	0.58	M	whooping cough, diarrhoea	01 1002	0–1	Actually 6 Mos, 26 Days 'Bushman'
Child of Willem Slabel	0.07		diarrhoea, exhaustion	01 1003	0–1	23 Days.
Petrus	11. 08	M	bronchitis, spinal paralysis	01 1005	5–15	11 years 1 Mos, 1 Day 'Bushman'
Selina	~15	F	diarrhoea, influenza	01 1005	15–40	
Suzanna	5.29	F	marasmus	01 1006	5–15	'Hottentot'
Tungile	1	F	diarrhoea	01 1011	1–5	

Name of Deceased	Age	Sex	Cause of Death	Date of Death	Age Group	Comments
Cleopas Kunene	1.083		whooping cough	01 1011	1–5	1 yr, 1 Mon, 1 Day
Fokkie	2.83		whooping cough	01 1011	1–5	2 yrs, 10 Mos, 19 Days ‘Bushman’
Clara Bosman	30	F	enteric fever, asthma	01 1018	15–40	
Africa Beauchard	13.5	M	enteric fever	01 1019	5–15	‘Basterd’
Hessie	30.5	F	malaria and asthma	01 1019	15–40	
Child of Willem	0.05		diarrhoea, asthma	01 1022	0–1	20 Days One of a set of twins
Slabel						
Maria child of Kleinbooi	0.58	F	diarrhoea, exhaustion	01 1101	0–1	7 Mos
Rachel	9	F	dysentery	01 1104	5–15	‘The Hottentot girl’
Feile, Native Son of Maklyd	2.17	M	whooping cough	01 1104	1–5	2 Yrs, 1 Mon, 25 Days
Arora	5.04	F	enteric fever, bronchitis	01 1105	5–15	
Celina	0.42	F	convulsions	01 1106	0–1	
Zambesi	14	M	pneumonia, cardiac failure	01 1106	5–15	
Martha	~25	F	diarrhoea	01 1109	15–40	
Elsie	10.83	F	measles, diarrhoea	01 1109	5–15	10 Yrs, 10 Mos, 16 Days
Jantje	35	M	not indicated	01 1119	15–40	
Picanien	16	M	not indicated	01 1120	15–40	
Susar	6	M	diarrhoea, exhaustion	01 1122	5–15	‘Hottentot’
Hannah	12.92	F	whooping cough, diarrhoea	01 1124	5–15	
Magriet	1.92	F	fever	01 1206	1–5	
Africa Beauchard	48	M	diarrhoea, exhaustion	01 1207	40–80	Maybe the father of ‘Africa Son of Africa’ Beauchard in this list
Jacobus	1.66	M	fever	01 1211	1–5	
Sheekwish	1.17	F	whooping cough, diarrhoea	01 1212	1–5	1 Yr, 2 Mos, 12 Days
Philip	3.17	M	diarrhoea, exhaustion	01 1213	1–5	3 Yrs, 6 Mos, 4 Days
Matheus Swanepoel	6	M	fever	01 1214	5–15	
Jsann J? Maria	3.58		whooping cough, diarrhoea	01 1225	1–5	3 Yrs, 2 mos, 25 Days
Willem	1.33	M	whooping cough, diarrhoea	01 1229	1–5	
Dina	14	F	enteric fever	02 0105	5–15	‘Hottentot’
Filemon Maseko	~25		lighting stroke	02 0109	15–40	
Jim	~26	M	debility, diarrhoea, exhaustion	02 0218	15–40	
Maijies	1.17		diarrhoea, exhaustion	02 0407	1–5	
Jan	1	M	bronchitis, dentition	02 1205	1–5	‘Swasie’

Source: S V Kessler, The black concentration camps of the South African War, 1899–1902. Unpublished PhD thesis, University of Cape Town, 2003.