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# Lynn Harris Editor

# Sea Ports and Sea Power African Maritime Cultural Landscapes





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# Sea Ports and Sea Power

African Maritime Cultural Landscapes



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## Introduction: Maritime Landscapes as an African Approach to Maritime Archaeology

There has been a fundamental shift in maritime archaeology moving away from purely descriptive approaches to material culture, such as shipwreck assemblages and ship construction, towards an alternate focus on examining the social implications of these cultural remains (Babits and Van Tilberg 1998; Gould 2010; Catsambis et al. 2011). The cultural landscape approach has recently been widely integrated into archaeological discourse and cultural heritage management and is well represented in academic publications such as *Journal of Maritime Archaeology*. A cultural landscape represents the idea that cultural identities and collective histories are anchored to the physical landscape features as well as contained within the cognitive perceptions of a given geographical area. This intellectual platform provides a mechanism for researchers to amalgamate a variety of different approaches to analyze the complexity of people's social interactions and relationships with their environment over space and time (Westerdahl 1992; Duncan 2006; Marano 2012; McKinnon et al. 2014; Borrelli 2015).

While the concept of a maritime landscape is very broad, a more focused thematic approach draws together a number of case studies in South Africa, Namibia, Tanzania, and Nigeria with a common thread. Specifically, diverse practitioners in this compilation of papers will address the subtheme of sea ports and sea power as part of understanding the African maritime landscape. Sea ports and surrounds are dynamic centers of maritime culture supporting a rich diversity of cultural groups and economic activities. Strategic locations along the African coastline have associations with indigenous maritime communities and trade centers, colonial power struggles and skirmishes, establishment of naval bases and operations, and World War I and II engagements. Topics highlight an array of tangible and intangible heritage themes such as identity and maritimity, harbor infrastructure and risk, port laborers and fishers, naval shipwrecks and technology, slave trade landmarks and memory, and recognition of global contributions towards port communities that supplement local African maritime histories.

While primarily addressing research themes and questions, a few chapters include discussions about maritime heritage tourism and education. Recent developments in maritime archaeology theory and method have led to the recognition that training students in the field of both academia and cultural resource management poses new challenges as the discipline struggles to meet the needs of the twenty-first century, and specifically, a more Africanist approach. Engaging with the concept of the maritime cultural landscape, heritage managers can link submerged sites and sites which do not resonate with adjacent communities to a more expansive and inclusive heritage narrative, not focused exclusively on European shipwrecks and cargoes. New narratives about European ships and shipwrecks might include the roles of African crew like Kroomen. Other maritime industries, linked to smaller watercraft fleets like sealing, fishing, and whaling, offer much potential for exploring the evolution of local industry from a multicultural perspective.

Adoption of the 2001 Convention has opened a space for a new discourse on underwater cultural heritage and management approaches and provided a framework from which to propose a strategy for more relevant government intervention. Increasingly professionals and students from the USA and elsewhere collaborate to study heritage sites within international jurisdictions, in this case Africa. Shipwrecks represent global heritage, especially warships or those playing auxiliary war roles, like the Confederate Raider Alabama, US Liberty shipwreck Thomas Tucker at Cape Point in South Africa, or the German and British WW I and II warships in Tanzanian waters. Another trend is the best practice of in situ preservation and how to effectively monitor, manage, and showcase these diverse maritime sites which are often at risk or have potential for recreational, educational, and tourism ventures (Sharfman et al. 2012). This trend has occurred in tandem with a perceived concern that students are trained for academia in a world in which the job market increasingly has an applied dimension, with students primarily entering employment in private sector CRM, tourism, and historic preservation directly after acquiring an MA degree. Internships, field schools, and summer abroad studies allow students to view maritime archaeology with a global outlook (Bender and Smith 2000; Harris 2013; Harris and McKinnon 2016).

For African countries, adoption of the 2001 Convention has opened doors for a new discourse on underwater cultural heritage and management approaches. It has provided a framework from which to propose a strategy for more relevant government intervention. Although Iziko Museums in South Africa and other groups have implemented maritime archaeology capacity building and training projects in several African countries, the challenge is to sustain these groundwork initiatives with internal funding and support. This volume addresses these current issues within the discipline.

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