ADDRESS OF THE PRESIDENT,

MR. ROBERT BURNARD, F.S.A., Hon. F.S.A.Scot.

25th JULY, 1911.

Ladies and Gentlemen,—Your President has the honour to submit for your consideration this evening a sketch of the primitive condition of Devon and the south of England during the prehistoric period, comparing it with a more advanced country during a more or less corresponding epoch. There is nothing new to bring to your notice, but the end will be served if the effort of rendering within a short time some useful reminders meets with some approval at your hands. A Presidential address is not an easy thing to write, and to convey even a sketch of the subject selected with the requisite amount of compression is still more difficult. For all faults and defects I must crave your indulgence.

The exploration of Kent's Cavern threw a flood of light on the subject of early man in Devon. It furnished us with the knowledge that palæolithic man—represented by an earlier and a later epoch—roamed the district we know as South Devon in the company of a now extinct fauna. We are also aware, from the study of the strata of the cavern, that after the disappearance of the earlier types of men and animals, this retreat was occupied by a superior race who possessed the same kind of domestic animals as we have to-day, who had a knowledge of metals and adorned their persons with amber beads.

This knowledge, and comparative refinement, was vastly increased when the Celts arrived, and again reinforced when these came under Roman influence.

The study of Kent's Cavern discloses no period of transition between the deposits associated with the early cavemen and the arrival of the immigrants or invaders of superior culture.

Whether generally there was a break of long duration is at present unknown. It is difficult to imagine that the palæolithic age abruptly terminated either by migration of the primitive people or the dying out of the race. It is reasonable to suppose that some were merged with the neolithic people, who came to Britain during the period when it was losing, or had lost, its continental character, and was becoming, or had become, insular. This subsidence of the land brought climatic changes—the great cold was ameliorated with a greater warmth and rainfall, so that the soil of Britain became more fruitful and capable of carrying a larger population on extended areas.

There is no evidence that the palæolithic men of South Devon visited Dartmoor—they probably preferred to hunt in the lower valleys, and doubtless roamed the now submerged forests which fringed our present southern coast.

How long after the waning of the palæolithic age the neolithic men arrived, probably from Northern Gaul, is quite unknown.

From whence they originally came is doubtful.

They were dolmen builders, and the track of their wanderings along the seaboard may be traced from Britain through France, Portugal, and Northern Africa to Syria. The fact that dolmens exist much further east in India and Japan obscures the impression that the race in its migration westward originated in Asia Minor.

They practised inhumation, placing the remains of their dead in dolmens and later in chambered long barrows.

The examination of neolithic skeletons found in Britain demonstrates that the skulls were long and narrow, and it is surmised that their appearance in the flesh could not have been unpleasing, for their faces are described as being oval and regular with aquiline noses.

In figure they were rather delicately moulded and usually of middle height.

Few of their tombs have remained, but their stone implements are found all over Britain, and beyond.

The only neolithic grave known in Devon is the dolmen or cromlech near Drewsteignton.

Not a single long-chambered barrow has been found either in Devon or Cornwall. If any previously existed they have disappeared through the stress of many centuries of cultivation and destruction.

That neolithic man visited Dartmoor is evident, for ground and polished celts have been found at Princetown, Walkham Head, Cosdon, Runnage, near Postbridge, and across the West Dart, opposite Huccaby House.

Stone hammers of the same period have been discovered under Crockern Tor and at Vitifer.

No sites of neolithic dwellings have been found on the Moor, and their relics are probably due to hunting expeditions, or to temporary summer occupation.

There is a preponderance of opinion that, as far as Britain is concerned, there was no period which could be described as a copper age. Objects in copper have been found in Britain, and some are recorded as appearing in Devon, but not under such conditions as to warrant a separate assigned age.

From the late neolithic condition the inhabitants of our island glided into the partial use of bronze.

It must, of course, be understood that there is no sharp line dividing the periods, for the use of stone overlapped the employment of bronze, just as this alloy ran well into the Iron Age.

It should also be borne in mind that the periods, known as stone, bronze, and iron, were not universal at the same time.

When Britain was emerging from the Stone Age, bronze had long been in use amongst more advanced communities in Europe.

The Tasmanians, who only disappeared within memory under contact with civilization, were living, before disturbance, in a palæolithic condition.

A very great step in early metallurgy was made when a small admixture of tin and copper was found to make an alloy which was far superior to either metal when used singly, for copper, whilst tough, is soft, and tin, though hard, is brittle. It must have been a master mind that first succeeded in alloying the two metals in such proportions as to produce bronze.

Where did the invention, if an invention it was, originate?

It has been suggested that an exploration of the virgin fields of the Far East may one day prove that the Chinese were in advance of all countries in the use of bronze, for in China both copper and tin abound.[1]

[1] *Ancient Britain and the Invasions of Julius Cæsar*, p. 125. By Rice Holmes. Oxford, 1907.

It is quite possible that, like many other great discoveries, it was due to accident wherever it originated.

Professor Gowland has pointed out[1] that bronze can be produced by smelting copper and tin ores, or by smelting copper ores containing cassiterite (binoxide of tin), and that if this be carried out in a primitive "hole-in-the-ground" furnace the tin alloys with the copper, and does not pass into the slag as it would do in a more modern and perfect furnace.

The mixture of ores may have been accidental or even experimentally designed, but however that might be the production of bronze marked an advance in culture which revolutionized mankind.

The oldest known piece of Egyptian bronze is supposed to possess an age of 3700 years B.C. There is a superb statue of Pepi I, sixth dynasty, about 3000 B.C., in the Cairo Museum, which illustrates in a most striking manner the high degree of excellence of the metal-workers of Egypt at that remote period.

It is life-size and of compound workmanship.

The bust, arms, and legs are made of copper plates, hammered, when hot, into shape, then welded and riveted at the joints without any trace of soldering. The face, hands, and feet are cast in bronze.

The head-dress was inlaid with lapis lazuli. The eyes are enamelled and give the mask a singularly life-like expression.

According to the late Sir John Evans, the Bronze Age commenced in remote and backward Britain about 1400 B.C., and coincident with this, or soon after, a new race of men descended on our island, it is supposed from Northern Europe.

The physical characteristics of these bronze-using invaders were the opposite of the neolithic race they found in Britain, for their skulls were short and round, with massive jaws, prominent brow ridges, and receding foreheads. Their appearance was apparently not prepossessing. Physically superior and armed with more effective weapons of bronze, the new-comers ousted and subdued the neolithic race, who either retreated inland or became the slaves of the conquerors.

In process of time the races intermingled, for the neo-

[1] Presidential Address, *Journal Royal Anthropological Institute*, Vol. XXXVI.

lithic women must have been comely, and doubtless found favour with the invaders.

It is during the overlapping of the late neolithic and early bronze that interest in Dartmoor is concentrated, for the bulk of the stone remains on its surface appertain to that state of culture.

All the evidence obtained through exploration of the prehistoric graves on the Moor demonstrates that cremation was practised, a custom which is supposed to have commenced in Britain before the close of the purely Neolithic Age, and which it is surmised was introduced, together with round barrows, by a non-metal-using and intrusive alien race, who arrived before the advent of the round-headed bronze folk.

With the incoming of the latter cremation became general and, as far as Devon is concerned, almost universal.

The general aspect of Dartmoor in the Bronze Age was, doubtless, much as it is now, but in detail there was some difference.

There were stunted oaks in many of the valleys which are now covered with bogs. Turf-cutters come across oak as well as the remains of alder and furze, and hedge-nuts have been found deep down in the peat at Gawler Bottom, Postbridge.

An oak thicket formerly existed near Fice's Well, Princetown, and boles of the same kind of tree have been found in bogs at high elevations.

These were overwhelmed by bog growth.

Wistman's Wood is a remnant of the old Dartmoor thickets ; here the dwarf trees, safe from such intrusion, are still growing in the boulder-strewn slope running up to Longaford and Littleford Tors.

There is little doubt that the boggy area of Dartmoor is subject to changes.

These occur from time to time, due not so much to any general variation in the rainfall, but to the drains, or channels, which are naturally formed in the bogs.

What circumstances induce the formation of draining channels is not quite clear ; it may be the result of temporary droughts, or the cessation of work by bacteria—the tiny instruments which preserve the carbonaceous matter of bog vegetation and reduce it to peat.

It is clear that certain bogs on Dartmoor are at the present time being reduced in area by natural drainage.

Broad Marsh, near Postbridge, has visibly decreased within the past forty years; areas which were then impassable can now be traversed by horsemen and, to a considerable extent, by carts.

Observant Moormen generally concur in this shrinkage, but are unable to account for it.

There is no reason to suppose that bogs were non-existent in the Bronze Age—indeed, the evidence of the position of the hut circles indicates the contrary.

None of these would have been built in boggy land; they are usually found either on dry slopes on the commons and valleys which run up from the low country, or on the tracts of summer pasturage locally known as "lairs."

There are instances where boggy ground has invaded hut-circle sites, but this alteration of surface is palpable and easily understood.

If there was much difference in climate between the present and the Bronze Age, it was in the direction of the latter being drier, but apparently it was not great; for, according to eminent observers, the climate of Britain has not altered much for many centuries.

There are at the present time a very large number of hut circles on Dartmoor—an estimate of two thousand is not unreasonable, for about half of this number are indicated on the Ordnance Maps; there were doubtless many more, for hundreds have been destroyed from time to time.

A large number have been explored, and the general results may be thus summarized.

The greater number have served as habitations, but a considerable total possessed no sign of human occupancy, and these are supposed to have been storehouses, or pens for domestic animals.

In the large settlement of Watern Oke one-third of the hut circles yielded no sign of charcoal, a sure indication when present of human residence.

The hut-circle dwellings are so numerous that it is more than doubtful whether they were all concurrently occupied.

It is possible that summer herdsmen made use of varying settlements, for although the foundations of the huts are so durable the superstructure, consisting of an easily

made roof of rushes, heather, or skins, could be quickly added.

That the occupants were pastoral is indicated by the "pounds," which either include the dwellings or lie detached close at hand.

Some of the settlements possess a ramification of walls connecting the huts one with the other—a good example of this is on Standon Down, Tavy Cleave.

The large number of hut circles on Dartmoor does not indicate a large permanent population, for if the subject be considered it becomes evident that the grazing area could not carry winter and summer any considerable number of human beings.

The population in the winter was strictly limited to the number of beasts which could be maintained on forage collected and stored during the summer.

Even to-day, with improved cultivation, roots and artificial food, the winter stock is small, and the limit of agricultural population, when the first census was taken, in March, 1801, only reached a little over two hundred persons in the Forest proper.

This was the modern limit with a vastly increased population in Devon and improved means of communication.

The summer population of Dartmoor has ever been in excess of the winter, and there is no doubt that this was the case in prehistoric times. Then, as now, the herdsmen of Devon drove their beasts to the Moor for summer grazing, returning to the lowlands in the autumn.

Summer migration, and the shifting of the grazing ground on the Moor, and the fact that the ruined hut circles cover an unknown period of pastoral occupancy, account for what at first appear to be indications of a huge population altogether in excess of the capabilities of the Moor for maintaining same.

The exploration of the hut circles has disclosed no evidence that the early folk were tinners, or smelted the alluvial tin ore of Dartmoor.

If streaming had been general at such an early period some evidence would have been discovered.

If such exists it can only be assumed that it lies buried under the debris of comparatively modern stream works, or in hut circles yet unexplored.

The latter is not very likely, as the exploration has

practically covered examples of single huts and settlements all over the granite area.

The most ancient "blowing" house is in Deep Swincombe, near Hexworthy; this, on exploration, yielded potsherds of the medieval type, probably as early as the tenth century.

The Romans were eager exploiters of mines; but although keen in their search for gold and lead in remote parts of Britain and in Wales, they never appeared to have troubled themselves about Dartmoor, although at Exeter, only some twenty miles away, they possessed an important station.

The same neglect appears as regards Cornwall—a county with undoubted evidence of a tinning industry going back to early times.

This is difficult to understand, for the Romans must have known that tin was abundant in the extreme western county.

One can only suggest that they obtained it second-hand, as far as Cornwall is concerned.

In the absence of any definite mining remains on Dartmoor of sufficient age, one is driven to the conclusion that the winning of tin in that district came after the Roman occupation.

The "finds" that have been made in Dartmoor hut circles are but few—flint implements, rubber stones, sherds of hand-made pottery (in two instances almost perfect cooking-pots), and pebble pot-boilers nearly compose the total. No bronze has been found in a hut circle, and no iron, excepting, of course, palpable modern intrusions.

The absence of bronze is not to be wondered at, for it was precious and carefully kept.

The lack of any iron object is significant, and its persistent absence, together with the character of the hut-circle pottery, indicates that these dwellings represent a period of culture when iron was unknown on Dartmoor, and bronze and stone—especially the latter—were the materials used for the fabrication of implements and weapons.

Iron is easily oxidized, but it cannot totally disappear—lumps of oxide would remain for a very long period.

It is true that Dartmoor was probably a remote and backward region in those days; but remembering that it

received herdsmen and flocks each summer, it could only be isolated in the same manner that it was, say, a century ago.

How much earlier than, say, 500 to 800 years B.C. (when iron is supposed to have been introduced) the bronze and stone-using people occupied the hut circles we cannot tell ; probably a long way back, for we possess on Dartmoor sepulchral remains of considerable antiquity, even if compared with monuments in more favoured countries which possessed a high state of culture long previous to the time when Britain was yet plunged in the gloom of pre-historic times.

You are all familiar with the Dartmoor menhîrs, stone rows and "stone" circles, cairns and kistvaens, and you know that, generally speaking, they have something to do with the interment of the dead.

There is always an exception to the rule, and that is the solitary menhîr known as Beardown Man, near Devil's Tor, for this stands close to boggy land, and with no apparent connection with other remains.

The menhîr at Merivale, which stands in the centre of a small ruined circle, may seem to be another, but it is really a member of a group of monuments of a distinctly sepulchral character.

The exploration of the "stone" circles disclosed a definite floor of "calm," or subsoil, strewn with fragments of charcoal, and with interments outside the circle or within sight of same.

These "stone" circles may be the places for cremating the dead, or the site of the funeral feasts, or both—at any rate, they have some connection with burial observances.

That the people who committed the ashes of the dead to the kistvaen had some idea of a future life is demonstrated by the occurrence in the graves of articles useful in life, such as flint implements, small vessels of pottery, and in one instance an archer's wrist-guard. The evidence is feeble, but it exists.

The actual significance of the stone row is not at present known ; when at all perfect it connects interments one with the other, or starting from a cairn or kistvaen, ends in a blocking-stone.

Some of the sepulchral monuments thus rapidly indicated are of considerable magnitude, and could only have been erected during a lengthened occupancy, whether

casual or permanent, of the region we now know as Dartmoor.

The best find made by the Dartmoor Exploration Committee was that of Fernworthy, where a previously undisturbed cairn yielded a small hand-made pottery vase of the food-vessel type, together with a fragment of bronze, a flint knife, and a horn dress-fastener.

Sir Norman Lockyer contends that the stone rows (there are over fifty of them on Dartmoor, pointing in all directions of the compass) were erected as observation stations by astronomer priests for the purpose of determining the proper season when seeds should be sown.

In addition, he contends that dolmens are really the huts of these mysterious beings, and that if burials took place in them, it was after the said priests had vacated them. As previously mentioned, the only existent dolmen near Dartmoor is that at Drewsteignton, which has a roof weighing some sixteen tons, supported on three upright stones, and enclosing a space of, say, six feet by five feet; this is all the area the priest had to live in, and unless his house was protected in some way, he had to exist in a very draughty residence.

In Finistère alone there are hundreds of dolmens, some above ground and some subterranean, and it has been amply demonstrated that these represent tribal or family ossuaries.

All the above-ground examples were covered by mounds, and there is no doubt that the Drewsteignton cromlech was so provided, and that it is of a similar character.

Any one who is familiar with Dartmoor will know that even now, beyond a very few acres in cultivation, and a larger area under meadow grass, its great bulk is the same to-day as it was thousands of years since.

No astronomer priests were wanted to direct the cultivation of mere patches on this great primeval waste.

The farmers of that day had accumulated experience as to the period when they should sow or gather their meagre crops, and they wanted no priestly guidance.

This is but an imperfect representation of Dartmoor during a time which may be measured by several centuries before our era. Remote as it was, and even somewhat remote as it still is, this sketch of Dartmoor is practically that of Devon during the corresponding period.

The prehistoric graves of the south-west of England, like the Yorkshire Wolds, have yielded but few articles of personal adornment; they were apparently the burial-places of persons of more humble circumstances. The prosperous people of the period lived further afield.

Graves in Wiltshire and Norfolk have yielded gold and amber beads, and bluish-green glass beads have been found in Wiltshire and Dorsetshire.

In some parts of the north of England and Scotland kists and barrows have been prolific in ornaments.

Although there was apparently greater wealth and a corresponding higher state of culture outside Devon during the Bronze Age, the main conditions were the same. There was just the difference, as we have to-day, in a remote rural district as compared with a more populous centre.

No brief account of the state of culture in Southern Britain could be considered at all adequate unless some reference was made to Stonehenge—a magnificent ruin—beside which our monuments on Dartmoor appear quite pigmy in comparison.

In fact, they cannot be compared; for whilst Stonehenge may be claimed as a temple for the observation and veneration of the sun, we cannot assume that such feeble imitations as the stone circles of Dartmoor were either temples or astronomical stations.

An absorbing question is—when was Stonehenge built?

Some ten years since Sir Edmund Antrobus, the owner of the monument, decided, on the recommendation of the Society of Antiquaries, to re-erect the great "leaning stone," which leant over the altar-stone at an angle of sixty-five degrees. It was a delicate and somewhat difficult operation, but was successfully carried out by Professor Gowland, with suitable engineering assistance. During the process of the work some excavation was necessary so that the great monolith should stand in concrete. This resulted in the following finds:—

Many flint implements, including roughly chipped axes with fairly sharp cutting edges, and hammer-stones much battered by use. In addition, hammer-stones of hard quartzite sarsen, weighing from one up to six pounds, and ponderous mauls of the same material, up to sixty-four pounds.

There is little doubt that these objects were the dis-

carded tools of the builders—implements used for the dressing of the surfaces of the sarsen monoliths composing the building—which, when done with, were thrown into the pit in which this particular specimen stood.

No bronze was found, and Professor Gowland guardedly placed the period of erection near the termination of the Neolithic Age, with an estimate of a probable date of 1800 years B.C.

Sir Norman Lockyer, on astronomical grounds, had, previously to this excavation, estimated the age at 1700 B.C.

Too much importance should not be given to the absence of bronze, for that alloy in early times must have been a precious metal, and the builders would not be likely to lose much of it when erecting; indeed, it is possible for Stonehenge to have been entirely constructed without the use of a single metal tool.

As previously stated, the late Sir John Evans placed the commencement of the Bronze Age in Britain at 1400 B.C. Dr. Oscar Montelius carries it back much further—even beyond the estimate of the age of the construction of Stonehenge by Professor Gowland.

Nothing short of a careful and thorough exploration of the ruin would settle its age in anything approaching a satisfactory manner. One thing is certain—it is of great antiquity, whether built before or after the advent of bronze.

It is well cared for by its owner, but still it is in private hands, and might suffer if such ownership was changed.

In any other country in Europe such a unique monument would be either owned or protected by the State.

It is difficult to form an estimate of the age of the Dartmoor monuments, and reduce such to measurement of years, but it is reasonable to assume that many of them were built in the Bronze Period, and whether early or late they must possess an antiquity of at least 3000 years. Some of them may be far older.

It is evident from this brief and imperfect sketch that the people of South and South-Western Britain had attained to a certain level of culture, say, 1500 to 1600 years before our era.

They lived far removed from the superior civilization of more favoured climes. If there was distant trading of any sort, either direct or through intermediaries, such intercourse appears to have had but little effect.

Britain was beyond the pale of influence of the great power on the Nile.

Whilst the people of Britain were living in the condition so rapidly described, Egypt was passing through its zenith.

Thothmes III, the great warrior king, had lived and died, and the land of Egypt was filled with slaves and much treasure, due to his conquests in Western Asia. Of Britain this king could have known nothing.

The opinion that the Phœnicians traded with our island for tin at this early period rests on the slenderest evidence —so slender that some competent authorities decline to admit that any exists.

It is more likely that the Egyptians obtained this metal from the Far East; for although the use of bronze in Egypt goes back to a remote period, it recedes to a remoter one still in China.

The influence of ancient Egypt was extended south and east—it crept westward as far as Malta.

From Thothmes III back to Menes, the first dynastic king, is a long period, probably as much as 3000 years, and yet, at that far-away time, Egypt had a superior civilization, when the inhabitants of Britain were in all the primitive conditions appertaining to a neolithic condition.

How long, previous to this first king appearing in history, this civilization existed is unknown—it was doubtless built up during centuries of progress.

In directing your attention to the state of Egypt, and that of Britain during the same approximate period, there is no necessity to deal with the temples and other great monuments on the Nile and contrast them with, say, Stonehenge, nor to refer to the history and literature of that ancient country.

All that one need do is to select one or two instances as illustrations of the position of Egypt at a time when the people of Britain could only just see the glimmer of the dawn of civilization.

Thothmes III had a son by a negro princess, who grew up to be a mighty man of valour; he was named Maherpra —the lion on the battlefields. In 1899 Loret discovered his tomb in the Biban-el-Moluk, Thebes. It had never been previously disturbed, and the whole contents were transported to and placed on exhibition in the Cairo Museum.

There is a large sarcophagus of wood, nearly ten feet

long, covered with pitch and decorated with figures and inscriptions in gold.

Inside was a huge mummiform coffin, which never contained the mummy. This was found in another of gilt wood, and the supposition is that he was thus doubly provided for in case he should want a change.

He was furnished with a fine wooden chest, covered with pitch, mounted on a sledge with the funerary figures and legends drawn with a gold varnish—this contained the canopic vases or receptacles for the entrails of the deceased.

In addition, there are terra-cotta and alabaster vases in great variety of form, and most of them still sealed up, containing what remains of the fats and perfumes poured into them at the time of the burial.

Wooden boxes containing provisions for Maherpra—ducks, pigeons, cutlets, haunches of game and beef, all mummified and wrapped in linen, and large jars still sealed, containing the remnants of the perfumes and salts used in embalming.

An interesting example of the Egyptian idea of life springing from death was found in the tomb. On a low bedstead coarse linen had been stretched, seeds of wheat or barley were placed in such a manner as to resemble the mummified figure of Osiris. The seeds were kept moist until they sprouted, and on reaching a height of a few inches the growth was flattened down and the whole artificially dried.

One case in the Museum contains the finest objects of the tomb outfit of Maherpra. There are his quivers—two of them—of embossed leather, the sporting arrows for same, tipped with hard wood or flint, two pink leather collars of his favourite dog, remains of a funeral bouquet, and some bread with plenty of bran in it. What we should call a Standard loaf.

In order that his Ka, i.e. his bodily spirit, might have some distraction, a complete draught-board in wood and ivory, containing thirty squares, and a set of thirteen playing pieces in white and blue glaze, were placed in the tomb.

His articles of personal adornment were not forgotten. Bracelets of ebony, inlaid with metal or glass ; a clasp of gold and polychrome enamel in the shape of a half-blown lotus flower ; anklets in blue enamel, and necklaces of coloured glass beads.

There are also a fine blue glaze bowl, small terra-cotta pots, and a beautiful vase of coloured glass with a turquoise-blue ground, its neck still wrapped around with linen, and yet containing some perfume.

A copy of the *Book of the Dead* was buried with Maherpra —written in hieroglyphics with black and red ink, and decorated with vignette portraits of the dead prince. He is depicted as a mulatto with woolly hair, and is dressed in a short skirt with the triangular apron, and over this is a transparent tunic with short sleeves. His mummy, which is in good preservation, confirms the accuracy of the artist.

The contents of the tomb of Maherpra convey a vivid impression of the state of culture existing in Egypt some 3500 years ago. Even so long since the Egyptians were skilled workers in metal, glass, and faience. Some of the objects found in the tomb would do credit to, and indeed could hardly be excelled by any art-producing centre of the present day.

The contents of this tomb are by no means unique—there are other exhibits in the Cairo Museum which cast it wholly in the shade.

It has been selected as a contrast with the state of Britain during the Bronze Period; first, because the tomb when found was inviolate; and secondly, because whilst having no Pharaoh in Britain, the position of Maherpra, as a semi-prince and important Court official, might be considered to more closely correspond to the status of the Bronze Age chieftains in our own country.

Yet one cannot refrain from saying something about one of the Pharaohs, for your President was fortunate enough to recently visit on several occasions the excavations which have lately taken place on the site of the palace of Amenhotep III, the Memnon of the Greeks, the original of the Colossi, the husband of his best-beloved Tiyi and the father of Akhnaton, the most remarkable of all the rulers of Egypt.

Directly a Pharaoh ascended the throne his first thoughts were to provide himself with a suitable tomb, and then to see what he could do to glorify the gods. We are not now concerned with either of these aspirations; we are familiar with the royal tombs, and with the great temples of Egypt.

Whilst nothing could exceed the magnificence and the enduring character of the temples, the visitor to Egypt

is puzzled to know where, amidst all this splendour, the great Pharaoh lived.

At the temple of Medinet Habou there is a royal lodge at the entrance of the fore-court, known as the pavilion of Rameses III.

It contained lodgings for the Pharaoh, and is built after the model of a Syrian fortress.

It cannot have served as a residence, but rather as retiring-rooms when the King visited the temple. His palace was situated hard by, but any remains have disappeared, and have been covered up with later buildings of mud brick which are now a heap of ruins.

The palace of Amenhotep III lay about one mile south of Medinet Habou, just on the edge of the desert.

The site was partially explored in 1880 by Grébaut, again taken in hand by Mr. Newbury in 1900, and finally laid bare and planned in all its detail during the past two years by the New York Museum at the cost of Mr. Pierpont Morgan.

These various explorations enable us to see how the Pharaoh was housed, and, considering the magnificence of the temples, one is struck with the moderate character of this royal residence of one of the most illustrious sovereigns of the eighteenth dynasty.

Amenhotep III does not appear to have been a great conqueror; for apparently he undertook no great wars after the Ethiopian Campaign, which took place in the fifth year of his reign, when he was twenty-one years of age.

The supremacy of Egypt was acknowledged abroad, so his energies went in the direction of peaceful development at home, commercial extension, and the cultivation of the arts.

He was a great builder.

His activities in this direction are visible in the temples of Karnak and Luxor. The great temple he erected behind the Colossi has disappeared, and so has a most perfect and beautiful example which Amenhotep erected on the island of Elephantine.

This Pharaoh was the first to prepare his tomb out of sight of the Nile. He selected a wild and desolate gorge in the desert, and hewed out hundreds of feet of galleries in the limestone for his sepulchre, a new departure followed for many centuries by succeeding monarchs.

The whole of the ground plan of the palace of Amenhotep III is now visible, and consists of a great number of comparatively small apartments covering some four acres.

The walls were of sun-dried brick, plastered inside and decorated with frescoes of brilliant colouring.

There is a large throne-room with a dais, and fair-sized apartments for the King and Queen, bath-rooms and numerous smaller rooms for the suite in attendance—for servants, artisans, and slaves.

Scoriæ of coloured pastes and enamels indicate the location of the glass-makers, and the whole site was sprinkled with potsherds in blue and buff, with fragments of cups rendering the calyx of a full-blown lotus flower, drinking-vessels representing a pond filled with aquatic plants and fishes, flower vases, amulets, scarabs, brilliantly coloured beads, porcelain rings and gold rings set with gems, and bracelets. All most beautifully made, and fragmentary as they mostly are, they fill the mind with longing to recover some perfect specimens so as to appreciate the original loveliness of the work of the clever artificers whom the Pharaoh employed in and about his royal villa.

Whilst the general appearance of the palace must have been much after the style of the fellaheen dwellings of to-day, the bulk of the rooms were more spacious, with highly decorated interior walls and ceilings. Vultures with outspread wings and flocks of birds decorate the latter, and conventional representations of the lotus and sacred emblems the former.

In the vicinity of the palace were beautiful gardens, irrigated from the Nile, with a large lake on which Amenhotep and his well-beloved Tiyi took their rest and pleasure in the cool of the evening in a magnificently appointed dahabiyeh, which was called Aton-gleams, attended by musicians and all that appertained to the luxury of a brilliant Court.

There is every reason to suppose that Akhnaton was born in this palace. In some respects the most distinguished monarch that ever sat on the throne of Egypt—a king who attempted to lead his people in the worship of an Almighty Deity, who abolished all human and animal sacrifices, and treated his prisoners, slaves, and those under him in a humane manner.

All this luxury and splendour of Amenhotep the Magni-

ficent, and his Queen Tiyi the Beautiful, was being enjoyed in a highly civilized and contented Egypt about 1400 years B.C., when we in Britain had either just entered, or had not long enjoyed, the advent or use of bronze.

We are rightly proud of Stonehenge, but when we compare it with the monuments of Egypt—some of them going back to a very remote period—we can but consider it insignificant.

One has only to gaze on the Great Pyramid, built simply as a tomb by Khufu nearly 6000 years ago, to realize the massive ingenuity of a people who were then far advanced on the path of civilization.

It is not only the great works of the early Egyptians that strike one almost with awe—one can realize their consummate cleverness in smaller objects.

In the Cairo Museum is a seated figure of Men-Kau-Ra, the Pharaoh who built the third pyramid at Giza about 3600 years B.C. It is hewn out of diorite, an exceedingly hard stone, and, considering the obdurate character of the material, is well executed—the head and bust would do credit to a skilled sculptor of to-day.

It is puzzling to explain how such work was executed.

Iron was either unknown, or not in use, bronze was useless, so Egyptologists fall back on copper, and presume that chisels of this metal were, by some unexplainable method, so hardened as to render them effective.

Where time was of no object much might have been done by rubbing, but even then preliminary tool-work was necessary.

There is another diorite statue in the Museum—that of Khafra, the builder of the second pyramid.

This is even finer than that of Men-Kau-Ra, for it is modelled with much delicacy and skill, and the seated figure is full of the grandeur of repose and strength.

Of even finer work are the statues of Prince Rahotpu and his wife, the Princess Nofrit—in this case the material is limestone, painted in water-colour.

According to Maspero, on no other statue yet discovered in Egypt is there so subtle and exquisite rendering of the modelling of the neck and bosom under the light garment with which Nofrit is clothed.

These instances of skill and advanced civilization could be multiplied many times.

Time will not permit of further examples.

The few instances selected are sufficient to bring home to our minds the advanced state of culture existing in the valley of the Nile whilst we in Britain were in the Stone Age; and yet a higher degree of civilization when we had left that primitive condition behind us, and were commencing the use of bronze.