

RELICS OF EARLY RACES IN THE UPPER TEST VALLEY, HAMPSHIRE.

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THE implements lying on the table, with the exception of a few of earlier type, were collected in the Parish of St. Mary Bourne, Hants. They represent an unwritten period in human history; and are valuable in illustrating a culture stage in the earlier inhabitants of Britain. The older specimens to which I have alluded are part of a series which I have lately found on the south wall of the Reading Valley, in the gravel drift which was laid down in Pleistocene times, when a mile wide water occupied the Thames Valley at the level of the drift.

The difference in the respective ages of the two groups led Sir John Lubbock to propose the distinctive terms *Palæolithic* (Old Stone) for the one, and *Neolithic* (New Stone) for the other, which terms are now commonly used by pre-historic archæologists.

That this natural grouping possesses a real value is proved by the circumstances under which the implements are found. The later specimens are commonly met with on the surface of the ground, and have sometimes been called "surface implements," or in shell-mounds, peat-mosses, or lake-dwellings, accompanied with the remains of animals comparatively modern; while the older instruments are found in undisturbed beds of clay and gravel, or in caves underneath layers of stalagmite and cave earth, in association with animals which are now either extinct or living in a very different locality.

There are also important differences in the character of the two classes of instruments. On the whole the earlier are ruder, and are formed wholly by flaking; and are consequently made of material which will readily flake, such as flint, chert, or quartzite. On the other hand the neolithic shew considerable advance in art in the variety of types represented, as well as from the considerable number of them which are artificially rubbed or polished. Further, many varieties of stone were employed during the neolithic period, of which we may mention jade, fibrolite, jasper, hornstone, greenstone, basalt, serpentine, agate, obsidian, in short any tough stone which was not liable to splinter or break in use. At a yet more advanced period, that of Bronze, the arrow-heads and axes are exquisitely wrought, and exhibit

the highest degree of manual dexterity in their fabrication. Implements of palæolithic type, made from quartzite pebbles, have been found in some quantity in the laterite beds of the East coast of Southern India,* but it is rare to find them of any material save flint in this country. Here, however, is a pointed specimen made from a quartzite pebble which was found with the drift series in this district; and specimens of the laterite instruments are present in the museum at Salisbury.

Caves have been most useful in the study of early man through the agency of the relics he has left behind, as well as in the investigation of the animals associated with him. About thirty caves have been more or less completely examined and reported on in Britain; and they may be considered as representing at least four different periods: (1st). That in which the Bison predominated; (2nd). When the Reindeer prevailed; (3rd). The period of the Mammoth and Rhinoceros; (4th). That in which the cave Bear, the Hyæna, and *Machairodus* were present. This last was the oldest. In each of these man is represented by stone and bone implements of human manufacture, and occasionally by bones of man himself.** The *Machairodus*, or sabre-toothed Tiger, is only present in three English localities. The researches of Mr. Pengelley in Kent's Cavern, Torquay, which may be considered as being a continuance of the good work begun by Mr. MacEnery about the year 1824, show that this cave was the home of man through, probably, the palæolithic or ancient stone period, the neolithic or newer stone period, and perhaps through the bronze and iron periods even down to the "*pic-nic*" usages of the present day. But the remarkable association of animal forms with the remains of man, some of which have long since died out, while others have migrated to warmer or colder latitudes, and the separation of the various relics by the granular-stalagmite, cave-earth, crystalline-stalagmite, and breccia, demonstrate the enormity of the time which must have intervened between the lowest stratification and the uppermost one. Pre-historic relics find safe repositories in caves, the dread of the supernatural having been the means of rendering these retreats free from molestation. In this country, and throughout the world from the remotest times, witches, sybils, and all kinds of evil spirits had the reputation of living in caverns; and in Pagan times they were thought to be the homes of sylvan and other deities. They were used in neolithic times as places of burial; and the pages of history relate sad tales of the sufferings experienced in caves by people who endeavoured to take shelter in them from religious persecution.

With regard to the distribution of Neolithic stone implements, it might be broadly stated that they are universal. They are found throughout the American Continent to Arctic America, where instruments similar to the scrapers from St. Mary Bourne are employed in

* International Congress of pre-Historic Archæology, 1868.

** "Antiquity of Man," Professor T. Rupert Jones, F.R.S., p. 21,

cleansing and preparing the skins of reindeer and seals for clothing. Stone implements are met with also in China, Japan, and Central Asia, in Egypt, Assyria, Africa, and throughout Europe, and there is a remarkable similarity in the instruments wherever found. They are not necessarily the work of existing peoples, indeed, in both Europe and Asia, all recollection of the stone-using people had so completely passed away that, recognizing these objects on the surface of the ground, they were considered as thunderbolts, and the smaller flint arrow-heads were thought to have been used by fairies, "elf-arrows." They were worn as charms and amulets, and as specifics against diseases. They were in existence thousands of years ago, and they were a thing of yesterday, inasmuch as stone implements have been found in common use among many races of modern savages, as the Andaman Islanders, the Australians, the Figians, the Esquimaux, and the Fuegians. Even among degraded peoples such as these there is considerable difference in the culture level, the New Zealanders being in advance of their neighbours the Australians or the New Caledonians; while the Fuegians stand lower than most of the native American races. An illustration of stone using was furnished by the natives of New Guinea, when the "Challenger" steamed into Humboldt Bay. Here the native spears and arrows were pointed with stone, and the hatchets and other tools employed in building huts and shaping canoes were wholly of that material.

It must not be considered that any people living in what is called the "Stone Age" is exclusively confined to the use of stone. Rude races living in confined localities, where workable stone is not obtainable, as, for instance, Barbadoes, and until recently the Island of Mota, have been known to make their cutting instruments from marine shells. Such would be placed in the same category with stone-using people. Again, the native inhabitants of distant islands have been observed in the possession of tools of bone, or of the teeth and claws of animals, or they have hammered rude tools out of scraps of native copper, or from the waifs and strays of iron or brass, gathered perhaps along the sea-shore. Some excellent examples of such are present in the collection of General Lane Fox. Such peoples would still be considered in their "Stone Age," the employment of those materials implying no knowledge of working in metals.

Other reminiscences of Neolithic man occur in Danish shell-mounds, and peat-mosses; and in heaps containing miscellaneous refuse of a similar character occurring in Devon and along the north coast of Cornwall. Some of the collections measure 1000ft. in length, and 100ft. or 150ft. in width. They mark the camping sites of rude fishing and hunting tribes, who frequented probably the whole Danish sea-board. The bones and shells of various kinds testify to the animals used for food, and which, with flint flakes, hammers, slingstones, and axes intermingled with charcoal, ashes, and other *debris*, make up a mass which, when scientifically investigated, serves to throw light on the habits and civilization arrived at by the shell-mound people.

The peat-bogs reveal a history of several stages, from the pure Neolithic stone period, through that of Bronze, down to the time of Iron; and it has been found that each of these periods is distinguished by the presence in the peat, at different depths, of a particular form of forest timber, which appears to have grown, flourished, and ultimately to have given place to a new variety. The first, or lowest of these, is the Scotch Fir (*pinus sylvestris*). The second, superposed on the first, forming a fresh forest growth, is the sessile variety of the Oak (*quercus robur*), and still higher the pedunculated variety (*quercus pedunculata*). Lastly, the Oak in its turn has given way before the Beech (*fagus sylvatica*), which now flourishes everywhere, and which has nearly caused the Oak to disappear from Denmark. The Fir represents the Stone age, Professor Steenstrup having himself removed a flint implement from beneath a buried trunk, while other trees had evidently been felled by the aid of fire. With the Oak, stone instruments occur in company with tools of bronze; while the Beech makes the latest advance, it being associated with instruments of iron. A similar distribution attends the Swiss Lake-dwellings, these settlements having been found to range through the three several periods, and down probably to Roman times. They testify to the progress of the lake dwellers, from the hunter and fisher condition to that of the agriculturist and manufacturer, for not only do the Lake-dwellings, as a series, shew, during the lengthened period of their occupation, that their later phases were marked by the superabundance of domesticated animals over wild ones, but that the cereals were cultivated and stored for winter use, flax was grown and weaved into clothing, and that attention even was shewn to the production of fruits, such as the apple, the raspberry, and the cherry. In the earlier dwellings, the axe marks on the wooden structures imply that stone implements were used in their construction.

In dealing with the three culture stages, of Stone, Bronze, and Iron, we should not hastily conclude that each one invariably succeeded the other in regular order, and that they were in turn contemporaneous throughout the area in which each is known to have prevailed. A nation may suddenly pass from the Stone to the Iron age without any intervening Bronze period, as did the Mexicans, who prior to the Spanish invasion had no weapons save those of Stone. The aborigines of New Zealand and the Pacific Islands have, in our time, made a similar transition from stone to iron. Even allowing that, as a rule, the civilization of early man actually ran its course through these periods, just as they are mentioned above, yet it is certain that the bronze period of Northern Europe by no means agrees in time with that of the middle and southern parts of this continent. In Scandinavian countries, stone implements continued in use for a long time after the bronze period was in full vigour in more southern lands; and Egypt and Greece had both advanced to the Iron period, while middle Europe was still in the age of Bronze. An interesting and instructive instance of the way periods are sometimes found to overlap, the earlier usages running down into

the later ones, is furnished by the remains found in a Scottish crannog, and reported on by Mr. Robert Munro.* The remains are stated as of the "Late Celtic Period"; and the crannog was constructed of rude piles of wood, in an ancient lake known as Lochlee, in the parish of Turbolton, Ayrshire. The discovery has occurred since the drainage of the land for farming purposes. Around the hearths, and in other places, were found polished celts, hammer-stones, scrapers, querns, and other stone instruments, clay spindle-whorls, a canoe made from a solid oak trunk, needle or bodkin-like articles of bone and horn, fibulæ and pins of bronze or brass, and with these an iron hatchet, as well as knives, spear-heads, a chisel, and other tools of the same material. In this case we have a distinct commingling of articles belonging to two periods; but it does not follow that their introduction was simultaneous. On the whole the division into the ages of Stone, Bronze, and Iron, as classifying civilization, is clear and convenient; but in determining isolated cases it is liable to lead to incorrect conclusions. Broadly, there is no doubt that the general progress of mankind has been upwards, although the progression has not been uniform. Time has been a chief factor, although not the only one, to be taken into account in the consideration of progress. The influences of climate, the scarcity or abundance of food, the position as regards interferences on the part of neighbouring races, are often more potent in affecting the advancement or deterioration of a people than would be brought about by almost any amount of time. The growth of man's power over nature has never been permanently checked in spite of some pauses and relapses. Any new knowledge or art which has been found profitable to mankind generally has seldom been permanently lost. There is no doubt that rude arts have been retained over considerable periods without much change; but they have been found to disappear on the introduction of better contrivances; and that, except under peculiar circumstances, the new art and its advantages once grasped, there has been no falling back to the earlier ones.

In order to show the continuity and progression of form, it is necessary to take examples from many different ethnographical collections; and even then there is considerable difficulty in furnishing all the necessary links. It is not a very lengthened period that the arts of savage races have received much attention. During the last quarter of a century, however, sufficient evidences have been brought together and arranged to throw much light on the habits and contrivances of the earlier peoples who occupied Britain. Of such may be enumerated the Blackmore collection at Salisbury; the "Christy," which will shortly form part of the national collection; and that of General Lane Fox, which is in the Bethnal Green Museum. In the first the object of the arrangement is the representation of different stages of culture; in the second, or the "Christy," the classification is geographical; while in the third it has been the object of General Fox

* "Nature," May 13th, 1880.

to illustrate the development of form, that is to say, the evolution of complex forms from the more simple by almost imperceptible gradation. On this head General Fox has himself stated that his endeavour has been to prove "that all the implements of the stone age are traceable by variation to a common form, and that form the earliest; that their improvement spread over a period so long as to witness the extinction of many wild breeds of animals; and that it was so gradual as to require no effort of genius or of invention; and that it was identical in all parts of the world."*

The implements from St. Mary Bourne may all be classified as *Neolithic*, no facts having come to light to enable any of them to be placed among the Bronze series. The pure Neolithic stone-using folk appear to have been a small dark-haired Basque race (*non-Aryan*), who were driven across our Island into its western and northern recesses during the Neolithic period, by a more powerful Celtic people (*Indo-European*), who used bronze in addition to stone, the Celtæ in turn having been dispossessed of the more Southern districts of England by the Belgæ, who had some knowledge of iron. The Celtic races appear to have come as immigrants from the plains of Central Asia. During the Neolithic period simple forms of hand-made pottery were in use. The ox, sheep, goat, pig, and dog had become domesticated, cultivation of some of the cereals had commenced, and flax was grown and woven into fabrics. The earliest form of thread was probably made by hand-twirling on the thigh, after the manner still adopted by shoe-makers. These early settlers appear to have spread themselves over the higher districts of England, for the sake of obtaining pasturage for their flocks, the valleys not being so accessible as now from the presence of jungle and forest. We consequently find traces of their occupation over most of the chalk elevations from Flamborough Head, northward, to the British Channel in the south. On the range of hills more directly concerning North Hants, there are similar evidences in the shape of camps of simple design, hut-villages, trackways, and burial places. The range which runs westward from the neighbourhood of Basingstoke presents us with formidable circular earth-works on Sidown and Beacon Hills; and on the East slopes of Beacon Hill some rectangular lines of embankments mark what have been thought to be the pens in which the Britons sheltered their cattle from wolves and human depredators; for it should be noted that in those days wild boars, the great wild ox, the wolf, and the brown bear held possession of the Island in common with man. The Irish elk is remarkable for being the sole survivor among land mammals from the pleistocene to the pre-historic age, a specimen of the animal having been found in the neighbourhood of Newbury.

There are sufficient evidences to enable us to form some idea regarding the homes of some of the rude tribes who occupied Britain prior to the Roman invasion. Of the stone-using people such vestiges

* "Primitive Warfare," *United Service Journal*, Vol. XII.

chiefly consist of fragments of pile-dwellings met with in peat-bogs; unless we may claim their stone sepulchres as indications of the nature of their abodes. The dwellings used by the Arctic natives resemble stone passage graves; and when ruined are liable to be mistaken for them. Hence Professor Nilsson (*Stone Age of Scandinavia*, p. 132) thinks that the graves are a copy or adaptation of the houses of the living. Proofs are furnished by the finding in some cases traces of a doorway in Danish graves. The house was buried with the owner, and the grave became literally the dwelling of the dead. An interesting notice respecting an ancient settlement was read at the late meeting of the British Association, at Swansea, by Mr. Plunkett, which was found 21 feet beneath the peat in the Coal Bog, near Bohoe, Ireland. The remains consisted of two log huts found in a primitive crannog. Flint implements, hand-made pottery, and other objects, but no metal of any kind, were observed in connection with the huts, which, the author was of opinion, were formed before the age of the bog pine, as no pine occurred below the level of the site on which the huts stood. The fact that twenty-one feet of dark, compact peat had grown since the structures were formed was substantial evidence of their great antiquity. With regard to the habitations of a later period, Cæsar and Strabo write of the homes of the Gauls as being entrenched in the outskirts of the woods, and defended with fences of timber. Cæsar's description of the country is that it was a series of "horrid forests," which must have necessarily restricted the natives to the drier uplands and hills. It appears that they had both summer and winter houses. Of the latter, a well marked group was discovered at Fisherton, near Salisbury, some years ago. They were sunk to a depth of from seven to ten feet in the soil, their floors being the solid chalk, and must have been entered perpendicularly down the shaft, by means probably of a rude ladder. Their coverings were constructed of wattles capped with dried clay. Here some feeble tribe had taken shelter from their enemies, and during the winter from the cold. The contents of the dwellings consisted of tools of flint and bone, spindle whorls of chalk, and coarse hand-made pottery, coloured red on its exterior. Whether observed in Yorkshire, Derbyshire, Devonshire, Anglesey, or Hampshire, the British huts are commonly oval or round in contour. In early times man appears not to have recognised angles; and the same obtains among modern savages. Dr. Livingstone writes that he could not teach the African natives to build otherwise than in circles; the moment his supervision relaxed the builder at once went back to the circle. Several British villages have been described by Sir R. C. Hoare (*Ancient Wilts*, Vol. II.) at Grovely and Stockton Woods, which furnished evidences of subsequent Roman occupation. Such also was the case in Hampshire, in a cluster of huts examined by me at the Hurstbourne Siding, where there were signs of both British and Roman use. The pits were oval or round, and had sloping entrance passages. The huts were sunk five feet in depth at the centre, and from 20 feet to 30 feet from end to end, their width being

from 10 feet to 15 feet. The fire-places had been at the centre, where blackened stones and ashes were observed, the shaft for the smoke having served apparently the purpose of a sky-light. Some of the huts had been built with flints, which had fallen in. Around the fire-places chiefly were discovered bones split up to obtain marrow, bone implements, rudely-made Romano-British pottery, chalk spindle whorls, and stone slabs for crushing grain, or for rubbing flint tools. The bones were those of the Celtic ox (*bos longifrons*), the red deer, fallow deer, goat, pig, and dog. They must have cooked their food outside of their dwelling in one instance, after the manner of some Negro tribes, if we may judge from the presence of a large circular hole which had been densely fired, and which contained the bones of animals which had been used for food. Some of the bones had been toasted at the fire, and bore teeth marks. The deer were probably killed in the extensive forests, which must have spread from Harewood Forest, southward, to the New Forest, and, westward, from Finkley Forest far into North Wiltshire. The scattered inhabitants of this district had evidently kept up communications with the great line of hills forming the northern barrier of the County, as I have observed old track-ways extending along the lines of the low hills in the direction of the upper hills; and have concluded that this distribution was necessitated by the impassable nature of the valleys, which must at that time have been greatly incommoded with bog and morass in winter, rendering them the undisturbed retreats of the wild duck, the heron, and the bittern.

The protecting fortress of the Upper Test Valley appears to have been Walbury, immediately overlooking the upper gorge of the valley at Combe. The name is evidently Celtic, probably from *gwal*, a rampart. The area of the camp comprehends upwards of 100 acres; and the enclosure is defended with a single line of lofty and powerful earth-works, with two recessed entrances which open on the crest of the downs. Within the enclosure, at the highest point reached by the chalk in England, I found a variety of flint implements, a safe criterion that some Neolithic people had occupied the place. Some British pits are observable close by, in Combe wood; and at about three miles distant, at a lower elevation, stands another fortress, which has indications of having been occupied by the Roman people. It is called Haydon Fort; by the older writers "Knoll Ditches;" and I have very little doubt that it was used as an "exploratory camp" by the Romans, in order to watch the movements of the Britons in Walbury at the time when the Hampshire valleys were over-run by the Roman forces, probably under Vespasian. Haydon is quadrangular, that is square with rounded angles, which is commonly the method in Roman earth-works. It contains two tanks for water supply, a point seldom neglected by the Romans; and the gateways are four, opening at the cardinal points. Within the camp, arrows of iron and articles of bronze have been found; and in further evidence of the fortress being Roman, the Roman road from Winchester to Cirencester by Marlborough, curves round the foot of the hill in its route to the station of

Cunetio on the Kennet. The Britons, as we have already noticed, lived chiefly by the pasturage of their flocks on the herbage of the hills ; and here we consequently find their hill defences, small enclosures, and track-ways. They appear to have gradually extended down the valleys, using small tillage around their huts ; and it is remarkable that their early occupation has given the boundaries to many of our present parishes, which, it has been found, extend down the water valleys at right angles to the watersheds from which the valleys originate.

In the fabrication of tools and weapons man stands alone. The lower animals enter the world provided with weapons in the shape of claws, teeth, or horns, wherewith to defend themselves or obtain food ; but man is by nature completely defenceless, and would inevitably have perished in the struggle for existence had he not been endowed with faculties of invention, which enabled him to turn to account even such a rugged material as flint. Under the suggestions of his intelligence he turned the stick into a club, heavy at one end, or he pointed it and used it as a spear or javelin. The splinters of the bones of animals used for food were formed into the needles with which he fabricated his garments, while shreds of deer sinews served as thread to lash the garments around his person. Numerous implements of man's early industry, formed from flint, have been found by me in North Hampshire, of which various specimens are now lying before you. They mostly occur on the surface of the soil in particular localities, chiefly in places overlooking the water valleys ; but I have found them in holes or depressions in the ground, which were evidently working sites. During all periods rude people appear to have conducted their operations with remarkable uniformity under similar circumstances. Respecting the Australian natives, Mr. Baines, the African traveller, (*Geological Repertory*, 1866), writes the following :—"In Australia I have seen areas of considerable extent, say from one hundred to two or three hundred yards, more or less thickly strewn with fragments, not relics of antiquity, but the refuse of ancient labours in the manufacture of weapons of the chase ; for at intervals along the river sides were holes in the earth surrounded by blackened stones, fragments of charred wood, scorched shells of the fresh-water mussel, of the tortoise or turtle, and bones of the alligator, and various fish that not long since had been used for food." The primitive usages of the degraded Australian, however much he may racially differ from the flint-worker of Hampshire, serve to offer some useful suggestions regarding the methods adopted by the latter to meet the daily wants of his nomadic life.

Of the specimens on the table, space will hardly permit more than the mention of the names applied to them by archæologists, but which will in a measure direct you to their supposed uses. They are known as axes, spears, picks, slingstones, wedges, hammers, knives, scrapers, arrow-heads, cores, flakes, pot-boilers, etc. One of the chief implements appears to have been the celt or axe, from *celtis*, a chisel, not because of its use by the Celtic people.

Such heavy, well-cut, sharp-edged flints must have been formidable lethal weapons; in addition to their usefulness to the savage in felling trees and scooping them out into canoes, preparing firewood, digging up roots, or in killing and cutting up his food. That such instruments were used in the chase, ample testimony has been furnished by the skeletons of animals, such as the Caledonian ox, having been discovered with the weapons firmly wedged in the bones of the skull or in other parts of the skeleton. The scrapers resemble in every respect cut stones used by the Esquimaux for cleansing and preparing skins; and it is not unlikely that the stone-using folk of Hampshire employed these for a similar purpose. Many of the commoner flakes or chips of flint have their edges rubbed quite smooth from scraping hard substances such as bone or wood. It is difficult, however, to appropriate many of these roughly wrought implements, which it may be presumed were applied to a variety of purposes. The core is simply the refuse flint from which flakes have been split off. Many cores have the appearance of being cut so that they could be utilized as wedges, slingstones, or hammer-stones. The "picks" are more pointed at one end than the hatchets; and as regards the so-named "pot-boiler," it is a peculiar circular stone, which has evidently undergone extensive firing; and as they are found in large numbers at working sites, and scattered over the fields, they are thought to have furnished the means of cooking food when pottery sufficiently good to withstand fire was unknown in Britain. The inference regarding these stones is strongly supported by the usages of modern savages. Mr. Tylor thus describes the process of cooking with heated stones among a North American tribe, who in consequence received the name of Assineboins, or "Stone-boilers." "They dig a hole in the ground, and take a piece of the animal's raw hide, and press it tightly to the sides of the hole, which thus forms a sort of pot or basin; this they fill with water, and they make a number of stones red-hot in the fire close by. The meat is put into the water, and the stones dropped in till the meat is boiled." This is not an isolated case, as Catlin and others describe similar processes as conducted among the Sioux and other North American tribes, who varied the method by using vessels of wood, or tightly platted baskets in lieu of skins.

Regarding the earlier burial places found in Britain, they may practically be divided into two kinds—Long Barrows and Round Barrows. They occur mostly on the elevated downs, but they are sometimes found in valleys; of the latter, the Upper Test Valley furnishes an example. They may all be regarded as pre-Roman. The Long graves are the earlier in time, and are either simply composed of earth, chalk-rubble, or flints, as in South Wilts and Dorset, or they are made up of large slabs of stone into rude chambers, with galleries, or passages, leading into them, as in North Wilts and Gloucestershire. These stone chambers are usually covered with mounds of earth; but occasionally the earth has become denuded away, or it has been removed for farming purposes, when the stone cell remains in solitary

sword, spear, javelin, dagger, sling, and bow; and they had war chariots, of which five specimens had been found buried with their owners, their horses being about the size of galloways. Professor Rolleston, at the Bristol meeting of the British Association, stated that the skulls found in the Round Barrows contrasted favourably with those of the present day, and that those of the females were nearer the capacity of the males than in our time. But, that we might not lose our complacency, it was added that those mostly found were the skulls of chieftains, and probably held their tribal position as such from their higher mental and bodily capabilities. The crania of those days, on the whole, were inferior to ours in capacity; and it might be roundly stated that the brain capacity had gradually increased with civilization.

It would appear from the researches, in 1879, of the Rev. Canon Greenwell and Mr. Walter Money, in the Celtic graves of North Wiltshire, that Sir R. C. Hoare was hardly correct regarding the differences between the interments in the southern and northern parts of that County. Writing of the northern barrows, Sir R. C. Hoare observes (*Ancient Wilts*, Vol. II.) that he found "no costly ornaments of jet, amber, or gold, such as often had rewarded his labours in the southern district of the County;" and infers therefrom that "the northern graves around Abury, and Abury itself, are of higher antiquity, and erected by a poorer class of Britons." Canon Greenwell, in his report on the contents of a series which were explored by himself and Mr. Money, around Aldbourne, supports Sir R. C. Hoare in the buried race being users of bronze, and of inferior condition; but finds some minor differences in the contents of the graves. "It may be remarked," he writes, "that from the nature of the interments themselves, and the articles found with them, the inhabitants of this district, during the age of bronze, were of the same origin as those who occupied South Wilts; but that they appear to have been in a somewhat inferior condition as regards wealth and its accompanying circumstances. The articles of bronze, though of a similar form, are of inferior size and less elaborate manufacture. The ornaments of jet or amber are fewer in number, and of such a size as to imply that the material was of a much scarcer and more valuable description. Gold is entirely wanting. On the other hand, the size of the Barrows, and the regularity of their construction, quite equal those in South Wilts, and would imply that the country was as completely occupied and under as regular an organization."

It may be interesting to trace shortly the differences between the British dwellings found at St. Mary Bourne and those investigated in other parts of England. The same circularity of form prevails, and simplicity of construction, such minor peculiarities as may be observable being due to locality. Thus, the Dartmoor beehive huts are built with the moor stones so plentifully scattered over the face of the district; and a similar distribution prevails in the construction of the stone dwellings on Ty Mawr, in Anglesey. The larger employment also of stones in the erection of their sepulchres in the West, instead

of forming earth-works as in the South of England, appears to have prevailed in consequence of the greater facility in obtaining stone.

In the British villages, at Pit Steads, in Derbyshire (*Bateman's Vestiges*); and in those described by Dr. Young, as occurring near Whitby (*History of Whitby*), there appear to have been merely some small tribal differences.

The pits on Cissbury Hill, in Sussex, as well as the so-called "Grimes' Graves" and the "Danes' Holes," in Norfolk, were frequented for the purpose of obtaining flint for the manufacture of implements. The "Pen Pits," in Wiltshire, being in a sandstone district, were, it has been conjectured, worked for stone for making querns or mill-stones. But these severally might have furnished temporary habitations to the early occupants of those various districts.

Those which come the nearest to the St. Mary Bourne dwellings are the remains examined some few years ago in the Isle of Wight, by the late Mr. Kell. Here the pits shelved in at the sides, and in some instances were pitched with flints, and the sides had been built up with flints, after the manner adopted in the dwellings in North Hampshire. Similar animal remains were found in Mr. Kell's pits, and the villages, of which several were explored at Rowborough, Gallibury, Gatcombe, and other places, were similarly arranged in groups, and had their protecting fortresses on the hills immediately near.

A peculiarity in the Hampshire pits, which was remarked on by the late Mr. Albert Way, was the presence of entrance passages, or alleys, sloping downwards, rendering it necessary for the inmates to creep down into their uncomfortable abodes. These are merely minor structural differences, but they are worthy of record, and, together with the simple appliances of every-day life found within the dwellings, help to throw a gleam of light on the arts and usages of a period which, although at present in a measure undeciphered, are of as great interest to the searcher after facts, in the elucidation of human progress, as are the multifarious inventions of more recent times.

