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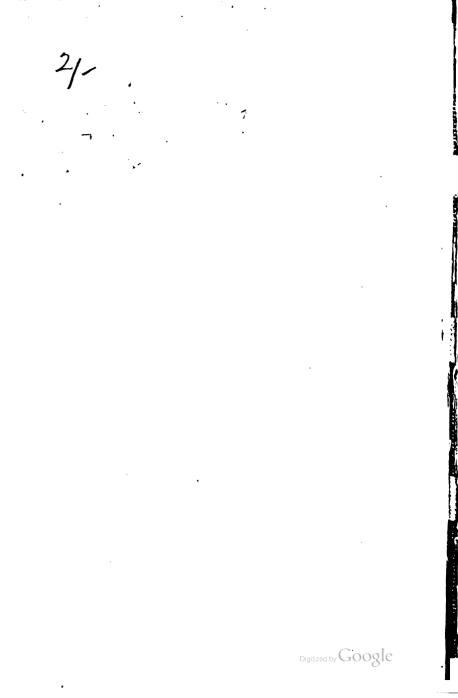
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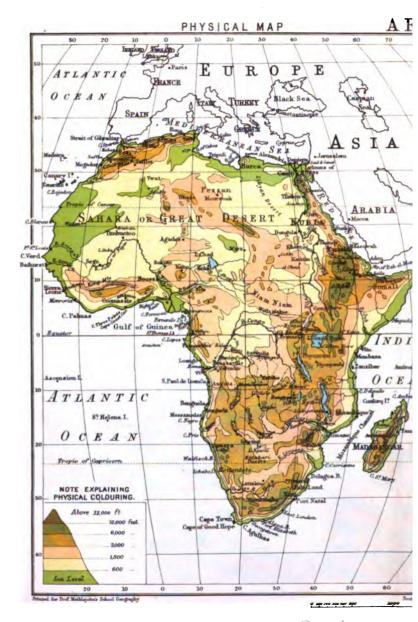
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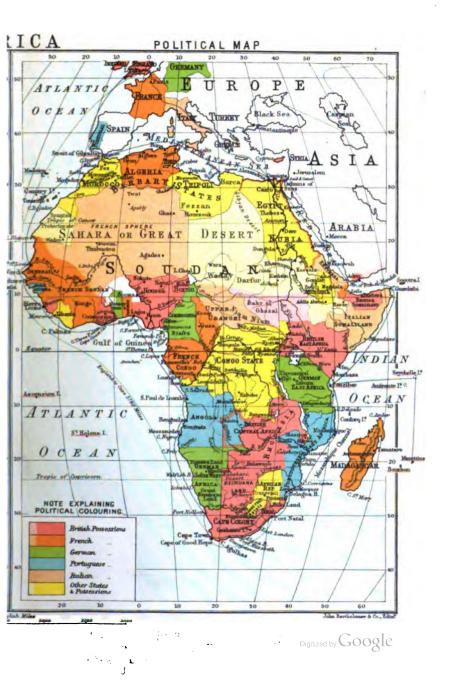


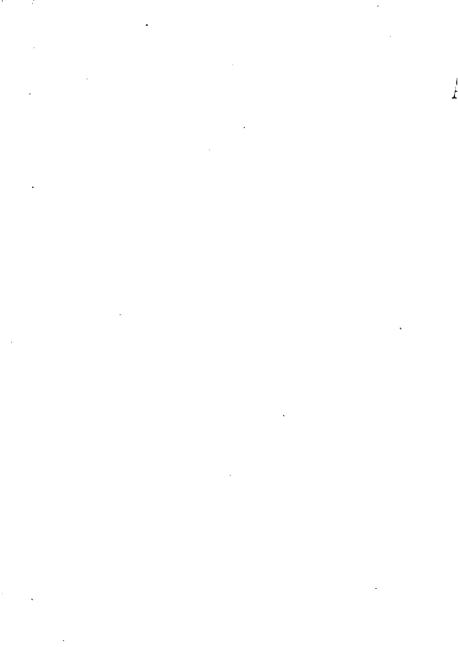


J.N. Whitehead









A NEW GEOGRAPHY

ON THE COMPARATIVE METHOD

WITH MAPS AND DIAGRAMS

AND AN OUTLINE OF

COMMERCIAL GEOGRAPHY

BY

J. M. D. MEIKLEJOHN, M.A.

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ALFRED M. HOLDEN 23 PATERNOSTER ROW, E.C.

1898

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PREFACE

I HAVE tried to make this Geography clear, simple, and connected: clear, that the knowledge in it may be easily and quickly seized; simple, that it may be easily held; and connected, that it may be easily reproduced.

The arrangements of the printing are intended to put the different parts of the subject in their proper perspective. The most important facts have been put in large type; the notes in smaller type are meant to give sets of interesting facts that can be easily remembered, and that will bring a greater amount of connection and association into the various elements. The symbol of association is a spider's web, any point in which may be reached from any other point along the connecting lines. In these subordinate paragraphs my aim has been to introduce as many hooks, burrs, and tentacles as possible; so that something is sure to stick to the memory of even the most careless.

The **Comparative Method** has been employed throughout; and the unknown constantly referred to and compared with that which is known. The memory has been assisted, wherever it was possible, by grouping, by connection, and by association; and I have done what I could to inform the subject through and through with thinking.

The Political Geography is placed on the firm foundation of **Physical Geography**; and it is hoped that the frequent appeal to the EYE in the Maps and Diagrams will give the matter a permanent lodging in the memory.

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PREFACE

The Commercial Geography of each country and continent has been treated with great fulness; and I hope that this feature will make the book useful in the new examinations. But my strongest hope is that the study, or even the mere reading, of this book will make Geography a favourite study, and induce students to pursue the subject after they leave school, while it will enable them to survey with interest and to interpret with exactness the phenomena of politics and commerce, of history and travel. Even the youngest learner can form some kind of connected idea of the life of a country-as it is determined by its position, soil, climate, and connections; and it has been my chief purpose, in writing this book, to give to the student, in as clear and vivid fashion as possible, such a notion of the life of each country and continent as would enable him to add to it without making miscalculations or falling into error.

The key-note of the whole book is that statement of Humboldt's: "Only maps that appear empty take a firm hold on the memory;" and I have tried to sketch the outlines (the large print) in a few clear and firm strokes, while the learner may select for himself those facts given in the notes which may appear to him most interesting.

The book contains all that is necessary for the Examinations of Pupil Teachers and Students in Training Colleges; and also for Candidates for the Oxford and Cambridge Local Examinations.

J. M. D. MEIKLEJOHN

London, 107 PICCADILLY, January 1st, 1889.

The shading in the Maps indicates table-lands. The darker the shading, the higher the table land.

⁽ii) The numbers after each town stand for thousands. Thus, Calcutta (900) = Calcutta 900,000.

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A NEW GEOGRAPHY

INTRODUCTION

GEOGRAPHY is a description of the Earth on which we live. Geography views the Earth more especially as the abode of Man, and as containing the circumstances and conditions under which he is obliged to work in order to live.

The Greek Gd-the earth ; and grapho, I write, give us the word.

2. Geography is generally treated under four heads: Astronomical; Mathematical; Physical; and Political Geography.

(i) Astronomical Geography treats of the Earth as a member of the Solar System.

(ii) Mathematical Geography discusses the Doctrine of the Circle—as the figure which is universally applicable to lines upon a globe.

(iii) Physical Geography treats of the phenomena of Nature, in so far as they affect plants, animals, and man; treats of climate, winds, altitudes, soils, and the natural wealth which is found in or under the soil.

(iv) Political Geography treats of the life of man in cities; of men as grouped in tribes or nations; of governments; and of the present state of nations as evolved from their past. Political Geography is based upon the three other kinds, and resorts to them for explanations of the human phenomena which it observes.

ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY.

1. The Fixed Stars.—The countless points of light which we see in the nightly heavens, and which do not seem to change their position with relation to each other, are the Fixed Stars.

(i) They have light of their own; and are bodies of great size, like our Sun.

(ii) The nearest fixed star is at least 20 billions of miles from our Earth.

2. The Planets.—Besides the fixed stars, there are in the sky several stars which move among the others and change their position with relation to them. These are either Planets or Comets.

Planet comes from the Greek planetes, a wanderer ; Comes from Comeses, long-haired-from the long tail of cometa.

(i) Planets have a quiet, and not a twinkling, light; hence they look like small discs, and not like points.

(ii) Comets distinguish themselves by a tail of light, which is attached to a more dense nucleus.

3. The Sun.—The Sun which we see in our heavens is a fixed star; the Earth on which we live is one of the planets which revolve round this Sun as a centre.

(i) The diameter of the Sun is=108 diameters of our Earth.

(ii) The planets in the Solar System are—in the order of their nearness to the Sun; Mercury; Venus; the Earth; Mars; two groups of Asteroids; Jupiter; Saturn; Uranus; and Meptune.

(iii) Mercury has the smallest orbit, and takes only 88 days to go round the Sun; Neptune has the largest, and requires 165 years to perform one revolution round the Sun. Thus one year in Mercury = 88 days; one year in Neptune = 165 of our years.

(iv) Jupiter is the largest of all the planets, and is 1400 times as large as the Earth.

(v) The Moon is a satellite of our Earth ; just as our Earth is a satellite of the Sun. It goes round the Earth in $29\frac{1}{2}$ days. The Earth is in volume 50 times as large as the Moon.

(vi) The Earth is a spherical body with a circumference of about 25,000 miles; and a diameter of nearly 8000.

4. The Solar System.—The Solar or Planetary System of which our Earth forms part consists of four groups : (i) the Sun ; (ii) the Planets ; (iii) the Satellites of the planets ; and (iv) the Comets.

(i) The Sun is a spherical body with a diameter which measures \$58,880 miles. It is 91 millions of miles distant from our Earth. In volume it is 1,200,000 times as large as the earth; in weight, it is 800,000 times as heavy. Its substance must therefore be four times as light as the substance of our Earth. It rotates on its own axis from east to west; and gives light and heat to many bodies. But out of 337,000,000 measures of heat which the Sun sends out, our Earth receives only one.

(ii) The Planets are divided into Interior and Exterior. The Interior Planets are those which revolve round the Sun within the orbit of the Earth, and therefore take a shorter time to accomplish their revolution. They are Mercury and Venna. The Exterior Planets-Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, and Neptune-revolve estatide the Earth's orbit, and take a much longer time to go round the sun. Neptune is the most distant of all the planets from the Sun-it is 2862 millions of miles from it. It has therefore the largest orbit.

(iii) Several of the planets have Satellites (=Attendants) or Moons. Thus Jupiter has four moons; Saturn eight(and also a series of rings, the inner one of which is transparent); Uranus four; and Neptune, so far as we at present know, has one. Our Earth has one Satellite, which is always called The Moon.

(iv) The Comets are probably white-hot masses of gas, which rush towards our Sun, go round him, and then rush away again.

5. The Moon.—The Moon is a small body, only 2153 miles in diameter, and 240,000 miles from the Earth. It has three motions: (i) it rotates on its own axis; (ii) it revolves round the Earth; and (iii) it travels round the Sun along with the Earth. The Moon has no light of its own; when it is "shining," it is the Sun's light upon the Moon that we see.

(i) The Earth is, in bulk, fifty times as large as the Moon; in weight, it is eighty times as great.

(ii) The Phases of the Moon are as follows: (a) When the Moon comes between the Earth and the Sun, the illuminated half of the Moon is turned towards the Sun, and the dark half to us. There is then "no Moon." (b) When the Moon is a little beyond the straight line between the Earth and the Sun, we then see the edge of her lighted up by the Sun; and this is called "New Moon." (c) When the line joining the Earth and the Sun is at right angles to the line joining the Earth and the Moon, we see half of the Moon's disc lighted up; and we have then "Half Moon." At this time, when the Sun sets in the West, the Moon is in the South. (d) When the Earth is between the Sun and the Moon, the entire disc of the Moon is lighted up by the Sun, and we have "Full Moon."

(iii) The semicircle of the New Moon always looks to the right. When the Moon is waning, or is in its third and its last quarters, its semicircle looks to the left.

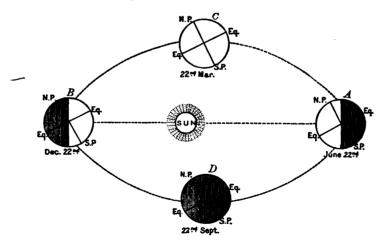
6. The Motions of the Earth.—The Earth has three motions: (i) One on its own axis; (ii) One round the Sun; and (iii) One through space along with the Solar System to which it belongs.

(i) The Earth turns on its axis once in every twenty-four hours. This is called its Disrnal Motion. Hence half of the Earth is always in darkness; and half in light. This turning takes place from west to east. Hence, as the Earth lifts itself towards the Sun, the Sun seems to "rise" in the East, and to "go down" to the West. We have the same illusion in a railway carriage when, if we do not perceive the motion of the carriage we are in, the houses and lamp-posts seem to move. Every place on the Equator moves towards the sun at the rate of more than 1000 miles an hour; that is, it spins 25,000 miles in 24 hours. The rate of movement diminishes as we leave the Equator and approach the Poles. (The exact period of the Earth's daily revolution is 23 hrs. 56'' 4'.)

(ii) The Earth also travels round the Sun in 365¹/₂ days; and this is called its Annual Motion. The path along which the Earth travels round the Sun is called its Orbit. This orbit is not a circle, but an ellipse. The annual motion of the Earth causes the different kinds of climate known as the Four Seasons.

(iii) The Earth travels, along with the Solar System, through space at the rate of 150,000,000 miles a year.

7. The Seasons.—The axis of the Earth is not perpendicular to its orbit, but inclined. It has an inclination of $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$. Hence, in our Summer, the North Pole is inclined towards the Sun, whose rays shine $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ past the Pole. In our Winter, the North Pole is inclined away from the Sun, whose rays stop shining $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ from the Pole. In Spring, on March 22d, the sun's rays touch both poles; and this is also the case on September 22d.



(i) The above gives the position of the Earth with relation to the Sun: A shows the Earth with its North Pole pointing to the Sun; and hence the Northern Hemisphere has its summer, and the Sun is vertical to the Tropic of Cancer—B shows the Earth

THE SEASONS

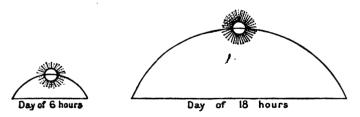
with its North Pole pointing away from the Sun; and the Northern Hemisphere has its winter, and the Sun is vertical to the Tropic of Capricorn.—*C* shows the Sun vertical to the Equator. Hence the Sun's rays become more and more slanting as they approach the poles; and they touch the poles at the very smallest possible angle. Consequently, the farther we go from the poles at this time (Spring or Autumn), the larger the angle at which the Sun's rays strike the Earth, and the warmer climate we find.—*D* also shows the Sun vertical to the Equator; but the Earth is now going towards winter.

8. The Seasons and Light.—We can recognise the Seasons not only by the angle which the Sun's rays make with the ground, but by the height of the Sun in the sky and the length of time he shines—that is, by the length of the day. In mid-Spring and mid-Autumn, the day and night are equal all over the globe. In mid-Summer, the day in our latitude is 18 hours long; in mid-Winter, it is only 6 hours.

(i) March 22d is called the Vernal Equinox.-September 22d is called the Antennal Equinox (Lat. aegua, equal; and noz, night).

(ii) In our Midsummer, the Earth has a long time to get warm; a short time to throw off heat, or to cool: hence the days get warmer and warmer.

(iii) This may be seen by a diagram; and it will also be seen that the longer the course the Sun has to make, the higher he rises in the sky in our latitude.



(iv) The nearer the North Pole we go in *our summer*, the longer the day, and the shorter the night. At Tornea, at the head of the Gulf of Bothnia (lat. 66°), mid-summer day is 72 hours long. At the North Pole itself, the day is six months long.

9. The Ecliptic.—The Ecliptic is the path which the Earth travels in his annual journey round the Sun, and which the Sun *appears* to follow in the heavens. It has this name, because all Eclipses take place, and must take place, in this path. (i) It cuts the Equator at two opposite points. These points are called the Equinoctial Points or Equinoxes. These are on the 23d of March and the 22d of September. At these times the day and night are of equal length; the Sun rises and sets due east and due west—which he never does at any other time of the year. As at these times the sun "crosses the line," the systems of winds follow the sun, and there is a great disturbance of the equilibrium of the atmosphere. Hence the Equinoctial gales which blow in spring and attumn.

(ii) The **Solutices** are the positions occupied by the sun in that part of the Ecliptic which is most remote from the Equator. The sun seems to "stand still" for a few days before it "goes back" and begins to turn towards the Equator again. These are of course on June 22d and December 22d, when the sun is vertical over the Tropic of Cancer and the Tropic of Capricorn. (Lat. sol, the sun; and stare, to stand.) \uparrow

MATHEMATICAL GEOGRAPHY.

1. The Circle.—A Circle is an endless line drawn round a point and always at the same distance from that point. That point is called its centre.

(i) In ordinary language, the whole space within the endless line is called the circle. In that case, the line itself is called the circumference. A straight line drawn from one part of the circumference through the centre to the opposite part is called its diameter. Half a diameter is a radius.

(ii) The following are the properties of a circle :-

- 1. All its diameters are equal.
- 2. All its radii are equal.
- 3. Each diameter = any two radii.
- 4. Two circles are equal, if their radii are equal.

(iii) Every circle, whatever its size, is divided by mathematicians into 360 parts, which are called degrees. Each degree is again subdivided into 60 minutes; and each minute into 60 seconds. Minutes and seconds are indicated by ' and ".

2. The Globe.—A Globe or Sphere is a solid body with an endless surface, every point in which is equidistant from the centre.

(i) If we take a semicircle of card-board and turn it in the air until it comes back to the place from which it started, the outline of a *spherical body* or *sphere* will have been described in the air. The centre of the semicircle will then be the centre of the sphere described.

- (ii) The following are the properties of a sphere :--
 - 1. All the diameters of a sphere are equal.
 - 2. All its radii are equal.
 - 8. Two spheres are equal, if their radii are equal.

3. The Divisions of a Globe.—If a globe be cut right through the centre, its two parts must be equal. The mark made by the cutting line is called a great circle; and the centre of any great circle is the same as the centre of the globe.

A great circle, then, is the largest circle which can possibly be drawn upon a globe. A great circle always divides the globe on which it is drawn into two equal parts. These parts are called hemispheres.

- (ii) The following are the properties of a great circle :
 - 1. All great circles on a globe are equal to one another.
 - 2. Every great circle divides a globe into two equal parts.
- (iii) The following are the properties of a globe:
 - 1. Any number of great circles may be drawn on a globe.
 - 2. A globe may have any number of diameters.

4. The Earth.—The earth on which we live is a sphere or globe. The diameter on which it spins is called its axis; and the ends of this axis are the poles. The Earth is slightly flattened at either pole, like an orange.

(i) The following are the proofs that the earth is a globe :

- 1. Every horizon we can see has a circular form.
- 2. A ship leaving port conceals its hull first of all behind the rotundity of the globe; next the masts, and so on. Coming home, the top-masts first of all come into the view of the spectator; and the hull last. Hence every part of the earth of which we have experience is "curved."
- 3. The shadow thrown by the Earth on the Moon in an eclipse is always circular.
- 4. The earth has been often circumnavigated.
- 5. The other planets are spheres. Analogy is often a strong argument.

5. The Two Poles.—The end of the Earth's axis which points to the Pole Star is called the North Pole; the opposite end of the axis is the South Pole.

6. The Lines on the Globe.—The Great Circle drawn round the globe at an equal distance from both poles 15 called the Equator.

(i) The Equator is 24,900 miles in circumference.

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More correctly it might be called a spheroid, that is, a body of a sphere-like character. A sphere flattened at the poles is called an *oblate spheroid*; one drawn out at the poles, a *prolate spheroid*.

(ii) The axis of the Earth, or Pelar Diameter, is 7899 miles long. The diameter from one part of the Equator to another, *through the centre* of the earth, is 27 miles longer.

(iii) The two halves into which the Equator divides the globe, are called the Morthern and Southern Hemispheres.

7. **Parallels**.—Circles—not great circles—which are drawn parallel to the Equator, between it and each of the Poles, are called **Parallels** of Latitude.

(i) These parallels must of course become smaller and smaller as they approach the poles.

(ii) The four most important parallels are those called the **Tropic of Gancer** (23§* North lat.), the **Tropic of Capricorn** (23§* South lat.), the **Arctic Circle** (66§* North lat.), and the **Antarctic Circle** (66§* South lat.).

8. Meridians.—A Meridian is a semicircle drawn from the North to the South Pole, cutting the Equator at right angles.

The word meridian comes from the Lat. meridies, mid-day or noon. All places on one and the same meridian have their twelve o'clock at the same time.

(i) What is called the First Meridian is drawn through the middle of the Observatory at Greenwich.

(ii) French Geographers draw their first meridian through Paris.

(iii) German Geographers draw it through Ferre, one of the Canary Islands; because in this way they have most land in their Eastern, and most sea in their Western Hemisphere. $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} Q \mathcal{L}_{+}^{\infty}$

9. Latitude.—Latitude is distance north, or south, from the Equator. The greatest latitude that any place can have is 90°, and this is the latitude of each of the poles.

(i) Nearness to the Equator is called low latitude; greater distance from it, high latitude.

(ii) We can leave the Equator in two different directions. If four persons at opposite points in the Equator left it, two going due North, and two due South, each pair would meet at the North Pole and South Pole respectively; and each person would have travelled through 90°.

10. Latitude and Climate.—The more we increase our latitude, the farther we go from the Equator. The farther we go from the Equator, the more the sun's rays slope. The more the sun's rays slope, the fewer rays fall upon a given surface. Hence, the more the sun's rays slope, or the farther we are from the Equator, the colder the climate.

(i) If the globe were covered with water, or consisted entirely of level land of the same quality, and if it did not revolve round the sun with an inclining axis, then latitude would be the sole conditioning cause of climate.

(ii) It must not be forgotten that the above paragraph is entirely true only when the Sun is vertical to the Equator, that is, on the 22d of March and September.

11. Longitude.—Longitude is distance east or west from the meridian of Greenwich. The maximum longitude is 180°.

(i) If two persons leave Greenwich, one going East, the other West, and both travel at the same rate, they will meet half-way round the globe—or at 180° of longitude, that being half of 360°.

(ii) The Fiji Islands are in East or West long. 180°.

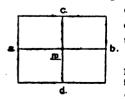
12. Longitude and Time.—As the Earth rotates on its own axis, when we travel to the East, we see the Sun rise earlier. When we travel West, we see him rise later. Hence, by travelling either East or West, we alter our apparent time. By travelling 180° East, we lose 12 hours ; by travelling 180° West, we gain 12 hours.

(i) The globe contains 360°. In one rotation, the globe passes through 360°. But, as there are 24 hours in the day, it passes through 15° in one hour. $360\div24=15$.

(ii) New York is 3000 miles west of us, or 75°. Hence, when it is noon in London, it is only 7 A.M. in New York. By travelling to New York, we seem to gain 5 hours.

(iii) The person who travels round the globe going east, loses 24 hours or one day; the person who travels westwards, gains one day. Hence, if two sea-captains who had circumnavigated the globe in different directions were to meet in Liverpool at the table of a Liverpool man, one captain would maintain that Saturday was Sunday; the other that Monday was Sunday; while the Liverpool man, who had stayed at home, would maintain that *kis* Sunday was Sunday. Thus there would be "three Sundays in the week."

13. Position.-If a place be on a line of latitude, and also on a line



of longitude, it is evident that the position of that place is at the intersection of these two lines.

This is true of a place on any two lines. Thus if a place stands on the line a b, and also on the line c d, it must stand at the point where those two lines out each other—it must stand at the point m.

14. Annual Revolution of the Earth.—The Earth, as we have seen, revolves round the sun with its axis always in the same direction, and always parallel to itself. This gives rise to three well-marked positions of the sun's rays—one on March 22d and September 22d; one on June 22d; and one on December 22d.

(i) On March 22d and September 22d, the sun's rays are vertical to the Equator. Day and Night are, on these dates, each 12 hours long all the world over.

(ii) On June 22d the sun's rays are vertical to a line called the **Tropic of Gancer**. This is the farthest line north to which they are ever vertical; and hence, at this time, the Northern Hemisphere has its summer.—The Tropic of Cancer is in 23¹/₂ North lat.

(iii) On December 22d the sun's rays are vertical to a line called the Tropic of Capricora. This is the farthest line south to which they are ever vertical; and the Southern Hemisphere has now its Summer. The Tropic of Capricorn is in 23⁴/₂ South lat.

15. Tropical and Polar Lines.—When the Sun is vertical to the Tropic of Cancer, his rays cannot go beyond $66\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ South lat. Through this point a line has been drawn called the Antarctic Circle.—When the Sun is vertical to the Tropic of Capricorn, his rays cannot go beyond $66\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ North lat.; and through this point has been drawn the line called the Arctic Circle.

(i) The Antarctic Gircle is therefore 23j^{*} from the South Pole. The sun's light stops there on the 22d of March; and there is complete darkness to every place lying between that line and the South Pole. The South Pole itself has a day of six months and a night of six months.

(ii) The Arctic Circle is 23¹/₂ from the North Pole. The sun's light stops there on the 22d of December; and all beyond is in the dark. The North Pole has also a day of six months, and a night of six months. This day begins to dawn on March 22d, and ends on September 22d.—The day-dawn for the South Pole begins on September 22d.

16. Zones.—The Zones (or Belts of Climate) on the surface of the Earth are marked off by the Tropical and the Polar Lines. These zones are five : one Torrid ; two Temperate ; and two Frigid Zones.

(i) The Torrid Zone lies between the two Tropical Lines. The Sun's rays are always vertical over one part or another of it. That is, there is always some place within the Tropics where objects cast no shadow at twelve o'clock. The Torrid Zone is 4." broad. (Within the Torrid Zone, above the sea-level, there may be said to be a third temperate zone; that is, on the table-lands and high mountain-slopes. From this point of view it is very interesting to remark that most of the highest land of the World lies within the Tropics.)

THE AIR

(ii) The Horth Temperate Zone lies between the Tropic of Cancer and the Arctic Circle-between 23g and 66g North lat.

(iii) The South Temperate Zone lies between the Tropic of Capricorn and the Antarctic Circle-between 23¹/₂ and 66¹/₂ South lat.—Each of the Temperate Zones is about 43° broad.

(iv) The North Frigid Zone lies within the Arctic Ocean, and has the North Pole as its centre.

(v) The South Frigid Zone lies within the Antarctic Ocean, and has the South Pole as its centre.

17. The Shadow.—All these lines may be also fixed by their relation to the shadow which every object casts when shone on by the Sun. The Sun is always highest in the sky at noon; within the Tropics, he is at noon in the very highest point in the sky, or in the senith; and, in such places, there is no shadow at all. Thus we have:

(i) The Equator is the Noon-shadowless Line of March 22d and September 22d.

(ii) The Tropic of Cancer is the Noon-shadowless Line of June 22d.

(iii) The Tropic of Capricorn is the Noon-shadowless Line of December 22d.

(iv) In the Temperate Zones, the Sun is never in the zenith; hence they are the Zones of Perpetual Shadow.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Two coverings envelop the body of the earth: Air and Water. The air-covering or atmosphere enwraps and contains the earth like a hollow ball: the water covers about three-fourths of the surface of the whole globe. The land which rises above the water-covering amounts therefore to only one-fourth of the actual surface of the earth.

I. THE AIR.

1. Composition of Air.—Air consists of two gaseous substances called oxygen and nitrogen. Air also contains a small quantity of carbonic acid gas, and a variable quantity of invisible water which we call vapour.

(i) By volume, there are 79 parts of nitrogen to 21 of oxygen.

(ii) By weight, there are 77 parts of nitrogen to 23 of oxygen.

2. Pressure of Air.—Air, being a material body, has weight; and it therefore exercises a certain amount of pressure on every body which it touches. Air is also a very elastic body; and hence the layers of air at the surface of the earth, being *below* large masses of air, are more compressed and denser than those above them. Hence the density and pressure diminish rapidly as we go up.

(i) The pressure of air at the sea-level is 15 lbs. to each square inch. If, then, the surface of a man's body amounts to 15 square ft., the whole body is subject to a pressure of about 14 tons.

(ii) The barometer is the instrument with which we measure the weight and pressure of the air. The mercury in the tube is balanced by the weight of the air outside. If the air is heavy, then the mercury rises; if light, it falls. Hence we say: "the glass has fallen."

Baromster comes from two Greak words, baros, weight, and metron, a measure.

(iii) Cold dry air is the heaviest. Warm dry air comes next; and warm moist air is the lightest air of all.

(iv) The barometer is used to measure the heights of mountains. For every 1000 ft. we ascend, the barometer falls one inch. Hence,—the barometer usually standing at 80 inches,—if we go up 10,000 ft., the barometer will stand at only 20 inches.

3. Height of the Atmosphere.—The height of the atmosphere, or the depth of the ocean of air at the bottom of which we live, has been estimated at from 120 to 200 miles.

The height of the atmosphere is greater between the tropics than round the poles.

4. Temperature of the Atmosphere.—The temperature of the air at a particular place depends chiefly on three things: (i) the slope of the sun's rays; (ii) the length of the day (or length of the time the sun shines); and (iii) the height of the place above the sea-level.

(i) The sun's rays are vertical or perpendicular at noon at some place within the tropics. Outside the tropics, they have a slope with an angle which becomes smaller and smaller the farther we go from the Tropical Lines. The angle which the sun's rays makes with the ground is the smallest possible at the Arctic Circle on the 22d of December. Hence the angle of the sun's rays depends on the latitade.

(ii) The very hottest part of the earth must be that which combines two things perpendicularity of rays, and a longer day than 12 hours. Hence the hottest part of the earth is not at the Equator, where the day is always 12 hours long; but at places north and south of the Equator.

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WINDS

(iii) The thermometer, which is the measure for the temperature of the air, falls 1° Fahr. for every 883 ft. of height (at least for the first mile or 5280 ft. above the surface).

Thermometer comes from thermos, heat, and metron, a measure.

(iv) Those lines which are drawn through places with an equal average annual temperature are called isotherms (Gr. isos, equal).

(v) The mow-line, or limit of perpetual snow, above which there is neither animal nor vegetable life, depends mainly on the latitude. It is highest at or near the Equator; and lowest at or near the Polar Circles.

5. Motions of the Atmosphere.—The motions of the atmosphere are called winds. When the equilibrium of the air is altered through any cause, wind is produced; and the equilibrium of the air is altered when its temperature is altered.

All bodies expand under the influence of heat. When the air is heated, it expands and becomes lighter. The equilibrium or equal level of the ocean of air is destroyed; and at once other air flows in to supply its place. This flowing in of air is called a wind. V_{\pm}

6. Kinds of Winds.—Winds receive different names according to (i) their direction, (ii) their strength, (iii) their regularity, and (iv) their temperature.

(i) Direction.—This is named according to the quarter from which the wind blows— North, South, East, or West.

(ii) Strength.—Strong winds are called gales, storms, hurricanes, cyclones, tornadoes, etc. The strong winds are always rotatory or spiral. Such a wind moves at the rate of from 70 to 80 miles an hour; and particular gusts in the storm move at from 120 to 150 miles an hour. The worst circular storms are met with in the West Indies, the Indian Ocean, and the Chinese Seas.

(iii) Esgularity.—(a) The two most regular systems of wind on the face of the globe are the Sorth-East Trades and the Sorth-East Trades. They blow with the most perfect constancy all the year round over the surface of the ocean. They begin at about 80° North and South lat., in the Northern Hemisphere from the north-east; and in the Southern Hemisphere from the south-east. These two systems of Trade-winds blow towards the Equator; and they have between them a Zone of Calma, which is generally found between S' and 9° North lat. The reason why this belt of calms is found north of the Equator is that the oceans in the Southern Hemisphere being much broader than those in the Northern, the South-East Trades are a larger and heavier body of wind than the North-East Trades, and hence push them back. The Zone of Calms, however, alters its place with the movement of the Sun. This Zone of Calms is, morsover, the zone of perpetual downpour of rain; and it is often the scene of terrible thunderstorms.

The air is hottest at the Equator; coldest at the Poles. Hence, about the Equator, it is always orpanding and rising higher; and hence also colder air must always be flowing in to supply its place. If the serth were fixed, there would be only two sets of winds-a north and a south towards the Equator on the surface, and return winds in the upper regions towards the Poles. But the Earth spins from west to east; and the solid body alipping under the winds makes them be folt as coming from *the east*; and thence the north and south winds become north-east and south-east winds. Besides, the earth's surface moves more rapidly at the Equator than at 80 of lat.; and therefore the wind seems to come from a slower to a more rapidly-moving part of the earth.

(b) The irregular systems of winds are found on both hemispheres north and south of 30° lat. The prevalent wind in the Northern Hemisphere is the warm southwest; in the Southern Hemisphere the warm northwest. Both these winds blow on an average two days out of every three throughout the year. The average duration of a sailing voyage from Liverpool to New York is 33 days; from New York to Liverpool, 22 days.

(c) The chief periodic winds are the monscores, which are found in their greatest perfection in the Indian Ocean. In our summer, the air over the immense masses of plateau in the south of Asia becomes greatly heated and rarefied; hence the ordinary North-East Trades are deflected from their course, are turned round, and become a south-west monscon. The south-west monscon blows from May to September; the north-east monscon (properly, the usual trade-winds) blow from October to April (that is, when the sun is south of the Equator).

Monsoon comes from the Arabic matterin, a season.

(d) Land and Sea Bresses.—These winds are monsoons on a small scale. When the shores of continents or of oceanic islands (especially in the tropics) become greatly heated—and this occurs in the day-time—winds from the sea rush in to supply the place of the rarefield air. This is a sea-brees. At evening, as soon as the sun has set, these coasts cool very rapidly, and the sea in the night-time is warmer than the land. A land-trees springs up for the same reason, and blows out to sea. The change is not sudden; a calm comes between the two sets of winds.

(iv) Temperature.—The hot wind from the Sahara, which blows upon Italy, is called the Sircece; the same wind in Spain is called the Solano. In Switzerland it is called the Föhn—it rapidly melts the snow, and unroofs houses. In Egypt the hot sand-wind from the desert is called **Ehamsin** (a word meaning Afty) because it blows for fifty days during and before and after May; a similar wind is called, in Syria and Arabia, the Simons (a word meaning poisonous). In the south of France a cold wind from the Alps is called the Mistral. There are many other names for local winds.

7. Moisture of the Atmosphere.—The higher the temperature of the air, the more moisture it can hold in an invisible state. This invisible moisture is called **vapour**. Each degree of temperature has its own *maximum* of vapour that it can hold without showing that vapour. (i) When the thermometer is at 32° (freezing-point), the air can hold only $\frac{1}{16} \frac{1}{5}$ th part of its own weight in vapour. When it is at 60°, it can hold twice as much, or $\frac{1}{16}$ th. When it is at 113°, it can hold eight times as much, or $\frac{1}{10}$ th.

(ii) When the temperature falls, the moisture in the air runs together or condenses; the air cannot hold it in an invisible form, and it becomes visible or falls. It becomes visible as Gloud or mist; it falls in the shape of rain or daw, or as snow, hall, or rime.

8. Distribution of Rain.—The Zone of Calms near the Equator is the Zone of almost Daily Rains,—accompanied by terrific storms of thunder and lightning. The Tropics are the Zone of Summer Rains. In the Warm-Temperate Zone, the belt from lat. 28° to about 35° is the Zone of Winter Bains. From 35° to 42° is the Zone of Spring and Autumn Rains.

(i) In the Belt of Equatorial Calms, the rains occur when the sun is in or near the zenith, that is, in the hottest part of the day. There are almost daily thunder showers. This is called the Zene of Constant Precipitation.

(ii) Within the Tropics, all the rain of the year falls in the few months when the sun is near the zenith. The rest of the year is the Dry Season. In the Rainy Season, as many as 21 inches of rain have been known to fall in a single day at Cayenne, in French Guiana. This is as much as falls in a whole year in some parts of the Temperate Zone. At Chirra Poonjee, in the Khasia Hills, the annual rainfall has been 610 inches.

(iii) North of the Tropic of Cancer runs the mighty Bainless Belt of Desert through the Sahara, the deserts of Arabia and Northern India, and the desert of Gobi or Shamo. Corresponding to this belt we find in the Southern Hemisphere the desert of Atacama in South America, of Kalahari in Africa, and of Central Australia.

(iv) The quantity of rain decreases, and the number of rainy days increases as we go from the Equator to the Poles.

(v) The quantity of rain increases with the increase in altitude. In the Great Plain of Europe it is only 20 inches a year; in some parts of the Alps it is 104 inches.

(vi) Mountain-chains act as condensers of vapour by driving the warm moisturebearing winds high up into the colder strata of air, when the moisture is condensed. The most remarkable example of this is found in the Andes.

9. Climate.—The word climate is a general term which includes warmth and cold, wind, rainfall, cloudiness, and other conditions of weather. It depends chiefly on seven things: (i) Latitude; (ii) Altitude; (iii) Nearness to the Sea; (iv) Direction of Prevailing Winds; (v) Direction of Mountain-Ranges; (vi) Slope of the Country; and (vii) Nature of the Soil. The grand division of climate is into Commic and Continental.

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(i) Within the Tropics, the sun's rays are, at one place or other, vertical at noon. Therefore a larger number of rays fall upon a square foot of ground than in these parts of the world where the rays are more or less sloping. Cayenne, lat 5° North, is very much hotter than Paris, lat 49° North. The elm comes into leaf at Naples in the beginning of February; in England 10 weeks later.

(ii) The thermometer falls 1° for every 338 ft. of rise above the sea-level. Hence Quito, which, though in lat. 0°, stands 9500 ft. above the sea-level, has a mild and spring-like climate.

(iii) Water takes in more heat than land; it takes heat in also more slowly, and parts with it more slowly. Hence the presence of large masses of water lowers the temperature of a country in summer and raises it in winter, when the wind blows from the water to the land. Such a climate is called maritime or cossnie; it is a mild or moderate climate. Again, a country (in the Temperate Zone) which is in the heart of a great continent, and to which the winds come from the land on all sides, has a climate intensely cold in winter and extremely hot in summer. Such a climate is called Continental.

(iv) The south-west winds are the prevailing winds which blow upon Great Britain. They bring warmth and moisture from the Gulf Stream in the North Atlantic. The South-west monsoons modify the climate to a very great degree in India.

(v) If the Rocky Mountains stretched from west to east across the head of the Mississippi Valley, the cold winds from the Arctic Ocean would be shut off and confined to the valley of the Mackenzic.—If the Carpathians were removed from the north-east of the Hungarian Plain, that plain would be swept by cold north-easters in the winter, and would not be nearly so fertile.

(vi) If a country slopes away from the rays of the sun, it will not be so fertile as one that slopes towards them. In the Northern Hemisphere, land ought to slope to the south; in the Southern Hemisphere, to the north.

(vii) If a soil is hard and sandy, it will retain much heat in the day and give it out rapidly at night. If a soil is clayey, and covered with forests, it will hold a great deal of water, which it will part with slowly. Hence the rivers of a forest country are not subject to sudden floods. Since the forests were cut down on the western slopes of the Alps, the floods of the Rhone have been very sudden and dangerous.

II. THE WATER.

1. Introductory.—As the outer envelope of the globe is the Air, the underlying envelope is Water. Water is generally divided into two classes : Ocean-waters and Continental waters.

2. Ocean-waters.—The continuous mass of water which fills the greater depressions and covers three-fourths of the crust of the

THE SEA

earth is called the Ocean. The divisions are themselves called Oceans; and their subdivisions Seas. The ocean is, on the one hand, a separating, on the other, a connecting, element.



The total area of the surface of the Earth is about 197,000,000 square miles. Of this area, the water covers 145,000,000 square miles, leaving only 52,000,000 square miles of dry land.

3. Differences between Ocean and Continental Waters.—The waters of the ocean differ from those which we find upon the land in the following respects: (i) a larger amount of salts in solution; (ii) a more equable temperature; (iii) peculiar motions, such as those of waves, of the tides, of currents; (iv) far greater depth; (v) the electric shining of its water; and (vi) a deeper blue colour.

4. The **Saltness of the Sea**.—Sea-water contains $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of various salts, estimated, not by volume, but by weight. Most of these salts are what is called **Common salt**.

Where evaporation is very strong, the amount of salt increases. Hence it is greatest (4 per cent.) within the Torrid Zone. Where the evaporation is small and the amount of river-water flowing into a sea is great, there is very little salt. In the Baltic there is only $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. of salt.

5. The Temperature of the Sea.—The temperature of the sea depends on the slope of the sun's rays,—that is, on the latitude. But the waters below a depth of 300 ft. are, in general, unaffected by the surface temperature.

(i) On the shores of Great Britain the surface temperature of the sea is about 49°; in the Bed Sea it has been noted at 94°—the temperature of a hot bath.

(ii) There is an expansion of the sea-water in equatorial regions; an (verflow towards the poles; and, correspondingly, an inflow of cold water towards the Equator.

6. Motions of the Sea.—The principal motions which take place in the waters of the sea are : (i) the tides ; and (ii) the currents.

(i) The chief cause of the tides is the attraction of the Moon, which is very near to our Earth. "The solid part of the globe resists the strain of the attraction; but the liquid ocean, unable to do so, is drawn outwards so as to be heaped up on that side

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where the attraction is exerted." The tides are in fact one particular manifestation of the general laws of attraction or gravity. Each body attracts all other bodies in existence, and the laws which govern the strength of the attraction existing between two or more bodies, are that bodies attract each other (1) directly according to their mass, and (2) inversely according to the squares of the distances separating them. Thus if a body C is treble the size of a body B, it will, in virtue of its mass, attract any other body with three times as much force as B. The element of distance, however, has to be considered, and if C is four times the distance of B from a third body A, then the attraction exercised by C, in virtue of its relative position, will be only ($\frac{1}{4}$)², i.e. $\frac{1}{45}$ th of the attraction exercised by B. So putting the two factors together, it works out thus—

	Mass.	Distance.	Total attracting force.
в	1	1	$1 \times 1 = 1$
σ	3	4	$8 \times \frac{1}{16} = \frac{1}{16}$

Thus B's attracting force : C's attracting force :: 16 : 3.

THE TIDE-PRODUCING FORCE.— Now, in addition to the Moon, which has already been mentioned as a dominant factor, the Sun also has an appreciable influence in causing the tides. Taking the Earth's mass as our standard, and calling it 1, the moon's mass is 0123, and the Sun's 380,000. As regards distance, taking the Earth's radius as the standard, and calling it 1, the Moon's mean distance is 60 times, and the Sun's mean distance about 24,000 times the Earth's radius. So, putting the two factors together, we get the following :—

Sun's influence.	Moon's influence.
$330,000 \times \left(\frac{1}{24000}\right)^2$	$\cdot 0123 \times \left(\frac{1}{60}\right)^2$

The student who works these out will find that the Sun's actual influence is, roughly, 200 times as great as that of the Moon.

DIFFERENTIAL ATTRACTION.—The question, however, is one not of absolute, but of relative force. The Sun and Moon, in attracting the Earth, operate at its centre; in attracting the ocean, they operate at the surface nearest to them. Between these points is a distance of 4000 miles, i.e. the radius of the Earth. Now, 4000 is only a tiny fraction of the Sun's 96,000,000 miles, $_{3.75 \times 5}$ thin fact, but it is no less than $_{75}$ the Moon's 240,000 miles. The difference in the case of the Sun is so slight that the Sun operates with practically the same force at the centre and at the surface, and the excess of its influence at the nearer point is practically nil. The Moon, however, acts with appreciably greater force at the nearer surface than at the centre, and it is just this differential attraction or extra attractive power exerted upon the water at the surface which is most marked and most observable. If an elephant (the Sun) and a donkey (the Moon) were both set to draw two wagons, the one wagon being a little behind the other, the elephant would do nearly the whole work; the two wagons would be drawn forward, and a uniform distance would be maintained between them. Now yoke a dog (Differential Attraction) to the first wagon only (surface of the Earth).

THE TIDES

and the first wagon would bound slightly forward (the Tide), though the dog's actual contribution of force would be very slight. So the Moon's influence, though absolutely small, is the greater in tide-producing effect ; it is, in fact, about 24 times that of the Sun.

TWO SIMULTANEOUS TIDES .- The tide-producing force then is a resultant. When the Sun and Moon are working in the same line, it may be represented by 5+2=7: when they are not working in line, it may be represented by 5-2=8; but in its concrete effect it is always one force not two. Now this force, operating on the part of the Earth's surface nearest to it, produces what may be called a primary tide; at the same time it attracts the Earth as a whole, and drawing it from the water on the most distant part of the surface, leaves the latter to bulge out, or rise and form what may be called a secondary tide. The interval that elapses between consecutive passages of any spot on the Earth's surface directly under the Moon is 24 hours 51 minutes, but, as two tides are always being simultaneously produced, the tides follow at intervals of 12 hours 251 minutes.

SPRING TIDES AND NEAP TIDES. - When the Sun and Moon are on the same side of the Earth, that is at New Moon, they are said to be in conjunction, and when on opposite sides of the Earth, that is at Full Moon, they are said to be in opposition :





SUN AND MOON IN CONJUNCTION-HIGH TIDES.

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SUN AND MOON IN OPPOSITION .- HIGH TIDES.

In both these positions they are operating in the same line, so the tide is produced by the sum of their forces, and is consequently a high or spring-tide. At these times the

> water rises higher than the average at high-water, and falls lower than the average at low-water or ebb-tide. When the Sun and Moon are at right angles to each other, or in quadrature, the tide is produced by the difference of their forces, and is consequently



3rd Or. a low or neap (that is nipped) tide. At these times the water does not reach the average mark at high-water, nor does it fall as low as the average mark at low-water.

SUN AND MOON AT RIGHT ANGLES .- LOW TIDES.

ESTABLISHMENT OF A PORT.—Theoretically, the tide should occur at the very time when any part of the Earth's surface is directly opposite the Moon, but on account of the inertia of the water and other contributory causes the tide does not in most places occur until some hours after the Moon's passage. This interval varies with different places, but is practically uniform at any given place; it is known for most places, and is called the establishment of the port.

NATURE OF THE TIDAL WAVE.—The true tidal wave is nothing more than a rise and fall in the water; as the tide-producing influence is felt, the water rises; as soon as it has passed away, the water falls to its usual level. Further, as the Earth revolves from west to east, the eastern parts will be the first to feel the Moon's influence, and so the tidal wave, in so far as it moves at all, will advance from east to west. In the open Southern Ocean the rise is from 2 to 4 feet, and the course of the wave from east to west. As the wave advances, however, into narrower oceans, enclosed spaces, and shallower channels, its course is changed. Thus in the Atlantic, on account of the configuration of the land and the narrowness of the ocean, it moves from south to morth, and in many estuaries the tidal water, moving into narrower and shallower channels, becomes a writiy advancing wave. In parts of the English Channel the rise is as much as 30 or 40 feet, and in the Bay of Fundy it reaches the enormous height of 70 feet. In many rivers, as the Amazon, Yang-tse-Kiang, and Severn, it takes the form of a huge advancing wave termed the "bore," which often proves dangerous to small craft.

DOUBLE TIDES.—Some seas are affected by a double set of tidal waves. Thus, one set of tidal waves advance into the North Sea from the English Channel through the Straits of Dover, while another set pass round the North of Scotland and advance into it from that direction. In some places the two seem to coalesce and produce a tide of unusual height; at other places they appear to neutralise each other; while in other directions each tidal wave retains its own individual action, with the result that there are four instead of two tides per day.

(ii) The Currents of the Ocean.—Ocean.Currents are "rivers" in the sea, the beds and banks of which are composed of other sea-water. They are caused by the difference of temperature in different parts of the Ocean (water, like air, always trying to restore an equilibrium when the level has been disturbed), by the revolution of the Karth on its axis, by the winds, etc. The three greatest currents are : the Equatorial Current, the Arctic Current, and the Antarctic Current. (a) The Earth spins from west to east; the water on the globe cannot go so fast as the solid parts, and "hangs back"; hence the Equatorial Current is felt as going from east to west. This current also receives aid from the north-east and south-east trades. It has a breadth of about 50°, and is felt in each of the three great oceans—the Pacific, Atlantic, and Indian. (b) The Arctie or Polar Current is a cold icy current, which flows down into the Atlantic. It is felt most strongly in Davis Straits; but a Polar current comes down on each side of Greenland and unites off Cape Farewell. That part of the Polar current which flows along the Labrador Coast is called the Labrador Currents make

RIVERS

towards the Equator. (The other Ocean-Currents are described in the paragraphs on the different oceans.) Thus is kept up, in each of the three great ocean-basins, a constant circulation of water—the warmer waters going towards the poles, the colder towards the equator : and thus these currents form the chief regulators of the temperature of different lands on the globe.

7. The Depth of the Ocean.—The greatest depths of the sea are believed to correspond with the greatest heights of the continents, and to be from 25,000 to 30,000 ft.

Captain Ross reported a sounding, west of St. Helena, of 27,000 ft., without touching bottom. A sounding of 4561 fathoms (=27,366 ft.) has been obtained north of the Virgin Islands in the West Indies.

8. Continental Waters.—These waters are of three kinds—springs, rivers, and lakes.

(i) A spring is the outflow of waters which have accumulated beneath the surface of the ground. A spring is often the source of a river. Some springs have a uniform flow throughout the year; some cease entirely in times of drought; and some are intermittent. Springs are most numerous in and around mountainous regions.

(ii) Rivers are streams of fresh water which flow along the surface of the earth.

(iii) Lakes are bodies of water, generally fresh, found in natural depressions in the earth's surface.

9. Rivers.—(i) A river is a stream of fresh water flowing from high ground across the surface of the earth into a sea or lake.

(i) A river is the visible form (or expression) on land of the invisible river of moisture which is carried through the sir to the sources of the visible river.

(ii) The whole collection of brooks, rivulets, streams, and streamlets which go to make up the chief central river is called a river-system. It is frequently in shape very like a leaf with its veins.

(iii) The area drained by such a river-system is called a river-basin. Or, the whole tract of country drained by a river and its tributaries is called its basin. Viewed as "catching" or receiving rain, it is called a catchment-basin.

(iv) The ridge of land, more or less elevated, which separates the basin of one stream from another is called a water-shed or water-parting.

(v) The amount of curving which the river makes in its flow from its source to its mouth is called its development.

Rivers develop or curve most in level plains. Thus the Mississippi curves a great deal (the distance between 5%. Louis and New Orleans is over 1000 miles; the direct route is only 700).

(vi) If one river, having a very low water shed, sends a part of its waters to another river by a side stream, that side-arm makes with the two other streams a bifurcation.

The best-known bifurcation is the Casiquiare, which is a natural canal connecting the Orinoco and the Rie Negro, the main northern tributary of the Amazon. The Chiana also connects the Arno and the Tiber.

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(vii) The spring, fountain, glacier, or lake in which the main branch of the river takes its rise is called its source; the channel in which its waters flow is called its bed; and the current is always most rapid in the middle. The right and left banks are distinguished by looking down the river.

(viii) When a river branches off and enters the sea by several mouths, the two main branches include between them a triangular piece of land shaped like a Greek D (Δ). It is hence called a delta. When the tide widens out the mouth, it is called an estuary.

The best-known delta is that of the Nile. The delta of the Mississippi is more than twice as large $\sqrt{2}$ as Yorkshire.

10. Rivers.—(ii) A river has an upper, middle, and lower course ; and each part has its own special marks or characteristics.

(i) The Upper Course is generally through a hilly or mountainous country; and is hence the most rapid of the three. It is here often broken by waterfalls, cataracts, or rapids. This course is not navigable. A lake frequently terminates this part of a river's course, and serves for a filtar.

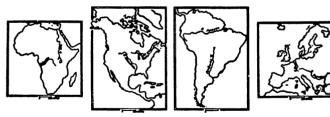
Thus the Upper Course of the Rhone ends in Lake Geneva; of the Rhine, in Lake Constance. Both streams enter muddy, and come out clear.

(ii) The Middle Course is frequently over table-land or hilly land. The valley opens out; and the stream itself grows wider; the fall is less; and the current is much slower. Navigation and cultivation on its banks begin.

(iii) The Lower Course is generally through an almost level country. The body of water is here largest; and it has frequently to be kept within its banks by artificial dams, dykes, levees, etc. Here, too, occur the most numerous and the largest curves, with sandbanks, islands, etc.

The river Po is, in its lower course, high above the towns " on its banks" : and the lowest part of the Mississippi is only kept in by levees from flooding the delta.

(iv) It is a remarkable fact that the two largest rivers in four of the six continents flow at right angles to each other.



11. Lakes.—(i) Lakes are accumulations of water in the natural depressions in the surface of the earth. They are generally divided into two classes: Mountain Lakes, and Lakes in Plains. They are mostly expansions of rivers. They serve as filters, and are regulators of the supply of water.

LAKES

(i) The main Contrasts between the two classes are :

Mountain Lakes

5. Lie generally in picturesque scenery.

- 1. Are very deep.
- 2. Have high and steep shores.
- 3. Are generally long and narrow.

4. Are irregular in shape.

- Lakes in Plains
- 1. Are generally shallow.
- 2. Have low sloping above.
- Are often broad, with shores that are out of sight when a ship is in the centre.
- 4. Have a regular and monotonous shape.
- 5. Are surrounded generally by tame scenery.

(ii) The best examples of mountain-lakes are to be found in the Alps-on both slopes. Thus (as regards 4) Lake Lucerne fills four distinct mountain-valleys, which meet one another nearly at right angles.—The largest lakes on the globe—the Caspian and Aral Beas, and the great North American lakes, all belong to the class of lakes in plains.

12. Lakes.—(ii) Lakes are, from the standpoint of their relation to rivers, divided into three classes : lakes of transmission ; lakes of emission ; and lakes of reception.

(i) Lakes of Transmission both receive and emit rivers. Most lakes belong to this class. In fact, lakes are mostly expansions of the rivers themselves; and, in mountain-lands, their bed has been scooped out for them by the long action of ancient glaciers, which plane and grind away the rocks; and the scratchings and groovings made by the movement of the ice may still be seen on the rocky shores.

(ii) Lakes of Emission appear to receive no supplies from rivers; and are yet the sources of rivers. Such lakes are supplied by springs which rise in their beds.

(iii) Lakes of Reception are those which receive rivers, but send out none. They part with the waters they receive by means of evaporation—that is, by invisible rivers. through the air; and hence they do not overflow. Such lakes are generally salt; because the evaporation carries off only fresh water, and leaves the salts brought down by the rivers.

The best example of this type is the Caspian, which receives the mighty Volga and other rivers, and is yet never larger ; because the evaporation on its surface is very great.

(iv) There are many small lakes, such as mountain-tarns, and lakes in the craters of extinct volcances, which have no visible affluents nor outlets.

(v) The Basin of a Lake is the area of land which drains into it.

(vi) The largest lake in the world is the Caspian. It is nearly twice as large as Great Britain. It is salt.—The largest fresh-water lake is Superior, which is nearly as large as Ireland. The Dead Sea is the lowest lake in the world: its surface is 1312 ft. below the level of the Mediterranean.

(vii) The Northern Hemisphere has very many more lakes than the Southern; and most of these lakes lie in the Temperate Zone, and in the west part of it.

1

III. THE LAND.

1. Introductory.—That part of the surface of the earth which is not covered by the sea is called the Land; and it consists of larger and smaller masses. The larger masses are called Continents; the smaller, Islands. The Land occupies one-fourth of the whole surface.

(i) The continents may be reckoned as two: the Eastern Continent or Old World, and the Western Continent or New World. From this point of view, Australia is looked upon as the largest island in the world.

(ii) Or as six: Europe, Asia, Africa, North America, South America, and Australia. —In this case, New Guinea is the largest island in the world.

2. Distribution of Land.-By far the largest amount of land on the globe lies around London as a centre. If we take London as the centre of a hemisphere, thishemisphere includes six-sevenths of all the land, and is hence called the

Land Hemisphere. The other half or Water Hemisphere, which has New Zealand as its centre, contains only one-seventh of all the land on the globe.

(i) The land masses which lie round London take the shape of a star-fish. The continuous masses of land are found in the middle; and towards the circumference the land fringes out into peninsulas and islands.

(ii) Europe is nearest to most of the other continents; Australia farthest away. The consequences of this position are shown in their degrees of civilisation: Europe with the most varied historical life, with all the arts and sciences cultivated for many centuries; Australia inhabited by a people who do not even plough, and where the first beginnings of civilisation are due to the commerce introduced from 15,000 miles away.

3. The Eastern and Western Continents Compared.—There are several very striking comparisons and contrasts between the Old and the New World. They are as follows :

THE OLD WORLD

THE NEW WORLD

1. Has its greatest length from east to west.

1. Has its greatest length from north to south.

Both worlds have their greatest land-mass on the same parallel 50° North lat.

- 2. Tapers to the south.
- Has a continent (Africa) almost severed from the main mass.
- 4. Has its great peninsulas pointing south.

Jutland paints north ; Asia Minor, west.

- 5. The greater mountain-ranges run from west to east.
- 6. Has its long slope to the north.

- 2. Tapers to the south.
- 8. Has a continent (South America) almost severed from the main mass.
- 4. Has its greater peninsulas pointing south.

Yucatan points north ; Alaska, west.

- 5. The greater mountain-ranges run from north to south.
- 6. Has its long slope to the east.

Nos. 5 and 6 are true also of the neighbouring islands.

4. Contour.—The contour of a continent or country is its outline. Two things have to be taken into consideration : (i) the relation of the limbs to the mass of land; and (ii) the length or development of the coast.

(i) The limbs of a continent are its peninsulas and islands. The peninsulas are frequently continuations of mountain-ranges.

(ii) A neck of land which joins a peninsula to the main mass is called an Isthmus (Gr. isthmos, a neck).

(iii) The longer or more highly developed a coast line is, the greater the inducement for the inhabitants of the country to take to a seafaring life, to engage in commerce, and to exchange culture and ideas as well as goods. The peninsulas and islands of

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Greece made the Greeks very early a scafaring people; and the position of Great Britain, neither too near nor too far from the continent of Europe, has helped to make her the greatest Oceanic Power the world has yet seen.

5. Islands.—Islands are, according to their position, divided into Continental Islands and Oceanic Islands. A continental island was at one time a part of the mainland; possesses the same flora and fauna as the mainland; and owes its present position to the gradual sinking of the edge of the continent near which it stands. An oceanic island is the summit of a mountain or the highest part of a submarine plateau rising out of the sea.

(i) The best example of a Continental Island is Great Britain. Were the bed of the North Sea raised 800 ft. above its present level, Great Britain would again form part of the continent of Europe.

(ii) A group of islands is called an Archipelage. The best example of a Continental



Coral Island Coral Island Reef Wolcanic Mountain Archipelago is to be found in the mighty East Indian Archipelago, the islands in which once formed part of Asia and Australia. Torres Strait is only 180 ft. deep.

(iii) Small islands, which lie in crowds close to the shore of a country, are Ekerries. They are very numerous on the coasts of Norway and Scotland.

(iv) Oceanic Islands are either high islands of volcanic or granitic rocks; or low islands, made by the coral polype. Volcanic islands are most numerous on the shores of the Pacific Ocean. These islands are often a combination of both formations. A coral island enclosing a lagoon is called an atoli. Oceanic islands stretch across a line 8000 miles long from Japan to Easter Island—the most easterly of all the innumerable islands in the Pacific.

6. Build.—The build or vertical form of a continent or country is the form it takes as it rises from the sea-level and is seen against the sky. If we call its horizontal shape its sea-line, this may be called its sky-line. There are three principal kinds of vertical build : lowland, table-land, and mountain.

(i) The absolute height of a point is calculated from the level of the sea; the relative height, from the neighbouring land.

(ii) Lowiand is land which rises from the level of the sea to about 600 ft. Above that, it is generally called plateau or table-land. A lowland may have hills rising from it; may be a plain; or a rolling country. Savannahs, Selvas, Prairies, Llance, Pampas, Steppes, Heaths, Moors, Landes, Tundras, are different names for different kinds of lowland. Almost all deltas and alluvial lands are low plains.

- (a) Savannahs and Prairies are the great plains of North America.
- (b) Selects are the forest-plains of the Amason Valley; Linnos the grassy plains annually flooded by the Orinoco; Pampas, the broad pasture-lands of the La Plata.
- (c) Heaths and Moors are common in the lowlands of North Germany.
- (d) The Landes are the sandy plains of the south-west of France.
- (c) Sieppes are the open treeless plains of Russia.
- (f) The Tundras are the marshy plains of Europe and Asia which lie on the Arotic Ocean.

(iii) A table-land is an elevated plain which, in general, forms the base of a mountainrange. Sometimes a mountain-range is only the buttress or edging-range of a plateau. This is the case with the Plateau of Thibet and the Himalayas. The Old World is the continent of Plateaus; the New World, of Plains. Asia has an immense tableland running from Asia Minor, on the Mediterranean, to Corea, on the Pacific, for a distance of 5500 miles.

(iv) An eminence (generally of a rounded or conical shape) not more than 500 or 600 ft. high, is called a bill. If the eminence is higher than this, it is called a mountain. A series of mountain-peaks, seemingly separated, but belonging to one system, is called a range or chain. When the mountain-masses stand close together, they are called a group. We speak of the Pennine Range and the Cumbrian Group. The indented line of the summits of the whole range is called the crest. The tops of separate mountains are called by various names, according to their shapes: Peak, Head, Dome, Horn, Headle, Saddle, Table. A depression between two summits is called a Pase of Col.—A long depression between two ranges of mountains or two rising grounds is called a Valley.

Passes are frequently the gates of commerce between the two slopes of a mountainland,

7. Volcances.—A volcance is an opening in the earth's crust, which communicates with the internal fire of the globe, and through which is thrown out steam, gases, smoke, fire, ashes, molten rock, and streams of lava. The ashes and fragments of rock thrown out take the form of a cone, and produce a volcanic mountain.

The word solcano is derived from the name Vulcanus, the God of Fire, who was supposed by the ancients to have his forges at the roots of Mount Etna.

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(i) The size of a volcano may vary from a mound a few yards in diameter (like the mud-volcances on the shores of the Caspian) to a mountain like Cotopaxi in the Andes, the height of which is nearly 19,000 ft., and the upper 4000 ft. of which is a smooth regular cone.

(ii) At the summit of a volcano is a hollow called the craser (Latin for *exp*); and in the middle of the crater is the mouth of a perpendicular shaft or chimney, which emits the steam, ashes, cinders, lava, etc.

(iii) The amount of matter sometimes thrown out by volcances is enormous. The whole island of Hawaii, the largest of the Sandwich Islands, is only an accumulation of lava thrown out by its four craters; and all *high* oceanic islands are built up in the same way. The two Italian cities of Herculaneum and Pompeli were buried beneath a rain of hot wet fine ashes thrown out by Mount Vesuvius in the year 79 A.D.

(iv) It is estimated that there are on the face of the globe nearly 700 volcances. Of these, 270 are active. Of the active volcances, 175 are on islands; and 95 stand near the sea-shore.

(v) There are on the globe two great Volcanic Zones. The first zone consists of that enormous girdle which encircles the Pacific Ocean with a belt of "burning mountains." The second zone runs between the Northern and Southern Continents, and intersects the first zone nearly at right angles. The most intense volcanic activity occurs at the intersection of the two zones,—in Central America and the East Indian Archipelago. Central America and Moxico contain 85 volcances; the East Indies, 117.

(vi) Small volcances are called fumarcles or solitaras. The first term means smokeholes; and smoke or gases issue from them. The second are volcanic vents from which sulphurous gases escape.

(vii) There are numerous extinct volcances in the south and middle of France, in north-west Germany, in Bohemia, etc.

THE OCEANS.

1. Introductory.—There are upon the globe five chief seas or Oceans, all of which are connected with each other. These are : the Arctic and Antarctic Oceans ; the Atlantic and Pacific ; and, between the two last, the Indian.

2. The Arctic Ocean.—The Arctic Ocean lies round the North Pole, between the continents of Europe, Asia, and North America. It is nearly circular in form, and its edges are about 20° from the North Pole. The coasts are in general low and flat, for they are continuations of the low plains that lie in the north of the three continents. The islands in the Arctic are very numerous; and **Greenland** is the largest. The Arctic Ocean has two openings—a broad one into the Atlantic; and a very narrow one into the Pacific. Out of it flows into the Atlantic the great current called the Arotic Current; and, on the other hand, branches of the Gulf Stream penetrate far within its limits. Its chief sea is the White Sea.

(i) The highest point yet reached in this ocean is 88° 24'-about 400 miles from the North Pole; it was reached by Lieutenant Lockwood, of Greeley's Expedition. In 1850 Captain M'Clure entered the Arctic Ocean by Behring Strait, and brought his ships home by Davis Strait; he thus sailed through the whole "North-West Passage," but in the reverse direction.

(ii) The area of the Arctic is about 5,500,000 square miles, or a little more than half the size of Africa.

(iii) The whole ocean is covered by ice-fields of from 5 to 50 ft. in thickness. On the west coast of Greenland are numerous glaciers, the best known of which is the **Exambolds Glacier**, in 79° North lat. When these glaciers reach the sea, the ends break off under the lifting swell of the waves; and these broken ends are isobargs. This process is called the "calving of the glaciers."

(iv) This ocean receives enormous supplies of fresh water. The Siberian Plain, the north of Europe, and the great northern plain of North America, all drain into it, all send down streams of great volume into its basin.

(v) The Arctic Current meets the Guif Stream off the Banks of Newfoundland; and a number of remarkable phenomena take place. (a) The cold icy air above the Arctic Current condenses the warm moisture above the Guif Stream; and almost perpetual fogs are the result. (b) The icebergs ground on the Banks; they melt; and the rocks and stones brought down by them are deposited on the Banks and add to their extent. (c) The Arctic Current flows past the Guif Stream, hugging the coast of North America; and it is this cold current that supplies the fish for the rich tables of the United States.

(vi) No part of the Gulf Stream finds its way into the White Sea; and hence that sea is blocked with ice for many months.

3. The Antarctic Ocean.—The Antarctic Ocean is not properly a separate ocean: it is the common centre from which the three great oceans radiate. It lies round the South Pole. The three great oceans may almost be regarded as mighty gulfs radiating from this. It has no shores; but it is probable that a continent lies at the heart of it. On this continent a lofty range of mountains has been seen; and in this range two volcances—Mount Erebus and Mount Terror—were descried. The Antarctic is a much colder ocean than the Arctic; and sends out into warmer seas a larger number of large icebergs than the Arctic Ocean. The Antarctic Ocean is deeper than the Arctic;

but much shallower than either the Pacific or the Atlantic. From it proceeds the Antarctic Drift Current—a stream of intensely cold water—which goes northwards along the coasts of Chili and Peru, and is known at the Cape of Good Hope as the Agulhas Current.

(i) The Aretic Ocean is contained by continents; the Antarctic contains a continent.

(ii) It is from the Antarctic Ocean that the tides start, and make their way into the other great oceans of the world.

(iii) The highest latitude yet reached in it was attained by Captain Sir James Ross, who, in 1841, penetrated to 77° 15' South lat.—or about 800 miles from the South Pole.

(iv) The continent within this ocean was named by Sir James Ross, South Victoria. The part sighted by Admiral Wilkes of the United States Navy was called Wilkes Land. "It is a continent nearly circular in form, and more than twice the size of Australia; it is covered by eternal snows, and is wholly devoid of vegetation; its shores are guarded by active volcances, or by impenetrable barriers of ice, and its interior has never been trodden by the foot of man." Mount Errors (22,400 ft.) is a volcano in a state of almost constant activity; Mount Terror (9000 ft.) is also a volcano—but extinct.

(v) The icebergs sent out by the Antarctic Ocean are very much larger than those of the Arctic; hence they melt more slowly; hence, too, they reach lower latitudes before entirely disappearing. Icebergs have been met in 43° South lat; they have even been seen in the neighbourhood of the Cape of Good Hope—lat. 34°. No Arctic iceberg has been seen in the Atlantic further south than 38°.

(vi) No terrestrial quadruped is known to inhabit the Antarctic Continent ; whales, \checkmark seals, walruses, and other mammals, frequent the seas.

4. The Atlantic Ocean.—(i) The Atlantic Ocean, though only half the size of the Pacific, is the most important of all the oceans on the surface of the globe. More great rivers go down into it; it has a longer coast line, with more and larger inland seas, bays, and gulfs; its shores are bordered by more fertile countries; and hence it possesses a far larger commerce than any other ocean. Its coasts are better surveyed, better provided with lighthouses, and its currents better known than those of any sea in the world. Its shape is like the letter S—a longitudinal valley, a long winding belt of water running through three zones, a sea-canal between the Old and New Worlds. Its area amounts to 35,000,000 square miles—that is, nearly one-fifth part of the globe's surface. It receives a larger amount of river-water than any other ocean. It connects, rather than separates, the Old and the New World ; and all the greatest valleys of both hemispheres slope down to this ocean.

THE ATLANTIC

(i) The coast line of the Atlantic amounts to nearly 55,000 miles, or twice the length of a line drawn round the globe at the Equator.

(ii) The east and west coasts are remarkable for their wonderful parallelism.

(iii) The river-basin (19,000,000 square miles) of the Atlantic is the largest in the world. It is from the two Americas that it receives the largest contributions.

(iv) The Atlantic is the Mediterranean of the whole world. The Baltic is the Mediterranean of Northern Europe. The Gulf of Mexico is the Mediterranean of the New World.

5. The Atlantic Ocean.—(ii) The bed of the Atlantic is a rolling plain, with well-marked ridges rising from it. The most important rising in this plain is the "Telegraphic Plateau" between Ireland and Newfoundland. The average depth of the Atlantic is about 15,000 ft.—Both sides of this ocean are rich in islands, more especially the west side; and the West Indian Archipelago is surpassed only by the island-world of the East Indies.—The warmest part is the Gulf of Mexico, where the surface-water reaches a temperature of 88°; and escapes through the Florida Pass as the Gulf Stream. The South Atlantic is a much colder ocean than the North Atlantic. The following are the chief contrasts between the

and the

ATTANTO

1.	The Atlantic is a belt, almost equal broad at all parts.	lly 1.	The Pacific is a very wide oval.
2	The Atlantic is open to the Poles.	2.	The Pacific has the very narrowest connection with the Arctic Ocean.
8.	Its greatest length is from north south.	to 3.	Its greatest length is from east to west.
4.	It receives an enormous quantity river-water.	of 4.	It receives very little river-water.
5.	The greatest rivers in the world f into the Atlantic.	all 5.	Only on one of its shore: does the Pacific receive great rivers.
6.	Has a large number of large island	ls. 6	Has a very large number of islands of all sizes.
7.	It is the chief highway of commen on the globe.	rce 7.	Its trans-oceanic (non-local) com- merce is only beginning.
8.	It has the longest coast line in pr portion to its size.	ro- 8.	It has a comparatively short coast line.

PACIFIC

(i) All of the Atlantic Cables which connect Europe and North America lie on the Telegraphic Plateau. Our chief station is Valentia, on the west of Ireland.

(ii) It is the North Atlantic that is richest in islands. The only coral islands are the Bermudas.

6. The Inland Seas of the Atlantic.—(i) The Atlantic possesses a great many large inland seas on both of its shores ; and in this respect it is distinguished above all other oceans. On the east, it has the North Sea, the Baltic, and the Mediterranean (which is continued in the Sea of Marmora, the Black Sea, and the Sea of Axov).

(i) The North See or German Ocean is enclosed on three of its sides by Teutonic countries. It is a very shallow sea (between Great Britain and the continent of Europe) which covers a submarine plateau, the emerging parts of which are the British Isles. This plateau ends with a steep cliff about 230 miles from the west coast of Ireland. If the sea-level were to fall 60 ft., the Degar Bank—a bank rich in fish, especially cod—would appear; and, if it fell 100 ft., we could walk dry-shod on an isthmus which would connect Lincolnshire and Holland. Three-fourths of the area of the North Sea are occupied by sand-banks; and, owing to its shallowness, storms rise and fall with great rapidity. Its water is bluish-green; but the water of the open ocean is deep blue.—Its shores are planted with numerous very busy seaports.—An important branch of the North Sea is the South Sea (or Zuyder Zee), in Holland.

(ii) The Baltic is also a very shallow sea. Its average depth is only 20 fathoms. Parts of it are often frozen over. It is also very freah—it has, at the head of the Gulf of Bothnia, only $\frac{1}{2}d$ per cent. of salt. This is due to two causes: (a) the large number of large rivers that flow into it; and (b) the small amount of evaporation from its surface. It is rich in cod and herring.

(iii) The Mediterranean is the largest inland sea in the world. It is 2800 miles long. Half of its shores belong to Europe; the other half, in almost equal parts, to Africa and Asia. It is richer in far-drawn gulfs and bays, and also in islands, than any other sea; it pierces more deeply into the land. Its waters are very salt; because (a) it receives few rivers in comparison with its size, and (b) the evaporation by hot winds is very great. The evaporation carries off three times as much water as the rivers bring down ; and the deficiency is made up by an inflowing current from the Atlantic. It is divided into two basins by a submarine ridge which runs between Cape Bon and Sicily. The average depth of the western basin is 1200 fathoms; of the eastern, 2000. On the north side it is rich in gulfs, such as the Adriatic, the Archipelage, etc. Its waters are intensely blue. The tides in this sea are hardly perceptible-they rise at most a few inches. -- The cutting of the Suez Canal shortened the route to India and the East by 5000 miles, has restored to the Mediterranean much of the commerce which it had lost, and has brought back navigation to its ancient paths. It has a large number of famous seaports on its shores; and the great nations bordering on it—the Greeks, Romans, Moors, Spaniards, etc.-have made this the richest in history of all the seas of the world. For three thousand years it was the "Great Sea" of all civilisation.

When the Cape of Good Hope was discovered in 1479, cosan-trade deserted the Mediterranean. When the Sues Canal was opened in 1869, much of the cosan-traffic same back to its old routes.

(iv) The Black See is an islandless waste of waters which is celebrated for fogs and sudden storms; hence its name. It is often frozen in winter near the mouth of its northern rivers. It is a little larger than the Baltic; and its drainage basin is three times as large as that of the Mediterranean. It receives many large rivers—the Danube being the largest. Its eastern basin is the See of Azov, the shallowest see in Europe. West of the See of Azov is a marsh called the Putrid See. The Black See has excellent fishing-grounds.

(v) The See of Marmora is a small see which lies between the Black See and the Archipelago. It is very deep in comparison with its size.

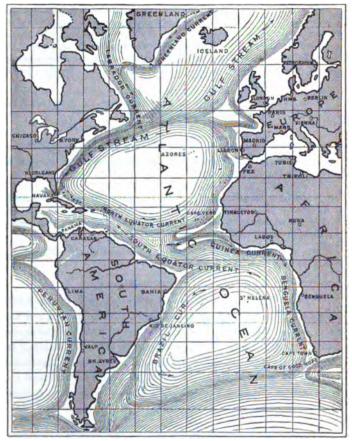
7. The Inland Seas of the Atlantic.—(ii) On the western side of the Atlantic the most important inland seas are Hudson Bay, the Gulf of Mexico, and the Caribbean Sea.

(i) Hadson Bay on the west corresponds to the North Sea on the east, and lies nearly in the same latitude. It is connected with the Atlantic by Hudson Strait, which, however, is frozen over for about nine months in the year. In commercial advantages, it presents a very striking contrast to the German Ocean.

(ii) The Caribbean See and the Gulf of Mexico correspond to the Mediterranean; though the latter lies much farther north.

8. The Currents of the Atlantic.—The chief currents in the North Atlantic Ocean are the Equatorial Current, the Gulf Stream, and the North African Current—these three making one great circular movement as of a vast whirlpool, with the Eargasso Sea in the middle. In the South Atlantic, we have, in addition to the South Equatorial Current, the Brazil Current, the South Connecting Current, and the South African Current—these four also moving in a circular manner, with a smaller "Sargasso Sea" in the middle.

(i) The Guif Stream is the outflow of water that has been heated up in the caldron-shaped Gulf of Mexico. It flows through the Florida Pass at the rate of about four or five miles an hour, and moves northward parallel with the coast of North America, from which it is separated by a current of cold water flowing in the opposite direction. South of the Banks of Newfoundland, it turns east and spreads itself all over the Atlantic; one branch goes north between the British Isles and Iceland and on to Norway, another turns south and flows along the coasts of Spain and Africa. It is the presence of the Gulf Stream that gives to Great Britain and Norway their warm,



moist, and foggy winter climate. Norway is in the latitude of Greenland, and Great Britain in that of Labrador; but Greenland and Labrador have an almost eternal

THE CURRENTS OF THE ATLANTIC.

winter. The sea-water at Hammerfest is as warm in winter as it is at New Yorknearly 2000 miles farther south.

(ii) The circular motion in the North Atlantic brings together in the middle, driftwood, sea-weed, and other floating débris; and it also affords a field for the collection and growth of the floating "gulf-weed," on which a large number of peculiar animals live. This Sargasso Sea of floating weed is so dense that it retards the progress of shipa.

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THE PACIFIC

(iii) The Brand Current flows to the south ; the Connecting Current to the east, and, off the coast of Africa, joins the South African Current, which goes to the north, and merges into the great Equatorial Current.

9. The Pacific Ocean.—(i) The Pacific Ocean is the largest sheet of water on the face of the globe. It has been called a "World-Ocean." It lies in three zones. It is an immense oval basin, which contracts towards the north, and which has its greatest breadth on the Equator. Its area contains 68,000,000 square miles—nearly double the size of the Atlantic. Its length from east to west is 12,000 miles; its greatest breadth a little more than 9000. Its coasts are very regular, with few indentations; and hence its coast line is comparatively short.

(i) The Germans call the Pacific the "Great Ocean." Magellan gave it the name of the Pacific ; because, when he crossed it, the weather was exceptionally fine. But, in many regions, it is frequently the scene of the most terrible storms.

(ii) The Pacific covers about one-third of the whole surface of the globe, and onehalf of its water surface. It could hold all the land in the world within its boundaries.

(iii) The Asiatic coast is much more highly developed than the American. The only indentation of importance on the American side is the Gulf of Childrania.

10. The Pacific Ocean.—(ii) The river-drainage of the Pacific is, in proportion to its size, remarkably small. It is from the Asiatic slopes that this ocean receives most rivers; the two Americas seem to "turn their backs" upon it, and send down very small contributions of water. The bed of the Pacific is tolerably uniform in character; and much of it is gradually sinking. The greatest known depth is 4975 fathoms, or nearly $5\frac{1}{4}$ miles. It is girt by a mighty ring of volcances—an almost unbroken belt of volcanic activity on both its shores.

(i) Though the Pacific is more than double the size of the Atlantic, its drainage basin is less than half. The drainage basin of the Atlantic is 19,000,000 square miles; of the Pacific 8¹/₂ millions.

(ii) South America sends to the Pacific only a few mountain-torrents; Australia, very few and not large rivers.

(iii) The greatest depth in the Pacific has been found north of the Carolines.

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(iv) From Behring Strait down to the Philippines there runs a well-marked line of volcanic activity. Another line runs through the Sunda Islands, through New Guines, and on to New Zealand.—On the eastern shore, we find a row of lofty volcances, many of them active, in the Andes, in Central America and Mexico, in the Rocky Mountains (where all are extinct), and on to Behring Strait again.

11. The Inland Seas of the Pacific.—The western coast abounds in inland seas—all shallow; but they are very small—compared either with the size of the ocean itself, or with those of the Atlantic. Its inland seas are, indeed, rather large bays, enclosed by a breakwater of islands, than interior seas like the Baltic or Mediterranean.—On the east coast, there are no inland seas at all.

The Behring Sea is enclosed by the Aleutian Islands; the Sea of Okhetsk by the Kurile Islands; the Sea of Japan by the Japanese Archipelago. The Yellow Sea, the China Sea, and the Gulf of Siam are also important openings on the west coast.

12. The Currents of the Pacific.—The chief currents in the Pacific Ocean are the Equatorial Current; the Peruvian Current; and the Japan Current.

(i) The Equatorial Current, which goes slowly to the west, is generally spoken of as two currents—the North Equatorial and the South Equatorial.

(ii) When it strikes the Japanese Islands, it is forced up in a north-easterly direction, and becomes the Japan Current or Kuro Sivo (="Black Stream"), the dark colour of whose waters forms the most striking contrast with the pale muddy colour of the Yellow Sea.

(iii) The Peruvian or Humboldt Current is a stream of ice-cold water, from the Aztarctic Ocean, which makes its way up the west coast of South America.

13. The Islands of the Pacific.—The countless groups of islands, which lie in the Middle Section of the Pacific, have been compared with the uncounted stars in the "Milky Way" in the heavens. The Pacific Islands are of two kinds: Continental and Oceanic. The continental islands are fragments of Asia or Australia, and lie on the submarine plateau between these two continents. The oceanic islands are either of volcanic or of coral formation.

(i) The continental islands include the Alextian Isles, the Kurile Isles, the Japan Islands, the Philippines, and all that immense archipelago which lies on the submarine table-land between Asia and Australia.

(ii) The oceanic islands are found chiefly in the South Pacific. The most northerly group is the Sandwich Islands; the most southerly, New Zealand.

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14. The Commerce of the Pacific.—The commerce of this mighty ocean is only in its first beginnings. There are four rising ports on its east coast : San Francisco, Panamá, Callao (the port of Lima), and Valparaiso. There are four great ports on its western shores : Yokohama, Hong-Kong, Singapore, and Sydney.

The chief agencies in creating the commerce of the Pacific are: (1) the colonisation of Australia; (2) the extension of the United States to the western coast; (3) the discovery of gold in California and Australia; and (4) the opening of the Chinese and Japanese ports to all comers.

15. The Indian Ocean.—(i) The Indian Ocean, "the Region of the Monsoons," lies mostly in the Southern Hemisphere, within the Torrid Zone, and between the three continents of Africa, Asia, and Anstralia. It contains two mighty gulfs—the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal. Unlike the two other great oceans, it has no connection with the Arctic ; though its whole southern border lies open to the Antarctic. It is nearly one-third smaller than the Atlantic.

- (i) The limit of the Indian Ocean is said to be 38° South lat.
- (ii) Its area is 25,000,000 square miles.

16. The Indian Ocean.—(ii) The Indian Ocean has only two inland Seas—the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf. It possesses a very large drainage-basin, and several of the largest rivers in the world bring to it their contributions. It is a very deep ocean; its average depth is about 15,000 ft. It is also a warm ocean, lying for the most part under the vertical rays of the sun; and the surface temperature sometimes rises to 90°.

(i) The Zed Sea receives no river; most of it is within the Tropics, and there is enormous evaporation from its surface; and hence its level at Aden is several feet higher than its level in the Gulf of Sues. The Persian Gulf receives only one river of any size—the Shatt-el-Arab.

(ii) The contributions of river-water from Asia are by far the largest. Almost all the melted snows of the Himalayas find their way into the Indian Ocean through the Indias, the Gauges, and the Brahmapootra. It also receives the waters of Peninsular India. The mountains of Burmah also contribute, through the Irrawaddy and other great streams. Africa contributes very little; Australia still less.

(iii) At the depth of 12,000 ft., however, there is a uniform temperature of 35°

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17. The Indian Ocean.—(iii) The chief currents in this ocean are the Equatorial, the Mosambique, and the Agulhas. Its islands, like those of the Pacific, are mostly of volcanic or of coral origin. Its commerce is large, and, since the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869, has been yearly increasing. The chief ports are Bombay, Madras, Calcutta, and Rangoon.

(i) The Mozambique Current is a branch of the Equatorial, and runs southward through the Mozambique Channel, between Madagascar and Africa. It joins the Aguihas Current near Cape Aguihas (="Cape Needles").

(ii) The two largest islands are Madagascar and Ceylon; but they are continental islands. The largest oceanic groups are the Laccadives (="Hundred thousand Islands"), and the Maldives (="Thousand Islands"), which are coral islands, with numerous atolls.

(iii) The Suez Canal leads straight into the most commercial part of the Indian Ocean. Its existence has almost stopped the old passage round the Cape of Good Hope-5000 miles longer-and has thus revolutionised modern commerce.

POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

1. Introductory.—Political Geography tries to give some account of how men live in states and nations; what circumstances help them to gain a livelihood; and what form of human life—what manners and customs, arts and sciences—they have gradually built up.

PEOPLES AND RACES.

2. Population.—There are in the world, at the present time, about 1500 millions of human beings. Of the continents, Asia contains the largest number ; Australia the smallest.

(i) But Europe is the most densely peopled continent; and the density of its population increases as we go west, the farther we get from Asia. The average density in Europe is about 90 persons per square mile; in Asia it is only about half—or 47.

(ii) The most populous country in Europe is Beigium ; the most populous part of Asia is the Plain of China.

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RACES

3. Races.—There are, in the human family, five great races, differing from each other in colour, features, the character of the hair, etc.; though the hair constitutes the most distinguishing and permanent difference between them. These five races are: the Caucasian, the Mongolian, the Negro, the Malayan, and the Indian.

(i) The Cancasian (Indo-European) or White Race is distinguished by a white or fair skin, oval face, straight eyebrows, long silky hair (black, light, or auburn), and harmonious proportions of body. The facial angle is from 80° to 90°. This race is found in Europe and the south and south-west of Asia.—The European section of this race has spread itself over almost the whole globe.

(ii) The Mongolian or Yellow Eace has high check-bones, small, oblique, and narrow eyes; a skin of an olive-yellow to deep brown; long, thick, and lank hair; and little or no beard. The north and east of Asia are their chief abodes.—But, in Europe, the Finns, Lapps, and Samoyedes; the Magyars of Hungary; the Turks, and the Esquimaux, all belong to this race.

(iii) The Negro (Ethiopian) or Black Bace has flat features, a flat thick fleshy nose, thick protruding lips, a black skin, and short, woolly, curly black hair. The facial angle is from 70° to 75°. This race inhabits Africa from the southern edge of the Sahara to Bechuana Land; in the United States of North America and in South America (to both of which continents they were carried as slaves), and in Mahometau countries, where they live mostly in a state of slavery.

(iv) The Malayan or Taway Eace has some of the marks of the three chief races: the skull and eyes of the Caucasian, the long coarse black hair of the Mongol, and the flattened features of the Negro. The Malays have a brown or tawny skin. They are found on the widespread island-world which lies between Madagascar and Easter Island, in Polynesis—over more than 200 degrees of longitude.

(v) The Indian (American Indian) or Copper-coloured Bace has a red, bronze, or copper-coloured skin, black lank hair, high check-bones, and long eyes. This race is limited to America, and is gradually dying out. In South America, the Patagoniansare the best specimens of this race. (The term *Indian* is a mistake; as the "Red Men" have no connection with *India* or the *Hindus*. It arose from the error of Columbus, who thought that the island of St. Salvator on which he landed was a part of the *India*; and hence called the whole archipelago the "Indias.")

4. Populousness of Baces.—The Caucasian Race numbers about 640 millions; the Mongolian nearly 600; the Ethiopian 260; the Malay 40; and the American Indian only 20 millions.

5. Languages.—The languages of the Mongolian Race are monosyllabic, and entirely without inflexion. The Indo-European or-Caucasian Races speak languages which are rich in inflexion.

(i) The monosyllabic languages use any word either as a noun, verb, or adjective —solely according to its position in the sentence. These languages are spoken chiefly in China, Japan, and Further India.

(ii) Of the Indo-European Languages the most widely spread in the Ancient World was Latin; in the Modern World it is English. English is spoken by about 100 millions of people; Russian by 63; German by 62; and Spanish by 55 millions. Spanish is spread all over South America, and is the commercial language of that continent.

6. Religions.—The Religions of the world are generally divided into Polytheistic and Monotheistic.—The three most important kinds of Monotheism are : Christianity ; Judaism ; and Mahometanism. The chief forms of Polytheism are : Buddhism and Brahminism.

Greek polys, many, and theos, a god ; monos, sole or one.

(1) Christians are said to number 400 millions; Mahometans 200; and Jews, only 7 millions. The larger half of mankind—830 millions—are polytheists or heathens.

(ii) Mahometanism or Islám (=God's will be done!) is professed in Asia (Arabia-Persia, India, etc.), in North and Central Africa, and also in Europe (Turkey, etc.) Its followers are called Mostems or Mussulmans.

(iii) Baddhism, or the Religion of Buddha, a great sage and meditative philosopher of the 5th century B.C., is the most widely spread religion of the East. It is professed in Further India, the Malay Peninsula, China, Japan, etc.

(iv) Brahminism, or the Religion of Brahma-the chief god of the Hindus, is the religion most prevalent in India.

(v) There are also lower forms of heathenism—such as Fetichism and Shamanism. Fetichism is the worship of beasts (tigers, etc.), useful or hurtful plants, and even stones and carved blocks of wood. Shamanism is the worship of invisible spirits who are believed to be able to do harm as well as good—but who are generally more able and willing to do harm, and who have to be flattered or propitiated by magical arts. Those Mongols—in Siberia, :tc.—who are not Buddhists, are in general Shamanists.

(vi) Again, there are higher forms, such as the worship of Fire among the Pareses in India, etc.

7. Forms of Labour.—The simplest kind of labour is hunting; and under this kind may also be included fishing. Labourers of this class have no property. The second stage is that of the propertied classes. These are, again, subdivided into wandering and settled peoples. Wanderers (or Nomads) generally possess herds of cattle and sheep. Settled peoples are for the most part engaged in agricul-

MAN IN SOCIETY

ture.—A third stage is that of handicraft or manufacture, where the raw material owes much or most of its value to the labour and skill put into it.—A fourth stage is the exchanging of surplus products of agriculture or manufacture; and this gives rise to commerce.—The highest stage of labour is the cultivation of art, literature, or science.

(i) The Eskimoes and the Samoyedes are in the lowest stage.

(ii) The Bedowins in Arabia, the Turcomans in the Turanian Lowland Desert, and the Turanicks in the Sahara, are Nomads.

(iii) Agriculture has two main branches : tillage and stock-raising.

(iv) Commerce exports either raw materials or manufactures; and its ultimate aim is to bring about an equilibrium in the exchange of both all over the world. Great Britain has too much hardware; China has more tea than she needs : they exchange.

(v) If there is in any country a surplus of producers, emigration takes place; and colonies are founded.

(vi) It is in the Temperate Zones of the world that different kinds of labour and enterprise have grown to their highest perfection. In these zones nature grants nothing without a struggle. In the Torrid Zone nature is lavish of her bounties, and does not compel man to work for a living. In the Frigid Zone the struggle is so severe that man spends the whole of his life in getting a mere living.

8. Kinds of Societies.—Man is a very gregarious animal. It is not good for him to be alone. Men come together in hamlets, villages, towns, and cities. Towns or villages rise at a bridge over a river; on a coal-field; or where two main roads intersect each other. The largest towns are found where three things—agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, exist together in the highest degree. Many of the largest towns in the world are seaports.

(i) Bristol (formerly Brigstow)=the "stow" (or place) on the bridge over the Avon.

(ii) All the largest manufacturing towns in England and the Continent stand on or near coal-fields. Coal-fields generally contain iron-ores; and these two minerals, coal which gives power) and iron (which provides the raw material for machinery) form the backbone of all industrial manufacture.

(iii) Two main roads of traffic may meet at the confluence (a) of two rivers, or (b) of two railroads, or (c) where two caravan-routes intersect. (a) Allahabad stands at the confluence of the Junna with the Ganges; St. Louis, where the Missouri and Mississippi join. (b) Birmingham stands at or near the intersection of the Midland and North-Western Systems. (c) Moscow stands at the meeting-point of all the highroads from north to south and from east to west in European Russia. Damascus stands at the intersection of the routes between Egypt, Mesopotamia, and Asia Minor.

(iv) Out of about 250 towns in the world which have a population of more than 100,000, about 110 are scaports. These scaports either stand on the coast, or-if on rivers-at the head of the tidal waters.

(v) London is the town which unites in the highest degree the products of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce.

(vi) Towns like Chicago, San Francisco, and Sydney may be said to stand at the intersection of great trade-routes. Chicago stands on Lake Michigan and intercepts the immense quantities of wheat that are brought to it by rail from the rich prairie-lands. Behind all three towns, there are either fertile lands, or rich mines, or both; and these towns stand at the meeting-points of the railway-system and the water-journey.

9. Kinds of Government.—The unit or core of society is the family. A number of families living together under one head (a chief or sheikh) is called a clan. This is the lowest stage of government. A higher stage is where the families or people of a country are organised into a state. A state may be either a monarchy or a republic. A monarchy may be either absolute or limited. A republic may be either aristocratic or democratic.

(i) Rule by a chief is called patriarchal rule. In Mongolia a clan is called a hords.

(ii) The only absolute monarchies in Europe are Russia, Turkey, and the small principality of Monaco, in the north of Italy.

(iii) The other monarchies of Europe are limited by the conditions laid down in the Constitution, and by the powers of Parliament. Parliament generally consists of two Chambers—an Upper and a Lower. (In Great Britain, the Upper Chamber is the House of Lords; in the United States, it is the Senate.)

(iv) An aristocratic republic is ruled by a *few*, and is hence called an **eligarchy** (Greek *oligoi*, the few). Such was the republic of Rome.—Modern republics are democratic (Greek *Demos*, the people); as France, Switzerland, and the United States. The legislative power is in the hands of the Parliament; the executive power is generally vested in the Freidant, who is chosen for a fixed term of years. The President, besides being the head of the State, is also Commander-in-chief of the Army, etc.



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1. Introductory. -Europe is the smallest of the three continents which make up the Old World. It is in, reality, a large peninsula joined to Asia; and it assumes more and more of a peninsular character, the farther it goes from that continent. Though the smallest of the five great continents, it is the centre of civilisation, of commerce, of intercourse, and of travel. This distinction it owes partly to the fact that it lies in the middle of all the land in the world, and partly to its astonishing wealth in coast line and varied build of land.

2. Boundaries.—Europe is bounded on three sides by the sea. On the land side, the Ural Mountains separate it from Asia. Its extreme point on the north is Cape Nordkyn; on the west, Cape Roca; and on the south, Cape Tarifa.

(i) The following are its boundaries :

- 1. H. -The Arotic Ocean.
- 2. E. The Ural Mountains, Ural River, and Caspian.
- 5. S. -- The Mediterranean, the Black Sea, and the Cancasus.
- 4. W .- The Atlantic.

The Russians make "European" Russia embrace a large amount of territory east of the Urals, and even as far as the Tobol. They also draw the southern boundary through the "Depression of Manytch," so that the whole of the Caucasus Range is made to belong to Asia.

(ii) Nordkyn (=North Chin) is the extreme point of the mainland-North Cape, which is further north, being in the island of Mageroe.

Tarifa gives our word tarif. It was off this cape that the Moors and Spaniards used to collect dues for allowing ships to enter the Mediterranean.

3. Shape.—The most striking characteristic of Europe is the "absence of mass "—the immensely rich articulation of its coast line. No other continent has a coast line so highly developed, so richly articulated. It possesses 1 mile of coast for every 190 square miles of [

surface. Long peninsulas run out into the sea; long arms of the sea run into the heart of the land. Hence Europe possesses the maximum of accessibility by sea, and the maximum of marine influences upon the land. The farther it goes west, the more peninsular does it become; and the peninsulas form one-third of the whole. This highly peninsular character is continued and intensified by the large number of islands along its coasts.

(i) This rich articulation of limbs gives easy communication with the sea and favours the growth of civilisation. For this reason Greece and Italy were at one time masters of the Mediterranean; while, to-day, Great Britain, which may be regarded as a large peninsula, is Mistress of the Oceans of the world.

(ii) Africa stands at the other end of the scale. Compared with its size, Europe has a coast relatively 5 times as long as that of Africa.

(iii) As Europe goes to the west, it becomes narrower; and the inflowing seas come nearer to each other. Thus, north of the Pyrenees, the Mediterranean is only 240 miles from the Bay of Biscay; and the French are now engaged in cutting a canal which will save the long round along the coast of Spain.—Even in Russia, the most continental part of Europe, no town is more than 700 miles from the sea.

(iv) Europe has 9 peninsulas: four in the south; four in the north; and one in the west. (a) The four in the South are: *The Peninsula*; Italy; the Balkan Peninsula; and the Grimes. (b) The four in the North are: Jutland; Scandinavia; Kanin; and Kola. (c) The one in the West is Brittany.—The Isthmus of Gorinth (4 m.) connects the Morea with the mainland of Greece. The Isthmus of Perekop connects the Crimea with the mainland of Russia.

(v) The capes at the ends of these peninsulas are : Nordkyn, North Cape, and the Mase, in Norway; the Skaw, in Jutland; Ortegal and Finisterre(="Land's End") in the north of Spain; Roca and St. Vincent, in Portugal; Trafalgar and Tarifa in the south of Spain; Di Leuca and Spartivento, in Italy; and Matapan, in the south of Greece.

(vi) Most of the islands lie very close to the continent, are easily accessible from it, and were at one time parts of it. Their presence gives rise to all kinds of *exchanges*, intercommunication, and interplay of life and forces.

4. Extent.—The area of Europe amounts to about 3,700,000 square miles. Its greatest length, from Cape St. Vincent to the Urals, is 3370 miles; its greatest breadth, from Cape Matapan to Nordkyn, is 2400 miles.

(i) Europe occupies about $\frac{1}{14}$ th of the land-surface of the globe.

(ii) Asia is about five times as large ; Africa, three times.

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5. Seas.—Europe is pre-eminently the Continent of Inland Seas. Three mighty seas bathe it on the south; and three seas, corresponding to them, lave its shores upon the north. The three on the south are the Caspian, the Black Sea, and the Mediterranean; the three on the north are the White Sea, the Baltic, and the German Ocean.

(i) The Campian belongs partly to Europe, partly to Asia. It is shallow in the north and very deep in the south. In correspondence with this, the shores on the north are low and flat; on the south, they are high and mountainous.

(ii) The Mack Sea is twice the size of Great Britain, and receives the drainage of nearly one-third of all Europe. It is subject to sudden storms and to dense foga. Its branch, called the Sea of Amov, is very shallow, and is slowly silting up with the mud brought down by the Don.—The Sea of Marmora lies to the west of the Black Sea.

(iii) The Mediterranean is the largest inland sea in the world. It is 2300 miles long, and has an area of nearly 1,000,000 square miles. It has hardly any tides.—The Mediterranean includes four minor seas—the Adriatic (with the Gulfs of Trieste and Quarnero), the Tyrrhene, the Ionian; and the Egrean or Archipelago. It includes also the great Gulfs of Lions, Genos, and Corinth on the European side; and Bidra and Eabes on the African.

The "Guif of Lions" has nothing to do with the city of Lyons. The Guif is so called from its stormy character.

(iv) The White Sea is a vast bight of the Arctic Ocean-everywhere very shallow.

(v) The Baltie is a sea about twice the size of England and Wales. It is almost tideless. It is very shallow; and its waters are much fresher than those of the ocean. Its chief Gulfs are those of Bothnia, Finland, and Bigs.

The word Baltic means "Sea of Belta." It is itself a belt; and it is entered by the Great Belt and the Little Belt.

(vi) The North Sea or German Ocean is a shallow sea between Great Britain and the Continent. It is nearly twice as large as the Baltic. It contains numerous sandbanks; and, over some of these there is only 100 ft. depth of water. It has two large bights—the Zuyder Zee and the Dollart. Both were formed by an inbreaking of the sea in the 15th century.—The Irish Sea—between Great Britain and Ireland—may be regarded as part of the North Sea, though it is very much deeper.

The word Suyder See means "Bouth Sea." It is so called to distinguish it from the North Sea, and from the East Sea.—which is the German name for the Baltic.

6. The Baltic and the Mediterranean: a Contrast.-The Baltic is

the Mediterranean of the north; and, as these seas are contrasted in position, they are also contrasted in many other respects.

The Baltic

- 1. Is a shallow sea with low shores.
- 2. Lies in a region of rains all the year through.
- 8. Is fed by numerous and large rivers.
- Lies in a region of low temperature and small evaporation. From December to April it is closed by ice.
- 5. Has its level raised by the rivers that flow into it.
- Has water which is almost fresh in some parts. It is only one-fourth as salt as ocean-water.
- 7. The Baltic is always overflowing; and a current runs from it into the German Ocean.

The Mediterranean

- 1. Is a deep sea with lofty coasts.
- 2. Lies in the region of autumn and winter rains.
- Is fed by few rivers—compared with its great area.
- Lies in a region of high temperature, and great and rapid evaporation. It is never closed.
- 5. Has its level lowered by the water evaporated from it.
- 6. Has water which is salter than that of the ocean.
- 7. The Mediterranean is always deficient; and a current is always running into it from the Atlantic.

7. Water-ways.—Europe is also the continent of great natural Water-ways. The most important channels are the passages between the North Sea and the Baltic; between the Atlantic and the Mediterranean; and between the Mediterranean and the Black Sea.

(i) The Skager Each and Cattegat (= "Cat's throat") form one continuous highway into the Baltic, which is blocked up by a group of islands. Between the mainland and these lie the Sound, the Great Belt, and the Little Belt, the first of which is the most frequented passage. On the south side, the Straits of Dover and the English Channel (called by the French "La Manche" or the Sleeve, from its shape) form the great water-way from the North Sea into the Atlantic.

(ii) The Straits of Gibraits (9 m.) is the passage into the Mediterranean. The Strait of Messina leads from the Tyrrhene into the Ionian Sea. The Strait of Otranto leads from the Ionian into the Adriatic. The Dardanelles lead from the Archipelago into the Sea of Marmora. The Bosphorus (=Ox-ferry) leads from the Sea of Marmora into the Black Sea. The Strait of Kertch leads from the Black Sea into the Sea of Azov.

8. The Islands of Europe.—Happy in its peninsulas, Europe is still more and singularly happy in its islands, which may in some cases be regarded as parts and continuations of its peninsulas. No

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continent in the world, if we take its size into consideration, has so many islands as the continent of Europe. It is also a point in its favour that the richest islands lie in the best climate—that is, in the south. The islands of Europe lie in the Arctic and Atlantic Oceans, and in the Baltic and Mediterranean Seas. Many of them may be regarded as stepping-stones of civilisation and commerce.

(i) The chief islands in the Arotic are Jan Mayen, Vaygatz, and the archipelago of Nova Zembla (="New found land").

(ii) In the Atlantic Ocean are the innumerable group of the Loffodens, on the coast of Norway; Iceland and the Farces; the British Islands; the Channel Islands, off the north coast of France; and the Azores, which lie 900 miles west of Portugal.

(iii) In or at the entrance of the Baltic are the Danish Archipelago (Zealand, Funen, etc.); Rügen and Bornholm; Oeland and Gothland; Dago and Oesel; and the group of the Aland Isles.

The prefix os means simply water. Hence Osland L-water-land or island. Oesel has the same meaning. Os takes the form of es and becomes a suffix in English. Thus Batteress-Bt. Peter's laiand; Anglessca-Angless Laiand; Cheissa-Cheesel or Shingis Laiand.

(iv) In the Mediterranesa lie the Balearic Islands (the largest of which is Majorca): Corsica and Sardinia (with Elba); Sicily and Malta; the Ionian Islands, west of Greece; the Cyclades and Sporades in the Archipelago (with Negropont, the largest island in that sea); Candia and Cyprus. Sicily is the largest island in the Mediterranesan; Sardinia comes next. Cyprus is generally reckoned with Asia.

9. Build.—If Europe is rich in coast line and in variety of horizontal form, it is still richer in variety of build. As there is the maximum of inter-connection between land and sea in this continent, so there is the maximum of interchange between different forms and heights. The variety of build is astonishing : Alpine mountainsystems, lower ranges of mountains, hills—in groups and ranges table-lands, steppes, plains, alluvial valleys. All these forms are found in more or less close neighbourhood—especially in the west of Europe. The vertical build is in fact more highly and richly developed than even the horizontal shape. But, on the whole, lowlands predominate : they occupy two-thirds of the whole surface./ Hence we may say : Europe is the Continent of Low Plains.

(i) High and wide plateaus, which interfere greatly with the intercourse of peoples, are completely absent in Europe. Nor are there any deserts.

(ii) The character of the mountains of Europe is also favourable to intercourse.

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10. The Two Halves of Europe.—If we follow the line of 27° East long., we shall find that Europe falls easily in two halves: The Eastern Half and the Western Half. The character of the first is uniformity; of the second, the richest variety.

(i) The Eastern Half consists of a great plain, which stretches from the Urals to the river Memel.

(ii) The Western Haif falls gradually by three mighty steps towards the Baltic and the German Ocean. The highest step is the Alps; the second the France-German Highland; the third is the France-German Plain. This last is sometimes called the West European Flain.

(iii) If, however, we divide Europe into Northern and Southern portions, we shall find that one mighty northern plain stretches from the Pyrenees to the Urals. This plain, running to the south of the Ural Range, joins the colossal plains of Siberia. We can travel from Holland to the east of Russia without seeing a single mountain or going through a single tunnel.

11. The Mountain Systems of Europe.—The mountain-lands of Europe lie mostly in the south and in the north-west. The ranges of the first rank are : the Sierra Nevada ; the Pyrenees ; the Alps ; the Carpathians ; the Balkans ; and the Scandinavian Mountains. The Cancasus separates Europe from Asia.

(i) The Sierra Nevada is the highest range in Spain : The highest peak, Mulhacen, is 11,660 ft. above the sea-level.

(ii) The **Pyreness** are a high and broad range between France and Spain : the highest point is the Peak of Nethou (11,168 ft.). Some parts are above the line of perpetual snow. They have never been tunnelled ; and the railways go round either end.

(iii) The Alps are the grandest mountain-system in Europe. Most of the peaks are covered with perpetual mow, which melts at the edges of the snow-fields, but is constantly renewed. The highest peak is Mont Blanc (15,784 ft.), in Savoy, just within the French frontier. The Alps form the boundary between Italy and the northern countries of France, Switzerland, and Germany.—The Appanines run off from them through Italy.

(iv) The Carpathians stretch in the form of a mighty horse-shoe from Pressburg on the Danube to Orsova on the same river, enclose the Great Plain of Hungary, and shelter it from east winds.

(v) The Balkans, in the widest sense of the word, is the name for a number of ranges which sweep from the Adriatic to the Black Sea. In the stricter sense, it is the name of the range which divides Bulgaria from Roumelia. The mean height of the highest range is 6500 ft. (vi) The Scandinavian Mountains is the general geographical name for the mountainranges in Scandinavia. Each range has a different local name. The southern portion is the higher (the highest peak is 8400 ft.—about half the height of Mont Blanc); the northern culminates in Sulitelma, which is only 5820 ft. high.

12. The Plateaus of Europe.—Europe, unlike Asia, has no very high or very extensive table-lands. But it possesses four well-marked plateaus in its western half. These are the Spanish Plateau; the Swiss and Bavarian Plateau; the Plateau of Transylvania; and the Balkan Plateau.

The Swiss and Bavarian Plateau is the southern and highest part of a low plateau which goes down from the foot of the Alps, by a series of terraces, to the Baltic and the North Sea.

13. The Volcances of Europe.— The volcances of Europe are (with the exception of Mount Hecla) limited to the islands and peninsulas of the Mediterranean. The principal active volcances are Mount Hecla ; Etna ; Vesuvius ; and Stromboli.

(i) Mount Heels (5095 ft.—one-third the height of Mont Blanc) is the highest among 20 active volcances in Iceland. It is also the second highest mountain in the island.

(ii) Mount Eina (10,840 ft.-or about two-thirds the height of Mont Blanc) is the highest mountain in Sicily.

(iii) Mount Vesuvius (4160 ft.) is a flattened conical mountain on the Bay of Naples.

(iv) Strombeli is one of the Lipari Islands. It is in a state of periodic eruption every five minutes; but it vomits only steam.

(v) There are many extinct volcances in central France, in the north-west of Germany, in the Eastern Pyrenees, etc.

14. The Plains of Europe.—The Great Plain of Europe stretches from the Pyrenees to the Urals, and embraces about two-thirds of the surface of the continent. It is sometimes called Low Europe. Its greatest breadth is attained in Russia.—But there are also plains in High Europe, entangled, as it were, among the mountain-systems and table-lands of that region. These are the plains of : Hungary; Wallachia-and-Bulgaria; Lombardy; Languedoc; Upper Rhine; Bohemia; and Andalusia.

(i) The Plain of Hungary lies between the Carpathians and the Alps, and is watered by the Danube and the Theiss.

(ii) The Plain of Wallachia-and-Bulgaria is also called the "Plain of the Lower Danube."

(iii) The Plain of Lombardy is the valley of the Po, between the Alps and the Apennines.

(iv) The Plain of Languadoe lies in the south of France, between the Alps and the Cevennes.

(v) The Flain of the Upper Rhine lies between the Black Forest and the Vosges.

(vi) The Flain of Bohemia is a lozenge-shaped table-land, west of the Carpathians, and drained by the Elbe.

(vii) The Plain of Andalusia is the lower part of the valley of the Guadalquivir.

15. The Waterahed of Europe.—The great Watershed of Europe runs from north-east to south-west. It begins at the Urals; goes through the Valdai Plateau—which is its culminating point; and keeps going ever farther and farther south, till it reaches the Pyrenees. The northwestern slope is not nearly so wide as the south-eastern; and hence the longest rivers flow into the southern seas. The Black Sea has the largest drainage area of all the European seas.

(i) The longest rivers are "nearly all directed towards the vast depression which separates Europe from Asia."

(ii) The White Sea drains an area of 200,000 square miles. If we take the drainagearea of the White Sea as the unit, then the Baltic drainage-area=4; that of the Mediterranean l_2^+ ; that of the Black Sea l_2^+ ; and that of the Caspian l_2^+ .

16. The Rivers of Europe.—Europe is rich in rivers. They are 'equally distributed over the continent; and they flow in every direction. Another distinguishing feature is that most of them are navigable, and have good harbours at or near their mouths. Their other characteristics may be placed in a tabular form.

Characteristics of the Rivers of Europe.

1. Their mouths are pretty equally distributed along the coasts of the seas.

2. They do not cut their way through mountain-ranges, but flow on different sides of them to different seas.

3. Most of the larger rivers have navigable tributaries. The Danube has sixty.

4. Most of the tributaries flow at right angles to the main stream, and thus bring distant parts of the country into communication.

5. Most of them have been easily connected by canals; and thus the seas of the south have been joined to the seas of the north—in the West as well as in the East.

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17. The Three River Systems.—The rivers of Europe may be divided, according to their destinations, into three systems: the Arctic; the Atlantic; and the Caspian.

(i) The largest river that flows into the Arctic Ocean is the Petchera.

(ii) The largest river that flows (a) directly into the Atlantic is the Loire. (b) The largest river that falls into the Baltic is the Vistala. (c) The largest that joins the North Sea is the Rhine. (d) The largest into the Mediterranean is the Rhone. (e) Into the Black Sea, the largest is the Danube; after it, the Dnieper. (f) The largest into the Sea of Azov is the Don.

(iii) The largest river that falls into the Caspian is the Volga.

(iv) The following table gives, in approximate numbers, a comparative view of the length of some of the European rivers :--

Unit of 200 miles.	Unit of 400 miles.	Unit of 600 miles.	
Minho 1 Tiber Thames Bannon Severn	Weser Glommen Ebro . . 1 Bro . . 1+ Guadiana . . 1‡ Douro . . . 1‡ Beine . . . 1‡ Rhone . . . 1‡ Oder . . . 1‡ Meuse . . . 1‡	Loire }	

18. The Biver Sources.—There are two chief Continental Centres which are the sources of European Rivers. These are the Lowland Centre and the Alpine Centre. The Lowland Centre is the Valdai Plateau : the Alpine Centre is the mass of Mount St. Gothard.

(i) From the Valdai Plateau flow six great streams in different directions to four inland seas :--

- (a) The Dwins to the White Sea;
- (b) The Volga to the Caspian;
- (c) The Don and Dnieper to the Black Sea;
- (d) The Duna and Niemen to the Baltic.

(ii) Mount St. Gothard sends four streams to three inland seas :-

- (a) The Rhine to the North Sea ;
- (b) The Rhone to the Mediterranean;
- (c) Tributaries to the Po, which flows into the Adriatic.

19. The two great Water-ways of Europe.—The two greatest rivers of Europe—greatest from almost every point of view—are the Danube and the Rhine. The Danube is the largest river in Europe in respect of its volume of water—it is the only large European river that flows due East; and it is therefore the great highway to the East for South Germany, for Austria, for Hungary, and for the younger nations in its valley. It flows through more lands, races, and languages than any other European river. The Rhine is the great water-highway for Western Europe; and it carries the traffic and the travellers of many countries and peoples. Both streams give life to the whole continent; they join many countries and the most varied interests; while the streams of France exist only for France itself. The Danube runs parallel with the mighty ranges of the Alps; the Rhine saws its way through the secondary highlands which lie between the Alps and the Netherlands.

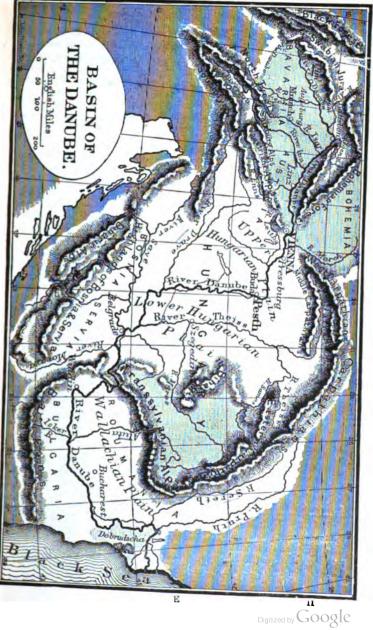
(i) The Danube rises in Baden, on the south-eastern slope of the Black Forest. (a) The Upper Danabe (which runs from Baden to Presburg) flows across the Plateau of Bavaria, and begins to be navigable at Ulm. Its most northerly elbow is reached at Ratisbon. On its left bank it receives few tributaries; on the right, it is joined by the Iser (on which Munich stands) and by the Inn-a stream at that point larger than itself-which falls into it at Passau. Below this point, its valley is contracted by the granite masses of the Bohemian Forest Range. At Vienna it divides into countless branches.-It is its upper course that is the most beautiful; and the river flows past a succession of smiling valleys, which are overlooked by lofty mountains clad with dark forests and topped by glittering snow and ice. (b) The Middle Danabe is that part of the river which runs from Pressburg to the Iron Gate below Orsova. At Pressburg, where it passes through the Carpathian Gate, it alters its course to the south-east, and flows through low and level plains. It also frequently divides here, encloses numerous islands which are called the "Golden Gardens." At Waitzen its course forms a right angle; and it begins to flow due south. In this part of its course, it is joined on the left bank by the Theiss (the river of the Hungarian Plain) which flows from the Carpathians, and by the Drave and Save, which come from the Eastern Alps. Below Orsova, it is hemmed in by the Transylvanian Alps and the Servian Highlands, flows for sixty miles through a series of difficult gorges, and passes by dangerous rapids to reach the Wallachian Plain. This narrow pass is called the "Iron Gate." Some of the shallows have been removed by blasting. (c) The Lower or Wallachian Danube runs from the Iron Gate to the Black Sea. In this part of its course, it flows in a broad bed, with much splitting up and forming of islands, slowly and powerfully in the direction of the East. At the Dobrudscha-a low steppe-like plateau, it is forced to turn to the north; but at Galatz it again turns to the east, and reaches the Black Sea by three arms which enclose a marshy delta.

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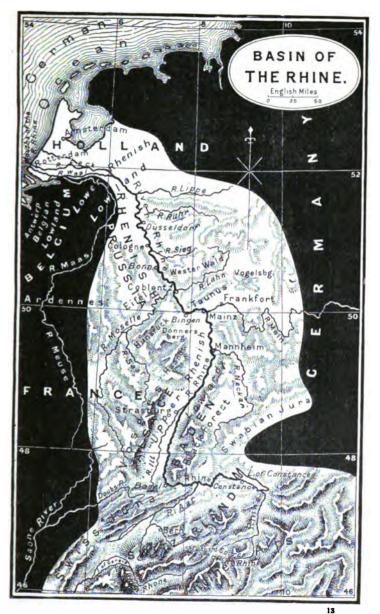


This delta is constantly being further extended into the Black Sea. Only the middle arm, the Suitaa Mouth, is navigable for large ships. It is only on its left bank that the Lower Danube receives any large tributaries; and the largest of these are the Aists, the Servit, and the Fruth (Proof). It is worthy of remark that on its banks stand a number of large cities in pairs: the largest of these is Buda-Pesth. The Danube is joined by 60 navigable rivers. Five capitals stand either on the main stream or on its tributaries. It is, in general, too broad to bridge; and there is no bridge below the Suspension Bridge at Pesth. Its direct length is 1750; its full length 2000 miles; and its bash 14 times as large as the whole of France.

(ii) The Rhine is the only Alpine stream among the rivers of Germany ; and the only stream, too, the basin of which is inhabited solely by German-speaking peoples. With the Danube, it at one time formed the boundary of the Roman Empire. Before 1870. part of its left bank was in the possession of the French; but, since the Franco-German war of 1870-71, both banks, from Basle to the mouth, are in the keeping of the German Empire. It flows by more great cities than any other river in the world. (a) The Bhine rises in two streams-the Vordershine and the Hintershine-on the eastern tianks of Mount St. Gothard, drawing its water from 400 glaciers and snow-fields. It flows northwards into Lake Constance, which serves its waters as a filter. Leaving this lake, it strikes westward, falls over a rock 70 ft. high, forming the Falls of Schaffhausen, and goes still westward till it reaches Basle; at this point ends the Upper Rhine. In this part of its course, it receives, on its left bank, the clear and rapid waters of the Aar, which have been filtered through four different lakes, --(b) At Basle, it takes a sudden bend to the north, right under the balcony of the "Hotel of the Three Kings," and flows through a long and narrow plain, which is walled in by the Vosges and the Black Forest, and is known as the Plain of the Middle Rhine. In this part of its course the river receives, on its right bank, the Neekar and the Main. At Mains (which receives its name from the Main) it strikes against the base of the Taunus, and suddenly turns to the west, striking north again at Bingen. From Bingen to Bonn, it saws its way by a long and narrow corridor through the Rhine-Highland; and this part of its course is the most beautiful and picturesque,-below high mountains, past lovely side-valleys, steep cliffs, romantic crags, terraced sunny vineyards, noble heights crowned with ruined castles, crowned also with castles that are inhabited. In spite of the extreme narrowness of its banks, on this part of its course, a railway runs on either side of the river. Here, too, it receives many tributaries from long sidevalleys between the mountain-ranges, the best-known of which are the Ahr and the Moselle, both on the left bank,-(c) The Lower Rhine flows through the Rhenish Lowland or North German Plain, from Bonn to its mouth on the North Sea. Below Cologne is is a sluggish winding stream, which receives no important tributaries on its left bank, but on the right several-among which the best-known are the slow-winding Ruhr and the Lippé. At Nimeguen, the Rhine once more takes a westerly direction, which it keeps till it reaches the sea. About 100 miles of its course lies through Holland. In this lowest section of its course, it divides into several arms, which intermingle with two other rivers, the Dutch Yseel and the Maas of Holland, Belgium, and France-in such a way that even pilots hardly know which river they are on. With these streams it forms a mighty delta, which constitutes much of the wealth of Holland .- It is

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navigable for steamers the whole year round as far as Mannheim. It is 800 miles in length, and drains an area 11 times the size of England.

(iii) The Canals of the Rhine.— By means of canals, the Rhine is connected with the Rhone and Saone; with the Scheldt, the Meuse (or Mass), and the Danube. The Rhine-Rhone Canal goes through the celebrated "Burgundian Gate"—a depression between the Jura and the Vorges.

(iv) The Rhine receives 12,000 tributaries; but very few are navigable. A French writer says: "A history of the Rhine would be a history of the western half of Europe. The Germans love it like children, and call it 'Father Rhine.' The Rhine is as rapid as the arrowy Rhone, as broad as the Loire, as hemmed in as the Meuse, as tortuous as the Seine, as clear and green as the Somme, as historic as the Tiber, as regal as the Danube, as mysterious as the Nile, as full of legendary story and historic associations as the Ganges."

20. The Rhine and the Danube : a Comparison.—There are certain interesting points of comparison between these two rivers.

The Rhine

- 1. Flows at right angles to the mountain-ranges it breaks through.
- 2. Flows from south to north.
- 3. Is almost solely a German river.
- 4. The Dutch and Germans guard and take care of the lower parts of the Rhine,

The Danube

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- Flows mostly at right angles to the mountain-ranges that seem to bar its way.
- 2. Flows from west to east.
- 8. Is a cosmopolitan stream.
- The Commission which has charge of the Mouths of the Danube has representatives from all European nations.

21. The Lakes of Europe.—As the rivers of Europe have their chief sources in the highlands of the south-west, and in the low plain of the north-east, so is it with the lakes. The Baltic forms the centre of a mighty ring of lowland lakes, the outflowing streams of which run into it. The Western Alps form another great lake-centre; but the rivers which flow from these run in all directions. The lakes of the north-east are in general shallow, with low shores; those of the south-west are deep basins, lying in longitudinal valleys of the great Alpine system, and surrounded by the grandest and loveliest scenery. The two largest lowland lakes are Ladoga and Onega; the two largest mountain-lakes are, on the north of the Alps, Geneva and Constance, on the south, Garda and Maggiore.

(1) Ladega is rather more than four times the size of Norfolk. Onega is more than half the size of Ladoga. Both discharge by the Neva into the Baltic. Saima is the largest of the countless lakes on the Finnish plateau.

(ii) Geneva (which lies both in France and Switzerland) is nearly as large as Middlesex. It is the filter for the Rhone. Lake Constance is rather larger than Rutlandshire; Garda is a little smaller. Maggiore is a little more than half the size of Garda.

(iii) The lakes in the Scottish Highlands—Loch Lomond, Loch Katrine, etc.—nave an Alpine character. The largest is Loch Lomond, which is about one-third the size of Maggiore.—Lough Meagh (in Ireland), which is a little larger than Lake Garda, has the character of a steppe-lake.

(iv) European Lakes : a Contrast.—The north-east and the south-west are the chief lake-regions of Europe ; and the characteristics of the two groups stand in singular contrast.

South-West Lakes.

- 1. They lie in a mountain land, among the highest mountains in Europe.
- 2. They are small.
- 3. They have high, steep, and rocky shores.
- 4. They are deep.
- 5. They are surrounded by the most varied and beautiful scenery.

North-East Lakes.

- 1. They lie in a low land-nearly the lowest part of Europe.
- 2. The Russian lakes are large.
- 8. The shores of these lakes are low, flat, of sand or of clay.
- 4. These are shallow, when compared with their size.
- 5. The surroundings of the Russian lakes are dreary and monotonous in the extreme.

22. Climate (1).—There are six important facts on which we must fix our attention, when we are considering the climate of Europe. (i) Most of its land is within the North Temperate Zone—and also in the northern or colder half. (ii) Its most southerly points are 9° of latitude away from the Tropic of Cancer. (iii) It lies back to back with 5000 miles of land-surface in Asia. (iv) The west and south is surrounded by seas (some of which pierce far into the land), among which the Atlantic Ocean is the greatest storehouse of moisture and warmth. (v) The prevalent winds on the western half of the continent are south-west, and from the Atlantic : they blow two days out

of every three. (vi) There are no transverse mountain-ranges to stop the progress of these south-west winds.

In North America, the high transverse—or almost transverse—ranges in the west keep much of the moisture from the table-lands of the interior.

23. Climate (2).—From these facts we may safely draw the following conclusions: (i) There are no violent contrasts of temperature; the sea-air everywhere reduces and softens extremes. (ii) Europe is considerably warmer than any other continent in the same or a similar latitude. (iii) The temperature falls as we go from south to north; but much more as we go from west to east. (iv) Regular and plenteous rains fall upon the larger part of Europe. (v) There are no deserts in this continent.—To sum up: the characteristic of Europe is a happy mixture of the continental and the oceanic climate.

(i) The Guif-Stream is, as it were, an immense warming-pan at the feet of Great Britain and Norway. The winds which blow from it raise the temperature everywhere in winter. Hence the difference between the winter and the summer temperatures becomes always greater as we go east. Thus, at Greenwich, the difference between the heat of January and of July is only 23° ; at Saratov, in East Russia, but in the same latitude, it is 57° . That is to say, Saratov has an extremely cold winter and a very hot summer.

(ii) The rain-fall also decreases from west to east. Thus, in Skye, in the west of Scotland, 103 in. of rain fall in the year; at Stockholm, only 16 in.

(iii) In the South of Europe, there are practically only two seasons: a hot dry summer and a rainy "winter."—In Middle Europe, there are four seasons; and most of the rain falls in summer. In the North; there are again only two seasons: a short very hot summer, and a long cold winter. Spring and Autumn are almost entirely crushed out. The heat of the summer is due to the fact that the sun is so long above the horizon, and the nights are so short, that the soil has not time to cool down. The long hot, almost tropical, summer of Mediterranean lands may be contrasted with the long cold winter of Northern Europe.

(iv) The number of rainy days increases as we go north; the quantity of rain decreases.

24. Vegetation.—Europe, as regards its flora, has been divided into four pretty clearly marked horizontal zones. (i) The Northern or Barren Zone lies to the north of 64° N. lat. (ii) The Grain and Forest Zone, from 64° to 48° N. lat. This zone embraces the British Isles, the northern half of Middle Europe, the south of Scandinavia, and the larger part of the East-European Plain. (iii) The Zone of the Vine, south of 48° N. lat. to the neighbourhood of the Mediterranean. (iv) The Zone of Evergreens, which stretches from the southern slopes of the Pyrenees, the Alps, and the Balkans to the different extremities of the Continent. To these four horizontal zones correspond four Zones of Vertical Vegetation: (i) The Alpine Region; (ii) the Region of the Lower Alps; (iii) the Region of the Vine; (iv) the Evergreen Region. Only Southern Europe possesses all the four vertical zones; Middle Europe has three; and Northern Europe only two.

(i) The Morthern Zone produces only birches and dwarf pines; mosses and berries; a little cats and barley : but no fruit.

(ii) The Grain and Forest Zone produces evergreen pine-woods; barley and oats in the north; rye in the middle. Oaks, beeches, etc., mix with pines and firs; deciduous trees prevail more and more as we go south, and with them, wheat and fruit.

(iii) The Vine is found as far north as 52° North lat. on the sunny terraces that look southwards on the banks of the Rhine. This zone belongs to the valleys and plains of the mountains of Middle Europe, and to the southern part of Eastern Europe. Chestnut-trees grow well; maize as well as wheat is cultivated; fruit-trees reach perfection; and evergreens begin to make their appearance.

(iv) The Evergreen Zone grows rice, in addition to wheat and maize; cypresses and olive-trees abound; the nobler fruits-figs, oranges, grapes, almonds, and others whose thriving depends on the mildness of the winter as well as on the high temperature of summer. In the farthest south, tropical plants begin to make their appearance-sugar-cane, cotton-trees, palms, and even bananas.

(v) Among the Vertical Zones, the Lower Alps are also called *Forcalps.*—The **Region of the Vine** is also that of the chestnut and the oak. In the **Evergreen Region** the most characteristic plant is the olive-tree.

(vi) The northern limit of wheat is the parallel of 57°; of barley 70°. Fruit-trees and deciduous trees go with wheat; pines and firs with barley.

(vii) The chief cereals of Europe are wheat and rye-the latter in Germany, Scandinavia, and Russia. Each feeds about one-third of the whole population.

25. Animals.—The almost universal spread of agriculture in Europe has very greatly diminished the number of wild animals. The wild boar and the brown bear are still found in the German forests, in the Alps, and the Pyrenees, and the wild ox is still extant in the great forests of Russia. The chamois and the ibex (or steinbock) roam over the higher parts of the Alps and Carpathians ; but the latter is

growing very rare. The beaver is also dying out.—On the other hand, Europe is rich in domestic animals,—of which the most important are the sheep and the horse.—It is also rich in singing birds.— Both the mountain-lakes and the inland seas are plentifully furnished with food-fishes. There are few insects and very few reptiles.

(i) Since the abolition of serfdom in Russis, the wolves have increased, and the annual battles between the herds of horses and the famished packs of wolves have become fiercer than ever.

(ii) The polar bear roams the coasts of the Arctic Ocean.

(iii) The beaver is still found in Russia, Foland, Sweden, Finland, and Lapland, and his name survives in Biberach (in Germany), Beverley (in Yorkshire) and many other names of towns.—The wild sheep is still hunted in Corsica and Sardinia.

(iv) The only kind of monkey found in Europe inhabits the Rock of Gibraltar; but it is more Asiatic than Africau in its character.

(v) The bearded vulture (or lammergeler) is the largest of European birds: it is found in the Alps, the Caucasus, and (perhaps) in the Pyrenees. The vulture is also seen in the high mountain-regions. The stork, the crane, and the heron are found in the north and west; the pelican, the spoonbill, and even the flamingo in the south.

(vi) The salmon is one of the most important fishes in the north and west; and the sturgeon in the south and east. The herring and cod are the chief food-fishes of the north; the tunny, which is the largest of edible fish, is found in the Mediterranean.

(vii) Bee-keeping is an extensive industry almost everywhere, especially in Russia; and the silkworm is reared in hot countries, —wherever the mulberry can be grown.

(viii) Lizards are common in warm countries; and the adder is well known in Central Europe. Land-tortoises are found in the south; the turtle is caught in the Mediterranean; and the chameleon is peculiar to Spain.

26. The Minerals of Europe.—Europe is richly furnished with mineral wealth; and it has, more especially, abundant stores of iron, coal, lead, copper, and salt. Great Britain, Germany, and Austria-Hungary are the three countries which contain the largest quantity of minerals. For most of the precious metals Europe is indebted to other continents.

(i) Irea and coal are found chiefly in Great Britain, the north-western countries of Europe, and Russia.

- (ii) Spain, Germany, and Great Britain yield most copper.
- (iii) Russia produces most gold.

(iv) Quickaliver comes almost wholly from Spain.

(v) Great Britain produces most tin.

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(vi) Germany produces most lead; then Spain; and next, Great Britain.

(vii) Germany produces by far the largest quantity of size; after it, Italy; and next, Belgium.

(viii) The most productive sait-mines are in the Carpathians, and in Cheshire and Worcestershire in England.

27. Population.—There are about 360,000,000 of people in Europe. The thinnest population is found in the north and east; the densest in the west, where the crowded populations of Belgium and England recall the teeming millions of India and China.

28. Baces.—The people of Europe belong almost wholly to two races—the Caucasian and the Mongolian. To the former nineteentwentieths of the population must be reckoned. Of Caucasians there are four varieties :—the Germanic race; the Romanic; the Slavonic; and the Celtic. The Slavonic peoples have this peculiarity, that they have made for themselves no path to the sea.

 (i) The Germanic or Testenic Base (110 millions) lives in the heart of Europe, on the western islands, and north-western peninsulas. There are three great divisions:
 (a) Germans (with Dutch, Frieslanders, Flemings, etc.): Scandinavians (Danes, Swedes and Norwegians); Kaglishmen (with Scotch, Irish, etc.).

(ii) The Romanie or Gracco-Latin Race (100 millions) inhabits the three southern peninsulas; the plains to the north of them—the Wallachian, Lombardian, and French Plains; and the mountain-lands between. To this race belong Italians, Spaniards, Portaguese, French (except in Brittany), and Wallachians.

(iii) The Slav or Slavonic Ease (100 millions) live chiefly in the east of Europe-between the Adriatic and the Black Sea on the south, and the Baltic and White Sea on the north. The numbers of this race are divided into three families: (a) the North-Western, which includes Bohemians (Czechs), Moravians and Poles; (b) the South-Western, which includes Greats, Servians, and Bulgarians; and (c) the Eastern, which consists mainly of Rumsians.

(iv) The Ositic Eace (47 millions) has been gradually edged off to the extreme west of Europe—the north-west of Scotland, the west of Ireland, the west of England, and the west of France. At one time it inhabited almost all the western half of Europe.

(v) The Slavs have, in general, left the coasts even of seas which they dominate to other races. Thus the Adriatic has been left to Italians; the Baltic to Germans; and the Black and White Seas to Tartar peoples.

(vi) There are nearly 6,000,000 Jews (belonging to the Semitic race), who are most numerous in Poland, Austria, Germany, and Roumania.

(vii) To the Mongolian Race in Europe belong three great families : the Finns ; the Magyars of Hungary (7 millions) and the Turks (5 millions). The Tartars are also a kind of mixed Mongols. To this variety belong the Samoisdes (who are idolaters) in the north-east; and the Kainucks on the south-eastern steppes.

29. The Languages of Europe.—The languages of Europe belong to the Indo-European or Aryan Family—with the exception of Turkish and other kindred languages. Like the races of Europe, they fall into four classes :—Teutonic; Bomanic; Slavonic; and Celtic.

(i) The chief members of the Tentonic family are English and High-German (English is a variety of Low-German). High German is the German spoken in the high lands or table-lands of Central Europe; Low-German, that spoken on the low plains. The Tentonic family has three chief varieties: High-German; Low-German; and Scandinavian, —Low-German embraces English, Dutch, and Flemish; Scandinavian embraces Icelandic, Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish.

(ii) Remanic or Gracoo-Latin languages are spoken in France, Spain, Portugal Italy, Greece, and a small part of southern Switzerland. (French, Spanish, and Italian are simply Latin with the inflexions "bitten off" or altered.)

(iii) Slavenic languages are spoken in Russia, Poland, Bohemia, Servia, and Bulgaria.

(iv) Geltie languages are spoken by a few peoples in the west of Europe. In Ireland, the Celtic tongue spoken is called Erwe; in Wales, Cymrie; in Scotland, Geelie; in Brittany, Brissmac; and, in the Isle of Man, Maax.

30. The Religions of Europe.—Europe is pre-eminently the Christian Continent. There are only a few Mahometans and Jews; and a very few heathens. The three chief forms of Christianity professed are the Roman Catholic; the Protestant; and the Greek.

(i) The Roman Catholics number 155 millions; and they are found chiefly in the south of Europe, among the Latin Races. But the smaller half of the German people, the Poles, the Bohemians, and the Magyars, profess this religion.

(ii) The Protestants number 85 millions; and this form is almost entirely restricted to the Germanic part of Europe.

(iii) The Greek Church numbers 80 millions, and includes chiefly Russians, Greeks, and Wallachians.

(iv) There are about 7 millions of Mahometans in Europe, mostly in Turkey; nearly 6 millions of Jews; and about one-fifth of a million of heathens (Kalmucks and Samoiedes).

CIVILISATION AND GOVERNMENTS OF EUROPE 21

31. Civilisation.—The lowest stage in civilisation—hunting and fishing—is found only among the Lapps; and even nomad life is restricted to about half a million of Kalmucks and Kirghis Tartars. The great variety of soil, shape, and build in the continent favours a great variety of occupation; and hence we find almost everywhere agriculture, pasturage, manufactures, commerce, and seafaring. These, too, are found in union with science and art in a degree unknown in any other quarter of the globe.

(i) A good test of an active civilisation is found in the amount of emigration. Great Britain stands first in this respect; and Germany comes next. There are about 365 millions of Europeans settled in other continents. Thus Europe may be said to possess half of all the land in the world, and half of all the inhabitants.

(ii) Another test is the Education of the young. Germany stands easily at the head of all the nations in this respect; for she has given most thought, labour, and money to this work. Great Britain comes next.

32. Governments.—Two ancient forms of government have entirely disappeared from Europe—the patriarchal and the despotic. The prevailing form is hereditary monarchy with constitutional checks; and, after that, the most common form is the republican.

(i) The Ottoman government of Turkey is despotic both in Asia and in Africa; but in Europe, to a very mild degree.

(ii) Great Britain has the most purely parliamentary constitution. Germany, Austria, and other countries have followed her in this.

(iii) Fraze is a republic. Switzerland is a federal republic, made up of cantons, as the United States are of states.

(iv) The six "Great Powers" of Europe are : Great Britain ; Germany ; Russis ; France ; Austria ; and Italy.

33. Political Divisions.—There are in Europe eighteen countries, varying in size, position, productiveness, race, language, and religion. The following is a list, with a few figures regarding them :—

COUNTRIES.	Area in Thousands of square miles.	Population in Millions.	Number of In- habitants per Bquare Mile.	Capitals.	LARGEST Towns.
1. Great Britain } and Ireland, }	130	40	333	London.	London.
2. France,	204	38	187	Paris.	Paris.
8. Belgium,	11	•	535	Brussels.	Brussels.
4. Holland,	12	4	350	The Hague.	Amsterdam.
5. Switzerland, .	16	3	300	Berne.	Geneva.
6. Germany,	212	50	236	Berlin.	Berlin.
7. Austria-Hungary,	961	40	170	Vienna.	Vienna.
8. Denmark,	14	3	145	Copenhagen.	Copenhagen.
9. Norway and Sweden,	294	7	24	Christiania and Stockholm.	Christiania and Stockholm.
10. Russia) (in Europe),	2000	88	42	St. Petersburg.	St. Petersburg.
11. Turkey (in Europe),	64	5	178	Constantinople.	Constantinople.
12. Montenegro,* .	31	ł	70	Cettinjé.	Podgoritza.
18. Servia, • .	19	2	98	Belgrade.	Belgrade.
14. Roumania,	4	•	125	Bucharest.	Bucharest.
15. Greece,	25	3	100	Athens.	Athens.
16. Italy,	110	30	260	Rome.	Naples.
17. Spain,	198	17	85	Madrid.	Madrid.
18. Portugal,	34	5	145	Lisbon.	Lisbon.

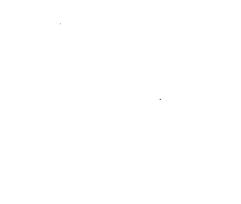
* Montenegro is a principality.

(i) Conclusions from the above Table. --Numerous comparisons between figures in the above table may be made; and many interesting conclusions drawn from them. Comparing, for example, the populousness of various countries, and taking Scandinavia as the unit, we shall find that--

- (a) Greece is 4 times as populous ;
- (b) Great Britain is 14 times as populous ;
- (c) Belgium about 23 times as populous ; and so on.

(ii) If, again, we try to people other countries on the scale of Belgium or Great Britain, we should come to some astonishing results. Taking Belgium as the standard, Russis, at this rate, ought to have a population of 1,080,000.000. And so on.





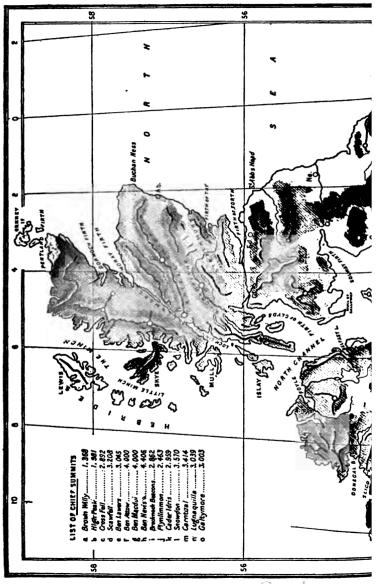
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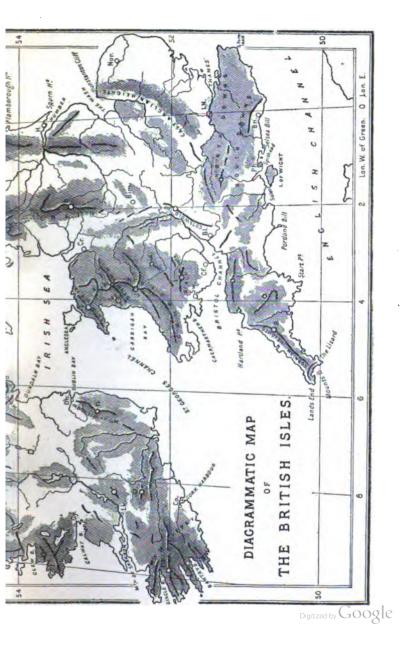
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THE BRITISH ISLES

THE BRITISH ISLES.

1. The British Isles.—The British Isles consist of two large and a great number of small islands which stand up from a submerged bank or submarine plateau, in the north-west of the continent of Europe. The islands exceed 500 in number. The two largest are Great Britain and Ireland. These two islands, but three kingdoms, form politically The United Kingdom.

(i) Great Britain is the largest island in Europe. It is 600 miles long, and has an area of nearly 90,000 square miles. It contains three countries—England, Wales, and Scotland.

(ii) The area of Ireland is 32,500 square miles—little more than one-third of the area of Great Britain. The two islands are separated by the Irish Sea, whose waters are much deeper than those of the German Ocean.

(iii) The crowns of England and Scotland were united in 1608; the parliaments in 1707. The parliaments of Ireland and Great Britain were united in 1801.

2. The Submarine Plateau.—The submarine plateau, of which the British Isles are prominent or outstanding parts, is a vast continuation of the European continent, and stretches from the corner of the Bay of Biscay to the north of the Shetland Isles. It drops, in a long steep cliff, to the deeper depths of the Atlantic Ocean, a little to the west of Ireland. Were the bed of the German Ocean raised only 200 ft., we could walk dry-shod from England to France. Thousands of years ago, the British Isles formed a part of the continent.

(i) The submarine telegraph wire, which connects Valentia in Ireland with America, was once broken by sawing against the edge of this submarine cliff.

(ii) Were St. Paul's Cathedral, which is \$70 ft. high, put down in the middle of the German Ocean, nearly half of it would stand clear out of the water.

(iii) The following are some of the proofs that Great Britain was once united to the continent: (a) The granite of Cornwall is the same as that of Brittany; (b) The chalk hills and cliffs of Kent are a prolongation of the chalk hills of northern France. (c) The Great Plain of England is a continuation of the Great Plain of Europe. (d) The rocks of Shetland and the north of Scotland are the same as those of Scandinavia. (c) Ireland and Britain were also at some former time one; for the hills in the northeest of Ireland are a continuation of those in the south-west of Scotland.

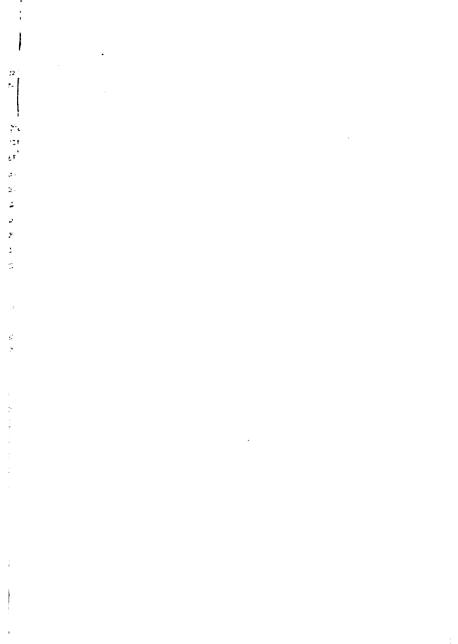
(iv) "To the seas which surround them the British Islands are indebted for the mildness of their climate, their security from foreign invasion, their commerce, and the wealth yielded by productive fisheries."

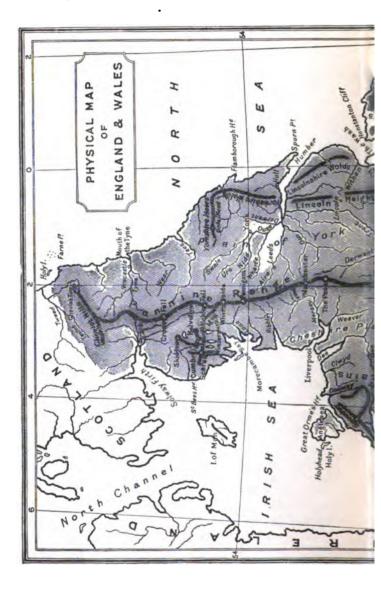
3. Geographical Position.—The British Isles occupy the best geographical position in the world. If we place one leg of a pair of compasses on Falmouth, and carry the other round half of the globe, we shall find that that half embraces almost all the land on the surface of the planet.—They have also a direct connection with all the oceans of the world: with the Atlantic; with the Indian by the Suez Canal; and (before long) with the Pacific by the Panamá Canal. Great Britain also lies directly opposite the most industrial, the most wealthy, and the most densely peopled plains of Europe.—And lastly, our isolation in and by the sea, has enabled us to work out our own destiny, with little or no interference from the powers and peoples of Europe.

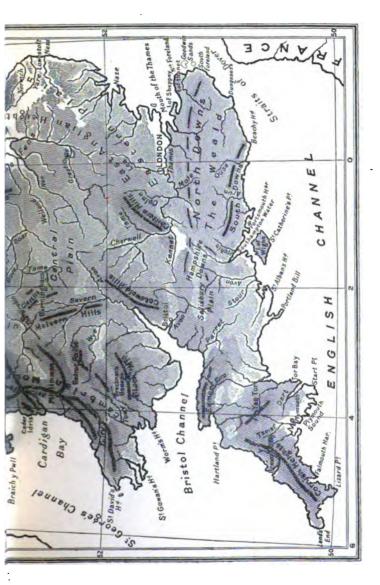
(i) If Great Britain had lain in the heart of a vast continent, like Thibet, its development would have been very different.

(ii) The currents of the North Atlantic lead to Great Britain; and the prevalent south-west winds, which blow two days out of three on an average, carry ships easily to it from the two Americas.

4. Commercial Position.—From the point of view of commerce, too, the position of these islands is no less happy. They lie off the middle of the European continent, and can trade as easily with Spain as with Scandinavia. They can, moreover, trade as easily with the East and the West, as with the North and the South. Their long and deeply indented coasts give opportunities for splendid ports—the eastern ports, such as London and Hull, trading with Europe and the East, the western, such as Liverpool and Glasgow, trading with the New World of the West. Again, the broadest and wealthiest part of England lies nearest to the Continent and to its greatest markets.—Lastly, our position on an island has forced a large part of our population to become sailors, to become the carriers of the world,—to found new colonies for an overflowing population, and thus to create new markets in other parts of the world.









ENGLAND AND WALES

ENGLAND AND WALES.

1. England and Wales.—England (with Wales) forms by far the larger part of the island of Great Britain. It is about two-thirds the size of the whole island.

2. Boundaries.—The following are the boundaries of England :--

- 1. M.-Scotland.
- 2. E.-The German Ocean.
- 3. S.-The English Channel.
- 4. W .- The Irish Sea, Wales, and the Atlantic.

(i) Wales has the sea on three of its sides : the Irish Sea on the north ; St. George's Channel on the west ; Bristol Channel on the south ; and England on the east,

(ii) The boundary line between England and Sootland runs from the Tweed to the Selway Firth, through the Cheviot Hills.

3. Size.—The area of England amounts to 50,823 square miles; that of Wales to 7363. The total area of both is, therefore, 58,186 square miles. The greatest length is 430 miles; and the greatest breadth, 370 miles.

(i) The greatest length is measured from the Lizard to Berwick.

(ii) The greatest breadth is measured from the Land's End to Lowestoft Ness.

4. Shape.—In shape, England is an irregular triangle, with its apex at Berwick-on-Tweed, and its base between the Land's End and Dover. Its coast line is very highly developed; and there are numerous openings for excellent harbours. So deeply hollowed out is the coast line by bays and inlets, so cut in and indented by long arms of the sea and estuaries, that no point in the interior is more than fifty miles from sea-water. The total length of the coast line is 1800 miles.

The only countries in the world with a longer coast line, compared with their size, are Greece, Norway, Ireland, Denmark, and Scotland.

5. The Western Coast.—The West Coast of England is high, mountainous, and rocky, with bold cliffs and projecting buttresses of old hard rock, standing out into the sea. It contains four deep and wide bays, separated by rocky headlands.

(1) These inlets are: the Solway Firth; Morecambe Bay; the Mouths of the Ribble, Merroy, and Dee; Cardigan Bay; Milford Haven; and the Bristol Channel (within which are also Carmarthen Bay, Swanses Bay, and Barnstaple Bay).

(ii) The chief rocky and lofty headlands are : St. Bees Head ; Point of Aire ; Great Orme's Head : Braich-y-puil : St. David's Head : Worms Head : Hartland Point : and Land's End.

- (i) The Solway Firth is noted for its salmon faheries.—Milford Haven is one of the grandest natural harbours in the world,—In the Bristol Channel the tide runkes up the estuary of the Severn as a "bore." At Chepstow it rises 45 ft. This is higher than in any other part of Europe.
- (ii) St. Bees Head is a continuation of the Cumberland Mountains. Great Orme's Head (673 ft.) is the loftiest point on the coast of England and Wales. Land's End is an abrupt mass of granite rock.

6. The Eastern Coast.—The East Coast has a regular line, broken only by the estuaries of rivers; and its shores, which consist chiefly of gravel, clay, and sand, are low and monotonous. It has four river openings, which increase in size as we go south.

(i) These openings or inlets are: The mouth of the Tees; the Humber; the Wash; and the mouth of the Thames.

(ii) The chief headlands are: Flamborough Head; Spurn Head; Hunstanton Point; Lowestoft Ness; the Name ; and the North Foreland.

- (i) The Humber is the settnary of the Yorkshire Ouss and the Trent; and is navigable for the largest ressels up to Hull.—The Wash is too shallow for navigation : it is uselss for shipping —The Mouth of the Thames is the most important harbour in Kngland.
- (ii) Fiamborough Head (the "Head of the Fiame Hill"—so called from the beacon-fires lighted on it) is the end of a series of white chalk cliffa.—Hunstanton Point is the end of the East Anglian Heighta.—Ness and Name are different forms of the word mose. We find the same word in Dumgeness, Calkness, and the Name in Norway. Lowestoft Ness is the most casterly point in England.

7. The Southern Coast.—The South Coast of England combines the peculiarities of the Eastern and the Western Coasts. That half which lies to the east of the Isle of Wight is a low clay shore, broken here and there by chalk cliffs; the half to the west is high and bold, composed of old and hard rocks. The two harbours behind the Isle of Wight are among the best in England.

(i) The chief inlets (which are small) are : Portsmouth Harbour and Southampton Water : Weymouth Bay : Terbay : Plymouth Sound : Palmouth Harbour : and Mount's Bay. (ii) The chief headlands are: the South Foreland; Dungeness; Beachy Head; Selses BUI; St. Albans Head; Portland Bill; Start Point; and the Lizard.

- (i) Portamouth Harbour is completely landlocked, and forms a magnificent port.—Plymouth Sound is protected by an Britläcial breakwater a mile long, and is one of the great naval stations of Britain.—Mount's Bay receives its name from St. Michael's Mount—a conical rock about 400 yards from the shore.
- (ii) Dungeness (—" Danger Ness") is a low clay spit.—Beachy Head is a chalk cliff.—Stort means foril; and we have the same word in rectatort. It is the " tail of England,"—Lizard Point (the most southerly in England) and Land's End (the most westerly) are two abrupt masses of volcanic rock.

8. Islands and Straits.—The larger islands of England lie off the west and south coasts. These are: the Isle of Man; Anglesea; and the Scilly Isles, in the west; the Isle of Wight, in the south. Off the coast of Northumberland lie Holy Island and the Farne Islands.—The most important straits are the Straits of Dover in the east; the Spithead and Solent—east and west of the Isle of Wight—in the south; and the Menai Straits—between Anglesea and the mainland—in the west.

(i) The smaller islands are: (a) East: Coquet; Sheppey (in the estuary of the Thames); and Thanst-the two last now joined with the mainland. (b) West: Walney (off the coast of Lancashire); Hely Island (next Angleses; but only an island at high tide); and Lundy Island (at the mouth of the Bristol Channel).

(ii) On the east coast, too, we have Yarmonth Roads and the Downs, where sailingships lie waiting for a fair wind.

- (1) The Isls of Man stands midway between the three countries. It is ruled by the "House of Keya." It has valuable lead mines. The highest point is Snac/ell (2004 ft.). The word Anglesca means "Angles Island." Exo or yo is a Norse word meaning 'sland ; and we flud it in Chelsea, Battersea, Jersey, Athelmey, etc.—The Solly Isles are a group of 145 islets, of which 6 are inhabited. They send early vegetables to London.—The Isle of Wight is called the "Gardin of England." It is one of the localiset places in the world.
- (ii) Roads are places in the sea where ships can rids in assist.—The Downs lie between the Goodwin Bands and the coast of Kent, and are the largest natural "harbour of refuge" in the world. Hundreds of reasels may be seen there at one time.
- (iii) The "Channes Lalands," Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Bark (Jersey is the largest) belong geographically to France; but have been in our hands since 1066. Alderney is celebrated for a very fine and beautiful breed of cows.

9. The Build of England.—The build of England and Wales is somewhat difficult to understand at first. The elevated regions lie mostly in the west; the low plains in the east. A line of mountains, called the Pennine Range (which is the backbone of England), starts from the Cheviot Hills, and runs due south as far as Derbyshire. From this county. England is almost entirely a plain, traversed by ranges of low hills, those in the south-the North Downs and the South Downs-being at right angles to the main axis of elevation. In the extreme west we find three sets of highlands rising up : the Cumbrian Group of Mountains ; the Welsh (or Cambrian) Mountains ; and the Devonian-Cornish Highlands. East and south of the Pennine Range is the Great Plain of England, --- a broad expanse which is in reality a continuation of the Great European Plain. West of the Pennine Range-between it and the Welsh Mountains-there is also a narrow plain, which stretches between the Irish Sea and the Bristol Channel. England-and-Wales is thus made up of (a) a long range; (b) a group of mountains; (c) the mountain-land of Wales; (d) a highland in the far south; (e) a long and broad plain on the east, and (f) a narrow plain on the west.

(i) The Watershed of England runs south, along the Pennine Range; goes still further south in a very irregular line, when—a little south of the Cotswold Hills—it deflects on the right to the North Foreland, and, on the left, to the Land's End. Thus it has the remarkable shape of a \top turned upside down : thus \bot .

(ii) The Eastern Slope of England is the broader and more gradual; hence its rivers are better fitted for navigation; and the plains in it are more fertile. The Western Slope is shorter and more rapid; and its climate is also much more rainy.

(iii) The plains of England, except in a few cases, are not flat, but have a gently rolling surface.

10. Mountain-Systems.—The mountains of England lie in four distinct groups: the Pennine Range; the Cumbrian Mountains; the Welsh (or Cambrian) Mountains; and the Highlands of Devon and Cornwall.

The CHEVIOT HILLS are also partly in Hingland. Cheviot Top (2676 ft.) is in Northumberland.

(i) The Fennine Range is really a large table-land (about 200 miles long), composed

of moors and masses of hills of an average height of from 1000 to 2000 ft. Orem Fell (2892 ft.)—Fell is derived from the Norse word "fjeld," which means hillside—is its culminating point. South of the Peak, in Derbyshire, the range dies down into the Central Plain of England. It forms nearly the boundary line between the six northern counties; and the traffic between England and Scotland runs to the west and to the east of this range. The Midland Railway crosses the head of it between Carlisle and Settle.

Other high peaks in it are Mickle Fell, Whernside, Ingleborough (-Flame Height), and Pen-y-gent (or Pennigant).

(ii) The Cumbrian Group lies west of the Pennine Chain, with which it is connected by a spur of high moorlands running out from Whernside. The mountains stand in three counties, Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancashire—in the lovely and picturesque district of "The Lakes," and near the coast of the Irish Sea. The highest peak is Scafell (3208 ft.), which is the loftiest mountain in England.

Other high peaks are Helvellyn, Skiddaw, Fairfield (-Far fell, or "Hill of sheep"), Saddle Back, Coniston Old Man, etc.

(iii) The Weish Mountains (or Cambrian System) lie between the Valleys of the Dee and Severn and the Irish Sea. They contain many mountain-ranges, of which the Snowdon Range and the Finlimmon Range are the best known. The whole district is remarkable for "the great beauty of its glens and mountain-gorges, and the abundance of its tarms and running waters." The highest peak is Snowdon (3570 ft.), which is the highest mountain in South Britain.

Other high peaks are Cader Idris (=Chair of Arthur or " Arthur's Seat"), Pilnlimmon, and Brecknock Beacon.

(iv) The Highlands of Devon and Cornwall lie in the great south-western peninsula of England. They are separated from the low uplands of Southern England by the Valley of the Parret and the Vale of Taunton. Yes Tor (2040 ft.) on Dartmoor, is the highest point in Devonshire; Brown Willy (1368 ft.) is the highest peak in Cornwall.

Other high points are Cawsand Beacon on Dartmoor ; and Dunkerry Beacon on Exmoor (but in Somerset).

(v) There are in England many other ranges of hills which it is useful for us to know something about. Almost all are below a thousand feet above the sea-level. They are of two kinds: Oolitic or Limestone Ranges and Chaik Ranges. The chief Oolitic Range which runs from near Bristol to the Humber (and reappears in Yorkshire), forms the eastern boundary of the manufacturing districts. To the west and northwest of it, lie all the manufacturing centres of England; to the east and south-east,

OOLITIC]	Ran	0 E 8,			POSITION.
Cotswolds,	•	•	•	•	Gloucestershire—They part the Severn and the Thames Valley.
Edge Hills,	•	•	•	•	Warwickshire, on the borders of Oxford- shire.
Northampton Uplands,	,			•	Northamptonshire.
Lincolnshire Wolds,				•	In the west of Lincolnshire.
Yorkshire Wolds,		•			Near Flamborough Head.
Yorkshire Moors,	•	•	•	•	North of Yorkshire, west of Whitby.
CHALK I	łan	GES.			POSITION.
					Doraetshire.
Dorset Heights, .	•	•	•	•	Derbewanne.
Balisbury Plain, .					Wiltshire.
	•	•	•		
Salisbury Plain, .	•	•	•	•	Wiltshire.
Salisbury Plain, . Mariborough Downs,		•		• • •	Wiltshire. Wiltshire.
Salisbury Plain, . Mariborough Downs, Chiltern Hills, .		• • •	• • •		Wiltshire. Wiltshire. Oxfordshire.
Salisbury Flain, . Mariborough Downs, Okiltern Hills, . Kast Anglian Heights,		• • •			Wiltshire. Wiltshire. Oxfordshire. From the Chiltern Hills to the Wash.
Salisbury Flain, . Marlborough Downs, Chiltern Hills, . East Anglian Heights, Gog Magog Bills, .		• • • •		• • • •	Wiltshire. Wiltshire. Oxfordshire. From the Chiltern Hills to the Wash. Cambridgeshire.
Salisbury Flain, . Mariborough Downs, Chiltern Hills, . East Anglian Heights, Gog Magog Hills, . Hampshire Downs,		• • • •	• • • •	• • • •	Wiltshire. Wiltshire. Oxfordshire. From the Chiltern Hills to the Wash. Cambridgeshire. Hampshire.

districts that are (with the single exception of London) entirely agricultural and pastoral. They may be best set forth in a tabular form :--

(i) The word collific means app-doned, from the Greek don, an egg, and likke, a stone. The limestone of which these ranges are composed is made up of multitudes of little round egg-like particles. (ii) The Cotawolds have their steep encarpment towards the Bevarn. (iii) The Yorkshire Moors are the wildest part of Eastern Bagtand. (iv) The North and South Downs branch off, forkwise, from the Hampshire Downs. (v) The Mendip Hills, in Somerset, are famous for their lead mines. (vi) Other well-known hills are the Clee Hills, in Shropshire; the Wrekin, a solitary cone, also in Shropshire; the Malvern Hills, in Somerset.

11. Plateaus.—England does not possess table-lands like those of France or Southern Germany, still less like those of Spain or Arabia. But parts of the Pennine Range, Dartmoor and Exmoor in Devonshire, are all real table-lands.

(i) Where Mickle Fell, Whernside, and Ingleborough rise up, the Fennine Range is a table-land 40 miles wide.

(ii) Dartmoor is a table-land of moor between 1000 and 2000 ft. high. Exmoor is a treeless table-land cleft by wooded ravines. Its elevation is about 1000 ft.

12. Plains.—England may be fairly described as, on the whole, a country of low plains, two-thirds of its area being lowland. The

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three largest plains are: the Eastern Plain; the Central Plain; and the Western Plain.

(i) The Eastern Plain is again sub-divided into the Plain of York; the Fen District; and the Plain of the three Eastern Counties. The Plain of York is the lower valley of the Yorkshire Ouse, and is extremely level. The Fen District is the most low-lying region in England. It was once a district of marsh, bog, and fen; but most of it has been drained, and is now good corn-land. The Eastern Counties are rolling country, which becomes more and more level as we go to the south, where it ends in the wide clay flats of Essex.

(ii) The Central or Midland Plain is a low plateau, which includes most of Leicester, Derby, Stafford, and Warwickshire.

(iii) The Western Plain extends from the base of the Westmoreland Hills on to the basin of the Severn, from which it is separated only by a low watershed.

(iv) The other smaller plains are: the **Flain of Oarisis**, round the head of the Solway Firth; the Flain of the Severn; the **Hampshire Flain**, between the chalk hills of Dorset, Hampshire, and Sussex, and the sea; the Weald of Sumex, between the North and the South Downs.

13. Rivers.—The higher mountains of England rise in the west of the country ; and, though the watershed of a country does not always coincide with the line of highest elevation, yet the watershed of England is much nearer to the west than to the east coast. Hence the long and gentle slope of the country is that towards the North Sea ; the short and abrupt slope goes down to the Irish Sea. There is also a short slope to the south. These three slopes naturally divide the rivers of England into three classes : the Eastern, the Western, and the Southern Rivers. The largest rivers are the Eastern—those which belong to the North Sea drainage.

(i) The watershed between the basins of the Mersey and the Trent is 25 miles from the tidal waters of the Mersey, and five times that distance from the tidal waters of the Humber.

(ii) As there is much more rain on the western slopes of England, the western rivers contribute much more water to the sea than the Eastern.

14. The Eastern Rivers.—The chief rivers of the Eastern slope are the Tyne, the Wear, the Humber, and the Thames. They are all that great commercial rivers ought to be—slow in current; with broad mouths; with high tides; and without bars.

(i) The Type (78 miles), though so short, is a great commercial and industrial

river. It rises in two streams-the North Type from the Cheviots, the South Type from Crossfell. They unite a little above Hexham; and then the united stream flows eastwards between Newcastle and Gateshead, and across the great coal-field of Northumberland. It falls into the sea between Tynemouth and South Shields.

(ii) The Wear (65 miles) is a great shipping river. The busy port of Sunderland stands at its mouth.

(iii) The Humber is the great sea-river or estuary into which the Yorkshire Ouse from the north, and the Trent from the south, empty their waters. The Ouse (150 miles) is made up of five tributaries from the west, one from the south, and one from the east. The five from the west, spread out "like the five fingers of a hand." are the Swale, the Ure, the Nidd, the Wharfe, and the Aire (with the Calder), which rise in lonely valleys along the Pennine Chain. The Derwent, the eastern tributary, comes from the Yorkshire Wolds. The Ouse flows through the Vale of York, which is about 50 miles wide, and is the largest vale in England. There is also no river in England which has so many large and wealthy towns in its basin as the Yorkshire Ouse,-The Trent (180 miles) rises in the southern end of the Pennine Chain. It flows across the Staffordshire coal-field, through the Central Plain, and then through the Eastern



RIVER HUMBER.

Plain into the Humber. Its chief tributaries are the Derwent, Soar, Tame, Dove, and Sow. The Trent itself is navigable for barges up to the brewing town of Burton-on-Trent. The Trent basin is a very industrial district; it contains pottery-works, ironworks, coalmines, breweries, and many kinds of factories.-The

basin of the Humber is the largest in England. It contains 9550 square milesthat is, about one-sixth of the whole country.

(iv) The Thames (215 miles), though much the most important, is only the second longest river in England. It is the water-way across southern, as the Trent is the water-way across central, England. It rises in the Cotswold Hills, about three miles from Cheltenham, and only nine miles from the tidal waters of the Severn. The two rivers are connected by a canal. Its chief tributaries are; on the right, the Kennet, Wey, Mole, Darent, and Medway; on the left, the Cherwell, Thame, Colne, Brent, Lea, and Roding. It is navigable for the largest ships that float to near London Bridge, and for small boats to Lechlade, about 160 miles from the sea. On its banks stand many lovely cities and towns-Oxford, Windsor, Richmond, etc.

The smaller rivers of the Eastern Slope are ; the TEES, which forms the boundary between Durham and Yorkshire .- The WITHAM, WELLAND, NEN, and GREAT OUSE, which all enter the WASH by slow and winding courses.-The YARE (which enters the sea at Yarmouth), the ORWELL, the STOVE of Emer, the COLNE (on which Colchester stands), and the CHELMER, all rise in the East Anglian Heights and fall into the North Sea .- The Stours of Kent rises in the Wealden Heights and falls into the Straits of Dover.

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15. The Western Rivers.—The three most important rivers of the western slope are the Mersey, the Bristol Avon, and the Severn.

(1) The Marsey (68 miles) is a very short and insignificant stream; but its broad and deep estuary (the "Liverpool Channel") is one of the greatest harbours in the world. Its two main tributaries are the Irwell (on which Manchester stands), and the Weaver, which flows through the "salt-cellar" of Cheshire.—"The Mersey is the geographical centre of Great Britain and Ireland."

(ii) The Bristol Aven (78 miles), which is also called the Lower Avon, is only navigable when the tide is full.

(iii) The Severa (240 miles) rises on the slope of the Plinlimmon Range, and falls into the Bristol Channel. The tide rises higher in the Severn than in any other harbour in Europe. It is navigable as far as Welshpool (in Montgomery); and steamers go up to Gloucester. Its chief tributaries are the Teme and the Upper (or Stratford) Avon. The "bore" of the Severn—the rushing up of the foam-created spring-tide wave is well known.

The smaller rivers of the Western Slope are : the Epgs, which flows from Crossfell, through a most lovely and well-wooded valley, into the Solway below Carilals ; the Lorg, which flows into the south of Morecambe Bay, after passing Lancaster (-Lancaster); the Rimars, on which " Proud Preston " stands ; the Dgr (on which Chester stands), which flows through Bala Lake, and enters the Iriah See by a Channel now largely allted up ; and the lovely winding Wrg, which rises near the Severn on Pilnlimmon, and enters its estuary. The USS, Tarr, Towr, and Tarr, are fanous Weish rivers.

16. The Southern Rivers.—The rivers which fall down the southern slope of England are short, shallow, and of little value to commerce. The most important is the **Tamar**: and next to it come the **Exe** and the **Avon** of Salisbury.

(i) The Tamar (45 miles) rises in the northern slopes of Dartmoor, forms the boundary between Devon and Cornwall, and falls into Plymouth Sound.

(ii) The Exe (55 miles) rises in Exmoor, flows right across the peninsuls, past Exeter (=Execaster), and enters the English Channel at Exmouth.

(iii) The Avon of Salisbury flows across Salisbury Plain, and enters the sea at Christchurch.

17. Lakes.—The Lakes of England lie almost wholly in the "Lake District"—a mountainous region in the north-west of the country. All of them, seven in number, lie round the central mountain-mass of Helvellyn, from which they radiate like the spokes of a wheel. They

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The still smaller rivers of the Southern Slope are : the FAL (on which Falmouth stands) ; the Dart (with Dartmouth) ; the Truew (with Teignmouth) ; the Srout of Dorset ; the Ircmrs (which flows into Southempton Water) ; the AROW (on which Arundel stands) ; the SUSERX OURs ; and the Rorwrs, which forms the boundary between Susers and Kent.

are : Windermere ; Ulleswater ; Thirlmere ; Derwentwater ; Buttermere ; Wastwater ; and Coniston Water.

(i) Windermere (14 miles long), which points to the south, is the longest, largest, and most beautiful. It is called the "Queen of the Lakes." It lies between Lancashire and Westmoreland. Its greatest depth is 40 fathoms. The northern end is surrounded by some of the grandest and most picturesque peaks and masses of the Lake District. It sends the river Leven into Morecambe Bay.

(ii) Ulleswater, between Westmoreland and Cumberland, is the second largest of the lakes. At its head towers Helvellyn.

(iii) Derwentwater is also a lovely lake, and lies at the foot of Skiddaw.

(iv) Thirmere, a beautiful and very clear lake, supplies Manchester with drinking water.—Coniston Water lies at the foot of Coniston Old Man. Wastwater lies highest up among the mountains, and is also the deepest of all the lakes.

(v) Grammere and Eydal Water are lovely lakes, imperishably connected with our English Literature. The names of Wordsworth, Coleridge, Southey, De Quincey, Hartley Coleridge, and others, are linked with these scenes.

(vi) Lake Bala is a beautiful lake in North Wales. It is the largest in the country; and the Dee flows out of it.

18. Minerals.—The most important minerals found in England are coal and iron; and these are the chief sources of the wealth of the



THE COAL-FIELDS OF ENGLAND.

country. Copper, lead, sinc, and tin; salt, marble, building-stone, and slate are also found in considerable quantities. A line from Exmouth to the Wash marks the southern boundary of the Mineral Districts.

(i) The chief coal-fields of England are: (1) the Northumberland and Durham Coal-field, which lies between Warkworth and Darlington; (2) the Yorkahire and Derbyshire Coal-field, between Leeds and Derby; (3) the Lancashire Coal-field, between the Bibble and the Mersey; (4) the North Stafford-

shire Coal-field, in the Potteries District; (5) the South Staffordshire Coal-field, in the

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Wolverhampton Iron District; (6) the Bristel Coal-field; and (7) the South Wales Coal-field, between Pontypool (in Monmouth) and St. Bride's Bay. The first-mentioned is the largest and richest. Nearly 140 million tons of coal were raised in England and We les in 1887; and the value of this total is nearly £34,000,000.

(ii) England is the greatest mining country in the world. Her "Black Indies" have been a greater source of wealth to her than the possession of Mexico or of California. Her coal-fields have an area of over 12,000 square miles—twice the size of Yorkshire.

(iii) Irea is found in many of the coal-fields, especially in those of Staffordshire and Yorkshire, and to a smaller extent in Wales. The Cleveland District, south of the Tees, produces excellent iron. Brown iron-ore is found in Liscoinshire and Northamptonshire; and red iron-ore in the Furness District, in the north-west of Lancashire, near the Lakes. The annual value of the iron is not one-tenth that of the coal.

(iv) Lead and size are mined in Cumberland and Westmoreland; in Durham and Yorkshire; in Shropshire and Wales; and in the rocks of the Isle of Man.

(v) Gepper is found chiefly in Cornwall and Devon; tin, entirely in these two counties. The copper from Spain and South America has so lowered the price, that most of the Cornish mines have been abandoned.

(vi) Sait is found chiefly in Cheshire in the valley of the Weaver—"the salt-cellar of England." It is obtained both by mining and by pumping up the brine. There are also thick beds of rock-salt in Worcestershire and Durham.

(vii) Building-stone is found chiefly in the northern counties of England. But the Isle of Portland, in Dorset, produces the best freestone for building.

(viii) Slate is extensively quarried in Wales (where the grey-green kind, which commands the highest price, is produced), and in Cumberland and Westmoreland.

19. Climate.—England stands in the northern part of the Temperate Zone; it has therefore a cool-temperate climate. It stands in the sea; and has therefore an insular climate—that is, one which is both mild and moist. The west coast is, on the whole, warmer and moister than the east coast. The temperature decreases with the latitude in summer; but, in winter, many districts in the north are quite as warm as London. It is the presence of the Gulf Stream that gives us our warmer climate, and also most of our supplies of rain.

(i) Coordinans is a strong characteristic of the English climate. It may rain any day; it sometimes rains every day.

(ii) If latitude were the sole, or even the chief, determining cause of climate, we should have the cold of Labrador, which lies between 50° and 60°; and London would have the winter of Nain in Labrador.

(iii) The mean temperature of London is the same as that of Kieff (in the south of Russia); but Kieff has a very much colder winter and a much hotter summer, and thus the two extremes come to the same average as the two means.

(iv) The isotherm of January (29° Fahrenheit), goes round the whole island; and it is as warm-sometimes warmer-on the Moray Firth as it is in Kent or Surrey.

(v) The rainlest county is **Cumberland**; the driest, **Cambridge**. At Seathwaite, in the Cumbrian Group, as much as 180 inches or 15 ft. of rain has been known to fall in a year; at Cambridge, the average is 20 in.

(vi) The fig and the grape ripen in the open air in the south of England; the myrtle and arbutus can stand the winter of Devonshire and the Isle of Wight.

(vii) The Atlantic coasts are kept comparatively cool in summer, and warm in winter, by the south-west breezes which blow, two days out of every three, from the Gulf Stream. The south-east of England, being close to the Continent, partakes more of continental extremes; it is two or three degrees warmer in summer, and colder in winter, than the west.

(viii) "The westerly winds, which prependerate throughout the year, and more especially in summer and autumn, carry with them the warmth and the moisture of the Atlantic."

20. Vegetation.—England belongs to the belt of deciduous trees; Scotland to the belt of pine-woods. The only two native trees that still exist in England are the yew and the Scotch fir; all the others have been introduced by man. The oak, beech, and elm are common in most parts of England; the ash, birch, chestnut, hazel, aspen, poplar, willow, and maple, are also well-known trees. The hawthorn hedge thrives in our moderate climate, and is a familiar characteristic of our landscape. On the whole, the vegetation is that of the same latitude on the Continent; only England lies beyond the limit of the vine.

(i) The English oak is the typical tree. It is a striking feature in the landscape; it used to be the naval defence of our shores: and it is said to represent the English character.

(ii) The forests still existing in England are: the New Forest in Hampshire; the Dean Forest in Gloucestershire; Windsor Forest in Berks; and Sherwood Forest in Notts.

(iii) The limit of the vine on the Continent is 52"—half a degree north of London. But the climate of England has been gradually cooling down during the last few hundred years. At Hatfield (Lord Salisbury's house), near London, the gardens used (in the 17th century) to grow 1400 standard vines in the open air; there is now not one. Many towns in the south have the word "Vineyard" as the name of a suburb; but no vines grow there now (except on a southern wall or under glass).

21. Animals.—The destruction of the forests and the spread of tillage have led to the disappearance of most of our wild animals. The bear, wolf, boar, and beaver of Old England are no longer to be

seen. The wild animals are not large: the best known are the badger, the otter, the rabbit, the squirrel, the hedgehog, and the weasel. The deer, the hare, and the fox would probably be rooted out quickly, if they were not preserved. The seal sometimes visits our northern shores. The domestic animals are among the best and strongest of their kind.

(i) The brown bear had disappeared from England before the Norman Conquest.

(ii) The last wolf is said to have been killed in 1710.

(iii) The beaver is said to have become extinct about the time of Richard 1. (1157-99). It is now rare even in Central Europe.

(iv) The fex is still truly wild in the north of England.

22. Inhabitants.—The people of England—Angles, Engles, or English—belong to the Tentonic stock of the Aryan or Indo-European family; the people of Wales and Cornwall to the Celtic. In the east there is much Scandinavian blood; in the west, a good deal of Celtic. With the Conquest, a strong strain of Norman-French was introduced into the country. In spite of all these mixtures, the Englishman is and remains a Northern Teuton.

The ar in Aryan is the same as the ar in grable. Hence "Aryan " means originally " the tilling race."

(i) The English belong to the Low-German branch of the Teutonic race. Low Germany is that part which lies north of the southern table-lands; and along the lower courses of the rivers.

(ii) The Weish belong to the Cymric branch of the Celtic race. The Celts were gradually and surely edged off to the west—to Wales, Cornwall, etc.—by the steady pressure of the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes.

(iii) "The Danish element is strongly represented in the fifteen counties, from Hertford to Durham, which was formerly known as the district of the *Danslagh*."

23. Fopulation and Populousness.—The population of England and Wales amounted (in 1889) to nearly 30,000,000; of which not quite two millions belong to Wales. This gives an average of nearly 500 persons to each square mile; and England is thus the most densely populated country in Europe, with the exception of Saxony and Belgium. The prevailing tendency at present is to the rapid increase of the urban population.

(i) In 1801, the population was under 9,000,000; in 1851, it had doubled itself; and in 1900, it will probably have doubled itself again.

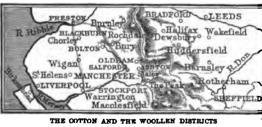
(ii) More than three-fifths of the people live in towns. London alone contains more than one-sixth of the whole population.

(iii) The two most thickly peopled towns are Liverpool and Manchester.

24. Industries.-England is a commercial and manufacturing nation : agriculture has been for the last hundred years gradually receding into the background. The change from an agricultural condition to one of trade and manufactures is due to the discovery of the vast supplies of coal, and to the application of coal to the cheap production of steam-power. This has made England the workshop and market of the world, and her ships the ocean-carriers for herself and many other nations.

25. Manufactures.—The two greatest manufactures of England are textiles and hardwares. The three staples are cotton ; wool ; and Cotton is the most important of all the English manufactures. iron.

(i) The annual value of the textiles produced in the United Kingdom amounts to nearly £200,000,000; of the hardware to about £130,000,000. This is equivalent to about £10 for each inhabitant : in Russia, manufactures amount to only 16s. per head.



(ii) South Lancashire is the chief seat of the cotton manufacture.

Liverpool, the cotton port. In the square formed by Preston and Burnley, Liverpool and Manchester, stand many

Manchester is the cotton capital;

OF ENGLAND.

towns all more or less engaged in cotton-spin-

ning and cotton-weaving. "The English cotton-mills contain as many spindles and power-looms as those of all the rest of the world combined." The other towns engaged in the cotton-manufacture are Preston, Burnley, Blackburn, Bolton, Bury, Ashton, Stockport, Oldham, and many smaller ones.

(iii) The West Elding of Yorkshire is the chief seat of the weellen manufacture. The two principal centres are Loods and Bradford. The other towns engaged in it are Halifaz, Huddersfield, Wakefield, Dewsbury, Barnsley, etc.

(iv) South Staffordshire, with portions of the three counties which touch it on the south, is the chief seat of the iron manufacture. Rirmingham is its centre and capital. —Sheffield produces most and the best cutlery; and there are also large manufactures both of iron and steel at Newcastle and at Middlesborough, in the Cleveland District.

The minor industries of England are almost countiess. Some of them are : POTTERT, in North Staffordabire; SILE, in Manchester, Derby and Coventry ; HORLENT and LACE in Leicester ; LACE in Nottingham ; LEEEN in Loeds ; paper, glass, watches, clocks, etc., in many other towns.

26. Commerce. —Great Britain holds the first place among the nations for manufactures; and she also holds this position with regard to commerce. Her exports and imports are much greater than those of any other country; and the annual grand total of both amounts to nearly $\pounds 600,000,000$. The six chief articles of import are : grain; raw

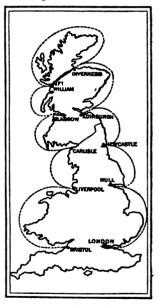
cotton; wool; sugar; metals; and timber. The six chief articles of export are: cotton goods; woollens; iron in all forms; machinery; coal; and linen manufactures.

(i) "The British Isles are rich in deep and spacious harbours." It is also worth noticing that these harbours lie almost opposite each other; and that the land at these points contracts almost to the narrowness of an isthmus.

(ii) "England, besides, enjoys the advantage of higher tides than most other countries, which enables vessels of considerable burden to penetrate almost to the heart of the country."

(iii) "The English have become the oceancarriers of the entire world."

(iv) "Back to England as to a common fountainhead flows the might, the fulness, and the wealth, of her thousandfold relations with the world."-RITTER.



GREAT BRITAIN.

27. Great Cities.—England is the home of great cities and large towns. Her ancient agricultural wealth, her modern mineral wealth, her colossal industries and unresting enterprise, her world-wide commerce,—all have contributed to build great cities and to bring workers

together in immense numbers. There are in England 25 towns with a population of over 100,000 inhabitants. Of these, 11 contain more than 200,000; and of these again, four contain more than 400,000. By far the largest city in England is the capital; and LONDON is not only the largest city in England, it is by far the largest on the face of the globe. The population of London is now over 5,000,000.

LONDON (5200) is the largest, wealthiest, and most populous city in the world. It stands in four counties-Middlesex, Surrey, Kent, and Essex. It is a province of houses-a forest of human beings. It is a great agricultural market, a cluster of large manufacturing towns, an enormous railway centre, a great maritime port, the central city of commerce for the entire globe, the banking-city (the money market) of the whole commercial world, the legal capital of England, and a great pleasurecity in addition to all these. All the roads and railways of England converge upon it; all the water-ways of the globe-all the great lines of navigation lead to it; it stands opposite Europe; but its trade-dealings are with Asia, Africa, the two Americas, as well as with the continent to which it belongs. It is about fifteen miles long by ten broad. A house rises out of the ground every hour of the day and night; a village of more than 300 persons is added to its population every day ; by its growth it swallows up new villages and smaller townships as it grows : and a town as large as Brighton is added every year without the addition being noticed. It is an "ocean of bricks and mortar." Its houses, if placed end to end, would stretch across all Europe and Asia. It is one of the ugliest cities in the world, and one of the most beautiful. The squalor of its lower regions is indescribable; the scene from the Kensington Gardens Bridge is one of the finest in Europe. It has some of the noblest, as well as many of the meanest, buildings in the world.-Its inhabitants come from all parts of the globe. It contains more Scotsmen than Edinburgh; and more Irishmen than Dublin.--Its river, the Thames, is spanned by twenty bridges; and, of these, LONDON BRIDGE is the most frequented in the world. It is daily crossed by at least half-a-million persons. The number of persons who come into London by railway every day is over a million. It not only contains many wonders; it is itself the greatest " wonder of the world."

- (a) There are, officially, 17 distinct Londons:--Post-office London; Police London; Board of Works London, etc. Now, however, London has been created into a Courtr; and there is therefore one Courtr of London.
- (b) There is no point from which the whole of London can be seen at once. There is no man living who has ever seen all its 28,000 streets.
- (c) London grows chiefly towards the west-like other great cities. The prevalent winds of Europe are westerly; and hence it is from this direction that the purifying breases come.
- (d) Besides a large number of towns, London contains two cities—those of London and Westminster. It contains more of the history of England than any other English city. London is also the see of a bishop.
- (e) The Port of London extends from London Bridge to the sea; and has also a large number of very large docks. It is the greatest mart for colonial produce in the world.
- (f) " In buildings of the highest historical interest London comes second only to Rome."

ENGLAND AND WALES

- (g) " Of northern capitals London with all its drawbacks is the handsomest,"
- (A) "London sits enthround at the gates of the sea, the mighty centre, commercial, financial, political, social, and intellectual, of a vast realm, where English laws, English institutions, the English ingges, and all the treasures of English literature reign and govern and enrich the lives and the minds of millions of men, generation after generation, all over the globe, with a sovereignty that seems imperiabable and destined never to pass avay."

THE COUNTIES OF ENGLAND AND WALES.

Counties.—England and Wales are divided into fifty-two counties or shires.—England containing forty, and Wales twelve. The largest is Yorkshire; the smallest Butland.

- (i) The four largest are Yorkshire, Lincoln, Devon, and Norfolk. The four smallest are Rutland, Middlesex, Huntingdon, and Bedford.
- (11) Shire is the noun from the Old English verb sciran, to cut. Other words from it are share, shore, score, short, short, sharp, scarp, shred, sherd, sta.

(i) The six Morthern Counties are : Camberland and Morthumberland ; Westmoreland and Durham ; Lanoschire and Yorkshire.

(ii) The six Western Counties-are : Cheshire ; Shropshire ; Hereford ; Mommouth and Giomesster ; and Somerset. The first four march with Wales.

(iii) The five Eastern Counties-going from north to south-are: Lincoln; Norfolk; Suffelk; Essex; and Cambridge, which marches with Norfolk and Suffelk.

(iv) The nine Southern Counties are : Kent ; Surrey and Sussex ; Berkshire and Hampshire ; Willishire and Dorseishire ; Devon ; and Cornwall.

(v) The fourteen Midland Counties are : Stafford, Derby, Nottingham ; Worcester, Warwick, Leicester, and Butland ; Northampton and Huntingdon ; Oxford and Buckingham ; Middleerz, Hartford and Bedford.

I.—THE NORTHERN COUNTIES.

1. Northumberland.—This county (which is twice the size of Durham) consists of a hilly and moorland district, with arable lowlands on the coast. The uplands contain lead-mines; the lowlands, large coal-fields. The largest town is Newcastle; the county town is Alnwick, but county business is done also in the largest town.

The word means "Land north of the Humber"; and the old name "Northumbria" covered the ground from the Humber to the Tweed

 (i) The largest towns in the county-Hexham, Newcastle, Tynemouth, North Ekieldsall stand on the Tyne.

THE TIME DISTRICT.

(ii) Newcastle (180) is a chief seat of the coal-trade, a great foreign port, and a

centre of shipbuilding. The Tyne from Newcastle to the sea is one of the busiest and noisiest regions in the world—one unceasing clang and din resounds as you go up. Shipbuilding yards, factories for machinery, chemicals, glass, etc., line the banks on both sides.—Berwick-en-Tweed, though on the Scottish side of the river, is now a part of Northumberland.—Herham is a small town that makes gloves and hats.—Fiedden

Field, where James IV. of Scotland fell in 1518, is in the north of the county.

2. Durham.—This county (half the size of Northumberland) consists of wide moors on the Pennine slope, and a broad arable plain in the east. Its coal-field constitutes its chief wealth. It is full of busy towns. Sunderland is the largest; Durham is the county town.

The word Durham is a corruption of Dunholm-the holm or island on the dum or hill. The Bishop of Durham signs his name DUNELM.

(i) Sunderland (140) is a busy scaport as well as a great shipbuilding place.—Gatesbaad (which is joined to Newcastle by several bridges) and South Shields are the largest towns in the north; Darlington, Stockton, and Hartlepool—in the Tees basin—are the busiest and richest towns in the south.

(ii) Durham, on the Wear, has one of the noblest Cathedrals in England. It has also a University, one of the colleges of which is in Newcastle.

3. Yorkshire.—This county, the largest and most diversified in England, is a country in itself. It consists of three regions: (i) a high upland—the Moors and Wolds—in the east; (ii) the Vale of York in the middle; and (iii) the picturesque valleys on the Pennine slope.—It is also divided into three parts: the North, East, and West Eddings. The West Riding is the richest and most populous, for it contains a very large coal-field, which is the chief seat of the great woollen manufacture of England. The largest town is Leeds.



The Roman name for Fork was Eboracom; and the Archbiahop signs his name Eson.—Riding was at first thrithing or thriding—third part. The awkwardness of the sound of North [Thriding made the last th drop of. (So tithing—tenth part; farthing—fourth part.)

(i) Yerk (60), the capital of the county, stands on the Ouse, at the meeting-point of the three Ridings. It is one of the most interesting and most historic towns in England. It was the capital of Roman Britain; it is the seat of one of the two great archbishoprics of England; the first English Parliament met here under Henry II. in 1160; and, in 1644, Fairfax defeated Prince Rupert, not far off, at Marston Moor. At Stamford Bridge, a few miles east, Harold defeated his brother Tostig; but the long march south lost him the Battle of Hastings.

(ii) The largest towns in the West Riding are : Leeds (360); Bradford (250); Hudders-Seid (100); Halfax (85); and Wakefeld. Most of them are in the Aire Valley; and all are engaged in the wool-trade.—Sheffeld (340), on the Don, in the farthest south, is the seat of the cutlery trade.—Ripes, in the north, is a small cathedral city

(iii) Hall 215) formerly Kingston-on-Hull, in the south of the East Riding, is one of the great ports of England, and has a large Baltic trade.

(iv) The largest town in the North Riding is Middlesborough, a busy port, and the centre of the Cleveland iron and salt district. Fifty years ago, it was a small unknown village. Sourborough and Whitby, two famous bathing-places, stand on the coast. Northelistica is famous for the Battle of the Standard in 1188.

4. Cumberland.—Cumberland is a mountainous county, with much high pastoral upland. The lovely Eden Vale opens out into a broad plain at Carlisle. In the west, on the Irish Sea, is a small but rich coal-field. The largest and county-town is **Carlisle**.

Cumberland means the land of the Cymri-the ancient name for a family of Celts, and the name by which the Weish still call themselves.

(i) **Cartisle** (45), on the Eden, is one of the greatest railway centres in the kingdom. The North-Western, Midland, and several other systems meet there. It has a fine cathedral and an old castle.

(ii) Whitehaven is the chief port for the coal-field; and Workington and Maryport also export coal. **Ecowick** (which has a mine of plumbago or "black lead") is a pretty town in the heart of the Lake District.

5. Westmoreland.—This county is an upland pastoral region of mountains and hills. There is a little lead in some of the mountains. **Eendal** is the largest town ; Appleby is the county town.

The name-West Moor Land.

Essiai (on the Kent) has some small woollen manufactures. Appleby, in a little round wooded valley, is the smallest county town in England.

6. Lancashire.—This county (which is nearly twice the size of Durham) consist of a hilly region (Furness) in the Lake District; an upland region on the western slopes of the Pennine chain; and a

broad plain in the south. Its great wealth and populousness are due to the large coal-field which lies between the Ribble and the Mersey. South Lancashire, like the West Riding, is one of the busiest and most populous places in England. It is thick with towns, most of which are engaged in the cotton manufacture. The two largest towns are Liverpool and Manchester. The capital is Lancaster.

Lancashire-Lagcastershire, or the shire of Lune Caster, the Roman camp on the Lune.

(i) Liverpool (620), on the Mersey, is the second largest town in England, and now the second largest seaport, the port of London having the largest tonnage. All the great highways of the British Isles converge upon Liverpool; nearly all the cotton of the world finds its way here, and is distributed over England, Scotland, and the Continent; and it is the chief emigration port for Europe. The great American Lines of Steamers have their headquarters here. The shores of the Mersey are lined with the most capacious docks for eight miles. It is connected with its Cheshire suburb, Birkenhead, by a tunnel under the river.

(ii) Manchester (400), on the inky waters of the Irwell, is the market and business centre of the cotton manufacture; though its factories are now surpassed by those in the outlying towns. It is the centre of a constellation of cotton towns, such as Oddham (150) and Eochdale; Burnley and Elackburn (125); Preston (110); Bury, Belton (120), and Wigan.—Saltord (240), another large cotton and iron town, makes one town with Manchester; and the two together form then the second largest city in England.

(iii) Barrow-in-Furness is the port for the iron ores of the district, and has the largest steel manufactures in the kingdom. Forty years ago, there were only a few huts on the site.

II. THE WESTERN COUNTIES.

7. Cheshire.—This county, which is a little larger than Durham, chiefly consists of a rich pastoral plain, which has long produced excellent cheese and butter. The north possesses part of the Lancashire coal-field; the south is rich in salt-mines. The largest town is Birkenhead; the county town is Chester.

Cheshirs-Chestershire, the shire of the Chester or castra or camp (the standing camp) of the Romans on the Dec. The main high-read built by the Romans through Britain to the north runs between Dover and Chester.

(i) Birkenhead (105), on the Mersey, is really a suburb of Liverpool, and owes its rise to the neighbourhood of that city. It is famous for its docks and its shipbuilding. Fifty years ago it contained only a few houses. Birkenhead, Middlesborough, and Barrow are the three most remarkable instances in England of rapid growth--more like that of American towns.

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(ii) Cheeter (40), on the Dee, is the most singular town in England. It is surrounded by walls; and in the "Rows," there are miles of covered walks. Its cathedral, its castle, its old and quaint houses, its towers, its picturesque streets, make it unique among towns. As in York, there are many old Roman remains.

(iii) The towns in the north, Stockport (65), Stalybridge, etc., form part of the cotton circle ; Mascienieid (40) spins and weaves silk.—Runcorn, on the Mersey, has large iron and chemical works.—Nantwich, and the other towns ending in wich, are engaged in the mining of salt.

8. Shropshire.—Shropshire or Salop is a county one-third larger than Durham. It is divided into two almost equal parts by the Severn. The north-eastern portion forms part of the Central Plain; the south-western is a hilly region, with the characteristics of Wales. The largest town, which is also the county town, is Shrewsbury.

Skropshire is a softened form of Scrob or Scrubshire, called so from the low shrubs that used to cover the land. Shreuebury is also a softened form of Scrobbesbyrig -Scrub-borough.

Shrewsbury (30) stands on the Severn, not far from the coal-field in the east of the county. Wellington, Bridgemorth, Coalbrockdale, etc., are all in the coal and iron district. Oswestry, a woollen-manufacturing place, stands in the north-west.

9. Herefordshire.—This is a pretty agricultural county, almost bisected by the Wye. It is the flattest and richest of the western counties. The rich red soil produces excellent hops and apples. The county town, which is also the largest town, is **Hereford**.

The word Hereford means "ford of the army." It was an important point on the Marches of Wales; as it was one of the few places where an English army could cross the Wys.

(i) Hereford (20) is a pretty cathedral town.

(ii) Near Leominster is Mortimer's Cross, one of the battlefields in the Wars of the Roses. The battle was fought in 1461.

10. Monmouth.—Monmouth (about half the size of Durham) is a hilly grazing county, with mines of coal and ironstone is the west, next to the South Wales coal-field. Most of the county consists of the Valley of the Usk. Many of the people still speak Welsh. The largest town is Newport; the county town is Monmouth.

Monmosth is-Munnowmouth. The Munnow is a tributary of the Wye ; and Monmouth stands at the junction.

(i) Newport (80), at the mouth of the Usk, is a port for minerals, which are sent down from Tredegar and Postypeel.

(ii) Monmouth, on the Wye, is the assize town.

11. Gloucestershire is an agricultural county, with the coal-field of the Forest of Dean in the west, and the Bristol coal-field in the south. The centre of the county is occupied by the fertile plain of the Severn; on the west is the elevated Forest of Dean; and, on the east, the long range of the Cotswold Hills. The largest town is Bristol; the county town is Gloucester.

(i) Bristel (240), on the Avon of Bristol, is the seventh town in England, a great seaport, and a busy seat of manufactures of tobacco, boots, etc. Its trade is chiefly with Ireland, the West Indies, and South America.

(ii) Gloucester (40), on the Severn, is a cathedral city. Cheitenham (45) is a famouc inland watering-place. Strout makes woollen cloth.

12. Somerset.—This is a grazing county, with wide level plains. On the west rises Exmoor; in the east the Mendip Hills with picturesque cliffs and caverns in the limestone rocks. The largest town is Bath; the county town is Taunton.

(i) Bath (60) has its name from the hot baths and mineral waters which have been famous for two thousand years. It was a fashionable place in the time of the Romans; it is a fashionable place still. It is also a cathedral city: the bishop is the Bishop of Bath and Wells.

(ii) Taanton (=Tone-town) stands in the pleasant valley of the Tone.—Bridgewater, a port on the Parret, is connected with Exeter by a canal; the canal is a small one, navigable only by barges.—Between Bridgewater and Taunton is Sedgemoor, the scene of Monmouth's defeat in 1685.—Atheiney, the hiding-place of Alfred from the Danes, lies at the junction of the Tone and the Parret.

III. THE EASTERN COUNTIES.

13. Lincolnshire.—This, the second English county in point of size, is an agricultural district. In the north rise the Lincolnshire Wolds; in the south sinks down the low fen country called Holland (=Hollow Land). The county town is Lincoln; the largest town is Great Grimsby.

Lincoln received its name from the Romans, who called it Lindars. As it was a Roman colony, it was called "Lindars Colonia," which was shortened into Lincoln.

(i) Lincoln (40) is an ancient cathedral city on the Witham. It stands on the edge of the Oolitic Ridge, and commands a wide view over the Trent valley. (ii) Great Grimsby (45) is a rising scaport on the south shore of the Humber.—Boston is a small port on the Witham; Grantham (where Sir Isaac Newton was born) is an important corn-market on the Great Northern Railway.

14. Cambridgeshire (exactly half the size of Somerset) is an agricultural county, nearly all very flat. Its northern half—the Isle of Ely—is fenny and marshy; in the south, it is crossed by the chalk range of the Gog Magog Hills. Its largest town is Cambridge, which is also the county town.

Cambridge-Bridge on the Cam. Cam is a Celtic word which means crooked. The word reappears in Morecambe (Bay).

(i) Cambridge (40), on the Cam, a tributary of the Ouse, has one of the two great Universities of England.

(ii) Exy (= Eel ey or island) is famous for its cathedral, which stands on a slight rising ground in the fens—once an island in the midst of the waters. In the Isle of Ely rents used to be paid in eels.

15. Norfolk is an agricultural and manufacturing county—a gently rolling district, with a light soil on a basis of chalk. In the east are the "Broads"—magnificent sheets of water haunted by crowds of wild-fowl and sea-birds. The largest town is Norwich, which is also the county town.

Norfolk-North Folk or Northern Angles. Norfolk and Suffolk (-South Folk) form together "East Anglia."

(i) Merwich (95), an ancient cathedral city, a seat of the woollen manufactures, and the capital of East Anglia, stands on the Wensum, a tributary of the Yare.

(ii) Yarmouth (50) is a seaport and fishing-port; cures herrings; and is famous for its excellent roadstead called "Yarmouth Roads."—Lynn (or "King's Lynn"), at the mouth of the Great Ouse, is the chief port on the Wash.

16. Suffolk.—Suffolk is a wheat-growing county, with a heavy soil. The west is a chalk upland; the east is a very low plain with long sea-inlets. Ipswich is the county town, and the largest.

(i) Ipswich (55), on the Orwell, has large manufactures of agricultural implements.

(ii) Lowestoft is the most easterly town in England. It is an important station for the herring-fishery.—Bury St. Edmunds, a market-town, was named after St. Edmund the Saxon king and martyr, who was put to death by the Danes in 870.

17. Essex.—The county of Essex has a range of chalk hills in the west; but in the east it sinks into wide muddy flats and marshes.

which are greatly cut into by the sea. There is much heavy land good for corn; but the cheap wheat from America and India has thrown most of it into pasture. The largest town is **Colchester**; the county town is **Chelmsford**.

Beer - Bast Sazons.

(i) Colchester (35), that is, the chester or camp on the Colne, has oyster fisheries.

(ii) Chalmsford (=Chelmersford) stands on the Chelmer.—Harwich is a rising port for steam-packets to Belgium and Holland.—Sheeburyness is the chief artillery station in Britain.

IV. THE SOUTHERN COUNTIES.

18. Kent.—Kent, the "Garden of England," is a smiling county of corn-land and pasture, of hop-gardens, cherry-orchards, apple-orchards, and filbert-orchards. A chalk range—a prolongation of the North Downs, runs through it, and ends in a line of cliffs stretching from Folkestone to the North Foreland. The whole coast is fringed with thriving towns: and hence it has a population double that of Essex. Maidstone is the county town; Woolwich the largest.

Kent is a form of the Celtie word cann, a head. The same word is found in the Mull of Cantiere, in the south-west of Soutland. The spelling with a re-appears in Canterbury-Cant-wara byrig, the borough of the year (wars) of Kent.

(i) Maidstone (35) = Medway's Town, is the assize town.—Not far from it, is the triple town of Chatham, Strood, and Rochester. Chatham, on the estuary of the Medway, is the second naval arsenal in the kingdom. Rochester is an ancient cathedral city.—Sheerness, on the Isle of Sheppey, is another naval arsenal.

(ii) Woolwich (70) is the chief military arsenal of Great Britain. It is almost a part of London.—Greenwich, now a part of London, has a famous Observatory, from which longitude is counted. It is itself, therefore, in longitude 0°.

(iii) Dover and Folkestone are the two steam-packet stations for France—the one connected with Calais, the other with Boulogne.—Margate and Ramagate, on the Isle of Thanet (no longer an island), are much-frequented bathing-places.—Deal (one of the old "Cinque Ports") stands opposite the Goodwin Sands. It was the place where Julius Gessar landed, B.C. 55, to conquer the Britons.

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(iv) Canterbury (25), on the Stour, is the capital of Kent and the ecclesiastical metropolis of England, the Archbishop of Canterbury being the "Primate of All England." It is one of the oldest and most beautiful cities in the country. The cathedral was founded in 1070, and rebuilt in 1174. It contained the shrine of St. Thomas & Becket, which enriched, by the offerings made on it, the cathedral and city for hundreds of years.

19. Surrey.—The chalk range of the North Downs crosses the county from west to east. The highest point is Leith Hill. Much of the land is heath and wood; the south is a lovely and fertile country. The largest town is **Croydon**; the county town is **Guildford**.

Surrey-Sath Rice, or "South Kingdom." We find rice also in the word bishopric.

(i) Creyton (85) really owes its great size to the fact that it is a suburb of London.

(ii) Guildford (12) is a pretty town on the Wey (an affluent of the Thames), where it cuts a passage through the chalk downs.—Richmond is a kind of suburb of London, with a most beautiful park.—Kingston-en-Thames possesses the stone on which the Saxon kings sat when they were crowned.—Ranaymode, where King John signed the Great Charter in 1215, is in the west of the county.

20. Sussex.—Sussex is a fine agricultural county, with the Weald —once a great forest, in the north, and the South Downs in the southern part. Where the South Downs reach the sea, they form the chalk cliff of Beachy Head. The largest town is **Brighton**; the county town is **Lewes**.

Susser-Suth Seaze, or " South Sazons."

(i) Brighton (130) is really a seaside suburb of London. It is rightly called "London-super-Mare." In fact, the whole coast is strung with towns which are supported by London visitors—Worthing, Kastbourne, Hastings (with St. Leonards running into it), etc. Not far from Hastings is the little town of Battle, near which the "Battle of Hastings," more correctly the Battle of Senlac, was fought in 1066. Duke William landed in Perensey Bay—a little east of Eastbourne.

(ii) Lewes (12) is a small town on the Sussex Ouse.-Chichester, in the extreme west, is a cathedral city.

21. Berkshire.—The little county of Berks is a fertile agricultural district, the northern part in the Valley of the Thames, the southern in the Vale of Kennet. Reading is the county town.

(i) Reading (50), the "Town of Biscuits," stands at the junction of the Kennet with the Thames.

(ii) Windsor Castle, above the town of Windsor, is the chief royal residence of the Sovereigns of England.—Wantage, the birthplace of Alfred the Great, king of Wessex, is also in this county.

22. Hampshire.—Hampshire (or Hants) is an agricultural county, with low chalk hills which run into the North Downs,—a plain in the middle, which is a continuation of Salisbury Plain, and in the south, another range of heights which runs into the South Downs. In the south-west is the New Forest. The largest town is **Portsmouth**; the county town is **Winchester**.

Hampshirs is short for Southamptonshirs ; the legal title is "the County of Southampton."

(i) Portsmouth (140)-really four strongly fortified towns joined into one (Portsea, Southsea, and Landport are the others)—is the greatest naval arsenal in the kingdom.

(ii) Southampton (60), at the head of the estuary called Southampton Water, is a large port for passenger steamers to all parts of the world.—Winchester (16) is an ancient cathedral city, with a great public school. It was the capital of Wessex, and, for a time, also the capital of England.

(iii) The fale of Wight forms part of Hampshire. It is a lovely and fertile island, and has been called the "Garden of England." Newport, Eyde, Ventner, and Cowes are places of residence, sea-bathing, or yachting stations. Near Newport is Carisbrooke Castle, where Charles 1. was imprisoned. Osberne is one of the Queen's residences.

(iv) The arm of the sea to the east of the island is called Spithead; to the west, the Solant. The isolated rocks to the west, pared down by the sea and "weathering," are called the Meedles.

23. Witchire. — Wiltshire (or Wilts) is an inland agricultural county, with the Marlborough Downs in the north, and a wide chalk upland called Sailsbury Plain, in the south. It contains the head-waters of three drainage-systems; and sends water into the Thames (by the Kennet), the Severn, and the English Channel. From Inkpen Beacon, in the east of the county, branch out four ranges of hills : the Chiltern Hills, the North Downs, the South Downs, and the Dorsetshire Downs. The largest town is Swindon¹; the county town, is Salisbury.

(i) Salisbury (15) is a cathedral city, on the Avon of Salisbury. The cathedrai is the longest in England and has the highest spire. The spire is 404 ft. high (84 ft. higher than St. Paul's).

(ii) "West of England cloth" is made at Bradford, Trowbridge, etc.

(iii) On Salisbury Plain stand the remains of an old Druid open-air temple—Stonshenge. ¹ SWINDON (40) is a rising engineering town, and makes locomotives and railway carriages for the G.W.R.

24. Dorsetshire.—Dorsetshire is an agricultural county, with a light soil and a thin population. (The population of the whole county is not equal to that of Newcastle.) It consists of a plain between two belts of downs. The popular division is into "the sands," "the chalks," and "the clays." The largest town is Weymouth; the county town is Dorchester.

(i) Weymouth (14) is a watering-place, which George 111. made fashionable. It has also a few steam-packets. Dorchester (7) was an old Roman town.

(ii) Fortland Isle, which is really a peninsula connected with the mainland by a long beach of shingle called **Chest Bank**, has large quarries of good building-stone; and contains a convict prison. The "Trough of Poole," a barren waste, yields blue clay for the Potteries of Staffordshire.

Chesil Bank is a neck of land ten miles long-" a ridge of millions of loose pebbles" (the word Chesil is found in Chelsea-Ea or island of Chesil).

25. Devonshire.—Devonshire is, like Yorkshire and Kent, a country in itself. In the north is the high moorland called Exmoor, which also runs into Somerset; in the south are the bare granite uplands of Darimoor. The low grounds are very fertile; and the warm moist climate favours a luxuriant vegetation. The Vale of Exeter is the most fertile part. It is a grazing, an orchard, and also a mining county. The largest town is Plymouth; the county town is Exeter.

(i) Plymouth (80, but with Devenport and Stonshouse, which are next it, 150) stands on the noble estuary called Plymouth Sound, which is one of the chief stations for our Navy. In front of the Sound is a breakwater a mile long; and, 14 miles off, rises Eddystone Lighthouse.

(ii) Exster (40) is an ancient city, built before the Romans came, with a beautiful cathedral. It is the "Queen of the West."-Torquay, on the northern horn of Torbay, is a very warm place of residence for invalids.

(iii) The county has many small scaports, both on the Bristol Channel and the English Channel. Thus we have Exmouth on the Exe; Dartmouth on the Dart; Eidmouth on the Sid; Barnstaple on the Tawe, etc. William of Orange landed in Torbay in 1688.

Tor means "projecting rock."-- Exeter was formerly Exanceasier, the caster (castra) or camp on the Exe.

26. Cornwall.—Cornwall is a county of hills and rocks, of cliffs and headlands, of "sheltered bays and white-beached sandy coves." The soil is thin; the chief wealth of the county consists in its fisheries

(pilchards) and its mines. The old Cornish toast was "Fish, tin, and copper !" The largest town is **Pensance**; the county town is **Bodmin**.

Cornwall-Corn weathas-the weathas or Welsk (-foreigners) on the horn or peninsula. The old name was "West Wales." The Cornish language, akin to Welsh, died out only last century.

(i) Pensance (15)—(the word means "Holy Head")—is the most westerly borough in England, and the extreme terminus of the Great Western Railway

(ii) Bodmin (6) is the county town; but Trure (11) is looked upon as the capital of the mining district. (The tin and copper imported from America and Spain have caused the abandonment of many mines.) Launceston is also a mining town. Falmouth is one of the noblest harbours in the country; but it is too far from the industrial centres to become a great port. It is the centre of the "Land-Hemisphere" of the globe.

(iii) The Scilly Isles, off the coast, send early vegetables to London.

THE MIDLAND COUNTIES.

27. Staffordshire.—Staffordshire is a mining, manufacturing, and agricultural county. The northern part contains the Potteries Coalfield; the middle is part of the Central Plain; the south contains the coal-field of the Black Country. The largest town is Wolverhampton; the county town is Stafford.

Stafford is-Stars-ford, the ford on the Sow (an affuent of the Trent) that needs a staff to cross it with. Near it is Stansford, the ford crossed on stepping-stones.

(i) Wolverhampton (85), West Bromwich, Walsall, Wednesbury, etc., are all engaged in different kinds of iron manufactures. Wolverhampton is the centre of a group of towns.

(ii) Burton-on-Trent, in the east, brews immense quantities of beer, which is exported to all parts of the world.

(iii) In the Potteries, seven towns stand close together, the best known of which are Hanley, Steke-upon-Trent, and Burslem, and all of which are engaged in "potting."

(iv) Stafford (15), the county town, makes boots and shoes.—Lichield, a cathedral city, was the birthplace of Dr. Johnson.

28. Derbyshire.—Derbyshire is a mining, manufacturing, and agricultural county. In the north we find the hilly region called "The Peak," which is the end of the Pennine Chain; the east forms a part of the Leeds and Nottingham Coal-field; and the south is a rolling pastoral country, which forms part of the Central Plain. There

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are many lead and iron mines in the county. The largest town, which also is the county town, is Derby.

(i) Derby is-Deorby, the by (town) of Deer. In Old English deer meant any wild beast.

 (ii) "The Feak" is not a peak, but a high mountainous limestone country, with vast caverns and underground rivers.

(i) Derby (100), on the Derwent (a tributary of the Trent), is a seat of the silk manufactures. The first silk-mill was established here in 1717.

(ii) Glossop (20) is the centre of large cotton-works.—Chesterfield has manufactures in wool, cotton, and silk.—Matlock and Baxton are noted for hot mineral springs.

29. Nottinghamshire.—The county of Notts is a long belt of low rolling country, traversed by the Trent. The largest town is Nottingham, which is also the county town.

(i) Nottingham (260), on the Trent, is the centre of lace-making in England, and also manufactures hosiery, etc.-Hewark and Worksop are also busy manufacturing towns.

(ii) The Ferest of Sherwood, in the west of the county, famous for the exploits of Robin Hood, is a remnant of the primeval forest that once covered almost the whole county.

30. Worcesterahire.—Worcestershire is a grazing county in the central valley of the Severn. The north has coal and iron mines, and forms part of the "Black Country"; in the west are the Malvern Hills; and the south is famous for its orchards and hop-gardens. Dudley is the largest town; the county town is Worcester.

(i) Dudley (50) stands on the South Staffordshire Coal-field, and is engaged in the coal and iron trade and hardware manufactures.—Kidderminster makes carpets; Steurbridge, glass and pottery; Droitwich, salt, from its brine-springs.

(ii) Worcester (35), a beautiful town on the Severn, has a cathedral, and is famous for its blue porcelain. Cromwell gained a victory here over Charles II. in 1651.— Maivern is a lovely place of residence for invalids. The air is clear and bracing.

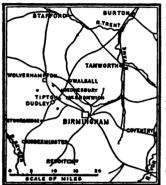
> "Round about the Malvern Hill A man may live as long as he will."

(iii) Eventual, in the Vale of Evenham, was the scene of the battle fought in 1265, in which Earl Simon de Montfort fell.

31. Warwickshire.—This county—the central county of England —lies in the very heart of the Midland Plain, and is traversed by the Avon of Warwick—a tributary of the Severn. In the north is a

small coal-field, and this part is one of the busiest manufacturing districts in England. Birmingham is the largest town; the county town is Warwick.

(i) Birmingham (460) is the third largest town in England and the greatest hard-



ware manufacturing town in the world. It makes anything, from a pin or a steel-pen to a hundred-ton gun or a man-of-war's anchor.

(ii) Coventry (50), which used to make slik ribbons, has now turned its energies to bicycles, tricycles, watches, and clocks.— Learnington is a pleasure-town, nuch affected by Americans.—Ragby has a famous public school.

(iii) Warwick (11), on the Upper Avon, the county town, has a magnificent baronial castle.—Btratford-on-Avon was the birthplace of William Shakespeare, in 1564.—At

Edgehill, in the south-east, Charles 1. fought a battle in 1642.

32. Letcestershire.—This is an agricultural county, with considerable manufactures. It lies in the Central Plain, but contains some hilly and rocky ground in Charnwood Forest. In the north-west is the small coal-field of Ashby-de-la-Zouch. The largest town, which is also the county town, is Letcester.

Leicester was a fortified Roman town; and the name is a corruption of Legionis Castra-the Camp of the Legion.

(i) Leisester (170), on the Soar, is a great centre for woollen manufactures, boots and shoes, etc.-Longhborough is also engaged in the manufacture of hosiery.

(ii) Besworth Field, where Richard 111. fell in 1485, in the last battle of the Wars of the Roses, lies a few miles west of Leicester.—From Bardon Hill, the highest point in Charnwood Forest, you can see right across England, from the Welsh Hills on the west to Lincoln Cathedral in the east.

33. Rutland.—Rutland is the smallest county in England. It is a farming county, and grows good wheat. The county town is Oakham.

Rutland-Red Land.

Uppingham is famous for its public school.

34. Northamptonshire.—Northamptonshire, a rolling country with a fertile soil, consists chiefly of the Valley of the Nen. The north is fen-land. Northampton, the largest town, is also the county town.

(i) Northampton (60), on the Nen, is the boot and shoe making town of England. Estering, Wellingborough, and other towns, also make shoes.—Massby, where Cromwell gained a victory in 1645, is about twelve miles from Northampton.

(ii) Feterborough (25) has a beautiful cathedral, in which Catherine, the first wife of Henry VIII., and Mary Queen of Scots, were burled; but the body of the Scottish Queen was removed to Westminster Abbey by her son in 1612.

35. Huntingdonshire.—Huntingdonshire (or Hunts) is a gentlyundulating dairy county, with flat fen-lands in the north. The population of the whole county is only half that of Brighton. The county town is Huntingdon; and it is also the largest town.

Huntingdon (7), on the great Ouse, was the birthplace of Oliver Cromwell (1599).

36. Bedfordshire.—Bedfordshire (or Beds) is a small agricultural county, with some flat fen-land. The county town is Bedford.

Bedferd (20), on the Great Ouse, was the birthplace of John Bunyan in 1628. It has an excellent Grammar School.—Laton and Danstable manufacture straw-plait.

37. Oxfordshire.—Oxfordshire is an agricultural county. It consists of a long strip of land on the left bank of the Thames, with the chalk range of the Chiltern Hills, which are richly wooded, in the south. The county town is **Oxford**.

(i) Oxferd (40), on the Thames, has one of the two great Universities of England. It is also a bishopric; its Cathedral is Christ Church College Chapel. The city itself, with its noble college-buildings, is one of the most beautiful in the world.

(ii) Woodstock was once a royal manor.—Chalgreve Field, in this county, was the place where John Hampden received his death-wound in a skirmish (in 1648).

38. Buckinghamshire.—Buckinghamshire (or Bucks) is a dairy county. It has chalk hills—the Chilterns—in the south; the rich Vale of Aylesbury in the centre; while the northern part belongs to the basin of the Great Ouse. Buckingham is the county town.

(i) Buckingham (4), on the Great Ouse, is a quiet country town. -Aylesbury (7) makes condensed milk.

(ii) Etcs, on the Thames, right opposite Windsor, is the greatest public school in England. Many of our great statesmen, and some of our great poets (Gray among others) were educated there. The school was founded by Henry vi. in 1440.

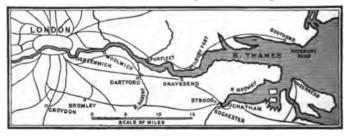
39. Hertfordshire.—Hertfordshire (or Herts) is a chalk district, with uplands in the south. It grows a good deal of corn. It also possesses small industries in paper-making and straw-plaiting. The county town is Hertford; the largest town is Watford.

Earterd (7) is a pretty little town on the Lea.—St. Albans (10) is now the see of a bishop, and owes its larger population to its nearness to London. (A Roman soldier, Albanus, was the first martyr to Christianity in Great Britain.)—Barnes, almost a suburb of London, was the scene of a battle in 1471, in which the Earl of Warwick, the "King-maker," was slain.

40. Middlesex.—Middlesex is the second smallest county in England. It is only one-fifth the size of Kent. But it is one of the most densely peopled counties; for it contains by far the largest part of LONDON. It is low and level towards the Thames; but, in the north, it has many picturesque hills, among which are Harrow Hill and Hampstead Heath. The county town is Brentford—a small town on the Brent.

(i) The population of this county is larger than that of all Scotland.

(ii) Harrow-on-the-Hill is the seat of one of the great Schools of England.



VI. THE WELSH COUNTIES.

1. Divisions of Wales.—The Principality of Wales is usually divided into North Wales and South Wales, each containing six counties.— The six counties of North Wales are : Anglesca, Carnarvon, Denbigh,

and the second se

and Flint; Merioneth and Montgomery.—The six counties of South Wales are: Cardigan and Radnor; Pembroke, Carmarthen, and Brecknock; and, in the farthest south, Glamorgan.

2. Anglesse.—This county is an island, which is separated from the mainland by the Menai Strait. It has a small coal-field. Holyhead, on Holy Island, is the largest town ; the county town is Beaumaris.

Anglessa-the sz or island of the Angles, a name which was given to it when it was conquered by the English in the 9th century.

Holyhead is the packet-station, on the North Western Railway system, for Dublin.

3. Carnarvon.—This county contains the highest ranges and the grandest scenery in Wales. The highest point is Snowdon (3571 ft.). The county town is Carnarvon ; the largest town is Llandudno.

(i) Carnarvon has a noble castle, where Edward 11.—the first "Prince of Wales" was born in 1284.—The castle at Conway, near Llandudno, is one of those which were built by Edward 1. to keep down Wales.

(ii) Liandadae, at the foot of Great Orme's Head, is a bathing-place frequented by people from Lancashire and Yorkshire.—There are large slate-quarries near Banger, which is the seat of a bishopric.

4. Denhighshire.—Denbigh is a hilly county, with a coal-field in the north-east. It has also mines of lead, iron, and slate. The county town is Denhigh; the largest town is Wrexham.

Dealigh stands in the quiet agricultural Vale of Clwyd; Wrenham is the centre of a busy mining district.

5. **Plintshire**.—This county is a narrow strip of land between the estuary of the Dee and the Vale of Clwyd. A rich coal-field lies between the towns of Mold and Flint. There are also mines of iron, zinc, and lead. Holywell is the largest ; Mold is the county town.

Relywell stands in the middle of the coal district.

6. **Merioneth.**—Merionethshire is a tract of wild hilly ground, from which the peak of **Cader Idris** towers to the height of about 3000 ft. —with other high summits near it—over Bala Lake, the largest sheet. of water in Wales. **Dolgelly** is the largest ; **Bala** is the county town.

Doigelly makes Welsh flannel

7. Montgomeryshire.—This county is a hilly district, which contains mines of lead and copper; quarries of stone and slate. More lead is mined here than in any other Welsh county. Montgomery contains the head-waters of the Severn and the Wye. Welshpool is the largest, Montgomery the county town.

Weishpool, at the head of navigation on the Severn, has a large trade in Weish fiannels. Montgomery also stands on the Severn.

8. Cardiganshire.—This county is a fine sweep of land round Cardigan Bay; low on the coast; then with high uplands; last with mountain-ranges, the highest point in which is Plinlimmon. There are mines of lead, zinc, and copper. Aberystwith is the largest town; Cardigan is the county town.

Aberystwith is a bathing-place at the mouth of the Ystwith.—Cardigan is a fishingport at the mouth of the Teify.

Aber is a Celtic word meaning mouth. We have the word in Abergele, Berwick (=Aherwick), etc.

9. Radnor.—This county lies mostly in the basin of the Wye, and is a district of elevated pastoral moorland. It is the most thinly peopled county in South Britain. The largest town is **Presteign**, which is also the county town.

Presteign has a population under 8000.

10. Pembrokeshire.—Pembrokeshire is a peninsula bounded by the sea on every side except the east. It is a county of low hills. A long narrow strip of coal-field runs through it. In the south is the magnificent natural harbour of Milford Haven. The county town is **Pembroke**, which is also the largest.

(i) Pembroks, like the other chief towns, stands on Milford Haven. St. David's is the cathedral city of the county.

(ii) Millford Haven has so many branches, arms and roadsteads, that there are sheltering places from every wind that blows. Nelson thought it the finest harbour in the world; and it would hold easily the whole of the British Navy.

11. Carmarthenshire.—This county, the largest in Wales, consists chiefly of the Valley of the Towy. Part of the county stands on the great coal-field of South Wales. Lianelly is the largest ; Carmarthen the county town.

Lianelly is a port which ships coal, iron, and copper.

12. Brecknock.—Brecknockshire (or Brecon) is an elevated pastoral district lying along the head-waters of the Wye and Usk. It also touches the northern edge of the South Wales Coal-field. Brecon, on the Usk, is the county town.

13. Glamorganshire.—The northern part of this county is hilly; the south—the "Garden of Wales"—is level and very fertile. It is by far the most populous and most wealthy of all the counties of Wales; and it is the only county in Wales with large towns. This is due to the fact that it contains the greater part of the most extensive and important coal-field in Great Britain—the South Wales Coal-field—"the largest storehouse of coal and ironstone in this island." It fills an area of 1000 square miles. The Vale of Taff is the chief mining and manufacturing district. The largest town is Cardiff, which is also the county town, and the chief seaport of the whole of Wales.

(i) Cardiff (130) is a town that has grown with immense rapidity. In this respect it ranks with Middlesborough, Birkenhead, and Barrow-in-Furness. It ships large quantities of coal.

(ii) Merthyr Tydvil (95), the second largest town in Wales, stands in the centre of the South Wales Coal-field, and manufactures large quantities of steel.

(iii) Swamses (70), on Swamses Bay, the third largest town in Wales, is chiefly engaged in copper-smelting. It is cheaper to bring the copper to the coal, than to carry the coal to the copper. Hence ships bring copper ore here from Spain, South. America, etc., etc. Swamses is also a seaport.

14. The Isle of Man.—The Isle of Man lies in the Irish Sea, almost equidistant from Scotland, England, and Ireland. It is about onefifth smaller than Middlesex; but the population is under 60,000. A mountain-range fills the larger part of the island; and the highest summit is **Snaefell** (2024 ft.). There are a few lead-mines; but the chief industries are agriculture and fishing. The largest town is. **Douglas**, which is also the capital.

The old name for Mars was Mona (which was also the ancient name for Angleses).-Snaefsil in. Norse for Snow-AUL. Man was at one time a part of the Scandinavian kingdom of the. "Southern lata."

(i) Douglas is a well-known bathing-place.—The other towns are Castletown (the former capital), Ramsey, and Poel. Peel is the headquarters of the herring fishery.

(ii) Manx is a dialect of the Irish branch of the Celtic language. It is like Gaelicthe language spoken in the Highlands of Scotland. Manx is not taught in any of the schools, and will probably soon become extinct.

15. The Channel Islands.—These islands are, geographically considered, a part of France; but they have been attached to the kingdom of England since Duke William of Normandy began to reign in this country (1066). The largest and best-known islands are Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark. The area of the whole is about onehalf that of Rutland; and the population is under 90,000. The language spoken is Old Norman-French. The clinate is warm; and fine fruits flourish on the islands. Guernsey pears are famous. The two largest towns are St. Heller and St. Pierre.

(i) St. Helier is the capital of Jersey.

(ii) The capital of Guernsey is St. Pierre.



SCOTLAND

SCOTLAND.

Introductory.—Scotland is the part of Great Britain which lies north of the Cheviot Hills and the Tweed. It is a much more mountainous country than England; and the northern part of it resembles Scandinavia in its scenery, its coast line, and the large number of its islands.

Sectiand (="Land of the Scots") received its name from an Irish tribe who settled in the Mull of Cantire in the 6th century. The older name was Albyn (=the "land of white heights"); and the Romans called the country Caledonia.

2. Boundaries.-Scotland is bounded :--

1. N. and W.-By the Atlantic Ocean.

2. E .- By the North Sea.

8. S.-By England and the Irish Sea.

(i) The line between England and Scotland is formed by the Solway Firth, the Cheviot Hills, and the Tweed.

(ii) The south-west of Scotland lies opposite Ireland.

(iii) The east of Scotland lies opposite Denmark and Norway.

3. Size.—The area of the mainland of Scotland is about half that of England. The area of Scotland with its islands is a little more than half that of England and Wales.

(i) The area of the mainland amounts to over 26,000 square miles.

(ii) With the islands, the area is 29,820 square miles.

(iii) The islands number 788, of which 600 are uninhabited.

(iv) The longest line, from the Mull of Galloway to Dunnet Head, is 288 miles.

(v) The breadth varies from 175 miles to 32 miles.

4. **Shape.**—The coast line is extremely long in comparison with the size of the country. It reaches the high total of 2500 miles, which gives one mile of coast line to every 12 square miles of area. Thus

there is no part of the country that is more than 40 miles from seawater.

(i) The coast line is 700 miles longer than the coast of England-a country much larger.

(ii) Greece, Norway, and Denmark are the only three countries in Europe that have as long a comparative coast line.

(iii) The most northerly point is Dunnet Head; the most southerly, the Mull of Galloway; the most easterly, Buchan New; and the most westerly, Ardnamurchan Point.

5. The North Coast.—The North Coast is composed of hard rocks, —is wild, rugged, cleft with deep fissures, and varied by high and bold headlands.

(i) The chief openings are : Dunnet Bay and Loch Eribell.

(ii) The chief capes are: Dunnet Head and Cape Wrath.

6. The East and West Coasts.—The contrasts between these coasts are very striking; and it may be well to set them forth in order.

The East Coast	The West Coast
1. Is somewhat like the east coast of England.	1. Is very like the coast of Norway.
2. Is formed of soft sandstones and clays.	2. Is formed of hard rocks.
8. Is very regular and little indented.	8. Is highly irregular, and has very deep indentations.
4. Is generally low and shelving.	4. Is like a mountain-wall.
5. Has very few islands.	5. Is guarded by a double row of islands.
6. Has a gradual slope with long rivers.	6. Has a steep slope with short rivers.
7. The openings have the Scandinavian name of Firth.	7. The openings are called by the Celtic name Lock.
8. The headlands have the Scandinavian name of Ness.	8. The headlands have the Celtic name of Mull.

7. The East Coast.—The East Coast is in general low and monotonous; but it is marked by bold headlands, which are the ends of mountain-ranges or of mountain-spurs running out into the sea.

(i) The chief openings are : Dornock Firth ; Gromarty Firth ; Moray Firth ; the Firth of Tay ; and the Firth of Forth.

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(ii) The chief headlands are: Duncansby Head (in Caithness); Tarbet Ness (in Cromarty); Kinnaird Head (in Aberdeenshire); Buchan Ness (in Aberdeenshire); Buddon Ness (in Forfar); Fife Ness; and St. Abb's Head (in Berwickshire).

8. The West Coast.—The West Coast is distinguished by deepdrawn sea-lochs (most of them trending to the north-west), by rocky shores, long peninsulas, and steep headlands.

(i) The chief openings are : Loch Broom (in Ross-shire); Loch Linnhé (which is continued into Loch Eil and the Caledonian Canal); Loch Fyns; the Firth of Clyde (which is connected with Loch Long); and Loch Byas (in Wigtownshire).

(ii) The chief capes are: Ardnamurchan Point; the Mull of Cantire (both in Argyllshire); Mull of Galloway; and Barrow Head (both in Wigtownshire).

9. Islands.—North Britain has a very much larger number of islands on its coasts than South Britain; and these islands lie mainly in the north and west. The western groups form a strong double breakwater against the violence of the Atlantic billows. The whole may be divided into four systems: The Orkneys; the Shetlands; the Hebrides; and the Firth of Clyde Islands.

(i) The Orkneys lie north of Great Britain. The largest is Pomona (or Mainland); and the chief town is Kirkwall.

(ii) The Shetlands lie north-east of the Orkneys. The largest is Mainland; and the chief town is Lerwick.

Most of the names of the lakade in these groups end in a. This is a form of the Norse word os —island. Thus Sonda-Sand Island; Westra-West Island, etc. Other names are stacks, sherries, and hoirse.

(iii) The Hebrides are composed of the Inner and the Outer Hebrides. The Inner Hebrides lie close to the coast, and are mostly masses of volcanic rock. The largest are Skye, Mull, Jurn, and Izla. "Skye is one of the most picturesque islands of the Hebrides, with serrated ridges, streets of lava, cup-shaped caldrons, silvery cataracts, mountain-lakes, and spar caverns." The islets of Iona and Staffa, west of Mull, are famous—the former for its remains of Early Irish Christianity, the latter for its basaltic pillars and cavern (Staffa=a or isle of staves). The Outer Hebrides lie farther out, but still parallel with the coast; and the largest are Lewis-and-Harris; North Uist and South Vist.

(iv) The largest island in the Firth of Clyde is Arran. It is a mountainous island, and its highest summit is Goat Fell—the highest peak in South Scotland. To the north of Arran: lies Bute, separated from the mainland by the lovely and winding arm of the sea called the Kyles of Bute.

10. Straits.—Amid so many islands and peninsulas, with so many openings into the land, there must be many straits, channels, sounds, and sea-passages for ships. The most frequented channel is the North Channel, between Cantire and Ireland.

The others are : Pentland Firth, between the mainland and the Orkneys; the Sound of Elest, between Skye and the mainland; the Sound of Mull, between Mull and Morvern; the Sound of Jura; the North Minch and the Little Minch, between the Outer Hebrides and the mainland.

11. The Build of Scotland.—Scotland consists of a northern mountain-mass, a lowland plain, and a southern region of uplands. The highest ranges lie, as in England, in the west of the country; but the general direction of these ranges is at right angles to the Pennine Range, or from west to east.

(i) The northern mountain-mass, or Highlands, lie between the Pentland Firth and the Lowland Plain.

(ii) The Lowland Plain merely fills the isthmus which connects the mountain-systems of the north with the hills of the south ; and it varies in breadth from 30 to 60 miles.

(iii) The Southern Uplands lie between the Lowland Plain and the Cheviot Hills.

12. The Mountains.—A line drawn from Stonehaven (in Kincardineshire) to the Mull of Cantire, would form the southern boundary of the Scottish Highlands; but the whole mountain-mass is cleft in two by the long, deep, and narrow fissure of Glenmore, which runs from Loch Eil to Inverness. The mountain-regions north of the Tay may be divided into two systems : the Northern System and the Central System. The Southern Uplands lie south of the Firth of Forth.

(i) The Northern System includes all the mountain-ranges north of Glenmore. The highest summit is Maam-Sufi (3862 ft.).

(ii) The Central System contains a large number of ranges, generally running east and west; and the most widely known range is the Grampians. The highest mountain is Ben Nevis (4406 ft.), which is also the highest summit in the three kingdoms; and the second highest is Ben Macdhui (4000 ft.). Other high peaks are Cairagorm, Ben More (= Great Ben); and, coming down to the south-west of Perthshire, we find Ben Ledi (= Hill of God), and Ben Lomond, on the edge of the picturesque district called the Treemechs.

" Crags, knolls, and mounds confusedly hurl'd,

The fragments of an earlier world."

South of the Grampians are the lower ranges of the Sidlaws and the Ochile.

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(iii) The Southern Uplands contain a number of low ranges, the best known of which are the Modiat Hills, the Lowthers, the Moorbots, and the Lammarmoors. The highest peak in the whole system is Mount Merrick (2764 ft.).

(iv) There is a continuous belt of high ground between Cape Wrath and Loch Lomond. This forms the great "wind-and-water-parting" of the country. In old days it had the name of Drumalbyn, or the Backbone of Albyn (=Scotland).

13. Plains.—There is properly only one plain in the whole of Sootland—the Lowland Plain, which lies between the Grampians and the Southern Uplands. The most clearly marked section of this plain is Strathmore (=the Great Valley), which lies between the Grampians on the north, and the Ochils and Sidlaws on the south. There are also many minor low plains along the coast.

(i) The best known of the minor plains are: the Plain of Catthness; the Plain of Cromarty (along the Cromarty Firth); and the Plain of the Forth-and-Chyde.

The great Roman wall of Antoninus ran through this plain. It was erected to keep out the barbarians of the North. "This region, formerly of such strategic importance, has, owing to its vicinity to two seas, its small elevation, and the riches of its soil and sub-soil, become one of the most prosperous of Great Britain, and, indeed, of the whole world. Edinburgh and Glasgow are the two semtinels of this Scotch isthmus. It was the scilon of the ancient glaciers which destroyed the more solid rocks, and spread their waste over the plain, thus creating the most fertile soil to be met with in all Britain."--Efccus.

(ii) The most level part of the Lowland Plain is the Carse of Stirling, which is the ulluvial plain of the lower Forth. It is as level as a bowling-green.

14. Rivers.—The watershed of Scotland being near the west coast, the rivers of the eastern slope are much the longest. The most famous are the Tweed, Forth, Tay, Dee, Spey, and Ness. The largest on the western slope are the Clyde and Ayr.

(i) The Tweed is the boundary river of Scotland. It is famous for salmon.

(ii) The Forth is a short river; but its estuary (which begins at Alloa) makes it the second greatest commercial river of Scotland. Both sides of the estuary have large numbers of ports, the most famous of which is Leith.

(iii) The Tay is the largest river in Scotland, and also in Great Britain. It is navigable to Perth; but by far the greatest port on its banks is Dundse.

(iv) The Dee has a higher source than any other river in Great Britain. It rises on a flank of Cairngorm. In its upper valley stands Balmoral. At its mouth stands Aberdeen (= Deemouth), between the Dee and the Don.

(v) The "thundering Spey" is the most rapid of Scottish rivers.

(vi) The News is the outflow of Loch Ness. Inverness (= Nessmouth) stands at the mouth of it.

(vii) The Clyds is the first commercial river of Scotland, and takes rank with the Mersey and the Thames. Its lower basin "forms one vast town of mining works, and factories for iron, silk, wool, and cotton." Between Glasgow and Greenock it is the greatest shipbuilding river in the world.

15. Lakes.—The lakes of Scotland are renowned for their picturesque beauty. Most of them lie in mountain-valleys, and are therefore of a long and narrow shape. The three largest are : Loch Lomond ; Loch Awe ; and Loch Ness. Other famous lakes are Loch Tay ; Loch Maree ; and Loch Katrine ; and, in the lowlands, Loch Leven.

(i) Looch Lomond is the largest lake (45 square miles) in Great Britain. It has "the form of a thin wedge driven up into the heart of the mountain-masses."

(ii) Loch Maree is surrounded by high and rugged mountain-walls.

(iii) Loch Katrine lies in the Trossachs, looking, in the evening light, "one burnished sheet of living gold." It is the scene of Walter Scott's "Lady of the Lake."

16. Climate.—The climate of Scotland is colder and damper than that of England. It has a long winter ("winter lingering chills the lap of May") and a cold summer. The west coast and the mountain districts are much rainier than the east coast and the regions of the Lowlands; and the long coast-line gives openings for the warm and moist sea-breezes. But, in winter, much of Scotland is warmer than even the south of England.

(i) In winter the mean temperature of the Orkney Islands is about the same as that of London; and the "isotherms follow the meridians."

(ii) "January is a far colder month on the Thames than in the Hebrides."

(iii) The rainfall on the west coast is in many places double that on the east.

17. Vegetation.—Scotland is the land of the pine and heather; though, in the lowlands, oaks, beeches, and elms grow well. The hardier grains—oats and barley—are characteristic of Scotland; but good crops of wheat are also raised in the richer alluvial soils. A very large part of the country is permanently under grass.

18. Minerals.—Scotland is very rich in coal and iron. These are found in large quantities within the great quadrangle which lies between Dundee and St. Abb's Head on the east, and Dumbarton and Girvan on the west. The richest coal-fields lie in the Plain of the Forth and Clyde. Lead is found in the south.

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(i) Excellent freestone for building abounds in the south of Scotland. Aberdeen has a great deal of granite, which is also found in Arran, etc.

(ii) The village of Leadhills, in Lanarkshire, is the highest inhabited place in Great Britain.

19. Population and Populousness.—The population of Scotland amounts to a little over 4,000,000. This gives about 140 persons to the square mile. By far the larger part of the population is crowded into the Lowland Plain, especially into the coal and iron centres.

(i) England is nearly four times as populous as Scotland.

(ii) The population of Scotland has an increasing tendency, as in England, to crowd into towns. As London contains nearly one-fifth of the population of England, so Glasgow contains nearly one-fifth of the population of Scotland.

(iii) There are two well-marked races in Scotland—the **Textonic** and the **Celtic**. The Lowlanders are mostly Tentons, and, on the east coast, of the Scandinavian branch, with a strong dash of Celtic blood; while the Highlanders are, in general, pure Celts. The Highlanders speak **Geelic**—which is a relation of Erse, Manx, and Brézonec.

20. Industries.—Mining, manufactures, and commerce are now the chief industries of the country; though the ancient industry has always been, as in other lands, agriculture.

(i) The Highlands are mostly given up to pasture ; the Lowlands produce excellent cereals of all kinds, but chiefly barley and cats.

(ii) The manufacturing districts lie mostly in the neighbourhood of Glasgow.

21. Manufactures.—The chief textile manufactures of Scotland are those of cottons, woollens, linen, jute, and silk. All kinds of machinery and hardware are made. Shipbuilding is also an important industry; and there is also a very large production of paper.

(i) The cotton manufacture is carried on chiefly in Glasgow and Paisley. Paisley makes immense quantities of thread.

(ii) The woollen manufacture goes on in Galashiels and Hawick (in the Tweed Valley); in Stirling, Kilmarnock, Bannockburn, etc.

(iii) Linen and jute manufacturing have their centres in Dundee and other towns of Forfar; in Dunfermline and other towns of Fife.

(iv) Silk is woven in Glasgow and Paisley.

(v) The **shipbuilding** of the country has its chief seat on the Clyde—where the largest Atlantic and Pacific steamers, and the most immense iron-clads, are built. Aberdeen is also famous for its "clippers."

(vi) Paper-making is a specialty of Scotland. Midlothian and Aberdeenshire are the chief centres. Along with this goes the industry of printing; and Edinburgh is the greatest centre of printing in the United Kingdom.

22. Commerce.—The Commerce of Scotland is a steadily growing quantity. There is not a port in the world where her ships are not known. Her chief ports are : Glasgow, Aberdeen, Leith, Dundee, and Greenock.

(1) Glasgow, besides being the great manufacturing capital of Scotland, is also the commercial capital. Her annual tonnage is about seventh in Great Britain. Vessels of over 3000 tons burden can reach the heart of the city. Greenock is her sister port. Both of these ports have a large trade with the two Americas.

(ii) The three eastern ports have a large Baltic trade, and send ships also to other parts of Europe, and to the East.

23. Communications.—Scotland has 4000 miles of excellent road; more than 3000 miles of railway; and over 200 miles of canal.

(i) Even in the most thinly inhabited parts of the Highlands there are good roads.

(ii) The network of railways is densest in the coal and iron district ; and especially in the Forth and Clyde Basin.

(iii) The longest canal is the Caledonian Canal; but it is of slight use for shipping, as it lies quite out of the main track of commerce.

24. Beligion and Education.—The most widely spread form of religion is **Presbyterianism**; but all creeds, sects, and religions have complete freedom. The Lowland Scotch have always highly valued and ardently promoted education; and there are at present good schools in every part of the country.

(i) There are four Universities : Edinburgh, Glangow, Aberdson, and St. Andrews. There are excellent secondary schools in every large town.

(ii) Since the Act of 1872, elementary education has grown greatly and prospered exceedingly.

THE COUNTIES OF SCOTLAND.

THE COUNTIES OF THE SOUTHERN LOWLANDS.

1. Wigtown.—Wigtownshire is the most southerly county in Scotland. It contains the extremities of the southern uplands. It is a pastoral county. The largest town is Stranraer; the county town is Wigtown.

(i) Wigtown, a small country town, stands on Wigtown Bay.

(ii) Straarser is a port on Loch Ryan. It has a good Grammar School.—Port-Patrick is only 22 miles from Donaghadee, a port on the east coast of Ireland.

2. **Kirkcudbright**.—This county contains the wildest parts of the Southern Uplands. The highest point is Merrick (2764 ft.). The county town is **Kirkcudbright**, on the Dee.

Kirkeudbright (pronounced Kirkcoobry) is a contraction of "Kirk of St. Cuthbert,"-Wigtown and Kirkeudbright have the common name of "Galloway."

3. Dumfries.—This county has an upland pastoral region in the north; and, in the south, a broad agricultural region, which consists of two fertile valleys—Nithsdale and Annandale. The largest town is Dumfries, which is also the county town.

Dumíries, a market for agricultural produce, is also a seaport on the Nith.

4. Roxburgh.—Roxburgh is a lovely pastoral and agricultural county, which consists of the Valley of the Teviot, and part of the basin of the Tweed. It extends to the Cheviot Hills. The largest town is **Hawick**; the county town is **Jedburgh**.

(i) Hawick (20) is a thriving town which manufactures "tweeds" and hosiery.

(ii) Jedburgh, on the Jed, was famous for a kind of justice called "Jethart Justice," which consisted in hanging a man first and trying him afterwards. It has a fine old abbey church.—Kalso, on the Tweed, has the ruins of a noble abbey.—Melrose has another ruined, though still lovely, abbey, celebrated by Sir Walter Scott in his "Lay of the Last Minstrel." Abbotsford, the house of Walter Scott—"a poem in stone" built by himself, stands also on the Tweed, not far from Melrose.

5. Ayrshire.—Ayrshire is a large and wealthy county on the Firth of Clyde. Its wealth consists in four things : excellent pasturage (it is

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called the "Dairy County"), fertile corn-lands, a large coal-field, and thriving manufactures. The largest town is **Kilmarnock**; the county town is **Ayr**.

(i) **Eilmanneck** has large ironworks, engineering establishments, carpet and woollen manufactures.

(ii) Ayr, at the mouth of the river Ayr, is a busy port which exports much coal and iron; and is also a manufacturing town. The great Scottish poet, Robert Burns, was born here in 1759.

6. Renfrewshire.—This county consists chiefly of a broad plain, which lies between the Clyde and the Firth of Clyde. The lower lands abound in coal and ironstone. Mining, manufactures, and shipbuilding are the chief industries. The two largest towns are Greenock and Paisley; the county town is Renfrew.

(i) Greeneck (75) is a scaport at the mouth of the Clyde with a large foreign trade. Here James Watt was born in 1736.—Port-Glasgow has large shipbuilding yards.

(ii) Paisley (65), one of the rainiest places in Great Britain, manufactures thread, cotton cloths, and shawls.

7. Lanark.—Lanarkshire consists chiefly of Clydesdale, or the basin of the Clyde. It is the wealthiest and most populous county in Scotland. In the south or upper part of the county agriculture and sheep-rearing are the chief industries; in the north or lower, mining and manufactures. Glasgow is the largest town.

(i) GLASGOW (750), on the Clyde, is by far the largest city in Scotland, and the second largest city in the United Kingdom. It is a great port, a vast manufacturing town—in cotton, iron, and other materials—and a centre of commerce of every kind. It stands on the great Clyde coal-field, and has overflowing supplies of coal and iron. In the West End are noble streets, and the fine buildings of the University. A little to the south is Langeide, where Mary Queen of Scots fought her last battle in 1568.

(ii) The mining districts are crowded with manufacturing centres, such as : Hamilton, Airdrie, Coatbridge, Wishaw, Motherwell, etc.

(iii) Lenark, the county town, stands near the picturesque Falls of Clyde.

8. Feeblesshire.—Peeblesshire is a hilly county among the southern uplands, on the upper waters of the Tweed. The northern part touches the Midlothian coal-field. Most of the county is purely pastoral. Feebles is the county town.

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9. Seikirkshire.—This is a pretty pastoral and hilly region, lying among the southern uplands. It consists of the two valleys of the Ettrick and Yarrow. Ettrick Pen (2170 ft.) is the highest point in the county. Galashiels is the largest; Seikirk is the county town.

(i) Galashiels (=the shiels or houses on the Gala) is a flourishing "tweed" manufacturing town.

(ii) Selkirk, the county town, stands on the Ettrick. James Hogg, the "Ettrick Shepherd," a famous Scottish poet, was born in the Forest of Ettrick in 1770.

10. Berwickshire.—This county lies between the Lammermoor Hills and the Tweed. The wide fertile plain in the middle is called the Merse. The county town is Greenlaw, a mere village.

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Berwick is-Aberwick-the wick or creek or bay at the aber or mouth of the Tweed.-Lammer-
moor is -Moor of Lamba.
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Dryburgh Abbey, a beautiful ruin on the Tweed, holds the tomb of Sir Walter Scott.

11. Linithgow.—Linlithgowshire, or West Lothian, is a region of craggy hills, with low ground on the Firth of Forth. In the west is a coal-field; in the east an oil-shale district. Bathgate is the largest town: Linithgow is the county town.

(i) Bathgate is a mining centre.

(ii) Linitiagow, on a lake, has the remains of a large palace, in which Mary Queen of Scots was born in 1542.

12. Edinburghshire.—This county, which is also called **Midlothian**, is the largest and most important of the three Lothians. In the south are the Pentland Hills and the Moorfoot Hills; in the north, a fertile plain along the Forth. In the east is the Midlothian Coal-field; in the west, the oil-shale district. Edinburgh is the largest and the county town; Leith is the chief seaport.

Edinburgh-Edwin's Burgh or stronghold. Edwin was a Saxon Prince, who first fortified the Castle Rock.

(i) EDIMEURAR (800), on some steep slopes and ridges which rise from the Firth of Forth towards the Pentlands, is one of the most beautiful cities in the world. The Old Town is built on a narrow ridge which is a continuation of the Castle Rock. The Hew Town stands on a steep slope which runs down to the Forth. Edinburgh is the seat of the Law Courts of Scotland; and of the largest University in the country.

(ii) Letth (70) is practically one town with Edinburgh. It is the third seaport in Scotland. It has large docks, and two piers each a mile long. It has a growing trade with the Baltic and North Germany.

13. Haddingtonshire.—Haddington (or East Lothian) consists of hills and moorlands in the south, and fertile lowlands on the Firth of Forth. The county town is Haddington.

(i) Haddington, a small country town, was the birthplace of John Knox.

(ii) Dunbar, a small seaport, is memorable for the victory of Cromwell over the Scottish army in 1650.—At Prestonpans, near Edinburgh, Sir John Cope, in command of the Royalist forces, was defeated by Prince Charles in 1745. $\frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} +$

THE LOWLAND COUNTIES OF THE NORTH.

14. Dumbartonshire.—This county is a long strip of land between Stirlingshire and Argyllshire, and most of it between Loch Lomond and Loch Long. In the south-eastern part there is much coal. The largest town is Dumbarton, which is also the county town.

Dumbarion-the due or fortified hill of the Brilons. The town was the capital of the ancient British kingdom of Strathelyde. Cf. Dunkeld, the fortified hill of the Cells.

(i) Dumbarton (15), at the junction of the Leven and the Clyde, is a busy port, with large shipbuilding yards.—The Vale of Leven has several manufacturing towns.

(ii) **Einkintilloch**, which stands in a detached portion of the county between Lanarkshire and Stirlingshire, has mines of coal and ironstone.

15. Stirlingshire.—This county is mountainous in the north-west, hilly in the middle, more level and fertile towards the south-east. The flat alluvial plain between Stirling and Alloa is called the "Carse of Stirling," and is one of the richest parts of Scotland. Part of the Western Coal-field lies in this county. The two largest towns are Stirling and Falkirk; the former is the county town.

(i) Stirling (18), with its castle, which commands the entrance into the Lowlands, is one of the most historic towns in Scotland. It was frequently the residence of the Scotlish Kings. Not far from the town is Bannockburn, the scene of the defeat of Edward 11. by Robert Jruce in 1314.

(ii) Falkirk (16) is a cattle-market, and an iron-working town.

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16. Clackmannanshire.—This is the smallest county in Scotland. It lies between the Ochil Hills and the Forth; and the lower part is on a valuable coal-field. Clackmannan, a mere village, is the county town; the largest town is Alloa.

(i) The whole county contains only 47 square miles-about one-third of Rutland.

(ii) Allos, on the Forth, is a small shipping-port for coal and iron.

17. Kinross-shire.—This is a small pastoral and agricultural county between Perthshire and Fife. Kinross is the county town.

Kinress stands on the western shore of Loch Leven. Loch Leven Castle, on an island in the lake, was the prison from which Mary Queen of Scots escaped in 1568, to fight the battle of Languide.

18. Fife.—Fifeshire is a lowland county with high hills in the west, a broken and hilly surface almost throughout, with a fertile valley called the "How of Fife," which is drained by the Eden. In the southwest there is a large and valuable coal-field. The county lies between the Firth of Forth and the Firth of Tay. Its manufacturing towns, its residence-towns, and its girdle of towns and ports round the coast, make it a kind of "Scottish Kent." The county town is **Cupar**; the largest town is **Kirkcaldy**.

James vi, compared Fife to a " beggar's mantle fringed with gold."

(i) Oupar (6) is a very quiet little country town.-Not far from it is St. Andrews, the ancient ecclesiastical capital of Scotland, and the seat of her oldest University.

(ii) Kirkesldy (30), "the lang toun," is a busy seaport, an oil-cloth manufacturing town, and a market for coals and corn.—Dunfermine, in the south-west, stands in the middle of the coal-field, and manufactures table-linen.

19. Forfar.—Forfarshire (or Angus) consists of four parallel belts of country; the "Braes of Angus" in the north; the fertile Valley of Strathmore; the chain of the Sidlaw Hills; and the lowland strip between them and the coast. This county is the chief seat of the linen and jute manufacture; and it is one of the busiest counties in Scotland. Dundee is by far the largest town; the county town is Forfar.

Strathmors-the great strath (or river-valley).

(i) Dundse (200), on the Firth of Tay, is the third largest city in Scotland. It is the chief seat of the jute manufacture and also a great seaport, from which ships go out to the whale and seal fisheries.

(ii) Montrose and Arbroath (or Aberbrothock = Mouth of the Brothock) are both thriving manufacturing towns and seaports. Off Arbroath is the Bell Rock Lighthouse, which is built on the "Inchcape Rock."

20. Kincardineshire.—Kincardine lies between Forfarshire and the river Dee. Agriculture and fishing are the chief industries. The county town is **Stonehaven**, an important herring-fishing station.

THE COUNTIES OF THE SOUTHERN HIGHLANDS.

21. Argyllahire.—Argyll is a county of mountains, moors, islands, sounds, lochs, and other deeply penetrating arms of the sea. The great inlet of Loch Linnhe cuts the county in two. The highest mountains are Ben Lui (3708 ft.) and Ben Cruachan (3611 ft.). The two largest towns are Oban and Campbeltown; the county town is Inveraray. The Mull of Cantire has been cut by the Crinan Canal.

(i) Oban (5), the terminus of the West Highland Railway, is the capital of the West Highlands. Campbaltown (8), the largest town, in the south of Cantire, has a small coal-field.

(ii) Inversay (= Mouth of the Aray) stands at the head of Loch Fyne.

(iii) Giances, the scene of the treacherous massacre of the Macdonalds in 1692, lies in the north-east of this county.

22. Bute.—Buteshire consists of the islands of Arran and Bute, with some others in the Firth of Clyde. Arran is mountainous; Bute is hilly in the north, level and fertile in the south. The county town is **Bothesay** (a place frequented by people in search of health), on the island of Bute.

The long winding mountain-bordered channel between Bute and the mainland is called the "Kyles of Bute."

23. Perthahire.—Perthshire is the loveliest and most varied county in Scotland. It is a large irregular circle which holds the entire basin of the Tay, and part of the basin of the Forth. It is almost equally divided between highlands and lowlands—between mountain

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and plain. Everywhere Perthshire is beautiful; and the Perthshire Highlands, in the west and south-west, contain some of the grandest and most picturesque scenery in the country. "The Trossachs" have been described by Sir Walter Scott in the "Lady of the Lake." Above Loch Tay, the largest lake, towers Ben Lawers (3984 ft.), the loftiest mountain of Perthshire. Loch Katrine is the loveliest of many beautiful lakes. Part of the great hollow of Strathmore lies in this county; and also the very fertile "Carse of Gowrie." The largest town is Perth, which is also the county town.

(i) Perth (35) is a beautiful city on the right bank of the Tay. Near it is Seens, where the Kings of Scotland were crowned in ancient times.

(ii) Dumblase on the Allan, an affluent of the Forth, has a lovely cathedral. Not far from it is Sheriffmuir, where a battle was fought in the Rebellion of "the Fifteen" (1715). West of Dunblane is Gallander, a pretty town at the entrance to the Trossachs.

(iii) The Pass of Killiegrankie, on the Garry, was the scene of the death (in 1689) of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee, while fighting against the forces of William III.

THE COUNTIES OF THE NORTHERN HIGHLANDS.

24. Inverness-shire.—Inverness-shire is the largest of all the Soottish counties. It is a land of lofty mountains, rugged and craggy/ hills and bare high moorlands—a land inhabited mostly by sheep, deer, grouse, and other game. The highest mountain—and it is the highest summit in the British Isles—is Ben Nevis (4406). The county is cut in two by the "cleft of the Great Glen (Glenmore)" the longest, straightest, and deepest in Great Britain. The lakes in this Glen are connected by the Caledonian Canal, which gives a passage for ships from the Atlantic into the Moray Firth. To this county also belong the islands of Skye (the largest of the Inner Hebrides), Harris, North Uist, etc. The largest town is Inverness, which is also the county town ; the chief town of Skye is Portree.

The Hebrides were called by the Norsemen Sudrayar (-Southern Isles). Hence the title "Bishop of Sodor and Man." Hence also the name Sutkerland for the most northerly county in Southand.

(i) Inverses (20) is the capital of the Highlands. It stands at the mouth of the Ness. A little east is Galloden Moor, where Prince Charles was finally defeated in 1746.

(ii) Pertree is a small fishing town.

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25. Matrn.—This county consists of a hilly and moorland district inthe south, with a low fertile plain on the Moray Firth. Agriculture and fishing are the chief pursuits. Natrn is the county town.

26. Eigin.—Elgin (or Moray) is in build similar to Nairn; but the level plain on the sea-coast is more fertile. Eigin is the county town. Eigin possesses the remains of a beautiful cathedral.

27. Banffahire.—Banff is a long county, which, like Nairn and Elgin, has a strip of fertile land along the shore. The south is both hilly and mountainous. Fishing and agriculture are the industries. —The county town is Banff.

28. Aberdeenshire.—This county has also two different regions a highland and a lowland. The highland and mountainous region is in the south-west; the lowland is in the north and east. The chief valleys are those of the Dee and the Don. Farming, fishing, shipbuilding, and granite-working are the main industries. The largest town is Aberdeen, which is also the county town.

Aberdeen-Mouth of the Dec.

(i) Aberdeen (130) is a great seaport, a manufacturing town, and a place of commerce. It possesses a University.

(ii) Peterhead, near Buchan Ness, is the chief port for the whale-fishery in Scotland.

(iii) In the upper valley of the Dee, at the foot of Braemar, stands Balmoral, the Highland residence of the Queen.

29. Ross-shire.—Ross-shire is a rugged highland region, with good corn-land in the low districts on the Moray Firth. The county of **Cromarty** consists of fragments scattered up and down Ross-shire. Lewis (the northern part of the island of Lewis-and-Harris) belongs also to Ross-shire. Dingwall is the county town; Stornoway (a fishing port) is the capital of Lewis.

30. sutherland.—Sutherlandshire is a wild and rugged region, very mountainous in the west. Most of it is deer-forest and sheep farm; and it is the most thinly peopled county in Scotland. The county town is **Dornoch**, a small fishing village.



Sutherland-Southern Land, and received its name from the Norseman, to whom it was south. There are many Norse names in the county, such as Heimsdale, Laxford (-Salmon ford), etc.

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31. Caithness.—Caithness is a wide, bare, treeless, sterile tableland, surrounded by a wall of steep rock going right down into the sea. Fishing is almost the only industry. The largest town is Wick.

Caithness is also full of Norse names. Wick means creek. Thurso-the os or island of Thor, the Norse god of thunder.

(i) Wick is the capital of the herring-fishery.-Thurso is famous for its salmon.

(ii) "John o' Groat's House," near Duncansby Head, is the most northerly building in Great Britain. Hence the phrase "From Land's End to John o' Groat's."

32. Orkney and Shetland.—The Orkney and Shetland Isles form one county. This archipelago consists of several hundreds of islands, islets, skerries, and rocks. There are a few stunted and wind-blasted trees; some thin oats and green crops. The chief industry is fishing. The inhabitants are descendants of the old Scandinavians. Kirkwall is the chief town in the Orkneys; Lerwick in the Shetlands.

The names in these islands are almost entirely Norme (Scandinavian). A or o or os is-island. Thus Sanda-sand island; Stromsoc-the island in the stream or current.

(i) Kirkwall (4) stands on Pomona (or Mainland), the largest island in the Orkneys. It has a grim old cathedral called after St. Magnus.

(ii) Lerwick (3), on Mainland-the largest island in the Shetlands-is a well-known harbour of refuge.

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IRELAND.

1. Introductory.—Ireland is the third largest island in Europe (counting Iceland), and the pendant to the larger island of Great Britain. It forms a breakwater to the sister-island in several senses; it prevents the billows of the Atlantic from striking part of the British shores, and it takes the first supply of rain from the Atlantic, so that the clouds which move on to Great Britain carry a smaller quantity of rain. It is separated from Great Britain by a sea much deeper than that which separates Great Britain from the Continent.

(i) The nearest point to Scotland is Fair Head. Between it and the Mull of Cantire, there is a distance of only 13¹/₂ miles.

(ii) Between **Carnsors Point**, in the south, and St. David's Head in Wales, there is a distance of 50 miles. In other words, St. George's Channel is nearly four times as broad as the North Channel.

(iii) The chief passenger communication between England and Ireland is from Holyhead to Kingstown---a distance of 63 miles.

2. Boundaries.-Ireland is bounded

1. N. W. and S .- By the Atlantic Ocean.

- 2. E .- By the North Channel, the Irish See, and St. George's Channel.
- (i) The Irish Sea divides Ireland from England.
- (ii) The North Channel divides it from Scotland.
- (iii) St. George's Channel divides it from Wales.

3. Size.—The area of Ireland amounts to 32,535 square miles, or more than half that of England and Wales.

(i) The longest line that can be drawn within the island is from Terr Head in the north-east to Misen Head in the south-west-a distance of 302 miles.

(ii) The greatest breadth is, from Howth Head to Slyne Head, 174 miles.

4. **Shape.**—The shape of Ireland is broader, shorter, and more compact than that of Great Britain. It is like "a lozenge set cornerwise in the ocean." It is a rude parallelogram. The coast line is about 2000 miles long : and there are many excellent harbours, especially on the south and west coasts.

(i) The most northerly point of Ireland is Main Head : the most easterly, the town of Donaghadee ; the most southerly, Misen Head ; the most westerly, Dunmore Read.

(ii) The coast line gives 1 mile of coast to each 15 square miles of area. No part of the country is more than 50 miles from good navigation.

(iii) The harbours of Bantry Bay and Cork could hold the whole British navy.

5. The North Coast.—The northern coast of Ireland is high, rocky, wild, and rugged in character. It has two deep-drawn bays, and a few bold promontories.

(i) The two bays are Lough Swilly and Lough Foyle.

(ii) The headlands are: Horn Head; Malin Head; Bengore Head (with the Giant's Causeway); and Benmore or Fair Head.

(iii) The Giant's Causeway is a "pavement formed of the tops of 40,000 columns of basalt."

6. The West Coast.—The western coast is, like the northern, bold, wild, mountainous, and rugged. Three great mountain-masses project into the sea—those of Donegal, Connaught (Mayo and Galway), and Kerry; and between these are numerous bays and estuaries, the Mouth of the Shannon being the most important.

(i) The chief openings and inlets on the west are: Donegal Bay; Sligo Bay; Killala Bay; Clew Bay; Galway Bay; the Mouth of the Shannon; Dingle Bay; Kenmare Eiver; and Bastry Bay.

(ii) The most important headlands are: Rossan Point; Erris Head; Achill Head; Slyne Head; Loop Head; Dunmore Head; and Crow Head.

7. The South Coast.—The southern coast is lower than the western; and it possesses several magnificent openings.

(i) The chief openings are : Cork Harbour ; Kinsale Harbour ; and Waterford Harbour.

(ii) The chief capes are: Minen Head; Cape Clear; Hook Foint; and Carnsore Point.— "Cape Clear, the southern point of Clear Island, is a mere mass of barren cliffs." It is the first land sighted coming from America.

8. The East Coast.—The eastern coast, like the southern, has a long regular line of low shore, which is interrupted by only two mountain-masses—those of the Wicklow Mountains and the Mourne Mountains. Some of its bays are closed by sand-banks.

(i) The chief openings are : Wexford Harbour; Dublin Bay; Dundalk Bay; Carlingford Lough; Dundrum Bay; Strangford Lough; and Belfast Lough. The best harbour among these is Strangford Lough.

- Lough is a Celtic word (in Scotch Celtic, Loch) which is applied indifferently to a lake or to a deepdrawn arm of the sea.
- (ii) The chief headlands are Wicklow Head and Howth Head.
 - ** Almost all that Ireland possesses of picturesque beauty is to be found on or in the immediate neighbourhood of the sea-board; if we except some patches of river scenary on the Nore and the Blackwater, and a part of Lough Erne. The dreary arganes called the Bog of Allen, which courpies the centre of the island, stretches away for miles-fist, asd-colured, and monotonous, fissure din every direction by obtannels of dark-timted water, in which he very fish take the same sad colour. This tract is almost without trace of habitation, save where at distant intervals, utter destitution has related a mud hovel undistinguishable from the hillocks and turf around it."

9. Islands.—The islands of Ireland are small in size, and are situated near the mainland. They are, in fact, parts of the mainland, the softer rocks between having been pared away by the action of water and weather. They are most numerous on the west coast, especially off Donegal, Mayo, and Galway.

(i) On the north coast we find Rathlin Island (which contains the same basaltic rocks as the Giant's Causeway), and Tory Island.

(ii) On the west coast: North Aran; Achill; Clare; Aran Islands; and Valentia. From Valentia starts the telegraphic cable to America.

- (iii) On the south coast : Clear, and Spike (in Cork Harbour).
- (iv) On the east coast : the small islands of Dalkey and Ireland's Eye.

The endings cy, sy, and the word syc are all the same. They are forms of the Scandinavian word for island—os. The Celtic or Erse word for island is Ennis, Innish, or Inck. The ending ford in Wenford, Waterford, etc., is another witness to the presence of Norsemen on the east coast of Ireland. They were governed in Dublin by their own laws up to the 13th century.

10. The Build of Ireland.—Ireland is a wide limestone plain, interrupted by one low range (the Slieve Bloom Hills), and surrounded by a broken belt of mountains and high lands. The belt of mountains is most continuous in the south and south-west. The central plain, which fills most of the country, and which consists of undulating ground, has an average height of 200 ft. above the sea-level, and is nowhere higher than 300 ft. The country has no backbone, and no geographical centre.

(i) Scotland has the Grampians as its backbone; England has the Pennine Chain; but the interior of Ireland is occupied by a vast watery plain, covered with lakes and badly drained by slow-flowing rivers.

(ii) Ireland is a much lower country than either England or Scotland. Its average height is 400 ft.; that of England 600 ft.; of Scotland 1000 ft.

(iii) In the Central Plain are numerous bogs, which altogether cover an area of 4420 square miles (more than twice the area of Norfolk), and which are among the most extensive in Europe. A dreary, sad, wide, deserted country—"where mudcabins as black as the peat in the midst of which they rise are rare objects !"

11. Mountain Systems.—There are four clearly-marked systems of mountains—or rather, of highlands, in Ireland; and these are the Northern, Western, Southern, and Eastern Highlands.

(i) The chief ranges in the North are: The Mountains of Antrim and the Mountains of Donegal. Between them lie the Carnt-gher Mountains in Londonderry. The highest point in the Mountains of Donegal is Mount Errigal (2462 ft.).

(ii) The chief ranges in the West are: The Nephin Beg Mountains (in Mayo), which terminate in the bold cliffs of Achill Island; the Connemara Mountains, the western end of which clusters in the group of Twelve Pins; and the Mountains of Kerry, the highest range of which is the Macgilliouddy Reeks, which culminate in Carrantual (3414 ft.).

(iii) In the South are: the Knockmealdown Mountains—north of the Blackwater Valley; and, parallel with them, the Galtess, the highest peak being Galtymore.— Still further to the north are the Silver Mines and the Silver Elooms.

(iv) In the East are two granite mountain-masses: the Wicklow Mountains and the Mourne Mountains. The highest point in the former is Lugnaquilla (3039 ft.); in the latter Slieve-Donard (2796 ft.). The scenery of the Wicklow Mountains, with their lovely lakes, clear rivers, and noble waterfalls, is surpassed only by that of Killarney.

12. The Plain of Ireland.—The Great Central Plain of Ireland fills about four-fifths of the whole country. It is an "immense pasturefield," lying between Dublin Bay and Galway Bay. Much of it is covered by bogs and morasses, the largest of which is the Bog of Allen; and the total extent of bog-land is said to amount to nearly one-ninth of the whole area of the country. It is watered by one large river—the Shannon.

13. **Rivers.**—The rivers of Ireland rise in the heights which border the Central Plain, and fall into the sea on the same side of the island on which they rise. Hence they are short, unimportant, and of little use for commerce. To this general statement there is one striking exception—the **Shannon**, which flows through the centre of the Great Plain. The two next in size are the **Barrow** and the **Bann**.

(i) The **Shannon** (224 miles), the greatest river in the British Islands, rises in the mountains of Fermanagh and Leitrim: flows through Lough Allen, Lough Ree, and Lough Derg to Limerick, where it opens out into a wide and splendid estuary. It is navigable to Lough Allen—a distance of 213 miles. At a distance of 200 miles from the sea the Shannon is only 160 ft. above the sea-level; and hence it has only a fall of about 9 inches to the mile.

(ii) The Barrow (114 miles) rises in the Slievebloom Mountains, flows past Athy (up to which town it is navigable), and falls into Waterford Harbour. By means of a branch of the Grand Canal, it connects Dublin and Waterford.

(iii) The Bann (100 miles) flows out of Lough Neagh—the largest lake in the British Islands. It forms the boundary between Londonderry and Antrim.—Almost parallel with it is the Foyle, which flows into Lough Foyle.

(iv) The other well-known rivers are: (a) On the East: the Boyne, which flows through County Meath, and on which the "Battle of the Boyne" was fought in 1690: the Liffey, on which Dublin stands; the Blaney, which flows into Werford Haven. (b) On the South: the Bair and Nore, which are tributaries of the Barrow; the Elackwater, which falls into Youghal Harbour; and the Lee, the estuary of which forms the noble harbour of Cork. (c) On the West: the Mey, which flows into Killala Bay; and the Erse, which is almost one long lake, and which flows into Donegal Bay.

(v) There are a good many rivers with the name *Blackwater*; and all the tributary streams might be divided into *black* and *white*. When a river has a long course through a bog, it carries with it large quantities of tannin, which gives it a deep brown colour; and under a cloudy sky this brown looks intensely black.

14. Lakes.—There are a great many lakes in Ireland—both in the mountainous and lowland districts. The Provinces of Ulster and Connaught abound with them; but Connaught has most. The largest is Lough Neagh, between Antrim and Tyrone; the most beautiful are the Lakes of Killarney, in County Kerry.

(i) Lough Meagh has an area of 153 square miles. It is three times as large as Loch Lomond, and fifteen times Lake Windermere.

- (ii) Loughs Erne, Conn, Mask, and Corrib are singularly picturesque.
- (iii) Loughs Allen, Ree, and Derg are expansions of the waters of the Shannon.
- (iv) The Lakes of Killarney lie among the loveliest scenery in Ireland.

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15. Minerals.—Ireland is rich in iron, but poor in coal. There are only four small coal-fields, the largest of which is the Leinster Coalfield, between the Nore and the Barrow. Peat is the fuel generally used; and coal has to be imported. There is some copper; a little lead and zinc; and a little silver. Many beautiful marbles are quarried in different parts of the island.

(i) "Of the Upper Carboniferous beds which at one time overspread the Central plain of Ireland, only small patches remain in isolated spots, serving chiefly as an indication of the immense loss that has been sustained in an important element of material prosperity."—*Eucyc. Brit.* xiii. 217.

(ii) This loss is believed to be due to the fact that, ages ago, Ireland lay beneath an immense glacier, which planed and scraped away the beds of coal.

16. Climate.—The climate of Ireland is moister, more equable, and warmer—latitude for latitude—than that of England. It is a maritime climate—a climate of the North Atlantic. No other country in Europe is so abundantly supplied with rain. Hence the island keeps, both in winter and summer, a fresh and vivid green, which has given to it the appellation of the "Emerald Isle."

 (i) The rainfall for the whole island averages 36 inches; for England it is only 30 inches. (As in the case of Great Britain, the west coast is rainier than the east.)

(ii) "Occasionally the downpour along the western coasts is so considerable that the sea, for a great distance from the land, becomes covered with a thick layer of fresh water."-FORES.

(iii) The arbutus or strawberry-tree grows in the open air in the warm south-west of England, and among the Lakes of Killarney, just as it does in Madeira, Portugal, etc.

(iv) The rainfall at Cork is 40 inches a year: at Dublin only 31 inches. The high mountains on the west coast drive the rain-clouds into the higher (and colder) strata of air, where they are condensed, and discharge great quantities of rain.

17. Vegetation.—The climate is hurtful to cereal crops, and grass is the vegetable growth that is most successful. The most fertile part of the country is the tract in the Province of Munster known as the "Golden Vale," which stretches from Cashel in Tipperary to near Limerick, and occupies part of the valley of the Suir.

18. Inhabitants.-The majority of the people of Ireland belong to the Celtic Race. The admixture of Teutonic blood has been greatest in Ulster, where many of the inhabitants are of Scottish descent, and in Leinster, on the east coast, where many are of Norman and English descent.

(i) The "native" language is called <u>Kree</u>—a language akin to Gaelic in Scotland, Cymric in Wales, Manx in Man, and Brézonec in Brittany. It is spoken still by about 800,000 people; but there is not a single newspaper printed in it.

(ii) "Even the poorest Irishmen, notwithstanding their abject condition, still retain excellent qualities. They love each other, assist one another in misfortune, and always keep the door of their cabin hospitably open. The least benefit conferred upon them lives ever after in their memory."—RÉCLUS.

19. Population and Populousness.—The population of Ireland numbers only about 5,000,000; and, since 1847, it has been steadily diminishing—chiefly by emigration. In 1841, the population was over eight millions. The most populous province is **Uister**; the most thinly populated **Connaught**.

(i) Famine and emigration are the two chief causes of the diminution in the population of Ireland. In the great potato-famine of 1846-47, over a million persons died, either of famine or of the typhus that followed it; and more than a million emigrated to the United States.

(ii) From 60,000 to 80,000 emigrate every year. This is more than a thousand a week. "In no other country has famine committed such ravages as on the fertile soil of Ireland; and no other country has poured forth so broad a stream of emigrants."

20. Industries.—The chief industry is the raising of live-stock. Cattle, pigs, and farm-produce, constitute the chief industrial wealth. —In the north and east there are manufactures of linens and woollens.

(i) Nearly one-seventh of the country is bog or water; and only about two-thirds can be described as good land, fit for ploughing or for pasture.

(ii) The want of a sufficient supply of coal has depressed manufactures; and the water-power of the country has been little used.

21. Commerce.—The commerce of Ireland consists chiefly in the export of various kinds of agricultural produce, and in the import of coal, hardware, clothes, and other British manufactures. Her chief market for produce is Great Britain.

(i) The chief ports are Dublin, Belfast, Cork, Waterford, Limerick, Galway, and Londonderry. These are also her largest towns; and, from the nature of the interior, we should expect the largest towns of Ireland to lie on the sea-coast. The most flourishing sea-board is that which faces England (and Dublin lies right opposite Liverpool); though the west coast possesses splendid natural harbours.

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(ii) Glasgow, Liverpool, and Bristol-all on the west coast of Great Britain, are the ports which receive most merchandise from Ireland.

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(iii) Her exports amount to about £20,000,000 a year; and, of this, £19,000,000 worth comes to Great Britain.

(iv) Of the total trade of the United Kingdom, England and Wales take about 90¹/₂ per cent.; Scotland 8 per cent.; and Ireland only 1¹/₂ per cent.

22. Communications.—There are good turnpike roads; there is ample water communication by river, lake, and canal; and there are about 2700 miles of railway.

(i) The chief canals are the Royal Canal and the Grand Canal. Both connect Dublin with the Shannon.

(ii) The chief railways are: (a) The Great Southern and Western, from Dublin to Waterford, Cork, and Limerick.—(b) The Midland, from Dublin to Galway—right across the Central Plain.—(c) The Great Northern, from Dublin to Belfast.—(d) The Northern Counties, from Belfast to Londonderry.

23. Divisions.—Ireland is divided into four provinces; and these are again subdivided into counties—of which there are 32 altogether. The four provinces are : Leinster, in the east; Ulster, in the north; Connaught, in the west; and Munster, in the south.

(i) These provinces correspond in some degree to the ancient kingdoms of Ireland. Before the English invasion, the country was divided into five kingdoms—Ulster, Connaught, Munster, Leinster, and Meath, the two last being afterwards joined.

(ii) Leinster contains 12 counties: Longford, West Meath, Meath, and Louth; King's County, Queen's County, Kildare, and Dublin; Kilkenny, Carlow, Wicklow, and Wexford.

(iii) Uster contains 9 counties : Donegal, Londonderry, and Antrim ; Tyrone, Armagh, and Down ; Fermanagh, Monaghan, and Cavan.

(iv) Conneight, 5: Mayo, Sligo, and Leitrim; Galway and Roscommon.

(v) Munster, 6: Clare and Tipperary ; Kerry and Limerick ; Cork and Waterford.

24. Large Towns.—The presence of large towns in a country is, in general, due to the combination, in a high degree, of prosperous manufacture with busy commerce; but, in Ireland, this combination hardly exists. Hence there are only three towns in the whole country which have more than 50,000 inhabitants. These are Dublin, Belfast, and Cork. The three next to these in size are Limerick, Londonderry, and Waterford.

(i) Dublin (360), the metropolis of Ireland, stands on the Liffey. It is no larger than Sheffield; but its position on the part of the Central Plain which faces England makes it a centre of internal and foreign trade. It has a university, and two cathedrals. The port is **Eingstown**.

(ii) Balfast (210), in Antrim, at the head of Belfast Lough, is the centre of the linen and cotton manufactures of the island. It has a larger foreign trade than even Dublin, and nine-tenths of all the Irish shipping is built at Belfast.

(iii) Cork (82), on the Lee, is the capital of the largest county in Ireland, is the largest city in Munster, and the third largest in the whole country. It has a good foreign trade, and also some woollen and linen manufactures. Queenstown—a splendid natural harbour—is its port, and the first place of call for American steamers.

(iv) Limerick (40) stands on the Shannon, just where it begins to widen into an estuary, and at the western end of the fertile district called the "Golden Vale."

(v) Londonderry (30), on the Foyle, is a busy seaport and manufacturing town. It is famous for the terrible siege it sustained from James II. in 1689. It still preserves its old walls and the cannon on them used in the defence.

(vi) Waterford (25), at the junction of the Suir and the Barrow, is the seat of the export trade to Bristol.

25. Historic Towns.—There are several towns in Ireland which have made their mark in the sad history of the country, the most famous being : Drogheds, Dundalk, Galway, Armagh, and Trim.

(i) Drogheds, on the Boyne, was stormed by Cromwell in 1649; and the garrison of 2000 men put to the sword.—A little above the town, the Battle of the Boyne was fought in 1690, which put an end to the influence of James II. in Ireland.

(ii) Dundalk, in County Louth, at the head of Dundalk Bay, is an ancient city, where Edward Bruce (the brother of Robert) crowned himself King of Ireland in 1818. He was the last king of all Ireland.

(iii) Galway, on Galway Bay, is one of the oldest and quaintest towns in Ireland. It was once the seat of a considerable trade with Spain. A line of steamers from Galway to New York existed about thirty years ago; but it did not succeed. It is the seat of one of the Queen's Colleges.

(iv) Armagh was, from the 5th to the 9th century, the metropolis of Ireland. It is still the ecclesiastical metropolis. Its cathedral was founded by St. Patrick.

(v) Trim is the county town of Meath, which was the estate of the chief king of Ireland, whose palace was at Tara.—The Duke of Wellington (Arthur Wellesley) was born near Trim in 1769.

FRANCE

FRANCE.

1. Introductory.—"Fair France" (La Belle France) is the country in Europe which lies nearest to Great Britain. It is one of the Six Great Powers. It is also one of the richest countries in the world.

(i) France lies almost exactly half-way between the North Pole and the Equator, her northern boundary being about 39° from the North Pole, and her southern about 42° from the Equator. The limits are 42° and 51° North lat.

(ii) Her chief towns lie on the same lines of latitude as the great towns of Europe. Thus we have :

Latitude of North, 51°: Dunkirk; Cologne; Breslau; Kiev. Latitude of Middle, 47°: Lyons; Milan; Trieste; Sevastopol. Latitude of South, 48°: Toulon; Florence; Varna; Tiflis (Georgia).

2. Boundaries.—France has boundaries both of sea and of land. The sea-boundaries are the English Channel, the Atlantic, and the Mediterranean. The land-boundaries are the broad mountain-masses of the Pyrenees on the south; the Alps, the Jura, and the Vosges on the east. On the north there is no natural boundary; and the country is guarded on this line by a chain of fortresses.

(i) On the north, it is bounded by Germany and Belgium; on the south, by Spain; on the east, by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy; and on the west, by the sea.

(ii) She has nearly 2000 miles of coast line, of which only 382 lie on the Mediterranean.

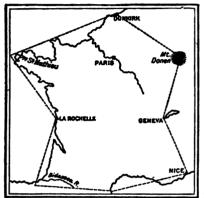
(iii) The boundaries are highest where they separate France from kindred peoples. Thus, had it not been for the Alps and the Pyrenees, the three Latin nations—the French, the Italians, and the Spaniards—would probably have been only one. In the north, where the frontier is open, the races do not mingle, for they are antagonistic in blood, in language, and in feeling. Hence the Unity of France. It is a nation separated from those of similar race and language by high mountain-ranges, and from neighbouring peoples by differences of language, race, and religion. A Frenchman learns a foreign language with the very greatest difficulty.

3. Commercial Position .- France commands a large part of the

trade of the two busiest seas in the world—the Atlantic and the **Mediterranean**. She also touches the German Ocean; and these three commercial seas provide her with trade, and minister to her wealth.

(i) France is on the high road between the south and the north of Europe; and, when Bome was a great power, it was up the Rhone valley that civilisation flowed.

(ii) From Paris stretch out railways to all the great cities of Europe.



4. Shape.—France has a very compact shape. Roughly speaking, it is an octagon, with four re-entrant sides. A meridian drawn through the capital joins the two opposite angles and divides the country into two almost equal portions.

(i) Four of the sides of the octagon are on the sea.

(ii) The re-entrant angles are at La Rochelle, on the Bay of Biscay,

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and the west end of the Lake of Geneva

5. Size.—France has an area of more than 204,000 square miles that is, more than twice the size of Great Britain.

(i) The longest line that can be drawn in it runs from the south-east corner to Dunkirk, —a distance of about 670 miles.

(ii) Though France is so large, and has a long coast line on the Atlantic and the Mediterranean, it has not nearly so many good harbours as Great Britain. Hence it can never be so great a maritime power.

6. The Slopes of France.—France has three great slopes :—to the Atlantic and the West; to the Mediterranean and the South; to the German Ocean and the North.

(i) The slope to the west is by far the largest, and constitutes almost the whole of France. Three of the largest rivers of France flow down this slope.

(ii) The slope to the south is long and narrow and contains the valley of the Saône and the Rhone.

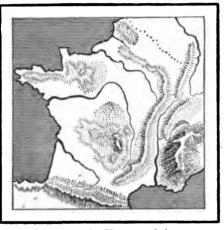
FRANCE

(iii) The slope to the north is only a fragment of that northern slope which throws down the rivers of Belgium and Germany into the North Sea. In this slope France possesses no complete rivers—but only the upper parts of the Belgian and German streams.

(iv) It should be noticed that the northern alope of France slopes away from the sun's rays; the western alope to the afternoon sun; and the southern alope to the mid-day sun.

7. The Build of France.-(i) The core of France consists of a

triangular plateau of granite, called the Central Table-land or the Highland of Auvergne (Ovérn). The eastern edge of this plateau is a range of low mountains called the Cevennes. The general height of the Central Plateau is somewhat above 3000 ft. (ii) The highlands continue from the north of the



Cevennes on to the Vosges; and between the Vosges and the Ardennes there is one uninterrupted table-land. (iii) The larger part of France forms part of the Great Flain of Europe, which here bends to the south. A wide plain in the west; a table-land in the middle; mountains in the east; a narrow plain (the Valley of the Rhone) sloping to the south—that is the simple build of France.

(i) The Central Table-land descends on the west and north-west by a series of terraces to the lowland plains.

(ii) On the east and south-east its borders are very abrupt, and have a sharp descent into the Valley of the Rhone.

(iii) The cose d'or (="The Golden Slope"), the Plateau of Langres, are the names of the chief ranges in this highland district of the north-cast.

8. The Coast of France.—The coast of France, taken as a whole, is low and flat.

(i) The Mediterranean Geast is high and rocky in the east. The spurs of the Alps run out into the sea, and end in cliffs. The western part is low, flat, and sandy, and well known for its salt lagoons.

(ii) The Atlantic Geast in the south is very low and sandy, and edged by sanddunes, behind which are rows of shallow salt lakes. In Brittany, the coast line is mostly of granite, with high cliffs and deep indentations. Between the mouths of the Seine and the Somme runs a line of chalk cliffs of the same character as those on the English side of the Channel.

(iii) The coast line of France is wanting in good harbours. Those on the south side of the English Channel form a striking contrast to the spacious English harbours on the north side. Calais cannot be compared with Dover.

9. Bays and Straits.—The great sea-opening on the Mediterranean Coast is the Gulf of Lions; on the Atlantic, the Bay of Biscay. The Strait between France and England is called the Straits of Dover.

(i) The Gulf of Lions is so called from the storminess of its waters.

The French call it Golf de Lion ; hence we ought to call it Lion Gulf. It is often incorrectly called the Gulf of Lyons.

(ii) The Bay of Biscay is one of the stormiest seas in the world. It is open to the strongest winds—those from the south-west; and there are currents within it which fight with the tides.

(iii) The Straits of Dover divide France and England, while they connect the English Channel and the Atlantic with the German Ocean. Their breadth is 20 miles; and their greatest depth does not exceed 177 ft. No fewer than 200,000 vessels pass these Straits every year; and, when the weather is clear, it is sometimes difficult to count the sails in sight.—It is proposed to tunnel the Straits; and this tunnel would go easily through a bed of grey chalk at a depth of 414 ft.

10. Capes and Islands.—The chief capes on the north-west coast are Gris-Nez (*Gree-nay*); Barfleur; La Hogue; and Point St. Matthew. The chief islands off the west coast are Ushant, Belle Isle, Ré, Oleron; and, in the Mediterranean, the Hyères (*Ee-air*); and Corsica.

(i) Not far from Gris Nez is a headland called Blane Nes (= White Nose), which our sailors have, misled by the sound, corrupted into Black Nose.

(ii) The Hyères are a group of mountainous islands off the coast of Provence.

(iii) Corsica is a very mountainous island, which, by geographical position, race and language, belongs to Italy. It has several summits above 8000 ft. in height. It has belonged in succession to each of the powers that have ruled in the Mediterranean the Phoenicians, the Carthaginians, the Romans, Saracens, Pisans, Geneese, etc. It is now one of the 87 departments of France. The most commercial town in the island is Bastia; the best known is Ajaccie, where Napoleon was born in 1769.

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11. Mountains and Table-lands.—There are five external mountainchains which form the natural frontier of France: the Ardennes, the Vosges, the Jura, the Alps, and the Pyrenees. The chief internal chain is the Cevennes, which run on under different names into the Vosges. The chief table-land—and it is also the central tableland—is the Highlands of Auvergne.

(i) The Ardennes is the weakest part of the frontier.

(ii) The Voges run between France and Alsace, now (since 1871) a province of Germany. They separate the basin of the Moselle from that of the Rhine.

(iii) The Jura is a limestone range-with fantastic forms, dark pine-woods, and sunny green meadows on the edges of the forests-between France and Switzerland.

(iv) The ranges of the Alps between France and Italy are the Maritime and Cottian Alps. They separate the basins of the Rhone and Po. The mountain-mass called Mont Blanc, the highest mountain in the Alps (15,780 ft.), is almost wholly within France. Its glaciers and snow-fields cover 104 square miles. The largest glacier is the Mer de Glace (Sec of Ice), which flows at the rate of 11 inches a day on an average.

(v) The Fyrances separate the basins of the Garonne and the Adour from those of the Bbro and the Douro. The highest summit is Mount Maladetta (*the Accursed*), which is 11,168 ft. high.

- (a) "The mountain-chains which form the most formidable barrier, divide France from the nations most akin to herself."
- (b) The passes over the Pyreness are so dangerous from wind and storm that the proverb goes, "The son would not wait there for his father; nor the father for his son."

(vi) The Gevennes- a gravite range-separate the basins of the Rhone and Saône from those of the Loire and the Garonne The highest peak is Mont Mésene, a mountain with three "teeth."

(vii) The Mountains of Auvergae separate the basin of the Loire from that of the Garonne. The plateau contains a large number of extinct volcances. In the neighbourhood of Germons there are about seventy cones—locally called puys (Latin puteus, a pit)—from which lava once flowed. The Pay de Dôme is the highest

12. Plains. — Most of France is lowland; but there are few level plains. The lowest part of the French plain is the Landes, on the Bay of Biscay. The Mediterranean coast, west of the Rhone, is also very low and flat.

The Landes is a wide stretch of gravel, sand, heath, and moor, and was long ago the bed of the sea. In 1800 land here was very cheap; and "for a few francs a shepherd might purchase all around him as far as his voice could be heard." There was, a hundred years ago, a danger of the Landes being buried under the drifting sand; but pines were planted—and, from the Adour to the Gironde, most of it is one vast pine-forest. In some parts, the shepherds still walk on stilts called *changues* (a corruption of shanks); and, through a mist, the figure looks like a walking tower.

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13. Rivers.—France is very rich in rivers. She has nearly a hundred navigable rivers; and most of these have their entire course within the country itself. The highlands in which they rise lie very far back in the country, and this gives them room for a long course; the lower plains are tolerably level, and this makes their current slow and gentle. The four chief rivers are the Seine, the Loire, the Garonne, and the Rhone.

(i) The Seine (482 miles long) rises in the table-land of Langres and falls into the sea at Havre. It is navigable up to Troyse—a distance of 840 miles. Its chief tributaries are the Maras and the Yonne, which are also navigable far into the heart of the land. It is from the Yonne that a canal connects the Saône and the Rhone with the Seine —that is, the Mediterranean with the Atlantic.

(ii) The Leire (609 miles long) rises in the Gevennes ("among the glittering micaceous rocks of the Mézenc") and falls into the sea at St. Masaire. After flowing 270 miles, it is joined by its twin river the Allier. The other chief tributaries from the south are the Cher and the Vienne. The Loire is navigable for about 450 miles—about twice the whole length of the Thames.

- (a) The Loire is subject to great floods—it sometimes rises 20 ft, above its usual level. These floods are due to two causes : (i) the small height of the mountains from which the river is fed; and (ii) the very hard character of the rocks of these mountains. The first does not permit of the formation of glaciers which might feed the river during summer; the second allows the rain to run off too repidly.
- (b) There are more historical castles and towns on the Loire than on any other French river.

(iii) The Garoane (with the Gironde 616 miles long) rises in the Spanish Pyranees, plunges into a deep hole called the Trou du Taureau (*Troo du Toro*=Bull's hole), flows underground for 2½ miles, and reappears at the foot of the mountains. It is navigable to a point above Toulouse-270 miles. The chief tributaries on the right bank are the Lot (*Lo*), the Tarn, and the Dordogne (*Dordonn*). A canal and the river Aude connect the Garoane with the Mediterranean.

The GARDHAR sends much more water to the ocean than the Loire, and is about twice as large as the Seins. Floods occur often-mostly in May and June when the snows mult. In 1875, the river ross 40 ft, above its usual level, destroyed 7000 houses (chieffy in Toulouse) and did damage to the value of \$3,400,000. Forests ought to be planted on the mountain-slopes.

(iv) The Rhons (with the Badne 637 miles long) rises on the side of Mont St. Gethard in Switzerland, flows through the Lake of Geneva, turns to the south at Lyons, and enters the Mediterranean by a delta which begins at the "Forks" (Foorque) a little above the city of Ariss. Its chief tributary from the north is the Badne (with its tributary the Doubs); from the east, the Lake and the Durance. Since the opening of the Lyons and Marseilles railway, the Rhone is little used for navigation. But it may become of the highest value for irrigation. The sixty-two steamers that used to ply on it have dwindled down to six or eight.



Lord Macaulay writes in his diary: "I was delighted by my first sight of the blue, rushing, heal'hful-looking Rhone. It is a vehement, rapid stream; it seems cheerful and full of animal spirits, even to petulance !" Later on, he says. "My old friend the Rhone is the bluest, brightest, swiftest, most joyous of rivers."

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14. Lakes. — France is singularly destitute of lakes. But there are numerous lagoons on the south and south-west coasts.

(i) Most of the lakes are in the French Jura ; but they are very small.

(ii) The most important of all the lagoons is that of Than (Tö), which is a little sea of nearly 20,000 acres separated from the Mediterranean by a narrow strip of land.— From many of the lagoons salt is made.

15. Climate.—(i) There are in France three zones of climate which are pretty plainly marked: the zone of the northern slope; of the western; and of the southern. The mean temperature of the year for the first is about 50° ; for the second, 54° ; for the third, 59° .

(i) The climate of the northern slope resembles that of the south of England.

(ii) The great central plateau divides the middle from the southern zone. The Mediterranean slopes have a climate and landscape almost African in their aspect.

16. Climate.—(ii) The climate also varies from east to west. Owing to the Gulf Stream and the warm south-west winds, the temperature of the Atlantic coasts is higher than in corresponding latitudes farther east. As we go east, the equalising influence of the ocean is less and less felt; the winters are colder and the summers hotter.

(i) Westerly winds blow on an average two days out of every three.

(ii) The quantity of rain increases as the land rises; and therefore as we go from west to east, and also from north to south.

17. Vegetation.—There are three belts of vegetation in France those of corn; wine; and cil. The first and the last are separate from each other: but they overlap the second.

(i) In the northern or corn region, wheat and bestroot (for sugar) are largely grown. Apples and pears are very plentiful in Normandy and the north.

(ii) In the central or wine region, both white and red wines are produced. The chief kind is claret; the others are burgundy and champagne. France is the greatest winegrowing country in the world. Terrible storms of wind and hail destroy every year about one-tenth of the produce.

Vineyards cover one-twentisth of the whole soil of France; and wine is the common drink. Forests cover one-tenth.

(iii) In the southern or olive-oil region, mains takes the place of wheat; the mulberrytree is much planted for the use of the silk-worm; and melons, oranges, figs, and almonds take the place of the northern apples and pears.

- (a) Half the field-work in France is done by the slow and patient ox ; in the north, however, by the horse; in the south, by the mule.
- (b) Most of the farmers and labourers in France own the land they till. A father is compalled by law to make an almost equal division of his property among his children.—Hence the large number of small farms.

18. Animals.—Wild animals are found only in the forests and mountains.

The black and the brown bear are found in the Pyrenees; the lynx in the High Alps, but not often; the chamois and the wild goat in the mountains of the east and south. Wolves are numerous in the large forests.

19. Minerals.—Compared with its agricultural wealth, the mineral wealth of France is very small. It is less than that of any other country of the same size. There are only two large coal-fields :—one in the north, the other on the eastern edge of the central plateau.

(i) There is a good deal of iron; but most of the iron is found far away from the coal. The cost of transporting the coal to the centres of industry is very heavy.

(ii) On the northern coal-field, cotton, linen, and woollen are the chief industries; on the eastern, ironworks.

(iii) About 8,000,000 tons of coal are raised every year ; and about 24 million tons of iron and steel are smelted.

(iv) France is exceedingly rich in building materials. Most of the towns are built of solid stone.

20. Manufactures.—France is one of the greatest manufacturing countries in the world. Her greatest manufacture is stilk; next wine; then woollen goods. In articles that require taste, power of design, and clever workmanship, she surpasses every other country on the face of the globe.

(i) The textile industries alone occupy more than 2,000,000 hands. The articles of silk, wool, cotton—such as cloth, carpets, flannels, lace, etc., are said to be of the annual value of £192,000,000.

(ii) There are three sources of power in France : steam ; rivers ; and latterly, the tides. The steam-engines do the work of nearly 30,000,000 labourers

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(ii) The total products in France manufactured every year have been valued at over 500 millions of pounds.

(iv) The six great French exports to Great Britain are alls; woollen goods; wine; butter; eggs; and brandy.

(v) In the making of furniture, jewellery, and other objects of art, France is unsurpassed.

(vi) Nine-tenths of the silk woven is made at Lyens. --Woollen goods are produced in Lille, Rousen, St. Quentin, and Sedan. --Cotton goods in the same towns; and also in Alsone. --Linen is produced chiefly in the Department of the Nord.

21. Commerce.—The commerce of France is on the largest scale. Her position on three seas gives her the greatest advantages for foreign commerce; her magnificent network of rivers, canals, and railways encourages a lively trade at home. The home-trade is larger than the foreign trade.

(i) Commerce, like agriculture and manufactures, has made immense strides during the last fifty years. Paris, Marseilles, and Havre do a larger trade with foreign countries now than the whole nation did in 1840.

(ii) France, though very poor in ports, carries on two-thirds of its foreign trade by sea. Her largest customer is Great Britain; then come Belgium, Germany, the United States, and Italy.

(iii) France has a very small commercial navy of her own; she prefers to hire British and Norwegian ships.

(iv) For her home-trade France has a good system of railways; and the most complete system of canals and canalised rivers of any country in Europe.

(v) The imports of France consist of raw materials; the exports of manufactures.

22. Chief Ports.-The four great ports are Marseilles, Bordeaux, Nantes, and Havre.

23. Bailways and Telegraphs.—France possesses a magnificent system of internal communications. There are more than 20,000 miles of railway. There are 60,000 miles of telegraph line.

(i) She possesses about 330,000 miles of carriage road; 5000 miles of navigable rivers; and more than 3000 miles of canal.

(ii) Many of the railway lines belong to the State.

24. Population and Populousness.—The population of France amounts to a little more than 38,000,000 souls.—As regards density

of population, France occupies a mediocre position; she has only 187 persons to the square mile.

(i) Switzerland comes next to France-with 185.

(ii) The most crowded part of France is the Department of the Seine, which contains Paris; the most thinly peopled is the Department of the Lower Alps.

25. Large Towns.—France possesses a very large number of large towns. She has about fifty with a population of more than 30,000; and of these, thirty-two have more than 50,000. Of the latter, eleven have more than 100,000; and of these again, five have more than 200,000. These are **Paris**; Lyons; **Marseilles**; Bordeaux; and Lille.

(i) **PARIS** (2500), on both banks of the Seine, and on an island in the middle, is one of the most beautiful cities in the world. It is the largest city on the Continent. In its very centre, on the "Isle de France," stands the cathedral of Notre Dame, a marvel of architecture. On every side rise the noblest and grandest buildings; and there is no city in the world that can show so many. Nowhere are there finer, gayer, or more splendid streets; and people from all nations go to Paris to "shop." It is also the pleasure city of Europe and America. Its buildings are not only besuiful in themselves, but serve as records of the greatest events in French history.—There are many noble scientific and art collections.—It is also a large manufacturing town; and its specialty is the making of "articles de Paris."—Besides all this, Paris has a larger commerce than any other town in France.—Its fortifications are 22 miles round. There are also strong detached fortresses on the surrounding hills; and Paris with its environs forms the largest military camp in the world.

(ii) Lycas (420), at the confluence of the Rhone and Saône, is the chief seat of the silk manufacture. It is one of the great world-centres of industry. Silk stuffs to the amount of $\pounds 20,000,000$ sterling are annually produced.

(iii) Marselles (390) is not only the largest port of France, but also the chief commercial port on the Mediterranean. It has also large manufactures. It competes with Brindisi and Triests in forwarding travellers to the East.

(iv) Bordeaux (250) is the chief wine-shipping port of France. The town has also large sugar refineries, potteries, foundries and other industries. Richard 11. "of Bordeaux," was born here, while his father, the Black Prince, held his court in the city, as Governor of Aquitaine.

(v) Lills (200), on a tributary of the Scheldt, has large manufactures of cotton and. woollen goods. It was the ancient capital of Flanders.

26. Other Large Towns.—The five towns next in size to the largest are : Tonlouse ; Nantes; St. Etienne ; Havre ; and Rouen.

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(i) Tealouse (150), on the Garonne, has an excellent position for commerce, as it stands between the Atlantic and the Mediterranean, with which it is connected by river and canal.

(ii) Mantes (180) is a flourishing port on the Loire. The port of St. Nazaire, at the mouth of the river, is taking much of its commerce; for large vessels cannot safely go up to Nantes. It has a large colonial trade.

(iii) **St. Eticane** (120), near the Upper Loire, is the chief seat of the ironworks of **France**. The town owes its prosperity to its large and rich coal-fields.

(1v) Havre (125), at the mouth of the Seine, is the chief port of Western France, and also the port of Paris. It imports all kinds of "colonial wares;" and exports silks and other French manufactures, chiefly to England. It has lines of steamers to all ports of Europe and America.

(v) Roman (110) is the chief centre of the French cotton industry, and it makes woollen goods also. It is famous for its fine Gothic buildings, the cathedral being one of the noblest. Joan of Arc was burnt here by the English in 1431, and a monument to her memory stands in the town.

27. Historic Towns.—There are many towns in France which have made for themselves great names either in the history of their own country, or in the history of England. The most famous of these are: Eheims, Amiens, Brest, Toulon, Orleans, Calais, Versailles, Boulogne, Caen, and Dunkirk.

(i) **Bheims** (100), "The Canterbury of France," is one of the great historic cities of the country. Her kings were always anointed there. The cathedral is one of the most perfect Gothic buildings in the world.

(ii) Amiens (85), the old capital of Picardy, on the Somme, possesses a cathedral of the 18th century—"a masterpiece of Gothic architecture" and one of the most richly decorated edifices in France. The "Peace of Amiens," between England and France, was signed here in 1802.

(iii) Brest (72), one of the chief naval stations of France, is also one of the best harbours in Europe. It was held by England in the 14th century.

(iv) Toulon (71) is the chief naval station of France in the Mediterranean. It is also one of the strongest fortresses in Europe. Napoleon—then a simple artillery officer—here first showed his ability, when Toulon was besieged by the English in 1798.

(v) Orisans (62), on the north bank of the Loire, gave the title of "Maid of Orleans" to Joan of Arc, when she besieged the English there in 1429.

(vi) Calais (60) was held for two centuries (1846-1558) by the English; and was only lost in the reign of Queen Mary. It is connected with Dover by lines of steamers. It exports millions on millions of eggs.

(vii) Versailles (50) is properly a large suburb of Paris. It possesses the most magnificent and the largest palace in France—built by Louis XIV. The picturegallery contains miles of pictures which commemorate the "glories of France." But this palace saw the humiliation of France in 1871, when the king of Prussia had himself declared Emperor of the Germans in one of its halls.

(vili) Boulegne (47) is connected by steamers with Folkestone. It was here that Napoleon prepared, in 1803, his immense flotilla for the invasion of England.

(ix) Caen (44) was the residence, and is the burial-place, of William the Conqueror.

(x) Dunkirk (40) is a large fishing town. It was destroyed by the English in 1718, but has since been rebuilt and enlarged.

28. Political Divisions.—Prior to the Revolution of 1789, France consisted of thirty-four provinces, which were at one time duchies, counties, or even kingdoms. In 1790, however, it was divided into 86 Departments, of which the Italian island of Corsica counts as one. These departments are not called by names that have been given them by the people who live there; but by the Central Government. They have been named mostly after the rivers that flow through them. By the addition of Nice and Savoy (which gave two) in 1860, the number of Departments was raised to 88. But by the loss of Alsace and Lorraine in the war of 1870-71, the number fell to 87.

(i) Such names as Seine, Seine et Marne, Hautes Pyrénées (Upper Pyrenees), Basses Pyrénées (Lower Pyrenees), are the most usual.

(ii) Nice and Savoy were ceded by Victor Emmanuel to the Emperor Napoleon as a return for his aid in defeating the Austrians in the war of 1859.

(iii) Many of the French Provinces have made for themselves a great name in history. The best known are: Normandy (=the Land of the Normans, in the valley of the Seine); Brittany (=the Land of the Britons, in the west); Provence (=the Roman Provincia, in the lower valley of the Rhone): Burgundy (an ancient Teutonic Dukedom in the south-east); Champagne (=the Wide Field, from Latin cumpus, a plain); and Lie de Prance ("Island of France," so called because all the great valleys of France meet in that district).

29. Character and Social Condition.—The French people consist of a mixture of races—Celtic, Romanic, and German; and their character gives evidence of the mental habits of all three. The Frenchman is said to be light and frivolous, but in most cases he is a very serious person; brave, when he is succeeding—but too easily depressed; very clever with his hands, and generally amiable, polite, and urbane. Intellectually, the Frenchman is famous for lucidity of

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thought and expression, for fine taste and eloquence of style, for suppleness and even subtlety of intelligence, and for rigour and consecutiveness in his reasoning and methods. Few nations in the world have done so much for literature and art. The Frenchman is also a lover of justice, and has a keen feeling of his own dignity and equality. The working classes, more especially the small farmers, possess the virtue of thrift in the highest degree.

30. Government.—The government of France is now a Republic. There are two Chambers—a Senate and a House of Representatives. The Executive is in the hands of the President.

(i) The present is the third Republic that has existed within the last hundred years.

(ii) Within the memory of middle-aged men, France has been a kingdom, a republic, an empire, and a republic again.

31. Beligion and Education.—By far the larger part of the French nation belongs to the Roman Catholic Church; of Protestants there are not much more than half-a-million.—The Universities and Secondary Schools are in a very healthy state; but Elementary Instruction has a great deal of lee-way to make up.

(i) The State endows the Protestant clergy, as well as the Roman Catholic.

(ii) A considerable percentage of the people can neither read nor write.

32. Language.—The French Language is, to a large extent, a kind of Latin. The endings and the vowel sounds have been greatly changed.

The Latin unus becomes un ; duo, deux, etc.

33. Colonial Possessions.—The most important foreign possessions of France are Algeria and Cochin China. The total area of her colonies is larger than France herself by 95,000 square miles.

(i) In the 18th century, France held Canada and Louisians in North America, and vast tracts in India.

(ii) In Africa, she holds, in addition to Algeria, a part of Senegambia.—In the West Indies, she possesses three islands, the largest of which is Martinique.—In South America, she has French Guiana, the capital of which is Cayenne.—In India, she has Pondicherry, etc.; in Further India, Lower Cochin China, and a protectorate over Cambodia, Annam, and Tonquin.—In Oceania, she has New Caledonia, the Marquesas, Tahiti, etc.

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BELGIUM.

1. Introductory.—Belgium is a small triangular kingdom, which was cut out of Holland in the year 1830. It is the most thickly peopled, the most commercial, and the most industrious country on the continent of Europe.

(i) Saxony is in fact more densely peopled, but it is usually considered only as a part of the German Empire.

(ii) Brussels, the capital, which stands near the centre of the country, is in the same latitude as Cape Clear, Dresden, Kieff, and Vancouver Island.

- 2. Boundaries. Belgium is bounded --
 - 1. N. -By Holland.
 - 2. E. -By Holland, Rhenish Prussia, and Luxemburg.
 - 3. S. -By France.
 - 4. W .--- By the German Ocean.

3 Commercial Position.—Standing in the west of Europe, on one of the most commercial seas in the world, it occupies a position which is very favourable for trade both with the New World and with the Old. Hence it has a large trade with both, and also with that island which stands between the two worlds—Great Britain.

The position for commerce of Antwerp, the largest Belgian seaport, is nearly as good as that of London.

4. Shape and Size.—Belgium is almost a triangle. It contains 11,373 square miles—that is, not quite twice as many as Yorkshire. The longest line that can be drawn in it measures only 190 miles.

5. Slope, Build, and Coast Line.—Belgium slopes from south to north, as may be seen from the direction of the rivers; that is, it slopes away from the sun. It also slopes from east to west. The



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highest land in the east is about 2000 ft. above the sea-level; the lowest land on the west is below the level of the sea. The coast line is only 42 miles long; and much of it is faced with sand-dunes.

Low fertile land in the west; a tumbled country in the middle; a rocky, hilly, and almost mountainous land in the east and south-east—such is the build of Belgium.

6. Mountains and Plains.—The northern half of the country belongs to the Great Plain of Europe. The low mountain-land in the east consists of the plateau of the Ardennes, some peaks of which reach the height of 2300 ft. In the middle of the country, to the north, we find a wide plain called the Campine—a plain of moor, marsh, peat-bogs, and sand, overgrown with heath, broom, and dwarf firs. In the west, the country is both low and flat. Dunes, about 40 ft. or 50 ft. high, keep out the sea; and much of the land consists of polders, defended by dykes, and intersected by canals.

(i) The plodding energy of the Belgians is transforming the Campine. Clay is often found at the depth of 2 or 3 ft.; and this, mixed with sand, gives a soil which produces good crops.

(ii) About one-sixteenth part of Belgium consists of polders, which have been gained from the sea and the rivers.

7. Rivers.—Belgium does not possess a single river from its source to its mouth. The two chief rivers are the **Meuse** and the **Scheldt**. The Meuse is a river of the mountains; the Scheldt a stream of the plains. The basin of the Scheldt embraces the larger part of Belgium.

(i) The Mense rises in the plateau of Langres in France; flows north-west through the fortress of Sedan, and enters Belgium near Dinant. At Namur, also a strong fortress, it receives the Sambre. North of Liége, it enters Holland, and is there called the Mass. The total length is 550 miles, of which only 100 are in Belgium.

(ii) The Scheidt also rises in France, and is there called the Escaut. It flows through the famous towns of Cambray and Valenciennes, and enters Belgium a little south of Tournay. It receives several tributaries—among others the waters of the Senne, on which Brussels stands. Both of its mouths are in the hands of the Dutch. Its total length is 250 miles, of which half are in Belgium.

8. Climate.—The climate is like that of the south of England, but more continental—that is, hotter in summer, and colder in winter. In the east, the winters are very severe ; in the west, fogs are frequent.

The rain-fall amounts to about 28 inches a year in the west, and increases with the rise of the land.

(i) This is about 3 inches less than the fall at London.

(ii) East of the Meuse, it is very rainy. As in England, the people can never count on a series of fine days.

9. Plants and Animals.—The trees, plants, and grains are much the same as those grown in France and Germany. The chief grains are rye, wheat, and oats. A great deal of beet and flax is also raised. About one-fifth of the country is covered with woods and forests. The oak is the prevalent tree; but the birch, beech, lime, and maple, are common. It is too cold for the chestnut. The roe, the stag, and the wild boar are still found in the forests of the Ardennes. The beaver has died out; and the hedgehog is following. Other wild beasts are the wolf, the for, the polecat, and the weasel.

(i) The grains raised yearly in Belgium are worth £11,000,000.

(ii) Belgium sends us yearly eggs to the value of £750,000.

(iii) There is very little waste land in Belgium-not one-tenth of the whole country

10. Minerals.—Belgium is rich in minerals. Coal is the most abundant mineral; then iron, zinc, and lead. Marble is also plentiful; and the black marbles of Dinant are highly valued.

(i) After Eugland, Belgium is the greatest coal-producing country in Europe. It sells one-third of its coal to France.

(ii) There are two great coal-fields—the western one in the provinces of Hainault and Namur, the eastern in Namur and Liége. These coal-fields lie on the outer margin of the table-land.

11. Manufactures.—Belgium has more manufactures than any other country of the same size in the world. It owes this chiefly to its large supplies of coal. Mining is a chief industry. The chief manufactures are cotton, linen, woollen, and silk goods, and machinery.

(i) Cotton and silk goods are manufactured chiefly in the province of East Flanders and Antwerp. The greatest cotton factories are at Antwerp and Ghent.

(ii) The lines trade is carried on chiefly at Ghent and St. Nicholas. Mechlin (Malines) and Brussels are the headquarters of lace.

(iii) The woollan manufacture has its seats at Liege and Verviers—a town on the eastern frontier. Brussels carpets are made chiefly at Tournai.

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(iv) Lidge is the Birmingham of Belgium; and it is also to a great extent the Leeds. Steam-engines, locomotives, fire-arms, and all kinds of machinery are made at Lidge. Namur is noted for its cutlery.

(v) But, indeed, in all the towns on the coal-fields-Mons, Charleroi, etc., the manufacture of iron and steel goes on. \bigvee

12. Agriculture.—Belgium stands higher than any country in the world as regards agriculture. No country is more carefully cultivated. Most of the work is done with the spade; and the farms look like large gardens. The country, though so densely peopled, grows twice as much food as it requires; and exports corn, instead of being obliged, like England, to import it.

(i) The industry of the plains and the river-valleys is agriculture ; of the hills and table-lands mining and manufactures.

(ii) For its size, Belgium produces more grain than any other country in the world.

(iii) Nearly 8 million acres yield two harvests a year.

13. Commerce.—Belgium has a very large trade with other countries; and yet most of her carrying is done by English ships. Since the birth of the kingdom in 1830, the trade has increased more rapidly than in any other European country. It even exceeds that of the vast Empire of Austria-Hungary. The largest trade is done with France; and all the Belgian railways converge upon Paris.

(i) Antwerp imports raw material not merely for Belgium, but also for the middle basin of the Rhine.

(ii) About two-thirds of the commerce is carried on across the land-frontiers ; only one-third by sea.

(iii) France buys yearly from Belgium goods to the value of over £16,000,000; Great Britain and Germany from 17 to 16 millions each.

14. The Large Towns.—Belgium possesses seventeen towns with a population above 20,000; and, of these, four have more than 40,000; and four over 100,000. The four largest are Brussels, Antwerp, Ghent, and Liége. Belgium is, in fact, the small country of large cities. Philip 11. of Spain, when travelling through it, exclaimed, "Why ! this is all one town !"

(i) The Capital.—BRUSSELS (480) stands in the heart of the kingdom, at the meeting of hill and plain, and almost on the edge of the lowland. It is divided into the Upper and the Lower Town. Its town-hall is one of the most splendid buildings in the world. Up to the fifteenth century it was roofed with plates of gold. Palaces, noble buildings, wide streets, and high houses, make of Brussels a noble city. Its museums are rich in the rarest treasures—paintings, carvings, precious stones, antiquities. The town is gay, lively, and well built, and is often called "the Little Paris."

- (a) A canal brings vessels from the sea to the quays of Brussels.
- (b) Ten miles to the south is the field of Waterico (June 18, 1815); and near, the battle-fields of Quatre-Bras (-Four Arms or Roads, June 16), and Ligny (June 16).
- (c) Brussels is in the same longitude as Lyons, Marsellies, and Cape Town.

(ii) Antworp (230), on the Scheldt—a wide and deep river—is the only large seaport. Vessels of the largest size lie at its quays. It is also a fortress, which could hold the whole army of Belgium. It possesses a most beautiful cathedral, the spire of which is 403 ft high—that is, 52 ft. higher than the cross of St. Paul's. Antwerp was the birthplace of the great painter Rubens.—In the 14th and 15th centuries, the commerce of Antwerp and Bruges rivalled that of Venice and Genoa.

(iii) **Gheat** (150), in **East Flanders**, is one of the great cotton-spinning towns of the world. It is the third Belgian city in population, but the first in industry. It was the birthplace of John of Gaunt (=Ghent), the father of Henry IV. It stands at the junction of the Scheldt with three tributaries. Rivers and canals divide it into 24 quarters, which are connected by 100 bridges. "Ghent might have become a Belgian Manchester if it had had a Liverpool nearer to it than Antwerp." Its floral shows are wonderful, and have given it the name of the "City of Flowers." The capital employed by the gardeners of Ghent amounts to £3,000,000. It was here that the first English book was printed by William Caxton—a book called *The Historics of Troy*.

(iv) Lidge (140), "the capital of the Walloons," lies in a very picturesque and hilly region on the Meuse. The river is here spanned by 17 bridges. It is the busiest town in Belgium. Near Lidge is Serang, the largest ironworks in Belgium. It makes steam-engines; and can turn out 365 tons of steel rails in a day.

15. The Minor Towns.—Among the minor towns the most important are Bruges ; Mechlin ; Louvain ; Tournai ; Namur ; and Ostend.

(i) Bruges (=Bridges, 50) is a decayed and decaying town. It had at one time a population of 200,000. It is intersected by many canals, which are crossed by more than 50 bridges: hence its name. There is a navigable canal for large ships between Bruges and Ostend; but the town can never overtake Antwerp. Most of the poor people make lace—but hardly a living by it. Paupers abound. Many streets are silent and desolate: "without hurry, noiseless feet the grass-grown pavement tread." It is full of beautiful churches.—Insurance societies were first started at Bruges.

(ii) Mechin (or Malines, 50) is the religious metropolis and Canterbury of Belgium; its Archbishop being Primate of the kingdom. Mechlin lace is famous everywhere.

(iii) Louvain, a little east of Brussels, was once a great place of manufactures. It is now greatly decayed. It makes chiefly starch, paper and beer. The town-hall is one of the finest buildings in the world, and has been compared to a jewel-casket.

(iv) Tournai is "the most venerable city of Belgium." The cathedral belongs to the 12th century; it has a thousand columns, no two of which are alike.—Tournai now makes carpets; and most of the weavers work at their own homes.

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(v) Mamar, at the junction of the Mense and the Sambre, is one of the strong points of Belgium. It has stood many a siege. Bombardments have robbed the town of nearly all its ancient buildings.—The town makes glass and cutlery.

(vi) Ostend is a small port, and a large bathing-place. It stood a three years' siege of the Spaniards in the 17th century. The rising port of Flushing, in the island of Walcheren, in Holland, is taking away its trade. About 20,000 strangers, mostly from France and Germany, come yearly to take sea-baths at Ostend.

16. **Bailway System.**—Belgium is one vast and intricate net-work of railways. There are nearly 3000 miles of line in this small kingdom. The fares charged are lower than in any other European country. The rolling stock, if placed in a line, would stretch from Ostend to Cologne—a distance of 202 miles.

(i) Contrast.-Turkey, in the south-east of Europe, has only 1000 miles of railway.

(ii) Belgium has, in proportion, the same amount of railway that England has. England is five times the size of Belgium.

17. Telegraphs and Post-offices.—Belgium is very well supplied with telegraphs. It has about 4000 miles of line, and more than four times this of wire. About seven millions of messages are sent every year.—But the people do not write nearly so many letters as we do in England. They send 95 millions of letters and 90 millions of newspapers annually.

This is at the rate of 15 letters per head per annum. England sends 49.

18. Canals and Roads.—Belgium is magnificently equipped with canals; and its canals and canalised rivers play a very large part in the commercial life of the country. There are about 1000 miles of navigable water-ways in the country; and, of these, more than half are canals. The traffic on the rivers and canals is much larger than that on the railways. Belgium has also more roads and better-kept roads than any other country except England.

(i) Each mile of water highway carries about 500,000 tons of goods a year.

(ii) There is not a town of any importance but has a canal.

(iii) Some of the canals are used for irrigation.

19. Population and Populousness.—The population of Belgium amounts to over 6 millions. This gives a density of 550 persons per square mile.

(i) In the province of Brabant, in which Brussels stands, the density rises to 835.

(ii) There is nothing in the world to compare with the populousness of Belgiumexcept Saxony, Egypt, the Plain of China, and the Valley of the Ganges.

20. Folitical Divisions.—Many of these divisions have played an important part in the history both of Europe and of England; and hence we ought to know them. The following is a list, with the chief towns in each :—

1. West Flanders-Bruges, Ostend.	5. Antwerp-Antwerp, Mechlin.
2. East Flanders-Ghent, St. Nicholas.	6. Limburg-Hasselt.
8. Hainault-Mons, Tournai, Charleroi.	 Liége—Liége, Verviers, Spa. Namur—Namur, Dinant.
4. Brabant-Brussels, Louvain.	8. Namur-Namur, Dinant.
	9. Luxemburg-Arlon.

21. Languages.—There is no Belgian language. There are two languages spoken in the country—Flemish and Walloon. Flemish belongs to the same family as Dutch, German, and English; Walloon is a kind of Old French.

(i) About 21 millions speak Flemish; about 21 Walloon. All the book-reading classes speak Parisian French. The official language, too, is French.

(ii) Two-thirds of the newspapers are printed in French; but the greatest writer of the country-Hendrik Conscience-writes in Flemish.

22. Character and Social Condition.—The Flemings belong to the Teutonic race. They have light-coloured eyes, fair hair, and fresh complexions. They are seldom tall.—The Walloons belong to the Celtic race. They are darker in complexion; many have brown eyes; and most of them are taller and stronger than the Flemings.

Flemings are found chiefly in Flanders, Antwerp, Brabant, Limburg-that is, in the north and west; Walloons, in the more hilly country of the east and south-east.

23. Religion and Education.—Most of the people are Roman Catholics; but all opinions are tolerated.—There are four Univerversities, Brussels, Louvain, Ghent, Liége; there are many middleclass schools; but the elementary schools are far from good.

(i) There are good technical schools in all the large towns.

(ii) About 40 per cent. of the people can neither read nor write.

24. Government.—The King, a Senate, a House of Representatives —these form the working Constitution.

(i) The standing army numbers nearly 50,000-on a war-footing, 100,000 men.

(ii) There is no navy.

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THE NETHERLANDS.

1. Introductory .--- The kingdom of The Netherlands, or Holland, as we call it, is one of the most commercial countries on the face of the globe The soil it occupies had to be won from the sea; and, small as the country is, it struggled for, and in the 16th century, wrested its freedom from an empire (Spain), that at the time ruled over two-thirds of the known world. Attacked by the sea from without. and by rivers from within ; gaining land from the ocean, and saving it from river-floods; daily using the powers of wind and steam against the powers of water; employing the powers of water against hostile armies; gaining land here, losing it there-but on the whole steadily gaining; wresting new lands and farms from the depths of the sea and the beds of lakes, and thus making the whole kingdom grow and expand ; eternally on the watch against inundations,-such is the life of the nation called the Netherlanders. The sea is the standing enemy of the Dutch-an enemy always at their gates. After winning a foothold for themselves and maintaining it against all comers, they sent out fleets which founded colonial settlements all over the world. And, at home, always looking out for fresh conquests over the sea, the Dutch have actually increased the size of their country since 1833 by one-half.

(i) "There is a land where the rivers, so to speak, flow over the heads of the people; where mighty towns rise below the level of the sea, which dominates and almost overwhelms them; where broad tracts of cultivated ground are alternately rescued from and swallowed up by the waters."-Esquiros.

(ii) The Dutchman's allies against the water are wind, steam, sand, and the stork.

(iii) The name is a corruption of Ollant=marshy ground, according to some.

(iv) The sea is a protector as well as a foe It bears their ships, forms a boundary, and throws fertile alluvium on the shore.

2. Holland is bounded-

N.— By the North Sea.
 E.— By Germany.
 S.— By Belgium.
 W.—By the North Sea.

3. Commercial Position.—Situated in the north-west of Europe, at the mouth of the Rhine—its great western highway, opposite the midland counties of England, next to the busiest and richest states of the Continent, with easy access to the North Sea and the Atlantic, Holland occupies a wonderfully advantageous position for commerce with the rest of the world.

Amsterdam is in the same latitude as Cambridge, Berlin, and Manitoba.

4. Shape and Size.—The length of Holland from north to south is about 150 miles; its average breadth, about 100 miles. Its area contains 12,648 square miles. This land has been formed partly by deposits from rivers and partly by conquests from the sea. In addition to the continuous land, it contains two archipelagoes, one in the south and one in the north.

In 1888, Holland contained only 8768 square miles. It is now a little more than twice the size of Yorkshire.

5. Surface and Slopes.—The whole country slopes, but very gently, to the west and north. The surface of most of it is as flat as a bowling-green; and a large portion is below the level of the sea. Much of it consists of rich alluvial soil. Holland is, in fact, the lowest and western end of the Great Plain of Europe.

The alluvial soil out of which Holland is built, is brought down by the Scheldt from the north of France; by the Meuse from the Ardennes; and by the Rhine and its tributaries from the Alps and the higher lands of Germany. A large part of Holland consists simply of the offscourings of the Alps.

6. Bays and Straits.—The most important bays are the Zuyder Zee; the Lauwer Zee; and the Dollart. The chief strait is the opening into the Zuyder Zee called **The Helder**.

(i) The name Zayder Zee is=South Sea, to distinguish it from the North Sea. The Germans call the Baltic the East Sea.

(ii) The Zuyder Zee was formed by irruptions of the North Sea into a lake called Flevo, in the 12th, 18th, and 14th centuries Thousands of people were drowned.

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7. Islands.—The delta formed by the Maas and the Scheldt contains a number of islands, which form the province of Zeeland (=Sealand). The best known is Walcheren.—In the Archipelago which fringes the north of Holland, the largest islands are Texel and Terschelling.

Waleheren occupies a melancholy position in our history. To help the Austrians, an English army was sent in 1509 against Antwerp, which was then held by Napoleon. The English army was landed on this island. Flushing was taken ; but 7000 men died of marsh-fever; 13,000 were sent home sick ; and the rest were recalled.

8. The Coast, Dunes and Dykes.—The coast is everywhere very low; and the sea is kept out by dunes. These are larger and higher than in Belgium. The Blinkert Dune, near Haarlem, is 197 ft. above the sea-level: and from its summit can be seen the most historically celebrated portion of Holland.—Where dunes are insufficient, strong dykes formed of piles and huge blocks of granite, are constructed. These are 30 ft. in height, and some 350 ft. thick.

(1) There are in Holland about 1550 miles of dynes alone; and the construction of them cost 12¹/₂ millions sterling.

(ii) The strongest is the Westkappel Dyke, which defends the west coast of Walcheren. It is over 4000 yards long; and a railway runs along the top.

(iii) The coast south from the Helder is protected by a barrier of natural sand-hills, about 50 ft high. They are planted with grasses and reads, the roots of which bind the sand together. The stork, which keeps down reptiles, is protected by law.

9. Rivers.—The great rivers of Holland are the Bhine, the Maas, and the Scheldt, all only in their lower courses. Some of them flow above the level of the land; hence it is easy to feed the Dutch canals.

(i) The Ehme divides into two arms; the southern, called the Waal, and the northern, which retains the name of the Rhine.

(ii) At Gorkum the Waal is joined by the Maas.

(iii) The total length of the navigable river-channels is 1135 miles.

(iv) The floods on the rivers are almost as disastrons as the irruptions of the sea. At Utrecht, after a long course of continuous westerly winds, the Lek rises 18 ft. above the pavement of the streets. In winter, when the ice breaks up, the dykes sometimes give way, and large districts are flooded.

10. Climate.—The climate of Holland may be described as mild, and not unlike that of England, but more humid. The soil is damp;

and the air is damp. It is chiefly in Friesland and the east that frost is continuous in the winter, and that the countless canals and ditches give scope to the art of the skater.

(i) Holland, lying lower, is colder than any part of England in the same latitude. Cows may be seen in the fields wearing greatcoats.

(ii) The strong winds, which blow across the country as steadily as over the ocean, not only form a permanent supply of very valuable power to the windmills, they also sweep away the exhalations which rise from the marshes and stagnant ponds.

11. Agriculture.—In spite of the diligence of the Dutchman, a large part of the land of his country is unfit for cultivation. Fully 18 per cent. of the land is covered with fens; 45 per cent. is poor and sandy; and only 34 per cent. is really good. Rye and wheat are the most important cereals. Oats, barley, potatoes, and beet-root are grown on a large scale. The orchards yield large crops of apples, plums and cherries; while the gardens grow tulips and other flowers in great splendour and profusion. But the fat meadows and fertile grass-lands form the chief agricultural wealth of Holland; and butter and cheese are the most valuable products.

(i) We buy from Holland every year butter and margarine to the value of about £4,500,000. Hence Holland may be regarded as the Dairy Farm of England.

(ii) In the 17th century as much as £2000 was paid for one tulip-bulb.

12. Polders.—Polders are the fertile beds of lakes that have been drained by wind and steam. They form a very important part of Holland, and their verdure is a striking feature in the landscape. Between 1815, the year of Waterloo, and 1875, the Dutch reclaimed nearly 143,000 acres of good land. This is at the rate of $6\frac{1}{2}$ acres every day.

(i) The polder of the Zuyder Zee will be the largest in Holland, when it is finished.

(ii) The polder of the Haarlem Meer (70 square miles—half the size of Rutland) is the largest at present. It was drained by steam. The drainage cost nearly a million; but the crops produced yearly amount to a quarter of a million.

13. Pisheries.—One great source of Dutch wealth is the fisheries. The coasts abound with fish of many kinds, such as herring, cod, turbot, and soles. About 16,000 men are employed in fishing.

(i) The "deep-sea fishery" is in the German Ocean, for cod, herring, and flat fish. The greatest cod-fishery is on the Dogger Bank.

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(ii) The "inner fishery" is pursued in the Zuyder Zee, the rivers, and the inland waters. In the Zuyder Zee flat fish, herrings, anchovies, and shrimps are caught.

14. Manufactures.—Holland does not rank high as a manufacturing country. There is very little coal. Clay, which is used in the making of earthenware, is the only mineral product of any importance. There are factories of cotton, woollen, and silk stuffs; glass houses; machine works; and many gin distilleries. The chief power is wind.

(i) Holland imports more raw cotton, in proportion to its population, than any other country in Europe, except Great Britain.

(ii) Much of the pottery is made at Delft, which gives its name to this ware.

(iii) Windmills grind corn; clean flax; bruise oil-seeds; mash paper-pulp; saw wood; and drain land.

15. Commerce.—Holland was, in the 17th century, the greatest commercial country in the world. Its merchant fleet was equal to all the other fleets of Europe taken together. Other countries have taken away much of this trade; and most of the Dutch transit trade is now carried on by English ships. But Holland is still the "Colonial Grocer" for Europe. We buy from Holland every year goods to the value of about $\pounds 25,000,000$.

The internal trade is enormous. It is carried on chiefly by water. There are over 1500 miles of canal, and nearly 1200 miles of river highway.

16. Towns.—Holland, like England and Belgium, is a country of large towns. There are fifteen towns with a population of more than 25,000; of these five have more than 50,000; and of these again three have more than 100,000.

17. The Capital.—The true capital of Holland is Amsterdam; the seat of the Court and Government is The Hague.

(i) Amsterdam (420), on the Zuyder Zee, is a city nearly as large as Manchester. It stands at the mouth of the Amstel, and on the branch of the Rhine called the Yj (pronounced I), on 90 distinct islands, which are joined to each other by 300 bridges. Most of the houses are built on piles driven into the marshy ground; and hence it has been said that the inhabitants are "like rooks, perched on the tops of trees." The King's Palace stands on 18,659 piles. Many of the piles have slipped; and hence some houses lean forward, some backward, some to the right, some to the left, some against each other. Each house is different from another—in height, or design, or shape, or colour, or ornamentation; for the Dutchman is even more original and individualistic than the Englishman. Amsterdam was once the greatest port in the world; but it is

not now so large as Rotterdam. Its canal is the broadest and deepest in Europe. It possesses the special industry of diamond-cutting, which employs about 1000 hands. The Kings of Holland are crowned here; but they live at The Hague.

(ii) The Hague (160) is a city nearly as large as Leicester. It is, like most other Dutch towns, bounded by canals, and penetrated by canals. It is the seat of the Court and of the Government. It contains a palace, a noble picture-gallery, and a well-stocked museum. A shady avenue, three miles long, leads to the well-known bathing-place Scheveningen. It was at Scheveningen that Charles II. embarked in 1660 to get "his own again."

18. Other Large Towns.—The largest town after Amsterdam is Botterdam (210), which is about the size of Hull. Next to The Hague comes Utrecht (80), a town as large as Halifax. The only other towns worthy of mention are Haarlem, Leyden, Dort, and Delft.

(i) Rotterdam stands at the mouth of the Rotte, which cozes (we cannot say flows or fa/L_2) into the Mass. It is the chief port of Holland, and also of the whole Rhine basin. This port is the true mouth of the Rhine. To it belong about \$500 merchant ships; but two-thirds of these sail under the British flag. Its chief trade is in colonial produce. It was the birthplace of one of the greatest and wittiest of men, Gerard Gerard, commonly called Erasmus. The broad streets are lined with trees, and ap the middle of each street runs a beautiful canal, in which the neatest, trimmest, and cleanest of barges lie.

(ii) Utrecht, on the Old Rhine, is the oldest town in Holland.

(iii) Haarlem, in the province of North Holland, is famous for its linen manufactures, its great organ, its splendid gates, its tulip-gardens, and its trade in flower-bulbs.

(iv) Leyden stands on the Old Rhine, six miles above its mouth at Katwyk. It is famous for its University, which was founded in 1576, by the Prince of Orange, as a reward for the bravery of the inhabitants and their endurance of famine during the siege of 1574. The University possesses one of the richest Natural History Museums in the world.

(v) Dort or Dordrecht, at a point where the Waal meets the Maas and the Rhine. The great rafts of timber sent down the Rhine are broken up and distributed at Dort.

(vi) Deift stands half way between Rotterdam and The Hague, and is a famous pottery town. There is also here a great school of hydraulic engineering.

19. Railway System.—Holland possesses a good network of railways—to the amount of 1600 miles. Utrecht is the centre; and this city can be reached by six different lines.

20. Telegraphs and Post-offices.—Holland has 3000 miles of telegraph line. About 4,000,000 messages are sent yearly. The number of letters and post-cards carried annually amounts to 93 millions; of newspapers, 77 millions. 21. Canals.—Holland possesses a splendid network of canals, the united length of which amounts (like the railways) to nearly 1600 miles. There are canals everywhere, going in all directions. The towns in the centre of the largest islands communicate with the sea by canals; and every river or branch of a river is joined to some other in this way.

(i) The canals join the rivers: and the ditches join the canals. Canals in Holland are as numerous as roads in England.

(ii) With its canals and rivers Holland has a more complete system of waterways than any country in the world.

22. Population and Populousness.—The population is about 5 millions. This gives an average density of nearly 380 persons to the square mile.

The densest population is found in South Holland, where it reaches 770.

23. Political Divisions.—As the names of many of these occur frequently in the history of our own country, it is well for us to know them. The most important of the eleven provinces of the Netherlands (with their chief towns) are :

1. North Holland—Amsterdam, Haarlem.	4. North Brabant-Breda.		
2. South Holland - Rotterdam, The	5. Utrecht.—Utrecht.		
Hague, Leyden, Schiedam.	6. Gelderland-Nimeguen, Zutphen.		

3. Zeeland-Middleburg, Flushing.

7. Friesland-Harlingen.

When the southern half of the Zuyder Zee is drained, a twelfth province will have been added to the Netherlands.

24. Character and Social Condition. —The Dutch character has been determined mainly by two things—the long struggle against the Spaniards, and the perpetual struggle against water. The Dutch love freedom and are very independent; they are hard-working and thrifty; they are brave and self-possessed; and they are generous to those who have been overtaken by disaster. The Dutchman is slow in promising; but he always keeps his promise. He is slow to make up his mind; but, having once made it up, he acts with untiring energy. He has plenty of common sense, and is fond of method. Generally taciturn and thoughtful, he is boisterous in his amusements. He is

fond of old customs and old costumes ; and quaint distinctive dresses still linger even in the towns. His most remarkable external virtue is cleanliness.

(i) The two conditions of wealth-industry and thrift-are found in their highest degree in Holland.

(ii) Cleanliness is a passion with the Dutch; and it is forced upon them by the moistness of their climate. From morning till night scouring, rubbing, scrubbing and washing goes on. Even the barges shine with polishing, and are "as clean as a new pin." "Stables are kept with the same care as a drawing-room." Houses, barns, gates, and fences, are always bright, clean, and in thorough repair.

25. Languages.—Dutch belongs to the Low-German family of languages, and is very like English and Flemish.

(i) The Dutch spoken in Friesland, called **Frisian**, is the Continental dialect which bears the strongest resemblance to English. There is a well-known couplet, every word in which is both Frisian and English :--

" Good butter and good cheese Is good English and good Fries."

(ii) They say moder for mother ; stroom for stream ; huis for house ; see for sea, etc.

26. Government.—The King and the States-General (which consists of two Chambers) form the Government of Holland.

(i) The army numbers over 50,000 men.

(ii) The navy is very powerful. It consists of nineteen ironclads, six of them very large; and one—the "King of the Netherlands"—is of 5400 tons burden and 4660 horse-power.

27. **Beligion and Education.**—There is no established religion; but the **King** and two-thirds of the people belong to the "Reformed Church"—that is, are Protestants. The others are mostly Roman Catholics. Education of all kinds is spreading in Holland; and the Dutch have always been a thoughtful people.

There are three grades of schools, and over all, the four Universities of Leyden, Groningen, Utrecht, and Amsterdam—with about 2000 students.

28. Colonial Possessions.—The Dutch possessions abroad are 64 times larger than Holland itself, and have a population more than six times as large. They mostly consist of islands both in the East and in the West Indies.

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(i) They consist chiefly of (a) The Great Sundas, such as Java, parts of Sumatra, Celebes, and Borneo; (b) The Lesser Sundas, as Bali, Lomook, etc.; (c) parts of the Moluccas or Spice Islands; (d) Curacoa and St. Martin in the West Indies; (e) Dutch General (or Surinam) in South Americas tax

(ii) The value of the foreign commerce of Holland, proportionately to the population, is greater than that of any other country in the world.

THE ALPS.

1. Extent and Shape.—The Alps are the great mountain-system which encircles the north of Italy in the form of a mighty bow, stretching from Nice to Vienna, or from the western Mediterranean to the Danube. They form the dividing line and watershed between Middle Europe and Southern Europe. Five countries contain parts of this mountain-system—France, Switzerland, Italy, Bavaria, and Austria; five great rivers—the Danube, Rhine, Rhone, Po, and Adige—are fed by its perennial and inexhaustible snows, and flow from its sides to four different seas. For highest average elevation, for the largest number of very high peaks, and for variety of scenery, they are by far the most important mountain-system in Europe. They form also—in their snow-fields, glaciers and lakes—the greatest reservoir of water in this continent.

(i) The Alps, the "crown of Europe," formed at one time the dividing line between the barbarous and the civilised peoples of the Continent. This is no longer the case; but they still divide the west of Europe—"the true Europe,"—into two halves, a northern and a southern, which are essentially different in climate and vegetation—as well as in the languages and habits of the peoples who dwell on either side.

(ii) The Alps contrast strongly with the central ranges of Asia. They are much more habitable and fertile; they are very much more accessible; and the passes, not high like the Himalayan passes, but crossing the deep depressions between the different ranges, may be counted almost by hundreds. The Alps are open everywhere to all kinds of influences; and they have been called "the most sociable mountains" in the world.

2. Nature of Rocks.—The inner kernel of the Alps consists of hard crystalline rocks (such as granite and gneiss, etc.); and this kernel is enfolded to the north and to the south in outlying masses of limestone.

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(i) The elevation of the Alps by the internal fire-forces has taken place from south west to north-east. Hence the longitudinal valleys run from west to east.

(ii) This mountain-system is comparatively young, compared with those of Scanlinavia and of Brittany. Hence the sharpness of most of its peaks; while those of Scandinavia have been ground down by all kinds of weather-forces. The usual names for the sharp peaks are, in the French Alps, Dent (Tooth), Aiguille (Needle), Bec (Beak), Pic (Peak), Pointe (Point); in the German Alps, Stock (Stick), Hora (Horn), Kamm (Comb), Spits (Spit), Kugel (Ball), Eck (Corner), and Hampt (Head).

3. Vertical Arrangement.—From the point of view of height or vertical distribution, the Alps are divided into Fore Alps, Middle Alps, and High Alps. The Fore Alps are the lower ranges which rise to the limit of trees (about 5500 ft.); the Middle Alps rise from the limit of trees to the line of perpetual snow; and the High Alps are those which rise above the snow-line.

(i) The Fore Alps (such lower ranges as are called "Foot-hills" in the United States) are the seat of the liveliest and most industrious populations, and are gay with pastures, orchards, vineyards, villages, and towns.

(ii) The Middle Alps contain the summer-pastures of the Swiss and other flocks and herds (each pasture is called an "alp"), and are the abodes of the chamois, the ibex, the marmot, etc.

(iii) The snow-line on the south side of the Alps is higher than on the north—partly because the climate is hotter, and partly because the southern slope is steeper. In the **High Alps** steep slopes of grey naked rock abound; and the last trace of vegetable life is found in the tiny mosses, which appear as red patches on the snow.

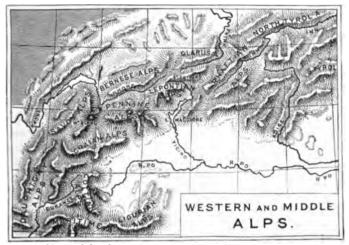
4. Horizontal Extension and Divisions.—The whole system of the Alps, which consists of a very large number of chains, is divided according to horizontal extension—into Western, Middle, and Eastern Alps. The Western and Middle Alps meet at the enormous and massive group of mountains which is called after its highest point, Mont Blanc. The Western Alps lie between the Mediterranean and Mont Blanc; the Middle Alps between Mont Blanc and the deep depression called the Brenner Pass; and the Eastern Alps, between the Brenner and the Hungarian Plain on the Danube.

(i) In the Western Alps, the chief ranges are the Cottian Alps (with Mont Cenis) and the Graian Alps, with the well-known Pass of the Little St. Bernard.

(ii) The Middle Alps form the true core of the Alpine System, for they unite the greatest elevation with a considerable horizontal extent. Their western portion

THE ALPS

• consists of two lofty, noble, and snow-crowned parallel chains : the **Pennine Alps** and the **Bernese Alps**. (a) The Pennine Alps are the grandest chain in the whole system. At the south-west end of this chain rises the isolated group of **Mont Blanc** (15,781 ft.), the second highest mountain in Europe; in the middle, facing the south, **Monte Ress** (15,217 ft.), with its nine glorious peaks. (b) The Bernese Alps are the chain



most thickly peopled and most frequently visited. The eastern half is called the Bernese Oberland. It contains the largest and longest glacier in the Alps,—the Aletsch. Its culminating point is the Finsternarhorn (14,026 ft.), though the Jungfrau (="the Virgin") with its vast snow-fields, its glaciers, and its magnificent situation at the head of a long and broad valley, is better known and more admired.

(iii) Between the eastern and western portions of the Middle Alps rises the central mountain-mass of the St. Gothard, which forms the centre of the whole Alpine system, and is also the centre of the watershed—streams which rise on its side flowing in four different directions.

(iv) The Eastern Alps diminish in height, but increase in breadth, as they go eastwards, and almost fill the vast space that lies between the Danube and the Adriatic. The highest mountain is the Grossglockner (12,455 ft.)—a mass which presents the most splendid peaks, the largest glaciers, the steepest precipices, and large numbers of high waterfalls. In the south, the Delomite Alps—a limestone range, are famous for their striking and fantastic forms.—The Julian and Dinarie Alps run to the south-east, and parallel with the Adriatic.

5. Glacters.—The glaciers of the Alps, which may be described as slow-moving rivers of ice flowing out of the vast snow-fields behind

them, form their most striking characteristic. They are found chiefly ' on the more gentle northern slope, the southern slope being too steep for them and too much exposed to the hot rays of the sun. The largest is the Aletsch Glacter, which descends into the valley of the Upper Rhone ; the most frequented is the Mer de Glace (="Sea of Ice") on the side of Mont Blanc. Most of the Alpine streams have their origin in glaciers.

The "Sea of Ice" is well named. The effect is that of a billowy sea suddenly freen-bigh waves, rounded at the top, run parallel with each other, and with the length of the glacie: the feeling given by the "bight white selence" is that of deep awe and almost terror.

6. Passes and Tunnels.—There are 60 Alpine passes that are traversed by carriage roads; and the main chain is pierced by three tunnels. The most frequented pass is that of Great St. Bernard, which is crossed by about 30,000 persons every year. The Simplon Pass is crossed by one of the noblest roads in Europe. The St. Gothard and the Furca Passes are also very famous; and the Brenner and Semmering, in the east, are crossed by railways. The three tunnels are those of Mont Cenis, St. Gothard, and Ariberg.

(i) The Pass of the Great St. Bernard lies between the valley of the Rhone and that of Aosta, in the north-west of Italy. It was probably the road chosen by Hannibal to cross into Italy.

(ii) The Semmering carries the railway between Vienna and Trieste.

(iii) The St. Gothard Tunnel is the longest in the world. It is nearly ten miles in length. It took eight years to make, and cost £152 per yard. This tunnel is on the shortest road from England to India.

7. Climate and Zones of Vegetation.—The vegetation that we find between the foot of the Alps and the snow-line marks also the climate of the different heights. The different steps up the mountainslope may be described as: the Olive Region; the Vine Region; the Region of Deciduous Trees; that of Conifers; that of Upper Pastures; and, last of all, the Limit of Perpetual Snow.

(i) The Olive requires, to produce fruit, a temperature of at least 75° for four months in the year. It therefore thrives best in the deeper valleys.

(ii) The vise stands cold better than the olive, but thrives best on the sunny sides of the lower valleys.

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(iii) Decideous Trees grow up to the line of 4000 ft. on the northern side of the Alps; on the southern side, to the line of 5000 ft.

(iv) Centifers grow, on the northern side, to the line of 6000 ft. ; on the southern side, to 7000 ft.

(v) The Upper Pasteres yield a short, soft, close-growing, rich grass ; and cattle are fed on them in summer.

(vi) The limit of Perpetual Snow varies from 8000 to 9500 ft.

SWITZERLAND.

1. Introductory.—Switzerland is a small country in the very heart of Europe—of the true Europe (leaving out Russia, which is a semi-Asiatic country).—It is the most mountainous country on the Continent. Composed entirely of mountain and table-land, it has long been the playground of the civilised world; and its most important buildings are hotels. From the military point of view, it is a great natural fortress—a defensive power and a guarantee for peace in the very midst of strong military states. Politically, it is the best example we have of an old republic,—one of the smallest countries in Europe—holding its own against great military monarchies. As regards natural scenery, it is the synonym for all that is picturesque, beautiful, and sublime.

(i) "Two hundred Switzerlands would scarcely equal Europe in area."

(ii) Whenever a mountainous point of any country is strikingly picturesque and beautiful, it is called "a little Switzerland."

2. Boundaries.-Switzerland is bounded-

- 1. N. -By Germany.
- 2. E. -By Germany and Austria.
- 3. S. -By Italy.
- 4. W.-By France.

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(i) Its natural boundaries are the Rhine ; the Jura ; and the Alps.

(ii) It is the only country in Europe that has no coast line.

(iii) Its federal capital, Berne, lies nearly on the same parallel as Nantes (in France), Astrakhan, and Quebec.

3. Commercial Position.—Though Switzerland has no coast line and no water-communication with the sea, it occupies a magnificent commercial position. For it touches the three greatest industrial and

commercial countries of continental Europe—France, Germany, and Italy; gives trade to them and receives trade from them.

(i) Its 2000 miles of railway connect it with every large town on the Continent.

(ii) For its industries, it has everywhere at hand the enormous water-power of the Alpine streams.

4. Shape and Size.—Roughly speaking, Switzerland is a semicircle. It is nearly 16,000 square miles in area, or a little more than half the size of Scotland. Yet it supports a population of about 3 millions. $\langle \gamma \rangle$

5. Build.—About two-thirds of the country is filled with lofty mountains; and the remainder with a high plain or table-land, studded with picturesque hills, with an average elevation of 1300 ft. above the sea-level. It is from this plateau that the Alps rise. In a few words, Switzerland is the land of the Central Alps, the Jura, and the Plateau between them. The chief ranges of the Swiss Alps are the Pennine, the Lepontine, and the Bernese Alps.

The Alps form the boundary between the region where the rainfall is greatest in summer, and that where it is greatest in autumn.

(i) The Feanine Alps run south of the Valais or valley of the Upper Rhone. The highest peak—and it is also the highest point in Switzerland—is Monte Ress (15,217 ft.)

The pen in Pennine is the same as the pen in Pennaenmawr; as the ben in Benledi, etc.; as the pen in Apennine. It is the Celtic word for mountain.

(ii) The Lepontine or Helvetian Alps lie to the east of the Pennine Alps, and form the watershed between the basins of the Rhine, the Rhone, and the Po. The highest point is the Simplen (11,510 ft.).

(iii) The Berness Alps form the watershed between the basins of the Aar and the Upper Rhone. The highest peak is the Finsternarborn (14,026 ft.).

These mountains are also called the Bernese Obsriand (-Upperland). They form the routhern boundary of the Canton Berne. Seen from the city of Berne, they rise from the end of the table-land like a great mov-capped wall.

(iv) The highest mountain entirely within Swiss territory is the Matterhorn-nearly 15,000 ft. high.

(v) The Jura has a steep and uniform stope. "Towns and villages form a thin white streak along its foot; fields and vineyards occupy the lower slopes; and sombre pine-woods cover all above up to the bluish pasture-grounds in the far-off distance."

6. **Bivers.**—Switzerland has no rivers that it can call entirely its own. But it possesses the head-waters of the greatest rivers of

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Europe—the Rhine, the Rhone, the Po, and the Danube. Thus Switzerland sends water to the North Sea, the Black Sea, and the Mediterranean—and, in the Mediterranean, to both sides of the peninsula of Italy.

(i) The only navigable stream of any importance is the Aar; the other rivers are mostly mountain-torrents.

(ii) The Rhome has its source in a glacier on the west side of Mont St. Gothard. It flows to the south-west, takes a sudden and sharp bend at the town of Martigny, and falls—a rapid and muddy stream—into Lake Geneva. It leaves the lake as a clear blue river, and enters France.

(iii) The Ticino is the largest river sent down by Switzerland to the Po. It has the largest catchment-basin of all the Swiss rivers, and is the least fed by glaciers.

(iv) The Ins rises in the **Ehastian Alps**, flows through the well-known deep and narrow valley called the Engadine, and falls into the Danube at Passau, where in fact it is much larger than the stream into which it falls.

(v) The Aar rises out of the glaciers of the Finsteraarhorn; flows through Lakes Brienz and Thun; washes the towns of Interlaken, Thun (*Toon*), and Berne; and falls into the Rhine at Waldshut, above Basle. The volume of water it brings into the Rhine is greater than that of the Rhine itself; and, just as the Danube ought to be called the Inn, so the right name of the Rhine is the Aar.

(vi) Fed by glaciers, the Swiss rivers are larger in summer than in winter; as the glaciers then melt more rapidly.

7. Lakes.—The Alps are the Lake-Country of the south-west of Europe; just as the Neva basin is of the north-east. The Swiss lakes and glaciers are never-failing reservoirs of the water which fertilises many of the surrounding plains. The lakes are remarkable for their number, their size, their great depth, and the beauty and grandeur of the scenery which surrounds them. The largest and most important are Lakes Geneva, Constance, Neuchatel, Maggiore, Lucerne, and Zurich.

(i) There are in all 15 lakes in Switzerland; of which 11 are in the basin of the Aar, and none at all in that of the Ihn.—Geneva and Constance balance each other at the opposite ends of the country; and the rivers that flow out of them flow in opposite directions.

(ii) Geneva or Leman is a crescent-shaped lake, about one-tenth the size of Lake Wener in Sweden. It is the filter of the Rhone, and is nearly a thousand feet deep. Its bottom extends down almost to the level of the Mediterranean.

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(iii) Constance or Botunese is a little smaller than Geneva, and not quite so deep. It is the filter of the Rhine, and lies partly in German territory.

(iv) Meuchatel is the largest of the lakes which lie entirely in Swiss territory. It lies on the table-land, and hence is not so deep as those lakes which are found in longitudinal mountain valleys.

(v) Maggiore is a lake only 9 miles of which belong to Switzerland. It is very deep -1230 ft. The Ticino flows through it, and falls into the Po.

(vi) Lucerne is also called the Lake of the Four Forest Cantons-Lucerne, Unterwalden, Uri, and Schwytz. It is about half the size of Maggiore, and twothirds as deep. It is in shape somewhat like a starfish; and its steep mountainous shores make it more like a Norwegian flord than any other Swiss lake. The Reuss (*Roice*) flows out of it into the Aar.

(vii) Zurich is a lake one-sixth the size of Constance, and less than one-half the depth. The Limmat flows out of it into the Aar.

(viii) The Lake of Bienne is used as a regulator of the Aar. The Aar is led into the lake by an artificial channel; and thus, when the river is flooded, the surplus water is retained in the lake, and the country below saved from inundations.

8. **Climate**.—Altitude is the complement of latitude; and the climate of the Arctic Ocean may be found on the Equator, if we go high enough. Hence Switzerland has a climate colder than its latitude would lead us to expect. But, when we consider the climates within Switzerland, we must proceed according to altitude, and not according to latitude. The climate is distributed vertically, not horizontally; and Switzerland contains all the steps in the climate of Europe within very short distance of each other. The average height of the snow-line is about 9000 ft.; but the growth of grain ceases at about 4000 ft. In proportion to its size, Switzerland receives a larger quantity of rain than any other country in Europe.

(i) Summer and winter may be said to be within a few hours' walk of each other.

(ii) The southern slopes of the Alps, which face the sun, have a warmer climate than the northern slopes. Thus rye is grown in the Grisons at a height of 5900 ft. The vine flourishes on Monte Rosa as high as 3000 ft.; but in the canton of St. Gall 1700 ft. is the limit.

(iii) The canton of Ticino has the warmest climate in Switzerland. Figs, almonds, olives, and maize are grown.

(iv) In Italian Switzerland, the winter lasts three months; in the Engadine six.

9. The Soil of Switzerland.—There are more than 6 million acres of land in Switzerland. Of these, nearly 3 millions are entirely SWITZERLAND

unproductive, partly because they are rocky, partly because they are above the region of tillage; nearly 2 millions are under forest; and only a little more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ million are arable. Thus only about one quarter of the soil of the country is available for agriculture.



10. Vegetation.—This figure gives the gamut of vegetation in Switzerland; and the vertical zones of the Alps correspond to the horizontal zones of Europe between latitude 46° and the Arctic Circle.

11. Agriculture.—Switzerland is an agricultural country, with a strong

tendency to manufactures. The chief wealth of the country consists in its forests, its meadows, and its mountain pastures; and the grain grown does not supply more than half the bread eaten by the Swiss. The most important kind of farming is dairy-farming; and the chief product is **cheese**. In the warmer parts of the country **maise**, **vines**, and **tobacco** are grown; and there are rich orchards in the lower grounds.

(i) The pastures are always green. Rain in the winter, melting snow in the summer, and irrigation in the lower meadows, keep them so.

(ii) In spring, the cows leave the stables where they have spent the long winter, and, headed by a "leader — a cow crowned with flowers and decked with sweet sounding bells, make for the Alps. As the snow melts away, they go higher and higher. They stay in the lower pastures during May; a little higher in June; highest of all in July; and, in the next three months, return through the same stages. Every patch of pasture is used; and, if cattle cannot reach it, sheep and goats are driven up. Sometimes, the herdsman will even carry the animals up on his back. The higher they go, the more they find of those aromatic herbs which give so delicious a flavour to the milk. The herdsmen live in wooden huts called *chalets*.

(iii) The Swiss peasant is singularly careful about his grass and hay. He climbs up into nooks where even the goat cannot make his way, cuts the grass there, and throws it down the precipice. 12. Animals.—The wolf, ibex, chamois, and marmot are found in the mountains; but all grow scarcer every year.

(i) Wolves frequently invade the sheepfolds.

(ii) The chamois is being hunted to destruction-820 were killed in one year; but some of the cantons have instituted a "close-time."

(iii) The marmot is a pretty rodent, larger than a rabbit, living in families, and sleeping all the winter till April.

13. Minerals. —Switzerland is singularly poor in minerals. There is very little **iron**; no **coal**; and the only mineral whose export exceeds its import is **asphalte**.

"The Alps are supposed to be rich in iron ores; but, owing to the want of fuel, it would not pay to work them."

14. Manufactures.—Poor in arable soil, poorer still in minerals, what is it that makes Switzerland so rich? It is water-power, hard work, and thrift. Most of the raw material for manufactures has to be imported; but the rivers and waterfalls supply a splendid motivepower without cost. The north and west are the chief manufacturing districts. The largest manufacture is suik; then cottons; next, watches and jewellery.

(i) Silks are manufactured chiefly in Zürich and Basle.

(ii) Cotton-spinning goes on in the German cantons of Glarus, Zürich, and St.-Gall.

(iii) Geneva and The Jura (Neuchâtel, etc.) are important centres of watchmaking.

15. Commerce.—In spite of the absence of sea-board, and the presence of high mountain-ranges, Switzerland possesses a large commerce in proportion to her size. She has commercial intercourse with Austria, France, Germany, and Italy; and she also does a large trade with Great Britain and the United States. Her chief exports are silks, cottons, clocks, and watches; cheese and condensed milk.

(i) Her exports to Germany amount to about £6,000,000 a year; her imports from Germany, to nearly ten millions.

(ii) France is her next best customer; then Great Britain; then the United States

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16. Large Towns.—There are only seven towns in Switzerland with more than 25,000 inhabitants; and only two of them have above 50,000. The two largest towns are Geneva and Basle. Next come Berne; Lausanne; Zürich; Chaux-de-Fonds; and St. Gall.

If we include its suburban parishes, Zurich is the largest town in Switzerland-with nearly 20,000 inhabitants,

(i) Geneva (70), at the south-western end of the lake, occupies a splendid geographical position; for upon it converge all the roads which connect Central Germany with Southern France. It is frequently chosen for international meetings, and is hence known as "the greatest amongst the small towns" of Europe. It is the intellectual centre of French Switzerland.

(ii) Basis (65) stands on a terrace at the great elbow of the Rhine, where it begins to sweep to the north, and is to Germany and Northern France what Geneva is to Southern France. It has large manufactures of silk, ribbons, and chemicals. It is also one of the great exchanges and money marts of the world.

(iii) Berns (45) stands in a peninsular loop of the Aar,—which has here high and steep banks,—half-way between the Rhone and the Rhine. It has greater extremes of temperature than any other town in Switzerland. The view from the town of the snow-clad Bernese Alps is most magnificent.

(iv) Lessance (30) stands on a hill near the middle of the north bank of the Lake of Geneva. It is a place surrounded by the loveliest scenery.

(v) Zarieh (28), the intellectual and commercial capital of German Switzerland, stands at the foot of the lake of the same name, and is nearly in the middle of the most fertile plain in the country. It has also better communications both by road and rail with Germany and Austria than any other town. It has silk-mills and cotton-mills; foundries and machine-shops. It has also a good Technical School.

(vi) Chann-de-Fonds (26), in a valley of the Upper Jura, is the industrial centre of the canton of Neuchâtel. It is still the chief centre of watch-making in the world.

(vii) St. Gall (25), the capital of the canton of that name, is a very busy pushing town, which has its agents in all parts of the world. Embroidered muslins are the chief manufactures. r_{2}

17. Watering-places.—There are in Switzerland more than five hundred watering-places ("baths") or health-resorts. Indeed, this country is the sanatorium of Europe. Sulphur baths, salt baths, the whey cure, mineral waters—all are used, to bathe in or to drink. Altitude is so important an element in the "cure" that 240 of the hotels stand about 4000 ft. above the level of the sea.

(i) One of the highest hotels is on the top of the **Eig**, a mountain more frequented by tourists than any other in the world. There are now two railways to the top; one of these remarkable railways has a gradient of one foot in four. The chief object of tourists is to see the sun rise over the wonderful frozen sea of mountains which lies beneath the eye of the spectator standing on the top of the Rigi.

(ii) "Switzerland has almost become one huge hotel. During the summer season, strangers arrive in thousands, and all the languages of Europe may then be heard."

(iii) The amount of money annually left behind them in the country by strangers is nearly £5,000,000.

18. Roads and Railways.—Switzerland is well provided with roads. The magnificently built roads across the Passes of the Alps—several of them constructed by Napoleon—are among the wonders of the world. "The real centre of all Switzerland is the high valley of Andermatt; and it is not a mere accident if the four cardinal roads of the Alps converge upon it." There are about 2000 miles of railway in the country; and these are, of course, mostly on the plateau. The tunnels through the **Mont St. Gothard** and the **Simplon** have brought Italy within half-an-hour's distance.

(i) Switzerland, in respect of roads, stands at the opposite pole to Russia. The material for making them is everywhere; in many parts of Russia, it is nowhere.

(ii) At present, the plain of Switzerland has more railways in proportion to its area than any other country in Europe.

19. Telegraphs and Letters.—Switzerland is fitted with a very complete telegraph system. There are in the country nearly 4500 miles of telegraph line. The telegraph is especially active during the summer months.—About 100 millions of letters and post-cards are transmitted by the post-offices every year.

England and Wales send about 1600 millions; but then England and Wales have a population more than eight times as large as Switzerland.

20. Population and Populousness.—The population of Switzerland amounts to a little over 3,000,000. This gives an average density of about 200 per square mile. Geneva is the most densely peopled canton; Grisons the least.

(i) The following is the order of density in the cantons : Geneva, Basle, Zürich.

(ii) The density of population in the above gives also the order of rank as regards industries and commerce.

(iii) In spite of its extensive glaciers and snow-fields, the population is denser in Switzerland than it is in France, and much denser than in Scotland.

21. Political Divisions.—Switzerland is—not divided into, butmade up of twenty-two small independent states, called cantons. The Swiss Confederation at first (Jan. 1, 1308) consisted of only three cantons; and these gradually grew to the present size and number. The most important are :

CANTONS.	Towns.	CANTONS.	Towns.
1. Geneva .	Geneva.	5. Zürich	Zürich.
	Lausanne.	6. Basis	Basle.
3. Nenchatel	Neuchatel, Chaux- de-Fonds.	7. St. Gall	St. Gall.
4. Berne	Berne, Thun, In-	8. Schwytz	Schwytz.
	terlaken.	9. Lucerne	Lucerne.

(1) Lausanne. Here Gibbon wrote his work on the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.

(ii) Thun, on Lake Thun, is one of the lovellest towns in Switzstiand. It is a quaint town, with high towers, odd henses, and "rows," like those of Chester. It is the military capital of the Confederation.

(iii) Interlaken (-between the Lakes), a pretty place between Lakes Briens and Thun.

(iv) Schwytz was the canton after which the whole country was named,

(v) The largest canton is the Grisons - about the size of Lincolnahire.

22. Character and Social Condition.—The average Swiss is "a man with large, strongly cut features, broad chest, a heavy gait, bright eyes, and strong fists." He is slow, but sure. He is thrifty and fond of money; but he is still more fond of liberty—and Switzerland has won more liberty for herself than any other nation on the continent. Frankness, industry, love of liberty, a burning love of country these are the main characteristics of the Swiss.

Nearly every mountain village has some special trade. "The emigrants from one village are all of them chimney-sweeps; those from another glaziers or masons. The men from one valley in the Ticino are chestnut-roasters; the Grisons supply Europe with pastry-cooks."

23. Languages.—There are four languages spoken in Switzerland —German, French, Italian, and Roumansch. More than two-thirds of the people speak German; and about one-sixth, French.

Roumanech is a kind of Latin. It is spoken only in the Grisons.

(i) The Alps form a very difficult boundary on the south, hence the weakness of the Italian element; the Jura is not so difficult, hence the greater strength of the French element; the Swiss table-land is only part of the South German Plateau, hence the number of Germans is greatly in excess.

(ii) German is spoken by the majority of the people in 15 cantons; French in five; and Italian in one-Ticino.

24. Government.—The Swiss Parliament has two Chambers—the State Council and the National Council, both elective. The army consists of all the men able to bear arms between the ages of 20 and 32. Those above 32 form a reserve force. On a war-footing it numbers 200,000 men. There is no navy.

The valley formed the original natural unit of society and government.

25. Religion and Education.—About 59 per cent. of the Swiss people are Protestants; the remaining 41 per cent. Catholics. The Protestant part of the community have education which is compulsory and free; and it is free both in the secondary and in the primary schools. Each canton has a Normal College for the training of schoolmasters. There are four Universities; and Zürich has one of the largest and best Technical Colleges in Europe.



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AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

1. Introductory.—A land of endless variety—of hill and dale, mountain and plain, forest and river; a land of the most varied scenery; a land of many different peoples and nationalities— European and Asiatic, German and Magyar, Italian and Slav, where there are twenty different languages spoken, and half-a-dozen different coinages in use; a pudding-stone of states; a conglomerate of duchies, grand-duchies, kingdoms, and principalities; an Empire-Monarchy with an Emperor-King,—such is Austria.

(i) Austria comprises five kingdoms; one principality; two arch-duchies; eight duchies; two margraviates; four counties (=provinces ruled only by Counts); and several lordships—in all, 56 States.

(ii) No common bond either of nationality, race, or speech holds them together. The necessity of Christians combining against the Turk originally brought them together; and now the Hapsburgs keep them. To-day, the army is the chief bond.

(iii) About half the people belong to the Slav race.

2. Commercial Position.—Although Austria has a very short seaboard, yet, lying as it does, almost in the very middle of Europe, having communication with the Mediterranean, the Black Sea, the Baltic, and the German Ocean, and touching so many countries Austria-Hungary occupies a magnificent position for commerce.

- (i) Austria's neighbours are the commercial countries of Germany and France.
- (ii) The Suez Canal has increased the Mediterranean traffic of Austria.

3. Boundaries.—Austria-Hungary is bounded—

- 1. N.- By Prussia and Russia.
- 2. E .- By Russia and Roumania.
- 3. S .--- By Montenegro, Servia, and Roumania.
- 4. W .- By Bavaria, Switzerland, and Italy.

(i) The Rhine, for a short distance, separates it from Switzerland.

(ii) The Carnic Alps separate it from Italy.

4. Size.—As regards area—241,000 square miles—Austria-Hungary ranks third among the European States. From north to south it measures 700 miles; from east to west 900.

(i) Russia is the largest state in Europe ; Scandinavia the second.

(ii) Austria-Hungary is more than four times larger than England and Wales.

5. Shape.—Austria-Hungary is an immense oblong, with two excrescences—one on the west, the other on the south. The following is a diagram-map of the different parts of this composite empire :



The key to this confusion is to be found in the river Leitha—a stream which falls into the Danube east of Vienna. All the countries west of this stream are known as the Cis-Leithan; those east as the Trans-Leithan.

Cis is a Latin word meaning on this side of, while trans means beyond.

Bohemia, like a huge pentangular citadel, advances into the heart of the North German Plains.

6. Build.—Austria-Hungary is made up of three great mountainsystems ; a vast plain watered by two mighty rivers ; a great plateau ; and exterior slopes towards four great seas.

(i) The three mountain-systems are: the Eastern Alps; the Bohamian-Moravian System; and the Carpathians.

(ii) The vast plain is the Plain of Hungary, which is watered by the Danube and the Theiss. Hungary is an oval plain surrounded by mountains.

(iii) The great table-land is the Plateau of Bohemia.

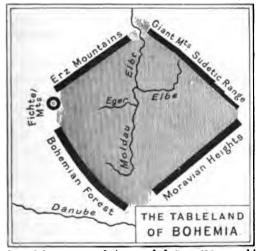
AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

(iv) The four exterior slopes are: (a) a narrow slope west, in Dalmatis, into the Adriatic; (b) a long slope east, in Galicia, in the Dniester valley, into the Black Sea; (c) a long slope north, in Bohemia, towards the German Ocean; and (d) a short slope north, in the Adige valley, towardr the Adriatic.

7. The Coast Line.—The coast line of Austria is, in comparison with the vast extent of territory, very short. The coast of Dalmatia is high and rocky, and valueless for commerce. Istria has the commercial port of Trieste.

The Danube compensates to a large extent for the shortness of the sea-coast.

8. Mountains and Table-Lands.—After Switzerland, Austria-Hungary is the most mountainous country in Europe. Threefourths of it is mountain-land. Nearly half of the Alps lie in Austrian territory. On the north, spurs from the main range go out to meet the Little Carpathians; to the south, the Julian Alps run



into the mountains of Dalmatia_In the north-west, the lozenge - shaped Plateau of Bohemia is hemmed in by the ranges called Bohemian Forest, Ers (Ore) Mountains, Riesen (Giant) Mountains, and the Moravian Forest. -East comes

the mighty range of the wooded Carpathians, which are continued into the Transylvanian Alps; and the two together defend the wide fertile plain of the Danube against east and north-east winds.

(i) The Greas Glockner (12,455 ft.) rises "like a bleached citadel" at the end of the Great Alps. From this point, the other ranges spread out like a fan; and, as they go east, they increase in breadth, but decrease in height.

(ii) Sir Humphry Davy says: "I know no country to be compared in beauty of scenery with the Austrian Alps. The variety of the scenery, the verdure of the meadows and trees, the depths of the valleys, and the altitude of the mountains, the clearness and grandeur of the rivers and lakes give it, I think, a decided superiority over Switzerland." The chief ranges of the Alps in Austria are the Bhastian, Noric, Carnis, Julian, and Dimaric Alps.

(iii) The most picturesque ranges are in Tyrel, which is the most Alpine part of the country; and here also is the highest peak—Orther Spitz (12,817 ft.).

(iv) In the Giant Mountains, the loftiest peak is the Schneekoppe (snow-peak), which is, however, only 5248 ft. above the sea-level.

(v) The Carpathians cover an area of 72,000 square miles—more than twice that of the Austrian Alps. The highest part of them is called the **Tatra Group**—an enormous mass of granite. They begin at the Iron Gate on the Danube, and, sweeping round Transylvania and Hungary, again approach the Danube near Pressburg.

9. Plains.—There are in Austria-Hungary four important and fertile plains: the Tulner Basin; the Vienna Basin; the Little Hungarian Plain; and the Great Hungarian Plain.

(i) The Tainer Basin is called after the town of Tuln, and lies highest up the Danube.

(ii) Vienna lies in the middle of the Vienna Basin.

(iii) The Little Hungarian Plain has an area of about half the size of Yorkshire.

(iv) The Great Hungarian Flain is more than ten times as large as the Little Plain, and is one of the great granaries of Europe. Extensive marshes, however, lie along the banks of the rivers.

10. **Bivers.**—The highlands of Austria-Hungary form part of the great watershed of Europe; and its rivers flow north, south, and east. All its rivers have their mouths in other countries. The **Danube**, **Dniester**, **Vistula**, **Elbe**, and **Adige** are the chief rivers. The mountains of Bohemia and Moravia give birth to the three great rivers of Northern Germany—the Elbe, the Oder, and the Vistula.

(i) The Danube (which is 1750 miles long) has 846 miles in this empire, of which 620 are in Hungary. It enters Austria at Passau; and is the great artery of the country. It leaves Hungary at the dangerous rapids called the **Iron Gate**, at Orsova.

(ii) The Mibe has 230 miles in Bohemia; but the Moldau. its tributary, is larger and more useful than the main stream.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

11. Lakes.--There are many lakes; but most of them are small. The largest is the Balaton or Platten See (in Hungary); and the second largest is the Neusseller See (also in Hungary).

(1) The latter lake is sometimes quite dry in summer. Most of its bed was cultivated in the years 1865 and 1870.

(ii) Lake Zirkniss, in the south, lies in a chalk country; and it alternately disappears and reappears through the fissures. "In former times, the villagers alternately gained a livelihood by fishing and by tilling the land when it emerged."

12. Climate.—Austria lies mainly to the south of the mountainbarrier of Europe. There are three well-marked climates: (1) the climate of the Northern Slope, on which the vine does not prosper; (2) that of the Plain and Southern Slopes of Hungary; and (3) that of the Mediterranean Slopes. The rainfall is much less than in England. The annual temperature falls as we go east.

(i) The first climate lies north of 49° North lat.

(ii) The second, between 46° and 49°, is favourable to the vine and wheat.

(iii) The third lies south of 46°; and olive-oil and allk can be produced in it.

(iv) Vienna has the same average climate for the year as London; but it is much more continental—with a hotter summer and colder winter.

13. Vegetation.—In the southern zone, the vine, maize, and the olive flourish; and in the south of Dalmatia, tropical plants grow well.— In the middle zone, we find, on the warm slopes to the south, the vine, and—in the plains—maize and wheat.—In the northern belt wine and maize cannot be grown; but the chief crops are wheat, rye, hemp, and flax. The forests are chiefly of oak, ash, elm, and beech. In Dalmatia the orange, lemon, and pomegranate grow well

There are splendid forests, especially in Bohemia, which is famous for its large trees. Buckowina (in the east) means the Land of Beeches (= Buckingham).

14. Animals.—The bear, wolf, and lynx are still numerous in the forests and mountains of the east. The otter is very common in Hungary; and the wild boar is hunted in many districts. There are enormous numbers of birds; and of different kinds of birds.

The golden eagle is seen among the Alps; and herons of brilliant plumage abound in the Hungarian swamps.

15. Minerals.—The mineral wealth of Austria is as great as that of Germany, though it is not so carefully worked. There is much coal —especially in Bohemia.—There is a good deal of tron.—The gold mines in Transylvania are the richest in Europe.—Silver and lead are also found on the Bohemian side of the Erz Mountains. Quicksilver is obtained at Idria in Carniola—the richest mines after Almaden in Spain. But the most valuable mineral is salt. The salt-mines at Wielicstra (near Cracow) are the most important; and the galleries in the mines are more than 50 miles in length. In Salzburg, there is a whole mountain composed of salt.

(i) The Carpethians are very rich in metals; the Alps extremely poor.

(ii) In the mines of Wielicsta, halls and even a chapel with pulpit, crucifixes, and statues have been cut out of the solid rock-salt.

(iii) In the precious metals, Austria is inferior only to Russia.

16. Industries.—The most important industry in this empire is agriculture. About 60 per cent. of the whole population are engaged on the land. More than one-third of the land is under tillage; and there are immense breadths of rich pasturage. The five chief crops are oats, wheat, rye, barley, and maize.

(i) Onts is the crop that comes first : there are so many horses in the country.

(ii) The most fertile lands are Bohemia, Silesia, Dalmatia, and Galicia. Some of the fertile districts in Bohemia are called "Golden Rod," "Paradise," etc.

(iii) The Pussies or Hungarian Steppes, swarm with cattle. "Troops of horses pasture in battle array; herds of oxen are scattered over the plain; buffaloes rest in the swamps. Now and then a stork or long-shanked crane is seen."

(iv) In the cultivation of maize Austria holds the first place in Europe.

17. Manufactures.—Manufactures are most highly developed in the German parts of the Empire—and in Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia and Styria. In Hungary there are very few : in Dalmatia, none.

(i) The manufactures (after woollens, linens, cottons, and beverages) are, to a large extent, of small wares. Bohemia is known everywhere for exquisite glass.

(ii) Bohemia, "the brightest jewel in the imperial crown," is the richest manufacturing country of all in the Empire. Eungary stands at the opposite pole: it is the region of raw materials. 18. Commerce.—The commerce of Austria is chiefly with different parts of herself—especially the east with the west. The principal seaport is **Trieste**; and nearly one-third of the whole sea-trade of the country is carried on there. The chief exports are grain, sugar, and timber. Austria's best foreign customer is Germany. Her land-trade is larger than her sea-trade.

(i) Her land-trade is carried on by her navigable streams and her network of railways. Almost all her rivers are navigable; but they possess the disadvantage of having their mouths in foreign countries.

(ii) The centre of the railway system is Vienna.

(iii) The sea-trade is limited to the Mediterranean.

(iv) The hard wheat of Hungary is among the best in the world for making flour.

(v) Great Britain sends to Austria chiefly cotton goods, iron, and machinery.

(vi) Two-thirds of the commerce of the country passes overland through Germany.

19. Cities and Towns.—There are in Austria-Hungary 27 towns with more than 20,000 inhabitants; of which 16 have more than 40,000; and of these, 6 have over 100,000. The two largest cities are Vienna, which has over a million; and Pesth, which has nearly half a million of inhabitants. The four next in size are Prague, Trieste, Lemberg, and Gratz.

(i) VIEHNA, the capital of Austria, on an arm of the Danube, where the little river Wien joins it, is one of the great world-cities of the Continent. (a) It stands at the intersection of the high roads from Bohemia, Silesia, and the Adriatic, and was for centuries the outpost of civilisation. (b) It stands in the plain where the three great mountain systems of Austria meet, but without touching. (c) It stands where the Danube begins to open out, and to become more useful to navigation; hence it is the central point of the commerce between the upper and lower Danube. (d) It lies at that part of the Danube which is nearest to the Adriatic. (e) It lies where the Alps are lowest and can most easily be crossed (the Semmering Railway). Hence it is probably destined to become the central city of the Continent.-The city is supplied with pure water from the Alps by an aqueduct 56 miles long. It has large manufactures of silks, velvets, porcelain, etc. The spire of the Cathedral of St. Stephen's rises from the centre of the city to the height of 453 ft. under Section .

(ii) **Duda-Festh**, the capital of Hungary, stands on the Danube-Buda (its German name is Oten) on the right bank, and Pesth on the left. The cities stand at the last narrow part of the Danube, which can therefore be bridged; and the two cities are joined by a noble suspension bridge. Buda is built on cliffs; Pesth on a plain. The twin-city occupies an excellent geographical position on a very commercial river.

(iii) **Prague** (310), the capital and the centre of Bohemia, stands on the **Moldam**—the largest affluent of the Elbe. It is a great trade centre; and also a manufacturing town. This "town of the hundred towers" is one of the finest cities in the world.

(iv) Trieste (160), on the Gulf of Trieste, a branch of the Adriativ, is the seaport of the Empire. It stands where the roads from the Danube and across the Alps meet and strike the Adriatic. It far surpasses Venice in commercial activity.

(v) Lemberg (125), the capital of Austrian Galicia, stands on an affluent of the Bug, which is a tributary of the Vistula. Standing between the Dniester, Vistula, and Bug, between the Baltic and the Black Seas—and between Dantzig and Odessa—it enjoys a brisk trade. Three railways converge upon it.

(vi) Gratz (110), the capital of Styria, is the largest town in the Austrian Alps, and stands half-way between Vienna and Trieste. Mines have made its prosperity.

(vii) Bruna (85), the capital and "the pride" of Moravia, stands on a tributary of the March. It has large woollen manufactures; and woollens are the staple of Moravia.

20. Historic Towns.—Austria, standing in the heart of Europe, between north and south, between east and west, holding in control so many races, and facing the armies of the Turks, has had a very varied history, which has left its marks on many of her towns.

(i) Innsbrück (=Innbridge) is the capital of Tyrol. It stands near the Brenner Pass, and contains the tomb of the Emperor Maximilian.—Trent, further south, is an Italian-speaking city, famous for the meeting of the great Church-council, called the Council of Trent, in 1545-63.

(ii) Cracow (75) was the old capital of Poland. The kings of Poland were buried in the cathedral. A monument to Kosciuszko, the hero of dying Poland, stands to the west of Cracow.

(iii) Pressburg (50), on the Danube, was the ancient capital of Hungary.

(iv) Peterwardsin is a very strong fortress. It was called after Peter the Hermit, who here marshalled the crowd which went on pilgrimage in the First Crussde (in 1095).

21. Railways.—Austria-Hungary possesses about 15,000 miles of railway, of which about 8500 are in Austria.

(i) The three chief railways which cross the passes of the Alps and connect the North with Italy and the South are the Brenner, the Semmering, and the Radolf lines.

(ii) There are about 58,000 miles of good road in the empire-kingdom; and more than 60 mountain passes have been pierced by roads.

(iii) The Danube remains the chief high-road for commerce.

22. Telegraphs, etc.— The country has over 25,000 miles of telegraph line. The telegraphs carry more than ten million messages every

year : the number of letters, post-cards, etc., sent by the post, amounts, in Austria, to 600 millions ; in Hungary, to 200 millions.

This gives in Austria alone an average of 19 letters per head per annum.

23. Population and Populousness.—Austria-Hungary possesses a population of over 40 millions. This gives an average of about 170 persons to the square mile.

Austria-Hungary takes the third place for population in Europe. In populousness it is only seventh.

24. Political Divisions.—There are many divisions in the Austrian Empire; but the following are those of most general interest, with some of their chief towns :—

1. Lower Austria	. Vienna.	6. Moravia .	. Brunn.
2. Upper Austria	. Linz.	7. Silecia	. Troppau.
S. Salsburg .	. Salzburg.	8. Galicia	. Lemberg.
4. Tyrol	. Innsbrück.	9. Dalmatia .	. Zara.
5. Bohemia .	. Prague, Carlsbad,	10. Hungary .	. Buda-Pesth, Press-
	Toplitz.		burg, Tokay,
	-		Szegedin.

(i) Lawz (45), on the right bank of the Danube, is the natural centre of the highways from the north and the south. It has large manufactures.

(ii) SAISBURG (35), on the Salsach, an affinent of the Inn, is a lovely town in the midst of Alpine scenary. Mozart was born there in 1756.

(iii) CARLERAD and TOFINE are two famous watering-places, much frequented by people from all countries. The springs of Carlsbad are the hottest in Europe.

(iv) THOFFAU (26), on an affiuent of the Oder, is the capital of Austrian Silesia. It has large manufactures of cloth.

(v) ZARA is the capital of Dalmatia. It is famous for a liqueur called Maraschino.

(vi) TOKAY, on the hot southern alopes of the Carpathians, is famous for a very rich wine.

(vii) SZENKDIE (75), the second largest city in Hungary, is a very thriving place, because it stands at the centre of two great systems of railway, and at the junction of the Marcs with the Theise. It was nearly drowned out by an inundation of the Theise in 1879.

25. Government.—Austria, or the Cisleithan Government, is an Empire, with a parliament and executive of its own. Hungary, or the Transleithan Government, is a Monarchy, and has also a parliament and executive of its own. The Emperor of Austria is always King of Hungary; and he has to go to Pressburg, the ancient

capital, to be crowned. But the two countries have an army, navy, and diplomacy (or their relations to foreign countries) in common

(i) The Army numbers nearly 300,000 men on the peace-footing ; and nearly 2,000,000 on the war-footing.

(ii) The Navy consists of 12 iron-clads, two of which are over 7000 tons burden. Pola, on the Adriatic, is the chief naval port; Trieste, the chief arsenal.

26. Languages.—There are more than twenty different languages spoken in the Austro-Hungarian Empire. German is spoken in Upper and Lower Austria, Salzburg, Tyrol, and the north-west of Bohemia. Magyar, a kind of Finnish, is spoken by the Magyars of Hungary. Csech, a kind of Slavonic, is the language of Bohemia.— Polish, Buthenian (a kind of Russian), Bomanic, and many others, are also spoken.

(i) Up to 1849, Latin was the language of the Hungarian law-courts and Parliament.

(ii) No other state in Europe, except Russia, embraces within it so many distinct nationalities.

27. The State religion of Austria is the **Boman Catholic**; but there is complete toleration.—In Hungary there is no State religion; but most of the people are Catholics. There are about 3,600,000 Protestants—most of them in Hungary.



GERMANY.

1. Introductory.-Germany is the name of the great military power which stands in the middle of Europe, and which is the chief guardian and guarantee for peace between the large and warlike empires that flank it on three of its sides. It stands between the shallow waters of the Baltic and the high mountain masses of Switzerland. It is a great and solid Empire ; and it contains within itself four kingdoms, besides many other states.

(i) The German Empire is to be distinguished from Germany. Germany is wherever the German language is spoken and where the German race is found. Hence Germany includes Upper and Lower Austria.

(ii) The German Empire contains 4 kingdoms; 6 grand-duchies; 5 duchies 7 principalities; 8 free towns; and one imperial province.

2. Boundaries.-The German Empire is bounded-

1. N. -By the Baltie Sea and Denmark.

- 2. E. -By Bohemia and Russia.
- 8. S. -By Switzerland, Austria, and Bohemia.
- 4. W .- By the Netherlands, Belgium, and France.

3. Commercial Position .-- Germany touches every one of the great European States, and trades with and for them. Its position on the Baltic enables it to trade with the Baltic countries; its coast upon the German Ocean gives it free access to Great Britain and America. By rail it communicates with every country on the Continent.

4. Shape and Size.-Germany consists of a large parallelogram, with a smaller one on the south of it. Its total area contains nearly 212,000 square miles.

- (1) It is a little larger than France, and a good deal more populous. (11) France has 187 persons per square mile; Germany 226. $f_{1,2}$ = $f_{1,2}$

5. Build .- Roughly speaking, Germany may be said to consist of three parts: (i) The Northern Lowland Plain; (ii) the Southern Tableland; and (iii) the Rhine Basin.

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(i) The German Lowlands are a rolling country, with here and there level tracts, through which rivers meander very slowly. The rivers that flow through it into the Baltic are remarkable for their parallelism.

(ii) The German Table-land begins at the Hars Mountains (which are in the latitude of London); though the higher part of it really begins at the river Main. Germany south of the Main is called Upper Germany, and the language spoken there is called High German; north of the Main, Lower Germany, and the language, Low German.

(iii) The **Bain** connects the lofty peaks and immense table-land of the Alps with the low flat alluvial country of Holland.

6. The Coast, Bays, etc.—The Baltic Coast is low and flat, and is distinguished by Haffs and Nehrungs. The coast on the North Sea is very much like that of Holland, with its dunes and polders : and is distinguished by flatness and fertility.

(i) A Haff is a shallow lagoon at the mouth of a river, protected by a very long spit of land called a Mehrung. Into the Eurischer Haff flows the river Niemen. The Pregel flows into the Prischer Haff, which lies inside the Gulf of Dantzig. The Oder flows into the Stettiner Haff—to the north-west lies the lovely island of Edgen.

(ii) On the North Ses we find two openings : the Dollart Zee and the Gulf of Jahde.

7. Mountains and Table-lands.—To understand the mountain-system of Germany, we must firmly seize with our minds the central knot of the Fichtel Gebirge, in the north-east of Bavaria. From this centre almost all the mountain-ranges of Germany radiate. These are : the Brzgebirge and the Bohemian Forest to the east—and still farther east, the Riesengebirge ; the Thuringian Forest and the Franconian Jura to the west.—South of the Franconian Jura runs the range of the Swabian Jura, which joins the Black Forest. Parallel with the Black Forest, but on the western side of the Rhine, run the Vosges.—All Germany south of the Harz Mountains is more or less of a table-land ; but the highest table-land is south of the Main ; and the highest part of it—about 1600 ft.—is in Bavaria.

The German word bsrg means mountain; and Gebirgs is the collective name for a set or range of mountains. Voges is pronounced Voje. Ers means Ore; and Riesen-Giante.

(i) The minor ranges are: (a) To the north of the Thuringian Forest the Hars, with the Brocken as its highest peak. The Spectre of the Brocken is one's own shadow projected and magnified in the mist. (b) To the north of the Black Forest, the Odeswald and then the Tannas—the latter famous for mineral springs.

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(ii) The Veges now forms part of the Franco-German frontier. The Black Forest (Schwarz Wald) is so called from its covering of dark pines. The Swabian Jura is in Wirtemberg.

8. Plains.—The Great German Plain forms part—the western part —of the Great Plain of Europe. It is of a regular build—with a good deal of rolling country; and its regularity of build is seen in the wonderful parallelism of its rivers, the Vistula, Oder, etc., and also in the parallelism of their tributaries. The most striking features in this plain are the Marsh-land, the Lake-land, and the Moors.

(i) The Marsh-land is on the north-west coast of Germany. It is very fine grazingland. Germany has been compared to "an old Frisian mantle, made of coarse sackcloth, but fringed with silk." The silk fringe is the marsh-land; the sackcloth the barren heathland in the interior.

(ii) The Lake-land lies on a set of low table-lands, which run along the Baltic.

9. Rivers.—The great rivers of Germany are the Vistula, the Oder, the Elbe, and the Ehbe.—Of these by far the most important are the Rhine and the Elbe.—The minor rivers are the Ems, the Weser, the Pregel, and the Niemen.

(i) The Vistala rises in the Carpathians and falls into the Baltic after a course of 600 miles. Its chief tributary is the Bug, a stream nearly as large as itself. It is navigable through the larger part of its course; and it carries vast quantities of wheat, timber, and other produce down to the Baltic ports.

(ii) The Oder rises in Moravia, and falls into the Baltic, after a course of about 500 miles. Its chief tributary is the Warta. It is the only one of the great German rivers whose navigable course lies entirely within the German Empire.

(iii) The like rises in Bohemia, flows through Saxony and some of the smaller states, and falls into the German Ocean about 60 miles below Hamburg. In Bohemia it is joined by the Moldau, on which stands the city of Prague. The most picturesque part of its course is through "Saxon Switzerland," where the sandstone rocks, broken up by the action of water and weather, take the most picturesque and astonishing shapes. Its chief tributary in Germany is the **Havel**. Into the Havel flows the **Spree**, on which stands Berlin.

10. Climate.— There are in Germany three well-marked climatic regions: (i) The climate of the North Sea Region; (ii) the climate of the Baltic Region; and (iii) the climate of the Interior Table-land.

(i) The first has the warm climate of Western Europe, with a mild winter and a heavy rain-fall, the Harz being the rainest district in the whole Empire. The Rhine valley in this region has the warmest climate of all, as is seen in the fact that the vine grows farther to the north in this valley than in any other part of Europe.

(ii) The climate of the second region is cold and damp, like the Russian.

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(iii) The third is completely continental, and is noted for the suddenness of its changes. This is due to the neighbourhood of high mountain-masses.

(iv) The increase in elevation to the south tends to reduce the temperature ; and thus altitude counteracts the effects of latitude.

11. Vegetation.—Forests cover one-fourth of the surface of the Empire—hardy pines ("needle-wood") in the north and east, . deciduous trees in the south and west. The chief crops are rye, potatoes, and best-root. In the warmer valleys, fruit and wine are largely produced ; and, in the south, tobacco, maize, and hops.

12. Minerals.—As a mining country Germany is second only to Great Britain. The Erzgebirge are rich in lead, silver, tin, and copper. One of the richest coal-fields in the country lies at their base, Chemnitz —the "Saxon Manchester." At the foot of the Riesengebirge, in Prussian Silesia, are found large quantities of coal, iron, and zino. Hence the greatness of Breslau as a manufacturing centre.—The Harz region yields every kind of metal, and almost inexhaustible supplies of coal and iron. Hence we find here the busiest industrial district of Germany, where the towns lie almost as thick as in South Lancashire or West Yorkshire.

(i) In the valley of the Ruhr (a tributary of the Rhine) lies a large coal-field ; and here we find great manufacturing towns, such as Elberfeld, Barmen, Orefeld, Dusselderf, etc. "The coal-basin of the Ruhr is the veritable Lancashire of Prussia, where town presses upon town, and the network of railway is most bewildering."

(ii) Mineral springs are abundant in almost every part of Germany.

13. Industries and Manufactures.—The chief industry in the Empire is agriculture (with cattle-rearing); and the most widely grown cereal is rye.—The German iron and steel works are very important; and the textile manufactures rank next to these. The manufacturers use up all the coal produced in the country.

(i) The Rhine Province (with the towns of Elberfeld, Crefeld, and Cologne) is engaged in the manufacture of silks, cottons, and hardwares. Saxony (which is famous for its breed of sheep) produces woollens, linens, and fine porcelain. Breaks, the capital of Silesia, has large manufactures of cloth—both linen and woollen. Berlin is famous for glass, jewellery, and metal works. Bavaria exports vast quantities of beer.

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(ii) In the production of coal and iron, Germany surpasses all other countries on the Continent. The greatest ironworks are at Essen, in Westphalia, where the famous Krupp has his steelworks, and where he casts his large guns.

14. Commerce.—Germany has a large internal as well as a large foreign trade; and both are growing. Her commerce is larger than that of France. Her chief exports are sugar, woollen fabrics, coal and coke, mixed silk and cotton cloth. Her chief imports are cotton, wool, wheat, and coffee. Her largest customer is Great Britain.

(i) The chief exports of food and fuel are to England and France.

(ii) Much of the inland trade is carried on by means of Fairs, of which the largest are at Leipzig and Frankfort. γ

15. Chief Ports.—The great ports of the Empire are Hamburg, Bremen, Dantzig, and Lubeck. The chief gates of commercial intercourse with us are Hamburg and Bremen.

(i) Hamburg (570), about 60 miles above the mouth of the Elbe, is one of the old Hanse Towns, and is still a Free Town, with a constitution and laws of its own. It has a small territory of about half the size of Middlesex. It is the most populous city in the Empire, after Berlin ; and the largest port on the Continent.

(ii) Bremen (150), about 50 miles above the mouth of the Weser, ranks next to Hamburg. It is also a Free Town and State, with a territory of a little more than half the size of Rutland. It is the chief outlet for German emigrants, who go mostly to the United States. Its sister-port is Bremerhaven.

(iii) Danizig (116) is an old Hanse Town, but not a Free Town. It is the chief outlet for all the corn and timber grown in the basin of the Vistula. It is a kind of Northern Venice, many of its houses being built on piles, and canals running through its streets. Wheat is carried down the Vistula in great mounds on rafts; the rafts are broken up at Danizig; and the raftsmen return on foot to their homes in Poland, etc.

(iv) Labeck (60) is a Free Town ; and was once the capital of the Hanse League.

16. **Bailway System**.—Germany has a large and admirable system of railway communication. It has over 25,000 miles of line. The network is closest about **Dresden**, **Frankfort**, and **Cologne**.

17. Telegraphs and Post-offices.—There are in the German Empire about 57,000 miles of telegraph line. The Imperial Post carries 1300 millions of letters and post-cards every year.

(i) Great Britain has 30,000 miles of telegraph lines, and therefore nearly twice as much as Germany, in proportion to its size.

(ii) England alone carries more than 1500 millions of letters a year, which is equivalent to 53 per head of the population. Germany carries only 27 per head.

18. Canals and High-roads.—Germany has not only many navigable rivers, but about 1500 miles of canals. There are nearly 70,000 miles of good macadamised roads.

(i) The Great Plain of Germany is so level, and the rivers have courses so highly developed, that few canals are needed. Between the Oder and the Elbe-especially on the Spree-are many natural canals. "In the Spree country children go to school in boats; hay is brought home, cattle taken to pasture, neighbours visit, wedding parties go to church, and coffins are taken to the churchyard, in boats."

(ii) The Ludwig Canal connects the Rhine and the Danube.

19. Population and Populousness.—The population of the German Empire amounts to nearly 50,000,000. This gives an average density of about 236 persons per square mile.

The kingdom of Baxony is the most thickly peopled part of the Empire; it reaches 543 per square mile. For $(a, ..., b, c) \in C$

20. **Political Divisions.**—The following table gives the most important members of the German Empire with their capitals :—

(i) K	INGD	oms			CAPITALS	(iii) GRAND-DUCHIES CAPITALS
Prussia	•		•	•	Berlin.	Badan Karlsruhe.
Bavaria	•	•	•	•	Munich.	Hesse-Darmstadt Darmstadt.
Saxony	•	•	•	•	Dresden.	Mecklenburg-Schwerin Schwerin.
Wurtembe	rg			•	Stuttgart.	Mecklenburg-Strelitz Strelitz,
(ii) Impe	RIAL	PRO	VINCE	•	CAPITAL.	Saxe-Weimar Weimar. Oldenburg Oldenburg.
Alsace-Lo	rraine				Strasburg.	

(a) Taking England (50,000 square miles) as the unit, we shall find that Prussia is 22 times as large as England.

(b) England is 9 times as large as Saxony or Baden.

(c) Bavaria is just half the size of England and Wales (58,000 square miles).

(d) Wurtemberg is one-seventh the size of England.

21. Government.—The German Emperor, who is the King of Prussia, has the question of peace and war in his own hands; but, if he wishes to begin an offensive war, he must have the consent of the "Federal Council." Parliament consists of two bodies: the Federal Council and the Imperial Diet. The members of the first are sent up by the various states; of the second, by the people.

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(i) The Emperor is Commander-in-chief of the Army, which numbers, on a peacefooting, nearly 500,000 men; on a war-footing, more than treble this number. In time of war, however, more than 2½ millions of trained soldiers could be placed in the field; and, if the Empire were invaded, the number of trained and half-trained fighting men would rise to about 6 millions.

(ii) The Mavy consists of 14 ironclads, with a large number of frigates, corvettes, gun-boats, torpedo-boats, etc.

22. Religion and Education.— In the whole Empire, about 63 per cent. of the people are Protestants (mostly Lutherans); and nearly 36 per cent. Roman Catholics. Education is compulsory throughout Germany; and the German people are, on the whole, the best educated people in the world. There are 21 Universities in the Empire; and all are flourishing and hard-working.

(i) The best educated part of Germany is the North. The percentage of persons in North Germany who can neither read nor write is less than 1.

(ii) The largest university is Berlin, which has about 4500 students.

23. Character and Social Condition.—The Germans, on the whole, are a straightforward, honest, steady, hard-working, brave, and loyal people. The Empire is growing rapidly in population and in wealth; and, as a military power, it is the first in the world.

The tendency towards living in towns increases with every decade; and in many of the rural districts the population is steadily decreasing. This is also the case in England.

24. Language.—German belongs to the same family of languages as English. The German printed in books is High-German; English is a kind of Low-German. German is a very pure language; English is greatly mixed with Latin and French words.

25. Colonial Possessions.—The Germans who emigrate prefer the United States, where there is no military service. But the Empire, under the vigorous leadership of Prussia, is extending its foreign territories on the west and south-west coasts of Africa; has taken about 100,000 square miles on the east coast; has seized about 70,000 square miles in the north of New Guinea; and a number of islands in the Pacific Ocean, called the Bismarck Archipelago.

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26. The Great Cities of Germany.—The German Empire contains 53 towns with a population of more than 50,000. Of these, 26 have more than 100,000 inhabitants.

(i) Frunda, as the largest, richest, and most populous kingdom, has 26 towns of over 50,000; of which 13 have more than 100,000.

(ii) Saxony has three towns with more than 100,000; Bavaria, only two.

PRUSSIA.

27. PRUSSIA.—The kingdom of Prussia is the leading power in Germany, and the greatest military power in the world. Its chief profession is war; but it is also most diligent and persevering in agriculture, manufactures, mining, and commerce. It occupies twothirds of the area of the German Empire; and has about three-fifths of the population.

28. Population and Industries.—The population of Prussia is nearly 30 millions—about the same as that of Great Britain.— Agriculture is the pursuit of about 75 per cent. of the people.—The manufactures consist chiefly of linens, cottons, woollens, and silk.— The chief ports are Dantzig and Stettin.

29. Provinces.—Prussia is divided into 12 provinces, of which the most important are :—

PROVINCES.	Towns.	PROVINCES.	TOWNS.
1. East Prussia .	Königsberg.	5. Saxony	Magdeburg, Halle.
2. West Prussia .	Dantzig.	6. Rhenish Prussia	Cologne, Dusseldorf,
3. Silesia	Breslau.		Aix-la-Chapelle.
4. Brandenburg .	BERLIN, Frankfort-	7. Hense-Massau .	Frankfort-on-the-
	on-the-Oder.		Main.

30. Large Towns.—Prussia, having the largest population of any part of Germany, has also the largest towns. It has 13 towns with a population of more than 100,000. Of these, the eight largest are : BERLIN; Breslau; Cologne; Frankfort-on-the-Main; Königsberg; Hanover; Dusseldorf; and Dantzig.

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(i) BERLIN (1] millions), the capital of Prussia and of the German Empire, though built on a barren and sandy plain, has a first-rate position for commerce. It commands the Baltic and the North Sea, is at the central knot of railways between Stattin (which may be regarded as the port of Berlin) and Halle, between Hamburg and Breslau; and it controls the commerce of the Elbe and the Oder and their basins. It is a great commercial and manufacturing town, as well as a "Residence and University City."

(ii) Breslau (310), on the Oder, is the second city in Prussia. It stands right in the middle of the trade between the North and Baltic Seas and the Danube basin. It has large manufactures of woollens; and is also a great grain-mart.

(iii) **Oslegne** (310)—in German, **Kön**—is the larges: city in Rhenish Prussia. The cathedral, or *Dom*, which took more than six hundred years to build, is one of the grandest Gothic buildings in the world. Cologne makes cotton, woollen, and silk fabrics. It is the headquarters of the steam-navigation of the Rhine.

(iv) Frankfort-on-the-Main (180) is one of the great banking cities of the world. Its capital supports the industries of Switzerland, the Rhine-lands, and the Netherlands. It was once a Free City. Goethe, the great German poet, was born here in 1749.

(v) Königsberg (155) is the capital of East Prussia, and the Kings of Prussia go to be crowned—or rather, to crown themselves there. It exports "Baltic produce."

(vi) Hanover (145), the capital of the old kingdom of Hanover, which was annexed after the war of 1866, is a busy manufacturing town. It was the birthplace of Herschell, the great astronomer, in 1788.

(vii) Dusseldorf (120), on the Rhine, is the centre of the most populous and industrial part of Prussia; and, along with the double town of Eiberfeld-Barmen, Grefeld, and others, manufactures cottons, silks, woollens, and hardware. Dusseldorf is also the seat of a famous school of art, and of fine picture-galleries.

(vili) Dantzig (117), on an arm of the Vistula, stands second only to Odessa as a comport. It is the largest trading town on the Baltic, and was once a Hanse Town.

31. Historic Towns.—The chief historic towns of Prussia are Aixla-Ohapelle, Bonn, Magdeburg, Erfurt, and Potsdam.

(i) Aix-la-Chapelle (97)—called in German Aachen—is one of the oldest cities in Germany. It was the capital of the Empire founded by Charlemagne; and thirtyseven emperors have been crowned here in the cathedral.

(ii) Benn, on the Rhine, was an old Roman station. It has now a famous university. It was the birthplace of the great German musician Beethoven.

(iii) Magdeburg (210), on the Elbe, in Prussian Saxony, is the great central fortress of Germany. It was captured by Tilly in 1631, and burnt to the ground.

(iv) Ertert (60), in Prussian Saxony, is famous for its lovely cathedral and its large market-gardens. Luther was known as the "Monk of Erfurt."

(v) Potsdam (51) is the summer residence of the Kings of Prussia. It was a favourite resort of Frederick the Great. Here Frederick 111., the late Emperor, died.

BAVARIA.

32. BAVARIA is the second in size and population among the German States. It is of about the same size as Scotland; but its population is at least a million larger. The Palatinate, on the left bank of the Rhine, is an appanage of the Bavarian crown.

33. Build.—The country consists chiefly of a high table-land crossed by ranges of hills and mountains. Most of it is in the basin of the Danube; though the northern part drains into the Main. One half of the soil is under tillage; one-sixth in grass; the rest under vines and forests. It is a busy and flourishing agricultural State.

34. Population and Industries.—The population of Bavaria is about $5\frac{1}{2}$ millions. Half the people are engaged in agriculture; and about 28 per cent. in manufactures, mining, and other pursuits. There are about 3300 miles of railway in the state.

35. Large Towns.—There are very few large towns in Bavaria: as most of the people live and work in the country. There are only four towns with more than 50,000 inhabitants. These are : Munich; Nürnberg; Augsburg; and Wursburg.

(i) Munich (340), on the Isar "rolling rapidly — a southern tributary of the Danube —is a "show-city," a sort of Museum of Architecture and Painting. There are buildings of all styles and of all ages; there are paintings in-doors and out-of-doors; there is statuary everywhere. The city stands on a table-land 1700 ft. above the sea-level. It is famous for excellent optical instruments; and it is the leading corn-mart of Germany. It is the capital of Bavaria. Not far from Munich is Hohenlinden—where a battle was fought between the French and Austrians in 1800.

(ii) Maraberg (120), the second city of Bavaria, stands upon an affluent of the Main. In the Middle Ages it was the town richest in art in all Germany; and it was also the centre of the trade between Germany and Itaiy. It is still the first manufacturing town in Bavaria. Watches were invented here: they were called "Nuremberg eggs."

(iii) Augsburg (70), on the Lech, was at one time a very wealthy city; and it is still a busy commercial town. It is a great banking-place. Not far from it is the village of Benheim, which gave its name to Marlborough's famous victory in 1704.

36. Historic Towns.—The two most famous historic towns in Bavaria are Ratisbon and Spires in the Palatinate.

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(i) Batisbon (40)—or, as it is called in German, Ecgensburg—stands on a great bend of the Danube, just where steam-navigation begins. It was long a favourite residence of the German Emperors. At one time, its merchants frequented every fair in Europe.

(ii) Spires. It was here that the word "Protestant" was first employed—in 1529.

SAXONY.

37. SAXONY.—The Kingdom of Saxony ranks third among the states of the German Empire. It is a little country, not quite onefifth the size of Scotland, but with a population nearly as large.

Saxony is not quite so large as Yorkshire.

38. Build.—Saxony is triangular in shape, and consists mostly of the long northern slope of the Erzgebirge, which goes gradually down into the Great German Plain. Near the capital, where the Elbe breaks through the mountains, is a highly picturesque district called "Saxon Switzerland."

39. Population and Industries.—The population of Saxony amounts to about 34 millions. It is by much the most densely populated part of Germany, and—after Belgium—the most densely populated part of the Continent. Manufactures, agriculture, mining, breeding sheep (for "Saxony wool"), and pottery, are the chief occupations of the people. Two-thirds of the inhabitants are engaged in manufactures. It owes its high position in woollens, machine-making, and paper to its large coal-fields. It takes the first rank among European States for scientific mining.

(1) The density of the population amounts to 548 per square mile-which is three times that of Bavaria.

(ii) Silver is the metal most mined; and it is believed that more than £10,000,000 worth of silver is taken out every century. Freiberg is the mining capital.

40. Large Towns.—Every village has its manufactures; and hence the town population is not so large. There are in Saxony only five towns with a population of over 40,000; and three of these have more than 100,000 inhabitants. These three are : Dresden; Leipzig; and Chemnitz.

(i) Dreeden (250), the capital, stands on both banks of the Elbe. "It is the most

pleasant town of Germany, owing to its numerous museums and the gentle manners of its inhabitants." Its gallery of pictures is the richest in Germany; and this and its fine situation have given it the name of the "German Florence." Meissen, lower down the Elbe, is famous for its fine porcelain, which is called "Dresden China."

(ii) Leipzig (360) is, after Hamburg, the chief trading city in Germany. Its position gives it this pre-eminence. It stands at the meeting-point of the largest number of high-roads and railways from North Germany and South Germany. For this reason it has been the scene of many a battle; the greatest being the Battle of Leipzig in 1818, when Napoleon suffered a terrible defeat. Leipzig is the centre of the German book-trade; and the largest market for leather in the world. The fairs of Leipzig are the most celebrated in Germany.

(iii) Chemnitz (120) is the "Saxon Manchester."

WURTEMBERG.

41. WURTEMBERG.—The Kingdom of Wurtemberg is about onefourth the size of Scotland. It has 2,000,000 inhabitants.

42. Build.—This little country has two slopes—the northern, which drains into the Neckar; the southern, which drains into the Danube. Between the two slopes runs the rugged range called by the peasants the **Bauhe Alp**.

43. Industries.—Wurtemberg is a land of corn-fields, vineyards, and orchards. Three-fifths of the area is under tillage; and hence the chief industry is agriculture. There is also some cotton-spinning; and a little mining.

44. Towns.—There are only four towns with a population of over 20,000; and of these only two have more than 30,000. These two are Stuttgart, the capital, and UIM.

(i) Statigart (130) stands on an affinent of the Neckar. It is surrounded by vineclad hills; and its environs are so pretty that they have earned the name of the "Swabian Paradise."

(1) Uhm (85) is a strong fortress at the head of navigation on the Danube.

BADEN.

45. BADEN.—The Grand Duchy of Baden extends along the right bank of the Rhine from Constance to Mannheim. It is a little larger than Saxony; but has only about half the population.

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46. Build.—Speaking generally, the country consists of two parts —the narrow fertile half-valley of the Rhine, and the Black Forest which lies on the edge of it.

(i) Stand on any height in the south of either the Vosges or the Black Forest, and the long narrow Rhine valley looks like a narrow ribbon of most vivid green.

(ii) The Black Forest (Schwarz Wald) presents a short steep front to the Rhine valley, and its long slope goes off into the Swabian Plateau. The range is full of lovely and also of savage scenery. It is thickly wooded.

47. Population and Industries.—The population is a little over $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions; and the two chief industries are agriculture and forestry. The areas of tilled soil and forest land are very nearly equal.

The people in the Black Forest make large quantities of wooden toys, which are exported to all parts of Europe.

48. Large Towns.—There are in Baden five towns with a population of over 20,000; and of these, two have more than 60,000 inhabitants. These are Karlsruhe and Mannheim. Baden-Baden, a celebrated Continental watering-place, has also, in the summer-time, as large a population.

(i) **Earisruhe**="Charles's Rest" (62) is the capital of Baden. The Grand Ducal Palace occupies the centre of the town; and all the streets, thirty-two in number, radiate from it. It is the centre of a network of railways.

(ii) Maxaheim (62) is a very busy commercial town at the head of the steam-navigation of the Rhine. It stands at the meeting-point of the Rhine and Neckar. It is built in the American fashion, with streets at right angles to each other.

(iii) Baden-Baden (13) is noted and frequented for its hot "nineral springs and its lovely scenery.

49. Historic Towns.—The two towns of Baden best known in history are Heidelberg and Constance.

(i) Heidelberg is said to be the most beautiful town in all Germany. It has an old university, and a splendid castle which overlooks the valley of the Neckar.

(ii) Jonstance, on the Lake. It is famous for the "Council of Constance," which condemned to death the reformers John Huss and Jerome of Prague.

THE MINOR GRAND DUCHIES, DUCHIES, ETC.

50. Hesse.—The Grand Duchy of Hesse consists of two parts—one south and the other north of the Main. It is a prosperous little agricultural state. It has four towns with more than 20,000 inhabitants. The two largest are Mayence and Darmstadt. Worms (23), on the left bank of the Rhine, is the town at which the "Diet of Worms" was held, and before which Luther appeared in 1521.

(i) Mayence—or Mains, as it is called in German, from its position on the Main (70) is one of the strongest fortresses in Germany.

(ii) Darmstedt (55) is the capital. It stands away from the Rhine, in the middle of a sandy plain, but at the beginning of an immense range of forests-chiefly of beech.

51. Mecklenburg-Schwerin.—This Grand Duchy lies on the Baltic. It is a fertile little agricultural state, with a small but diligent population. Although four-fifths the size of Saxony, it has only one-sixth of the population, and only 552 miles of railway. The two largest towns are **Rostock** and **Schwerin**.

(i) Restock (40) is a busy corn-port. It has also a university.

(ii) Schwerin (32), on Lake Schwerin, is the capital. Near it is Farchim, where the great Moltke was born.

52. **Saxe-Weimar.**—This little Grand Duchy—about the size of Wiltshire—lies in Thuringia, in the heart of Germany. The capital is **Weimar**, a quiet pretty little town, where the greatest of German poets and thinkers, Goethe, lived for many years, and where he died in 1832.

53. Oldenburg.—The Grand Duchy of Oldenburg lies on the North Sea. It is surrounded by Hanover on three sides. The capital is Oldenburg, which lies among green meadows, where an excellent breed of horses is raised.

54. Brunswick.—The Duchy of Brunswick lies about in small portions in the provinces of Hanover and Prussian Saxony. The

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capital is Branswick (88), a busy commercial town. The state has only 265 miles of railway.

Its fragmentary condition may be compared with that of Cromarty, in Scotland, which lies in pieces up and down Ross-shire.

55. Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.—This small Duchy lies in Thuringia. There are two pretty little towns: Gotha (30) and Coburg (18). It has only 110 miles of railway.

Sotha is the capital and the seat of the reigning prince. Prince Albert, the husband of Queen Victoria, was a younger son of this Ducal House. His second son, the present Duke of Edinburgh, is the reigning prince.

56. Alsace-Lorraine.—The "Imperial Land," or Province, of Alsace-Lorraine is territory that was taken from the French in the war of 1870-71, and handed over into the possession of the Emperor of the Germans. Alsace (Elsass in German) lies on the left bank of the Rhine, opposite Baden, and contains the Vosges. Lorraine (Lothringen in German) lies between the rivers Saar and Moselle. The three largest towns in the double province are Strasburg, Muhlhansen, and Metz.

(i) Strasburg (120) is one of the strongest fortresses in the world. It stands near the confluence of the III and the Rhine. It is famous for a cathedral,—one of the finest in Europe. The spire is 466 ft. high, and contains a curious astronomical clock.

(ii) Mühlhansen (75)= "Mill Houses," is the chief manufacturing town of Alsace.

(iii) Mets (55) is a very strong fortress, with an entrenched camp 15 miles in circumference. It was taken from France in 1870. In the neighbourhood were fought some of the bloodiest battles recorded in history.

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DENMARK.

1. Introductory.—DENMARK, "Keeper of the Baltic Portals," is yet one of the smallest, weakest, poorest, and least populous of all the states of Europe.

It has a smaller population than Greece, which is a growing power, while Denmark has for a long time been dwindling.

Denmark means the Mark of the Danes ; as Finnmark is the mark or limit or land of the Finns.

- 2. Boundaries.-Denmark is bounded on three sides by the sea.
 - 1. M. -By the Skagerrack.
 - 2. E. By the Cattegat, the Sound, and the Baltic.
 - 3. S. -By the Baltic, the Little Belt, and the German Duchy of Schleswig.
 - 4. W .- By the North Sea.
- (i) The northern point is only about 32° from the North Pole.
- (ii) Copenhagen lies in almost the same latitude as Edinburgh and Moscow. The word *Oatlegat* means Cat's threat.

3. Size and Shape.—Denmark consists of a small peninsula— Jutland, and an archipelago of islands, the largest of which is Zealand. The country occupies 14,124 square miles, an area not quite twice the size of Wales, and less than half the size of Scotland.

Jutland is the only peninsula in Europe that runs to the north.

The name means the Land of the Juice. (It has nothing to do with the verb jut.)

4. Coast Line and Slopes.—The coast line is much broken up by long fiords, and rises to the high total of 5000 miles. Greece is the only country that has a longer comparative coast line. The short slope is to the German Ocean ; the long slope to the Baltic.

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The whole western coast of Jutland is a long succession of sand-ridges and shallow lagoons, very dangerous to shipping. Sandy heaths and small lakes are common in the west.

DENMARK

5. The Surface.—Denmark is a low rolling country; but, in some of the islands, the surface is very varied. Denmark is, in fact, the northern end of the Great European Plain. The highest point in the country is the Himmelblerg (=Heaven Hill), which is only 500 ft above the sea-level, not much higher than Primrose Hill in London.

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6. Capes, Fiords, and Straits.—The only important cape is the Skaw, a long low sandy spit which stretches far into the sea. Jutland, like Norway, is much cut up by fiords. The longest is the Lym Fiord. The chief Straits are the Sound, the Great Belt, and the Little Belt.

(i) The fiords of Norway are bordered by high rocky cliffs, sometimes 6000 ft. high; those of Jutland by low shores. The Lym Fiord gives an entrance by a natural canal into the Cattegat.

(ii) The Sound lies between Sweden and Zealand; the Great Belt between Zealand and Funen; and the Little Belt between Funen and Jutland.

(iii) The Great Belt is the only strait deep enough for vessels of war.

7. The Islands.—The islands of Denmark lie close to one another with the exception of Bornholm,—and form a cluster that almost closes the entrance to the Baltic. Zealand is the largest; Funen comes next; Laaland (=Lowland) next; and there are many others.

The most easterly island is Bornholm, which, by its position and the character of its granite rocks, belongs to Sweden.

8. Rivers and Lakes.—There is no room in Denmark for a river to develop. The only river of any standing is the Gudenas, a narrow stream about 90 miles long.—There are many lakes or meres; and some of them, overhung with beeches, are very beautiful.

9. Climate.—In considering the climate of Denmark, we must remember three things :—(i) that it lies far north; (ii) that the land is low; and (iii) that the sea is everywhere near. The country lies between Eastern and Western Europe, and partakes of the climates of both. It is hotter than England in summer; colder in winter.

10. Vegetation.—The forest is mostly of beeches. There is a great deal of excellent grass. As a corn-land, Denmark ranks with England and Belgium. Oats is the chief grain ; then barley, wheat, and rye. Agriculture supports one-half of the people.

(i) There is more corn grown in Denmark than in any other country in Europe, in proportion to her population.

(ii) Grazing is one of the chief industries of the country; and large numbers of horses and cattle are reared.

11. Animals.—The wild animals and birds are those of Central Europe. The larger quadrupeds are extinct.

The red deer is now found only in preserves; but at one time the urochs, the bear, the beaver, and the wolf lived in the Danish forests.

12. Minerals.—In this source of wealth, Denmark is one of the poorest countries in Europe. There is very little coal; no iron; and none of the precious metals. The country, however, is rich in clays, which are used in the manufacture of fine porcelain.

13. Manufactures.—The most notable Danish industry is the manufacture of porcelain. The linen, woollen, and cotton manufactures are carried on for local consumption.

14. Commerce and Forts.—The largest export of the Danes is butter; next come swine and cattle; and next hams and horses.

(i) Great Britain is their largest customer; then Germany; then Sweden and Norway—all of them neighbours.

(ii) The chief ports are, Copenhagen, Helsinger (Elsinore), Aarhuus and Aalberg.

15. The Capital.—The capital of Denmark is Copenhagen (or in Danish, Kiöbenhavn), a word which means Merchants' Haven. It has, with its suburbs, a population of about 380,000, and is therefore about the size of Sheffield. It is the only large town in the country, the only manufacturing town, the university town, the arsenal and the chief port.

(i) Copenhagen has been called the Constantinople of the north. But Amsterdam and Antwerp occupy far more important positions for trade.

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(ii) All the passenger and goods traffic between Great Britain, Germany, Sweden and the Baltic, converges on Copenhagen.

Copen is the same word as chap (-sell) in Chapman; chep in Chepeiow; and chip in Chippenham, Chipping Norton, etc.

16. Other Towns.—The two towns next in size to Copenhagen are Aarhuus (35), and Odensee (30). Odensee is the capital of Funen; and Aarhuus is the chief port on the Cattegat.

(i) Oden or Odin or Weden was the Norse God of War. We have his name in Wednesbury and Wednesday. Odensee was the birthplace of that most delightful of storytellers, Hans Christian Andersen.

(ii) The suffix ee in Odensee is the same suffix as es in Chelses, Batterses, Anglesca, and as ey in Athelney (Noble's Island), Putney, etc.

(iii) The smaller towns are Aaltorg (= Eels' Town), which sends lobsters and flat.fish to London;-Eismore (or Helsingör), which used to collect the old Sound Dues.

(a) About 50,000 vessels pass yearly in front of Elsinore.

(b) The beach at Eisinore is low and pebbly; grass grows within a few feet of the sea; and noble beaches line the coast. Thus Shakespeare's

> dreadful summit of the cliff That beetles o'er his base into the sea

(Hauslet, i. 4), and Campbell's "wild and stormy steep," are entirely due to the imagination of the writers.

17. Railways and Telegraphs.—There are about 1300 miles of railway in Denmark. The railways run north and south through Jutland; east and west through the Islands: and thus form a right angle, like the letter L_{*} The total length of telegraph lines amounts to 3600 miles.

18. Population and Populousness.—The population of Denmark is 2,000,000. This gives a density of 145 to the square mile.

The population of England and Wales is about 30 millions; and the average density is about 490 per square mile.

19. Race, Character, and Social Condition.—The Danes, like the Norwegians and Swedes, belong to the Scandinavian branch of the Teutonic race. They are yellow-haired, blue-eyed, and of middling stature. They are very independent in feeling and manners; well educated; and of a "surprising gaiety." They are also, with the Swiss, the most thrifty people in Europe.

(i) Their average savings per head a year are about £6, 8s.; those of Englishmen not more than £2, 2s.

(ii) Nearly half of the people live by agriculture.

20. Language.—The Danish language is a first cousin to English. It prefers hard consonants. When we say *Church*, the Dane—like the Scot—says *Kirk*; when we say *Chipping* (=Marketing), the Dane says *Köbing*.

We have adopted many words from the Danes, who settled in large numbers on the east coast of Great Britain. Such are beek (a stream); frik (or flord); fell (a hill or table-land); force (a waterfall); thorps (a village); thwaits (a forest clearing), etc.

21. Government.—The Government of Denmark is a Limited Monarchy. There are two Houses of Parliament—the Landsthing or Senate; and the Folksthing or House of Commons.

22. Education.—Public instruction in Denmark is in a flourishing state. In the large towns there are good classical schools and technical colleges, and the villages have good elementary schools.

23. Foreign Possessions.—Denmark possesses Iceland and the Farce Isles in the North Atlantic; three islands in the West Indies; and a few settlements on the coast of Greenland.

(i) Iseland is a large island about 1600 miles from Denmark. It is three times as large as that country; but its whole population is only about one-fourth that of Copenhagen. It is a land of ice and snow, of active volcances and streams of lava, of plunging torrents and shifting sands, of dreary deserts of rocks, cinders, and bogs. Most of the interior is filled with high plateaus and lofty volcances —of which there are more than twenty. The highest point is the Oraseh Jökull (6410 ft.); but the best known is Hecia (nearly 6000 ft.) or "Cloak Mountain," so named from the clouds of vapour in which its summit is generally cloaked. Its last eruption was in 1875. The hot springs called Geysers have long been famous. The "Great Geyser" throws a column of hot water to the height of 60 ft. The capital is Betkiavik (="Reek" or "Smoke Town"), a village of wooden houses, with a population of about 3000. No trees or grain can grow in the islands; only potatoes and a few cabbages.

(ii) The Farce Islands are high table-shaped volcanic rocks,—huge masses of basalt, which rise from a submarine plateau connected by ridges with the Hebrides. The people are of Norwegian origin. The capital of the archipelago is Thorshaven (=Thor's Haven), a small village. The only export is feathers.

(iii) The West India Islands belonging to Denmark are Santa Crus, St. Thomas, and St. John.

SCANDINAVIA

SCANDINAVIA.

1. Introductory.—Conceive a long slowly-rising billow—what is called a "roller"—beginning at the edge of the Baltic Sea, and rising gradually higher and higher as it goes westward, till at length it suddenly breaks and falls almost perpendicularly, breaking into thousands of pieces upon the shore which it has reached. Conceive this long billow petrified, becoming a large peninsula, and ending its course on the edge of the Atlantic Ocean. Then we should have Scandinavia; and the long rising slope from the Baltic would be Sweden; the sudden fall into the Atlantic, Norway; and the countless pieces into which the billow breaks would be represented by the innumerable islands which fringe the western coast of the mighty uorthern peninsula.

2. Chief Points.—The most northerly point in Norway—and it is the point farthest north in the Continent—is Nordkyn. The most northerly point of Europe is North Cape, which is the end of the island of Mageroe. The most southerly point of Norway is Lindesnees or the Naze; of Sweden, Sandhammar.

(a) Nordkyn means North Chin ; North Cape, North Head.
 (b) Lindesness means Lime Nose ; Sandhammar, Sand Rock.

3. Shape and Size.—The Scandinavian Peninsula is the largest and longest in Europe, and stretches through 16° of latitude. Of these, 6° are within the Arctic Circle. The peninsula is narrow in the north and middle, but becomes broader as it comes south. Like Italy, it splits into two in the south. The whole occupies nearly 300,000 square miles,—more than five times as large as England and Wales.

(i) The exact numbers are 294,184 square miles.

(ii) Of this, Sweden has about 171,000, and Norway, 123,000.

4. Build.—The whole peninsula is an elevated table-land, which increases in height as we go south. There is no true mountainchain; but here and there groups of peaks which appear like huge rocks dotted over the surface. The short slope of the peninsula is Norway; the long slope is Sweden. Norway is a narrow region of

plateaus and mountains—"a strange labyrinth of plateaus, peninsulas, and insular masses;" Sweden a broad region of vast sloping plains, or rather of a series of shelves or broad terraces, which go down by steps to the Baltic. Norway is one plateau—one mountain mass, split into pieces by deep gorges, fissures, and rock-bound fiords. Sweden consists of a plateau, some middle terraces, and a long low plain.

(i) Hence the rivers of Sweden are the longest and largest.

(ii) Most of the Norwegian rivers throw themselves over enormous waterfalls direct into the deep flords. "In many of the flords the cascades have an unbroken fall of over 2000 ft., seeming to fall from the skies, when the brinks of the precipices are shrouded in mist."

5. Coast Line.—Two very remarkable features characterise the West or Norwegian coast. These are: (i) the deep indentations called flords; and (ii) the countless numbers of islands or **skerries** that fringe the coast. The fiords of Norway are more numerous, much longer and deeper, than those of Sweden. The longest fiord in Norway is the **Sogne Flord**, which runs up into the heart of the country a distance of 100 miles; the best known among the others are the **Trondhjem**, **Hardanger**, and **Bukke Flords**. The most famous islands on the Norwegian coast are the Loffodens; on the Swedish, **Gotland** and **Oeland**. The coast line has never been measured; but the navigable channels in Norway alone amount to 12,000 miles.

(i) The Sogne Fiord may be described as a long sea-canal (100 miles long), flanked by high mountains and, in many places, perpendicular cliffs which run right into the heart of the country. At its entrance, it is more than 4000 ft. deep. It has numerous branches—seven of them very large—right and left, which run off at right angles; and these again have other branches. The grandest of these is the Nasre (narrow) Flord, which has perpendicular walls 6000 ft. in height, over which fall large rivers in enormous cascades which seem, to those sailing bolow, like torrents falling out of the sky.

(ii) The Hardanger Flord is 80 miles long.

(iii) Both in Norway and Sweden the coast line very seldom comes into immediate contact with the main sea. It is girdled by a belt of skerries, holms, or islands, which is called the "skerry-guard" or fence of skerries. These, off the coast of Norway, form a breakwater against the billows of the Atlantic, and allow small vessels to navigate in smooth water—as in a kind of sea-canal—many thousands of miles. The skerry-guard of Norway is = one-fourteenth of the mainland, and is inhabited by one-eighth of the population. SCANDINAVIA

(iv) The Logodens lie off the northern coast of Norway. They are granite rocks and mountains, rising in hundreds of peaks with jagged and fantastic outlines, sheer out of the sea, some of them to the height of 3500 ft. The cod-fisheries of these islands are everywhere well known.

(v) Gotland and Osland are both limestone islands, with a very fertile soil.

Gotland means the Land of the Gothe ; Oe is the Swedish for island.

6. The Fjelds.—The high table-lands of Scandinavia are called Fjelds (fe-yelts). They are not mountain-ranges, but high bald bleak dreary plains—in some parts almost flat. The best known are the **Dovrefield**, the Langefield, and the Hardangerfield. The long strip of high lands north of the Dovrefield is called **The Keel** (or **Kiolen**).

(i) The word *field* is said to mean *cleared space*. The atlases often represent these high lands as mountain-ranges; but this is a mistake.

(ii) In the eastern parts of Norway, when a person is going to take a trip across the mountain-land, he says, "I am going over the keel 'Kiolen).' `Hence the word is not really a proper name.

7. Mountains.—The highest part of the Scandinavian Plateau lies between 60° and 63°; and hence it is from this part that the highest mountains rise. These mountains are commonly known as the Scandinavian Alps. In the Jötunfjelds ("Giant Mountains") stands the loftiest peak in Norway, the Galdhöppig (8400). Next comes the Skagestölstind (7875 ft.). The next highest peak is Snachatten (7770 ft.) in the Dovrefield Highlands. The fourth highest is Sultelma (5320 ft.), on the Kiölen Plateau, and within the Arctic Circle.

Tind is the Norsk for peak. Snachatten means snow-hat.

(i) Among the Scandinavian Alps there are many large glaciers.

(ii) On the flanks of Skagestölstind is the most extensive snow-field in Europe, Jostedalsbrae, with an area of 400 square miles, from which flow many glaciers.

(iii) The mean height of the Norwegian summits is only half that of the Alps.

8. Rivers.—All the rivers of Scandinavia are remarkable for their great volume of water—a volume which becomes all the more striking if we compare it with their length and the small area of their drainage. The chief are the Glommen, the Gota, the Dal, and the

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Tornes. All are more useful for "power" than for navigation. The rivers of Sweden are wonderfully parallel in their courses, and "are directed straight to the Baltic by the tilt of the land."

The great volume of the Scandinavian rivers is due to three causes : (a) the large rain-fall ; (b) the very small evaporation in so cold a country ; and (c) the hardness of the rocks, which do not permit any water to sink into the ground.

(i) The Glommon falls into the Skager Rack after a course of 400 miles.

(ii) The Gota is the outflow of Lake Wener. Not far from the lake are the famous falls of Trollhatta.

(iii) The Tornes is the boundary between Sweden and Russia. At its mouth the longest day is 72 hours long; and about midsummer there is practically no night for four weeks.

(iv) The water-falls of Norway are the highest and grandest in Europe. They are called *fosses* (in Cumberland this word becomes *force*). The Riukanfoss (Reek or Smoke Fall) has a vertical fall of 804 ft. But indeed every valley has one or more magnificent waterfalls. Sweden, however, has the *largest* waterfall in Europe—the "Hare-leap" on the Greater Lulea.

(v) Norway has the largest amount of water-power of any country in the world.

9. Lakes.—The Swedish part of Scandinavia abounds with lakes each river having a large lake in some part of its course. But the great lake region is in the south—one-eighth of the area of which is water; and the three largest lakes are Wener, Wetter, and Maelar. Miösen is the largest lake in Norway. All these lakes are ice-bound for from 100 to 200 days.

(i) The lakes on the river-courses admirably fulfil the purpose of regulators, and equalise the floodings of the rivers. Their level rises from 3 to 12 ft. during flood; and thus floods on the rivers do not lay waste the country.

(ii) Wener has an area of about 2300 square miles-ten times as large as Geneva.

(iii) Lake Maelar is really an inlet of the sea. There are 1300 islands in it.

10. Climate.—The west coast of the peninsula is warmed by the Gulf Stream, so that none of its harbours are ever frozen. There is no other country in the world in so high a latitude with so mild a climate. The lofty table-lands between Norway and Sweden keep back the warm moist winds from the Atlantic; and hence the Swedish coast is much drier and colder, and has a somewhat con-

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tinental climate. The interior has a short warm summer and a long cold winter; the west coast a cool summer and a mild winter.

(i) "This stream of warm water gives to Norway its climate, to the people their trade, commerce, daily food, their very lives, so to speak; for, but for it, the shores of the flords would be blocked with ice and uninhabitable."

(ii) The interior of southern Norway has a winter of 200 days; and a hot summer infested by mosquitoes.

(iii) "From the crest of the Avasaxa, overlooking the Tornea valley, near the Arctic Circle, the sun may be seen, between June 16th and 30th, describing complete circuits in the heavens." Thus the heat does not go off in the night; it is accumulated; and hence the short hot summers.

(iv) The rain-fall on the west coast is over 70 inches a year; in Sweden about 20.

11. Vegetation.—Nearly one half (44 per cent.) of Sweden is covered with forest; about one-fourth of Norway. On the high plateau we find chiefly mosses, lichens, and low shrubs. Pines, firs, and birches grow in the north; ash and elm in the middle; and oaks, beeches, and fruit-trees are found in the south. Wheat succeeds as far north as 63°; oats at 68°; and barley grows up to 70°. In Sweden only 7 per cent. of the land is tilled; in Norway the triangle of land which has Lake Miösen as its apex is the most fruitful region.

(i) Norway is obliged to buy corn. One-fifth of all her imports consists of grain.

(ii) "The perfume of all plants and fruits increases gradually as we go north; the sap diminishes proportionally."

(iii) The uninterrupted sunshine ripens grain quickly. In 70° North lat, barley is ripe in 90 days—" precisely the same time that it takes on the banks of the Nile."

(iv) Much of the wood grown in Norway and Sweden is used up in the manufacture of paper. Even saw-dust is made into newspapers. "A tree in the morning is a newspaper in the evening."

12. Animals.—The vast forests of pine and fir are still the haunts of the largest European carnivora—the bear, the lynx, and the wolf; but the numbers of all of these are rapidly decreasing. Large herds of reindeer roam over the fjelds; and the elk is common in Sweden. Eagles and falcons pursue the game-birds (such as the woodcock, grouse, and ptarmigan); the wild swan and the eider-duck are hunted for their down; and countless flocks of sea-fowl inhabit the rocky islands of Norway. (i) About fifty years ago, between 500 and 600 wolves were killed annually in Sweden; now the number is only 30 to 40.

(ii) In Norway, the wolf is found chiefly in Finnmark; about 150 are killed every year; and about 120 lynxes.

(iii) The beaver still survives; and the hare is white in winter.

13. Minerals.—Sweden is rich in iron ore—and that of fine quality. Zinc and copper are also mined; and a little silver. There is a good deal of coal. Norway is poor in minerals; there is a little silver, not much copper, and very little iron.

In spite of the large veins of coal in Sweden, that country has to import about eight times as much coal as she raises.

14. Industries.—In Sweden, agriculture is the chief industry; in Norway, the fisheries and see-faring. The second industry in Sweden is mining; in Norway, agriculture. In both countries forestry is a necessary labour.

(i) More than half the population in Sweden are engaged in agriculture.

(ii) In Norway, about 120,000 men and 30,000 boats are engaged in the fisheries about three-fourths of them in catching and preserving cod. The Loffoden Isles are the seat of the cod-fishery; and their seas are alive in the season with thousands of craft. In a good season, 67 millions of cod may be taken.

(iii) The timber of Scandinavia is excellent; because the fibre is close; and the fibre is close because the short summer makes the annual rings lie close together.

15. Commerce.—The chief exports from Sweden are timber, metals, and cattle; from Norway, timber and fish. The chief imports into Sweden are cotton and woollen goods and colonial products—such as coffee and sugar. The chief imports into Norway are corn, colonial products, and manufactured goods of various kinds,

(i) Great Britain is the best customer of Sweden and Norway.

(ii) The chief port in Sweden is Stockholm; but Gothenburg is rising rapidly. The chief port in Norway is Christiania; next to it Bergen, especially for dried fish.

(iii) Norway has the largest commercial navy in the world, relatively to its population. The navy is one-half larger than that of France. "Most of the poorer classes in the towns," says Réclus, "instead of placing their spare cash in the Savings Banks, invest it in a share of some vessel, so that all are shipowners, directly or indirectly."

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(iv) Absolutely, Great Britain comes first in its mercantile shipping; Italy second; and Norway close on Italy.

16. **Ratiways and Telegraphs.**—Sweden has a very high mileage of railway in proportion to its population; Norway, which is the most thinly-populated country in Europe, has but a small amount of railway communication. Sweden has about 2000 miles; Norway, not quite a thousand.—There are about 13,000 miles of telegraph wire in Sweden; and, in Norway, about 10,000 miles.

(i) Sweden possesses the most northern railway in the world. It goes to the iron mountains of Gellivara, where the iron does not need to be dug for, but is quarried in the open air. The engine blows its whistle when it is crossing the Arctic Circle.

(ii) The canals of Sweden are of great importance; and it is possible to sail from Gothenburg to Stockholm by canal, lake, and river.

(iii) The Norwegians have been very enterprising in their telegraphs. They have carried their lines even up to Hammeriest. The lines go up the highest plateaus, across deep arms of the sea, over rapid rivers, along the edges of the steepest precipices; and the voiceless messages of electricity pass through every part of the inhabited land.

(iv) The Swedish post-office sends about 100 millions of letters, post-cards, and papers every year; Norway, about 30 millions.

17. Population and Populousness.—Sweden contains about 171,000 square miles; Norway, 123,000. Scandinavia ranks in size next to Russia. Sweden has a population of more than 5 millions; Norway of about two millions. Sweden has, on an average, 28 persons to the square mile; Norway, only 18.

(i) Norway is the most sparsely peopled country in Europe. The coast is the most thickly inhabited. In the fields there is not 1 person to the 10 square miles.

(ii) The south of Sweden is the most thickly peopled; and the density decreases (a) as we go to the north, and (b) as we leave the coast.

(iii) The population of Sweden-and-Norway together is only $\frac{1}{6}$ th larger than that of Belgium; while the area is 26 times as great.

(iv) The density of population in the whole peninsula varies proportionally with three things: (ω) the temperature; (b) the latitude; and (c) the height of the land. The higher the temperature, the denser the population; the higher the land, the thinner the population.

18. The Towns of Sweden.—There are only two towns in Sweden with more than 50,000 inhabitants: Stockholm and Gothenburg. There are three more with over 20,000: Malmö, Norrköping, and Geffe.

(i) Stockholm (250) has a situation of the most marvellous and picturesque beauty near the mouth of Lake Maelar. It stands on nine islands; and splendid buildings, rocky heights, winding waterways,—alive with boats of all sizes, trees, bridges of stone and bridges of boats, noble quays, forests of tall masts, irregular peninsulas, sea and mountain, form scenes which vary at every step we take. Houses, towers, and steeples are mixed with rock, wood, and water. No city has such picturesque suburbs and such varied walks. It has been called the Venice of the North.—All the highways of Sweden radiate from it.—Not far from Stockholm is **Upsais**, the chief university of Sweden, where Linneus, the great botanist, was a professor.

(ii) Gothenburg (105) is a rising city, with an excellent harbour, which is very rarely closed by ice. It has one of the finest botanic gardens in Europe.

(iii) Malmö (45) is the chief port of transit to Denmark and Germany.

(iv) Morrhöping (="North Cheap" or Market) is the "Scandinavian Manchester." A river rushes through the heart of the town in waterfalls and rapids, and supplies "power" to the cotton and woollen factories.

(v) Gene is the outlet for the timber, iron, and copper, of the basin of the Dal.

19. The Towns of Norway.—Norway has only one town with a population of over 100,000—the capital, Christiania. The next largest town is Bergen, which is about half the size of Derby. There are also three towns with more than 20,000: Trondhjem, Stavanger, Drammen. Hammerfest is the most northerly town in Europe.

(i) Christiania (130), a town nearly as large as Portsmouth, stands at the head of the lovely Christiania Fiord, which is studded with countless grassy and wooded islands. Most of the houses are of wood, painted white, with green blinds. The flord is blocked by ice for four months in the year. It was once known as "The Vik" (Gulf), and was much frequented by Vik-ings (sea-robbers who lay in creeks).

(ii) Bergen (47) is the great fish-port. It was the old capital. The houses are built on slopes which run down into the deep sea. It is one of the wettest places on the face of the globe; and leprosy still exists there. It has a large trade in dried fish with the Catholic countries of Southern Europe. The Bergen Fiord is seldom frozen, as the warm waters of the Gulf Stream flow into it.

(iii) Trondhjem (= The Home of the Throne) was the oldest capital. It is still the religious metropolis; and in the cathedral the Kings of Norway are crowned. It is about one quarter of the size of Birkenhead.

(iv) Stavanger, on the west coast, is the fourth largest city and port in Norway. Its chief trade is in herrings.

(v) Drammen, on the east coast, ships timber and minerals.

(vi) At Hammerfest the summer day and the winter night last 31 months each.

20. Government.—Norway and Sweden are independent of each other, have separate parliaments, but are under one King.

(i) Each country has also a separate army and navy; and the King can only transfer 8000 Norwegian soldiers to Sweden, or the same number of Swedish soldiers to Norway.

(ii) The King resides in Stockholm; but he is bound by the Constitution to pass a part of every year in Norway, and to transact some business there.

21. Beligion and Education.—Both countries are Lutheran Protestant.—Sweden has excellent public schools; and about 94 per cent. of the children attend them. Norway is not so well off; but every Norwegian can at least read and write. Sweden has two universities; Norway, one.

Till recently, most of the Norwegian schools were "ambulatory." The teacher went round among the hamlets, stopped for a few weeks at a farm-house, and gathered the children round him. When he left, "tutors" took up the work and practised the children in what they had been taught. "Thanks to these migratory teachers, a love of learning was awakened in the remotest hamlets."

22. Language.—Both Swedish and Norwegian (Svensk and Norsk) belong to the same family of languages as English, German, and Dutch. Written and printed Norwegian is exactly the same as Danish; spoken Norwegian is a little different. Swedish differs greatly from Norwegian both in its vowels and its consonants, but is fundamentally the same speech.

23. Character and Social Condition.—The Norwegians are a singularly courteous, helpful, and kindly people: they are a nation of gentlemen. They are the "English of Scandinavia," and are famous for their tenacity of will.—The Swedes are also good-natured, polite, and hospitable—"cheerful without excess, firm without violence;" and they are also hard-working and thrifty. The vice of both nations is intemperance.

RUSSIA IN EUROPE.

1. Introductory.—Conceive a vast plain, stretching from the warm seas of the far South to the frozen seas of the farthest North, swept by cold winds from the one or by hot breezes from the other, much of it a dead level, with here and there low table-lands rising gently from the surrounding country, here and there sunk basins filled with marshes, a land permeated everywhere by rivers that wind on the largest circles,—a land of wide plains, forests, lakes, marshes, and rivers,—this is Russia.

2. Boundaries.-Russia is bounded-

- 1. N. -By the Arctic Ocean.
- W.—By a waving line which runs along Sweden, through the Baltic, along Prussia, Austria, and Roumania.
- S. S. -By the Black Sea, the Cancasus, and the Caspian.
- 4. E. -By the Ural river, the Ural Mountains, and the river Kara.

(i) The Urals are not the boundary through the whole length of their course; as the Russian "government" of Perm reaches across on the eastern side, and the boundary between Asia and Europe is here quite artificial.

(ii) Half the frontier line is marked by seas-mostly inland.

3. Commercial Position.—Touching the ocean on the North and the great Seas of the South, Russia holds a commanding position for commerce. But it is for commerce with herself—with the different ports of her own wide domains; and not with the outside world. She has no ports either on the Atlantic or on the Mediterranean.

"With its enormous internal resources of every sort, this mighty Empire is almost entirely independent of the rest of the world."

4. Size and Shape.—Russia in Europe, including Poland and Finland, fills an area of a little more than 2,090,000 square miles.

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It is 2400 miles from north to south, and about 1800 miles from west to east. In shape it is an irregular four-sided figure, with monotonous outlines, only broken by two re-entrant seas, and two peninsulas.

(i) Russia is about 10 times the size of France, and 23 times that of Great Britain.

(ii) All the land subject to the Czar in Europe and in Asia amounts to over 8,600,000 square miles,—that is one-sixth of all the land on the globe. But the Russian Empire has only a population equal to one-fifteenth of all mankind.

(iii) The two re-entrant seas are the White Sea and the Sea of Asov; the two peninsulas are Kanin and the Crimes.

5. Build.—European Russia is a vast plain, slightly elevated—and deeply cut into by river-valleys. It is the eastern, and much the larger, part of the Great European Plain. It has a low table-land running through the middle, and a few low table-lands in the north. But we may cross Russia from sea to sea without ever leaving the boundless moorland tracts, "apparently as unruffled as the surface of the ocean in a calm." The highest part of the plain is the central table-land called the Valdai Hills, which reach the height of 1100 ft. above the level of the sea.

(i) Contrast with Western Europe.—(a) Western Europe has a long coast line, with numerous peninsulas stretching out into the sea, and many long gulfs and inland seas penetrating the land. Russia has a monotonous outline and little coast in comparison with its vast size. (b) Western Europe has the greatest variety of surface, mountain ranges, table-lands, well-defined valleys, rolling country, lowlands. Russia is almost one uniform plain. (c) Western Europe has sharply defined water-partings. In Russia the head-waters of the great rivers rise in low depressions or in vast sluggish marshes, where there can be no well-marked watersheds.

(ii) We may also compare Russia with the central plain of Ireland, where so much water collects in marshes. In Russia, as in Ireland, the rivers often overflow.

(iii) On the northern shores of the Caspian, the land of Russia is below the level of the Mediterranean. The surface of the Caspian itself is 85 ft. below that of the Mediterranean.

6. Coast Line.—The frozen and dreary Northern Coast runs along the Arctic Ocean, round the edge of the White Sea, and the Varanger Flord. It is in general very low and marshy. The coast on the Baltic is also very low. This is also true of the northern Black Sea coast, except where a continuation of the Caucasus through the south of the Crimea lends beauty, diversity, and grandeur to the landscape. Where the mighty Caucasus Range itself borders the Black Sea, we have a coast of the boldest and grandest kind.

(i) Bays and Straitz.—The White See (which may be regarded as a great gulf), the Baltie (which is an opening from the German Ocean); the Elack See or Eurine (which is an inlet of the Mediterranean); and the See of Anov—the shallowest see in the world— (which is an opening from the Black Sea) are the most important. The Caspian is the largest inland sea in the world. It is three times as large as England and Wales. It is the remains of a great inland sea which stretched from the Black Sea to the Frozen Ocean, cast of the Urals.

(a) The Bussian part of the Baltic contains the Gulfs of Bothnia, Finland, and Riga.

(b) The marsh west of the Sea of Azov is called the Putrid Sea.

(ii) Capes and Islands.—The entrance to the White Sea is commanded by Cape Kanin. Russis possesses no oceanic islands. All the islands that belong to her are merely separated fragments of the mainland, and partake of its character, in build, in soil, in occupation, and in animal life. In the Arctic Ocean we find Vaigatz, Nova Zembla, and Kolgousv; further north, Spitzbergen and the Seven Sisters; in the Baltic, the Aland Isles, Dago, and Oceal.

- (a) Vaigatz is the "Holy Island" of the Samoyedes, a wandering tribe of idolaters. They are the only idolaters in Europe.
- (b) Nova Zembla (New Land) is a continuation of the Ural Range, and hems in the "Barents Ses." It is frequented by fishers.
- (c) Spitzbergen is an archipelago of five large and many small islands. It is visited only in summer.
- (d) The Aland Isles-the tops of a dangerous granits rest-are a countless group (eighty of them inhabited) at the mouth of the Gulf of Bothnis, fortified by Russis. In the winter they are connected with the mainshift by ice.
- (c) Dago and Occel are low marshy islands, north of the Gulf of Rigs.

7. Mountains and Table-lands.—On the south we find the mighty range of the Caucasus, with its culminating point in Mount Elburs (18,570 feet)—the highest mountain in Europe. On the east runs the low gently swelling range of the Urals, the highest point in which is Toll-Poss-Is (5540 ft.). The Valdai Plateau is merely the highest part of the low water-parting between the Arctic and the Caspian.

(i) The Gamma or "The Great Caucasus," is an enormous mountain mass which stretches between the Black Sea and the Caspian, a distance of 720 miles. It appears, when seen from the Russian Steppes, as "an unbroken rocky barrier, surmounted all along the line by a series of magnificent snowy peaks."

It may be compared with the Pyreness. Both run between two seas; both possess the Sierra formation, and both are divided into two parts of unequal length. The pass in the middle is called the Gorge of Dariel.

(ii) The Urals—formerly called by the Russians "The Girdle of the Globe"—is a range about 1200 miles long. The Middle Urals are rich in copper, iron, gold, and platinum. The Southern Urals consist of three chains which spread out from the centre like a fan. In some parts the slopes are so gradual one hardly knows that one is crossing a mountain range.

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(iii) The Valdai Flateau attains its greatest height in Pepeve Gera (1170 ft. above the sea). The region which gives birth to the Volga is the swamplest in West Russia; and in the same district rise the Dwina and the Dnieper. Thus the three great rivers of Russia radiate from a common centre.

8. Plains.—Russia is virtually one vast plain ; though it is necessary to distinguish a little. In the farthest north we find the low marshes called the Tundras ; next come the North-Russian Lowlands ; next the North-Russian Table-land ; then the sandy plains called Steppes : and last of all, in the far south, the Caspian Depression.

9. Bivers.—Russia is extremely well provided with rivers,—remarkable both for their length and their enormous windings. It is possible to travel by river and canal from the Caspian, the Sea of Azov and the Black Sea to the White Sea and the Baltic. Into the Arctic Ocean flow the Fetchora, Mesen, Dwina, and Onega; into the Baltic the Neva, Duna, Niemen, and Vistula; into the Black Sea, the Dniester, Dnieper, and Don; into the Caspian, the Volga and Ural. The three most useful streams are the Volga, the Dnieper, and the Don. In the south-east many rivers are absorbed by the soil before they can reach the sea.

(i) The Voiga (2230 miles long) rises at the foot of the Valdai Hills; flows east; meets the Gaa at Nijni Novgord; flows on still east till it meets the Kama (1000 miles long); now turns south and a little west; comes within 40 miles of the Don, when it takes a short bend to the south-east, and enters the Caspian by a delta which contains about 200 mouths. It is the longest of Russian and also of European rivers; though the Danube gives more water to the sea. The right bank is called the "Hill-Bank," because the Middle Plateau comes up to the river in many places; the left bank is called the "Meadow-Bank." The right bank is thus generally the higher and steeper; the left bank is oftener flooded : hence, below Karan, there are only 4 towns on the left, and 80 on the right bank. Its catchment basin is more than three times as large as France, and nearly seven times Great Britain. With its long tributaries it provides Russia with 7200 miles of navigable waters. It communicates with the White, the Black, and the Baltic Seas by means of Canals. The Volga is, indeed, the centre of the Russian system of canals, which is the greatest and most important system in the world.

(ii) The Deleper rises not far from the Volga; flows west; then south; west again; until, at Kherson, it enters the Black Sea by an estuary 40 miles long. It is the third river in Europe for the volume of its waters. It receives a large number of tributaries, the best known of which are the Beredia and the Pripet. It is almost doubled in size by receiving the Pripet. The Pripet flows through a marsh called the Pinsk Marsh

which is larger than the whole of Ireland. The basin of the Dnieper covers about 245,000 square miles. It crosses three distinct zones—the Forest Region, the Black Lands, and the arid Steppes.

(iii) The Meva, though a very short river (only 46 miles long), is one of the great rivers of Europe. It gives more water to the sea than the Volga. It drains Lakes Ladoga, Onega, and Ilmen. It is frozen about 20 weeks in the year, when it becomes a much frequented highway, gay with sledges, and lighted with the electric light.

10. The Characters of the Russian Rivers : Contrasts.—It is to their rivers that the Russians owe their chief and their cheapest means of communication. It is the rivers that have developed the life and industries of the country. But they are not all that they seem to be on the map. They have disadvantages as well as advantages.

ADVANTAGES.

1. They are long.

- They are highly developed, with immense curves; and the largest are connected by canals with seas and other rivers.
- They have a gentle fall, and therefore

 a slow current; and many are
 navigable nearly to their sources.
- They receive immense tributaries, and flow from the heart of the country through cultivated lands.
- 5. In the rivers that flow south the ice in the lower parts melts first.

DISADVANTAGES

1. They have not much water.

- They freeze in winter, and dry up in summer. The navigation of some is impeded by rapids.
- Most of them are navigable only in spring-floods.
- They end in inland seas. Some have their heads turned the wrong way and flow into the Arctic Ocean.
- In the rivers that flow to the north, the ice in the upper parts melta first; and the countries round the mouths are flooded.

11. Lakes.—The Russian lakes are on as large a scale as the Russian rivers. The north-west of Russia contains the largest lakes in Europe. These are Ladoga, Onega, Peipus, and Ilmen. The enormous number of lakes in the north-west of Europe is to be explained by the sunken nature of the ground. Finland may be described as a lake-plateau (it is indeed "the lake-country of Europe")—most of its lakes being connected with each other. The largest lake in Finland is Lake Saima.

(i) Ladoga is the largest lake in Europe. It is nearly as large as Wales. The mean depth is about 300 ft.; although in some parts it is over 700. The water is

very clear and very cold. The lake is sometimes swept by gales which raise heavy seas and high waves like those of the open ocean. It is frozen for about 120 days each year. About 60 rivers flow into it, the largest of which is the **Svir**.

(ii) Onega is also a very deep lake (in some parts 740 ft.), and dangerous for navigation, owing to its reefs. It is about two-thirds of the size of Ladoga.

(iii) Peipus and Ilmen are both shallow.

12. Climate.—Although Russia stretches across nearly 27 degrees of latitude, touching the Arctic Ocean on the one side and Asia Minor on the other, the climate is almost as remarkable for its uniformity as the soil is for its monotony. The whole plain is open to cold blasts from the north, and to the warm winds that come from the south, there being no transverse range of mountains from east to west to separate the north from the south. Hence the extremes of temperature are great, and the rainfall is small.

(i) Moscow, the centre of the Russian Plain, is in the same latitude as Edinburgh. But the mean winter temperature at Edinburgh is 87°; at Moscow it is 18° below freezing-point. The mean summer temperature of Edinburgh is only 59°; at Moscow it is 65°.

(ii) By Christmas, the rivers of the country are highways for sledges, and remain so for from three to four months.

(iii) In winter, the northern Steppes are dreary wastes of snow, scoured by packs of wolves; in spring, they are covered with grass and flowers; in summer, they are dry plains thick with dust.

13. Vegetation.—Six different Zones of Vegetation stand out with sufficient prominence. In the farthest north, we find the Arctic Zone or Zone of the Tundras; next, the Cold Zone of Low Timber and bushes; third, the Forest Zone; fourth, the Temperate Zone of Deciduous Trees; fifth, the Warm Zone of Wheat and Fruit; sixth, the Hot Zone of Maise and the Vine. South of this last Zone, comes the Fastoral Region, which includes much of the so-called Steppes.

"The Steppes proper are very fartile elevated plains, slightly undulated, and intersected by numerous ravines, which are dry in summer. Not a tree is to be seen."

(i) The Tundras are vast marshy wastes, thousands of square miles in extent, where nothing grows but reindeer moss, lichens, and stunted shrubs. The ground, even in summer, thaws only to the depth of one foot. Samoyedes, a wandering tribe of idolaters, are the chief inhabitants. It is here that fossil ivory is found.

(ii) The chief trees in the region of Low Timber are the silver birch and the pine.

(iii) The Forest Zone includes large birches, and many kinds of cone-bearing trees. The birch supplies the peasantry with firewood; and from the bark they make cordage, nets, and sails. The forest produces timber, resin, potash, etc. It is so dense that a squirrel could travel hundreds of miles in a straight line without touching the ground. The largest continuous forest in Europe—and it is larger than Great Britain—stretches from the Onega to the Mezen. Two-fifths of Russia are covered with trees.

(iv) The Zone of Decidnous Trees is also the Zone of the four chief products of Russia-rye, barley, flax, and hemp. It is also the Industrial Zone of the country, which relies for its fuel on the wood of the Forest Zone.

(v) The Zone of Wheat and Fruit may also be called the Agricultural Zone. It is the famous "Black Earth Region," where grain can be grown without manure, and with less labour than in any other part of Europe. This region is almost entirely treeless.

(vi) The Zone of Maise and the Vine lies on the shores of the Black Sea, and in the south of the Crimes-" a second Italy."

(vii) The grassy Steppes are full of life. Herons, storks, flamingoes, and ducks frequent the ponds and marshes; the air is full of the song of larks and other singing birds; and swarms of bees range from flower to flower.

14. The Black Lands.—The Black Lands are the heart of Russia, and the main source of its wealth. They stretch like an isthmus between the Carpathians and the Urals. They comprise about onethird of the country, that is, nearly 240 millions of acres. The soil which gives its name to this region is a thick sheet of black earth a kind of "leaf mould"—composed of decayed vegetable matter, and varying from three to twenty feet in depth. Corn has been grown on much of this land for seventy years without manure.

(i) This "black earth" may be compared with the loess or "yellow earth" of the Hoang-ho basin. It is the richest soil in China; needs no manure; and goes on producing heavy crops for ages without the smallest sign of exhaustion. Many parts of the Black Lands give two crops a year. Clover grows in it to the height of 15 ft.; and stalks of hemp have been seen 20 ft. high.

(ii) The area of the Black Earth region is three times the size of Great Britain.

15. Animals.—Nearly all the wild animals of Europe are found in Russia. The polar bear roams the shores of the Frozen Ocean; furbearing animals are numerous in the north; the bear, wolf, lynx, glutton, fox, abound on the Finland plateau; the brown bear, wild boar, elk, and wild ox inhabit the virgin forests; and the wolf is common in all parts of the country.

There are said to be 175,000 wolves in Russia. They devour annually 180,000 cattle, over half a million sheep, and 100,000 dogs. This is equal to £18 a year for the food of each wolf.

16. Minerals.—Gold, iron, and copper are found in great abundance, chiefly on the eastern slopes of the Middle Urals. Russia produces more platinum than any other part of the world. Iron is very widely diffused; and, in the extreme east, there are four large mines of magnetic iron ore. The coal-fields in the neighbourhood of Moscow, in the Donetz region, and in the Urals, contain large supplies of coal: but they are insufficiently worked.

The Densets is a tributary of the Don; and the coal-field in its basin fills 16,000 square miles—an area nearly three times as large as Yorkshire. This is probably the largest coal-field in Europe.

17. Agriculture.—The chief industry of the people of Russia is agriculture. Although only 21 per cent. of the land is under tillage, yet more than 90 per cent. of the population are engaged in this kind of work. Hence Russia is, after the United States, by far the largest corn-producer in the whole world.

(i) The chief products are Wheat, Maise, Oats, and Rye.

(ii) Russia holds the first place for Flax and Hemp; and she produces as much of these crops as all the rest of Europe together.

18. Other Industries.—Manufacturing industries are still feeble in Russia; and fisheries, the chase, and graxing keep ahead of them. The Russian fisheries are the most productive in Europe; those of the Caspian (sturgeon, etc.), being enormously rich—especially at the mouths of the rivers. Russia is richer in live stock than any other European state—notably in horses.

(i) Russian leather is the finest in the world; its peculiar odour is due to an oil extracted from birch-bark.

(ii) In the Steppes, cattle-breeding is the chief industry.

(iii) There are 22 million horses in Russia, that is, one for every four inhabitants. The United States is the only country that comes near this.

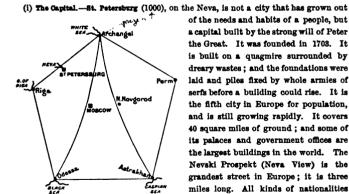
19. commerce.-The wealth of Russia lies mainly in its forests, black lands, mines, and fisheries. The chief export is wheat; and this takes up more than half the total value of all the exports; next come timber, flax, and wool. The principal imports are raw cotton, tea, and tron. But the chief commerce of Russia is with herself. On the Caspian there is a new industry in petroleum.

(i) Great Britain buys from Russia every year about £8,000,000 worth of wheat.

(ii) We buy also, of timber, to the value of £3,000,000; of flax, over £2,000,000.

(iii) You can travel in the Russian Empire through 95° of longitude, without having to open your portmanteau to a custom-house officer.

20. Large Towns.-Of the 88 millions of people who live in Russia, only 10 millions or 9 per cent. live in towns. Hence, considering the vast size and wealth of the country, there are not many large cities. There are eleven with a population of over 100,000; and of these two have more than three-quarters of a million of inhabitants-St. Petersburg and Moscow. The other large towns are Warsaw, Riga, Odessa, Kazan, Kieff, and Saratoff. In addition to these, there are 22 towns with more than 50,000 inhabitants.



of the needs and habits of a people, but a capital built by the strong will of Peter the Great. It was founded in 1703. It is built on a quagmire surrounded by dreary wastes; and the foundations were laid and piles fixed by whole armies of serfs before a building could rise. It is the fifth city in Europe for population, and is still growing rapidly. It covers 40 square miles of ground ; and some of its palaces and government offices are the largest buildings in the world. The Nevski Prospekt (Neva View) is the grandest street in Europe; it is three miles long. All kinds of nationalities are to be found in it ; all ranks-princes

and beggars, merchants and moujiks (=peasants). It is also a seaport, as a deep ship canal has recently been made; and it carries on half the foreign trade of the country. Before this canal was opened, Cronstadt was the port of the capital. St. Petersburg has a large University; and the Imperial Library contains more than a million volumes.

(ii) The Old Capital.—Moscow, (800), the old Capital—and still the true centre of Russian Nationality—stands on the Moskva, which flows into the Oka, a tributary of the Volga. It is more of an Asiatic and Oriental than a European city. St. Petersburg is a western city; Moscow an eastern. Moscow is the holy city of the Russians, the city of convents, churches, towers, steeples, cupolas, church bells and chimes. It has "forty times forty" bulb-shaped domes. It is the centre of the internal trade of the country, commanding, as it does, great streams such as the Volga, Oka, Don, and Dnieper, and communicating with four seas—the White, Black, Baltic, and Caspian, with the ports of Western Europe, and even of Asia. Its manufactures are larger than those of St. Petersburg. It covers 40 square miles of land; but its not closely built. The houses are of all sizes, shapes, and colours—red, green, yellow, etc. It has a University; and it is also a great centre of the Russian book-trade. It is in Moscow, too, that the Emperors of Russia are crowned and buried.

- (a) The Kremlin is a cluster of buildings in the heart of the city—a fortress which also contains cathedrals, convents, palaces, public offices, arsenals, mnseums, and barracks. Some of the buildings are in style similar to the palaces of Vanice and of India. The whole presents a strange assemblage of domes, turrets, orpolas, pinnacles, clock-towers, colonnades —glittering in gold or in silver, or painted green, red, blue, or purple.
- (b) Kremlin also contains the "Queen of Bells," It weighs 200 tons, but is cracked. There is also an enormous cannon which cannot be used. Hence the remark: "Moscow is famed for a bell that never rings, and a gun that never rings."
- (c) Moscow was the grave of Napoleon's ambition. Rather than give shelter to the French Army in the winter of 1812, the people set fire to the city; and, as most of the houses were of wood, it was soon reduced to ashes.

(iii) Warsaw (460), on the Vistula, the capital of the dead kingdom of Poland, is a city nearly as large as Birmingham. It stands at a point where most of the large tributaries converge, and hence possesses splendid water-communications. Moreover, it stands almost in the centre of Europe. It has a University; and large trade.

(iv) Eiga (175), a town as large as Newcastle, is the fifth city in the Empire, and the capital of the Baltic Provinces. It stands on the Dwina, about 7 miles from its mouth in the Gulf of Riga. It exports flax, tallow, timber, and other articles of the "Baltic trade." It is the third scaport in Russia, ranking after St. Petersburg and Odessa. It was one of the old Hanse Towns.

(v) Odessa (305), on the Black Sea, is the great emporium of South Russia. The mouths of the Dniester and Dnieper being useless for navigation, Odessa may be regarded as the true port of these rivers; just as Venice is of the Po, and Marseilles of the Rhone. It is the port of the "Black Lands."

(vi) Kasan (150), near the left bank of the Volga, is the old capital of the Tartar Khan. It was once the great entrepôt between Europe and Asia.

(vii) **Elef** (180), on six miles of the right bank of the Dnieper, is a "Holy City." It fills an area of 20 square miles, and is a centre of trade for South-western Russia.

(viii) Seratoff (120), a town a little larger than Cardiff, is the largest city in the Lower Volga basin.

21. Towns of Historic and other Interest.—There are many other towns in Russia which are worth our knowing, either from their relation to English history or from the part they play in the life of the Russian nation. Such are : Sebastopol; Novgorod and Nijni Novgorod; Astrakhan and Archangel; Toula and Helsingfors; Stavropol and Tiflis.

(i) Sebastopol (34), in the Crimea, was taken by the Anglo-French army in 1855, after a twelvemonth's siege, which reduced the city and forts to "a mass of ruins surrounded by graveyards." Before and during the siege, the battles of Alma, Balaklava, and Inkermann were fought.

(ii) Movgorod (20), near Lake Ilmen, was at one time the largest market in Bussis : but its trade left it after the building of St. Petersburg. Mini Movgorod (70), at the confluence of the Oka with the Volga, has ten miles of river wharfage, and is the scene of one of the great Russian fairs.

(lii) Astraham (70), on the Volga, about 30 miles from the Caspian Sea, is still the great Caspian port; but Baku is trying to outstrip it. Archangel, on the right bank of the Dwina, has a very good export trade in furs, flax, hemp, tallow, tar, etc.

(iv) Touls (64), on an affluent of the Oka, is the Russian Birmingham.

(v) Heisingtors (55) is the capital of Finland, and the birthplace of the great sailor, Nordenskield. It possesses the most northerly botanic garden in the world.

(vi) Stavropol (42), the capital of the government of Stavropol, and Tiflis (105), the capital of Caucasia, are really in Asia; but the Russians have placed them in their map of Europe. Armenians are the chief inhabitants.

22. Chief Ports.—The greatest port on the Baltic and in the country is St. Petersburg; next comes Odessa; and next, Riga. The chief port on the Caspian is Astrakhan. The oldest seaport in the country is Archangel. The chief naval arsenals are: on the Baltic; Cronstadt; on the Black Sea, Nicolaieff, Sebastopol, and Batoum.

23. Water-ways and Land-ways.—There are in Russia about 24,000 miles of navigable water-way; and of these, 400 miles are canal. The roads are bad. Indeed, there is in Russia hardly such a thing as we should call a road. There are few stones or none; there is not a single human being engaged in road-making or road-mending; and, when a rut gets too deep, the driver simply makes a new one to the right or to the left of the old.

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(i) In the Black Earth country one may walk for hundreds of miles without seeing a single stone. In wet weather, it takes six horses to draw a cart.

(ii) In winter, the snow makes the whole country one broad road; and one may go anywhere in a sledge.

24. **Bailways, Telegraphs, and Post-Offices.**—Russia possesses about 17,000 miles of railway. This gives her the fourth place in the whole world as regards railway communication. The centre of the system is Moscow, where the five main lines converge. There are about 90,000 miles of telegraph.

(i) The letters carried every year approach 200 millions. This is less than 8 per head of the population.

(ii) Great Britain and Ireland have about 20,000 miles of railway. This, proportionately to the size of the country, means 20 times more than Russia.

25. Population and Populousness.—The population of Russia amounts to 88 millions, and is less than one-fourth of the population of Europe. The average is 42 persons to the square mile.

(i) The Government of Archangel has 1; Moscow has 102.

(ii) The Black Earth Region is the most densely peopled; and yet it has only 100 people to the square mile. Belgium has 535.

(iii) The basin of the Oka is the true centre of European Russia, both as regards industries and population.

26. Political Divisions.—European Russia is divided into 69 provinces or "governments." Of these the most important are :

(i) Great Russia or Muscovy : Moscow, Nijni-Novgorod (on the Volga), Archangel.

(ii) East Russia : Astrakhan, Saratoff, Kazan, Perm.

(iii) The Baltic Provinces : St. Petersburg, Riga.

(iv) South Russia : Odessa, Kherson, Taganrog.

(v) West Russia or Polish : Warsaw, Vilna.

(vi) Finland : Helsingfors, Abö.

(vii) The Caucasus and Transcaucasia: Tiffis and Batoum (both on the Asiatic side of the mountains).

Archangel is the "fourth capital of the Empire:" and, in spite of ice for seven months, it has a good trade in flax, hemp, timber, tallow, etc.

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27. Character and Social Condition.—The Russians belong to the Slav or Slavonic race. The Great Russians have broad shoulders, open features, and massive brows. The peasants are hard-working, fond of music and song, light-hearted, kind, courteous, extremely loyal, but dirty, superstitious, and given to intemperance. They can put their hands to anything, "can take to trade after trade, with no appearance of clumsiness in any."

(i) No state in the world can show a greater variety of nationalities than Russia. Forty different languages are spoken in it.

(ii) But five-sixths of the people are Slavs.

28. Government.—The Czar of all the Russias is an absolute monarch; except in Finland, which has a constitutional government, with the Czar as Grand Prince.

29. Religion and Education.—The Russian religion is that of the Greek Church; though there are about 130 sects in the country. The priests are called "popes," and are allowed to marry once only. The Emperor is Head of the Church. There are eight Universities; a large number of secondary schools; and numerous good agricultural, mining, industrial, and other special schools. But, in the elementary schools, there are only about 2,000,000 children.

Only about 12 per cent. of the people can read or write.

30. Army and Navy.—Russia has one of the largest and strongest armies on the Continent. In peace, the army numbers about threequarters of a million men; on a war-footing, nearly $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions. The navy consists of the Baltic, Black Sea, and Caspian Fleets—comprising 45 iron-clads (of which 32 are in the Baltic), and a large number (120) of torpedo steamers.

(i) Every one is liable to the conscription, and must serve for six years.

(ii) There are about 25,000 sailors in the Russian Navy.

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THE BALKAN PENINSULA.

1. Position.—The Balkan Peninsula is the most easterly of the three Southern Peninsulas of Europe. It is the mighty "Bridge between Europe and Asia across which people and ideas and civilisation have so often passed." It is surrounded on three sides by the sea; on the north, it is bounded by the Save and the Danube. As it goes to the south, it becomes more and more highly articulated—takes on more and more of a peninsular character—gets more and more under the influence of the sea; until at length it breaks out into a great wealth of islands in the west, south, and east.

(i) The Balkan Peninsula may be compared with Further India, which grows always more peninsular as it goes south, and then ends in countless islands, which were at one time part of the mainland.

(ii) The northern half itself contains three peninsulas: (a) the Peninsula of Constantinople; (b) the long and narrow Peninsula of Gallipoli; and (c) the "threefingered" Peninsula of Chalcidicé.

(iii) The southern half is much longer and narrower, and is a true "Peninsula of Peninsulas." It contains three divisions: (a) Morthern Greece—marked off by the Gulfs of Volo and Arta; (b) Middle Greece—"the true Hellas," which sends out into the sea the peninsula of Attica; (c) Southern Greece, which consists of the Morea (="Mulberry Leaf").

(iv) All this high degree of articulation is emphasised and intensified by the countless islands round the coast—especially in the east. The chief groups are the **Sporades** (="Scattered Islands"), the **Oyelades** (="Circled Islands")—both in the Archipelago; and the **Lonian Islands**, in the Ionian Sea.

2. Coast Line.—Long land-arms stretching out into the sea, deep re-entrances of the sea into the land—such is the horizontal character of this Peninsula. The following are the best-known Gulfs and Capes:

(i) Gains : Beginning in the Archipelago (or Ægean Sea), in the east, we find the Gulfs of Saros, Orfani, Saloniki, Velo, Ægina, Corinth, Patras, Arta.

(ii) Capes: Colonna (so called from the white marble columns—the remains of a temple to Minerva—which form a landmark for sailors), Matapan, and Linguetta (="the Tongue").

3. Build.—Spain consists almost entirely of one lofty plateau ; Italy is a land of highly articulated mountains ; the Balkan Peninsula unites the characteristics of both. Between the Adriatic and the Ægean (or Archipelago) stretches a large and lofty table-land, with ranges of mountains running from west to east. At right angles to that ; stretches another table-land, with numerous ranges of mountains running from north to south. The table-land formation reappears in the Morea, which is a kind of miniature of the whole Peninsula ; for in the north of the Morea we have ranges running from west to east ; and, at right angles from these ranges, several which run north and south. The river-valleys are everywhere small in comparison with the size of the whole peninsula : and they become smaller and smaller as we go to the south.

Balkan is a Turkish word meaning high range. The Balkan range (called in ancient times Mount Humus) is only a small part of the Peninsula, and lies in the extreme north-cast.

4. Mountains.—The mountain system of the Balkan Peninsula will become clear to us, if we seize firmly on the Tchar-Dagh.

(i) From the Teher-Dagh mountain-ranges and river valleys radiate in every direction. North-west run the Hiyrie and Dinarie Alps; due south, the Pindus Bange.

The pin in Pindus is the same word as pen in Pennine and Apennine ; as Pen in Wales ; and Ben in Scotland. They all mean mountain.

(ii) North runs the mighty Balkan Range from the Timok (a tributary of the Danube) to Cape Emineh in the Black Sea. The Dobrudja Flateau touches the Balkans. South and south-east runs the Despote Dagh (called by the Greeks Rhodops).

(iii) Parallel with Mount Pindus, and, bounding on the east the Plain of Thessaly, is a range which contains many famous peaks—Mount Olympus; Ossa; Pelion; and Othrya. Mount Olympus is the highest peak in the whole Peninsula; it is 9750 ft. high.

- (a) Mt. Olympus was the abode of the Gods. Farther south are the isolated Mt. Parnassus and Mt. Helicon (both haunts of the Nine Muses).
- (b) Mt, Parnassus is visible from most parts of Greece ; and, as Delphi, the shrine of Apollo, wa. there, it formed a visible symbol of Greek unity.

(iv) In the heart of the Morea lies the table-land of Arcadia (now called Tripolitza), from which short ranges run out to the ends of the four minor peninsulas. The highest range is Mount Taygetus, called by the Modern Greeks *Pentedactylo* (="Five-Fingered") from its five peaks. The extremity of Taygetus forms Cape Matagan—the most southerly point. 5. Rivers.—The northern slope of the Balkan Peninsula drains into the Danube; and the two most important streams on this side are the Morava and the Isker. The three largest rivers on the southern slope are the Maritza, the Strumar, and the Vardar.

It is up the valley of the Morava that the great railway from Vienna to Constantinople will run. This railway will join the East and the West, and will do much to open up—and to break up—the Turkish Empire.

6. Islands.—The larger separate islands are Candia (or Crete) and Eubosa (or Negropont). The chief groups are the Ionian Islands in the Ionian Sea on the west; and the Cyclades and Sporades, on the east, in the Ægean or Archipelago.

(i) Grete is about 160 miles long. It belongs to Turkey. It is one mass of mountains (some of them over 8000 ft. in height), the highest called in ancient times Mount Ida.

(ii) Megropont is about 100 miles long. The channel which separates it from the mainland is so narrow that it is spanned by a bridge.

(iii) The largest of the Ionian Islands is Cophalonia. The best known is Corfu, which has a University. All are fertile, rich in wine and olives; all have excellent harbours.

(iv) The Cyclades belong mostly to Greece. The largest island is Maxos, which is rich in marble, and also in emery powder. But Syra is the most important; for it is the chief centre of commerce in the Levant. **Parce** yields the finest statuary marble.

(v) Of the Sporades the largest is Mytllene. In Scio Homer was supposed to have been born—"the blind old man of Scio's rocky isle." The most famous is Rhodes.

7. Climate and Vegetation.—In the north we find the Continental Climate, or climate of extremes; as we go farther south, the land comes more and more under the influence of the sea-winds, the climate becomes more mild, and the temperature has a narrower range. The rains are summer-rains; and they are very abundant, for the Peninsula has wide stretches of sea on the east as well as on the south and west. In Greece, however, there is an almost rainless summer. In the Morea, the nearness of very high mountains to low valleys brings the opposite seasons—summer and winter, ripe crops and snow, within sight of each other.—On the high mountains, **pines** and firs grow; in the lower ranges, beeches and oaks; in the warm valleys, thick-leaved trees, such as olives and oranges.

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8. Populations.—The Peninsula is not densely peopled. This is due partly to the enormous quantity of mountain-land; partly to the want of good roads; and partly to the desolating misrule of the Turk, who has never encouraged industry, or manufactures, or commerce.— The chief peoples belong to four different races: (i) The **Slavs**, who constitute the larger half of the population. The chief Slav peoples are the **Bulgarians** in the east, and the **Servians** in the west; (ii) The **Albanians**, who occupy Albania—the region between Servia and Greece; (iii) the **Greeks**, in the kingdom of Greece, on the Ægean coast, in Crete and other islands; and (iv) the **Turks**, who form no more than one-seventh of the population, but are found all over the peninsula as owners of the soil. The traders in the cities are generally **Jews and Armenians**.

(i) The average population over the whole peninsula is about 70 to the square mile.

(ii) The Greeks and Slavs are members of the Greek Church; the Turks are Mahometans.

9. Political --- The Balkan Peninsula is occupied by the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, which nominally belong to Turkey, but are under the protection of Austria; the small mountainous principality of Montenegro (="Black Mountain"), which is independent; the kingdom of Servia ; the kingdom of Boumania ; the principality of Bulgaria, which is independent, but pays a small tribute to the Sultan ; East Roumelia, which is nominally in Turkey, but has a Christian Governor; Turkey, which now only consists of Roumelia and Albania, the one on the Black Sea and the Ægean, the other on the Adriatic; and Greece, or Hellas, which is the young rising power in the Peninsula, and the one which has the greatest future before it.--All these states and kingdoms have been cut out of Turkey since 1830 (the year in which Greece was declared a kingdom); and every state and people in the Peninsula is in a condition of ferment, unrest, and eagerness for revolution. It is this want of security-this perpetual uneasiness-that constitutes the Eastern Question. 🔑

10. BOSNIA.—This state is inhabited by persons of Servian nationality; but the landowners are Mahometans. The capital is Sarajeva (26). The Herzegovina is now a part of Bosnia. 11. MONTENEGRO.—This little land is an impreguable mountainfortress, which has fought for its independence against the Turks for 200 years, and had it at last recognized by the Great Powers in 1878. The capital is Cettinjé.

12. SERVIA.—The Servians are a people of shepherds and warriors. Servia was in the 14th century not merely a kingdom, but a large and powerful empire, stretching from the Danube to the Morea; but its power was broken by the Turks. Since 1882, it has become once more a kingdom. The chief river is the Morava; and all the larger towns stand on its banks. The capital is Belgrade (45)—a strong fortress on a high rock at the meeting-point of the Save and the Danube. The religion is Greek. The people (2,000,000) are much given to the rearing of swine. The chief export is pigs, which feed, in countless herds, on the acorns grown by the boundless oak-forests.

13. ROUMANIA.—This country was separated from Turkey in the year 1861, but was not made a kingdom till 1881. It is nearly as large as England (without Wales); but its population is below 6,000,000. It lies between the Danube and the Pruth, and contains the old provinces of Wallachia, Moldavia, and the Dobrudja. The chief rivers are the Aluta and the Sereth. The immense Danubian plains have been for ages among the great grain-growing regions of the world. The capital is Bucharest (230), on a northern tributary of the Danube; and the other large towns are Jassy (100), near the Pruth, and trading largely with Russia,—and Galats (90), the great river-port of the kingdom. The chief export is cereals, to the value of about £8,000,000; the chief imports are textiles (about £5,000,000) and metals.

14. BULGARIA.—This country was cut out of Turkey and created a principality by the Berlin Treaty of 1878. The population is little over 3,000,000; and the capital is **Sophia** (20), on the Isker. The country is composed of a series of terraces which fall from the crest of the Balkan Range down to the Danube. The largest town is **Rustchuk** (27), on the Danube; the only large port **Varna** (25), on the Black Sea. The people live by agriculture, and by their flocks and herds. They belong to the Greek religion; but 30 per cent. are Turks, and therefore Mahometans. The chief export is corn.

15. EASTERN ROUMELIA.—This small narrow state was created in 1878, by the Treaty of Berlin. The capital is **Philippopolis** (35), on the Maritza. The country is about twice the size of Yorkshire ; but contains less than a million people. The chief occupation is agriculture.

Roumelia was united with Bulgaria in 1886.

16. TURKEY.—This once great and powerful Empire, which, in the 17th century, held the whole of the Balkan Peninsula, the whole of Hungary up to Pressburg, the whole of Transylvania, Moldavia, and all the coast of the Black Sea—which was then a "Turkish Lake" has, from 1672, been gradually dwindling, till its territory in Europe now consists only of a narrow strip of land between the Adriatic and the Black Sea. Kingdom after kingdom, state after state, has been cut out of it by Russia and by Austria, with the consent of the other Great Powers.—It is the one non-Christian state in Europe.

17. Population of Turkey.—The population of European Turkey is now only about 5 millions, most of whom are Turks and Mahometans. —As yet, there are only 1000 miles of railway.

(i) The Turks are an Asiatic race, without literature, without art (painting and sculpture are regarded as leading to idolatry), and essentially of warlike character.

(ii) The Sultan (=Emperor) or Padishah is also the Galiph or Head of the Church. His Prime Minister is called the "Grand Vizier"; the State is called the "Sublime Porte"; and the High Priest "Sheik-el-Islam" (=Chief of Islam). $h_{\rm Matrix} = f(-f_{\rm Matrix}) - f(-f_{\rm Matrix})$

18. Large Towns.—There are in European Turkey only six towns which have more than 20,000 inhabitants; and, of these, only two have more than 100,000. The three largest are :—Constantinople, Adrianople, Salonica.

(i) CONSTANTINOPLE (900) is one of the great cities of the world. It is called "Stamboul" (="The City") by the European Turks, and "Rome" by the Turks of Asia (and hence the province in which it stands is called "Roumelia"). It occupies the finest site in Europe. It stands on a lovely peninsula, between the Sea of Marmora and "the curved inlet called from its shape, its beauty, and the valuable cargoes

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which float upon its waters, the 'Golden Horn.'" Like the other Rome in Italy, it rests on seven hills. It stands at the intersection of two great world high-ways of commerce—the water high-road from the Black Ses into the Mediterranean, and the land high-road from Asia into Europe. It thus occupies one of the most important commercial sites on the globe. It was taken by the Turks in 1453; and as the great Greek and Latin scholars had to flee, with their books and uss., this terrible event was the means of spreading scholarship throughout Europe, and was the initials cause of the "Revival of Learning." Mosques and towers, vast domes encircled by smaller domes, high minarets with light balconies round them, enormous palaces, forests of masts and rigging, gardens and cypress groves—all these, under a sky of the brightest sapphire, go to make up a set of pictures such as can be seen in no other part of the world.—The city within is full of narrow, tortuous, and filthy streets, which are cleaned out only or chiefly by periodical fires.—The Golden Horn is one of the great harbours of the world. It could hold a thousand sail of the line, and is deep up to the very quays.

(ii) Adrianople (100) stands on the Maritza, at the intersection of the high-road from Belgrade to Constantinople. These plains produce the famous "attar of roses." Out from the midst of countless orchards, groves of poplar and cypress, rise the minarets of 150 mosques.

(iii) Salenica (60), the ancient Thessalonica, stands at the head of the gulf of the same name. This "emporium of Macedonia" not only has a good harbour, but it lies on the straight line—the shortest route—which joins London and the Suez Canal. Its commercial position is therefore as good as, or better than, that of Marseilles.

19. Other Towns.—There are other towns in Turkey worth our knowing :—Gallipoli; Seres; Mount Athos; Kasanlik; and Candia.

(i) Gallipoli, "the Constantinople of the Hellespont," stands at the western end of the Sea of Marmora. It was the first city that the Turks captured on the soil of Europe. It is the naval arsenal of Turkey. Near it are the twin fortresses—three on each side—called the "Dardanelles," which command the strait.

(ii) Serve, a thriving town in Macedonia, is the centre of the culture of cotton.

(iii) Mount Athes or Monte Santo (="Holy Mountain") is a high mountain inhabited by 6000 monks, who form a kind of republic, under the protection of the Porte.

(iv) **Easenlik**, in East Roumelia, is the centre of the manufacture of attar of roses. "Rose gardens, waving fields of yellow corn, quiet Osmanli hamleta, sparkling rivulets, clumps of mighty walnut-trees, red-tiled roofs, and tall white minarets, make up a pleasing picture of quiet industry."

(v) Gandia, the capital of Candia (Crete), is also the chief port of the island.

20. GREECE.—The little country of Greece or Hellas is a sub-peninsula of the Balkan Peninsula. It was once a province of Turkey,

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fought against the Turks for its freedom from 1821 to 1829; and was at length acknowledged in 1830 as an independent kingdom, under the protection of Britain, France, and Russia. In 1863 Britain presented it with the Ionian Isles; and in 1881 it extorted, again by the aid of the Great Powers, from Turkey most of Thessaly and a strip of Epirus. Turkey is the old, sinking, despairing, and dwindling power on the Peninsula; Greece the young, hopeful, and growing.

(i) Ancient Greece was the most highly civilised country in the world. It was "the mother of arts and industries;" its language was the nohlest literary language that ever existed; and its literature is unequalled among the literatures of other countries.

(ii) Greece has given the world its greatest narrative poet-Homer; and two of its greatest thinkers-Plato and ARISTOTLE.

21. Area and Population.—Greece contains four divisions, which are strongly marked out by nature. The mainland is almost divided into two parts by the Gulfs of Corinth and Egina; and the two remaining parts consist of the Ionian Islands in the west, and the Cyclades and Sporades in the east. The total area is about 25,000 square miles—or twice the size of Holland. The population amounts to about 2 millions, which is about half the population of Scotland, and less than half that of Holland.

(i) The largest island in Greece is Negropont. The narrow channel which separates it from the mainland is called Euripus.

(ii) The island of Corfu is the most densely peopled district in Greece; with 850 to the square mile.

22. Trade and Industry.—The chief export is currants, the yearly sale of which amounts to $\pounds 2,000,000$. Next comes oil, then lead; and, much behind both, a little wine.—The chief imports are cereals and textile goods.—The most important industries are agriculture and navigation. This little people has been a seafaring nation for thousands of years; and at the present time it possesses a merchant navy of about 80 steamers, more than 3000 sailing vessels, and about 6000 coasters. The chief port for currants is Patras.—There are 600 miles of railway.—There is some mining in iron, lead, etc.

The word currants is a corruption of Corinths (=Corinth grapes).

23. Towns.—Greece has only four towns with more than 20,000 inhabitants. These are Athens; Pirzeus; Patras; Hermopolis. Among rising towns we ought to note Corfu; Zante; and Larissa.

(i) ATHENS (100), "the eye of Greece," as Milton calls it, "the city of Pallas beloved," is the capital of the country. It was also the capital of the ancient republic of Attica. It was once the home of poets, philosophers, artists, orators, and conversationalists. Here Socrates, Plato, Sophoeles, and Demosthenes might have been heard discoursing or reciting poetry or making speeches. The noblest architectures, the most beautiful temples, the loveliest statues adorned its heights, its river-banks, and its streets. It was for many centuries the heart and the brain of Ancient Greece. Poets in all ages have sung its praises. Milton calls the city the "Mother of arts and eloquence." To-day Athens is the seat of government, and of a thriving University.

(ii) Pirmus (35) is the Port of Athens, and connected with it by railway.

(iii) Patras (35), on the southern shore of the Gulf of Corinth, is a rising port.

(iv) Hermopolis (22), on the island of Syra, has an excellent harbour, and occupies the most central position in the Archipelago. It is the commercial metropolis of the Cyclades. It has steam communication with Malta, Constantinople, etc.

(v) Corfu (18) is the largest town in the Ionian Islands.

- (vi) Zante (17) is "the wealthiest and cleanest town in the Ionian Islands."
- (vii) Larissa (14), on the Salamvria, is the largest town in Thessaly.

24. **Character.**—The Greeks have two strong passions—one for seafaring, the other for learning. They are the most seafaring people in the Mediterranean; and, were it not for their commerce and their eager enterprise, they would have no place in the list of nations. Since they gained their freedom from the Turks, the country has risen rapidly in prosperity, in population, and in education.— Schools have been established in nearly every village; and the little Greek boy learns whole pages of Homer by heart every week.

(i) The mercantile marine of the Greeks is superior to that of Russia, and almost equal to that of Austria. It is six times as large as the Belgian marine. Every sailor has an interest in the cargo; all are anxious to earn profits; and hence the charges for freight are very low.

(ii) If the people are too poor to raise school-buildings, the classes meet in the open air. "The scholars, far from playing truant, hardly raise their eyes from their books to notice a passing stranger or the flight of a bird."—"Amongst the students of the University of Athens there are many who work half the night at some handicaraft, to enable them to pursue their studies as lawyers or physicians."

ITALY.

"O land of beauty, garlanded with pine And luscious grape-vines, 'neath whose vaulted skies Of blue eternal, marble mansions rise, And roseate flowers from every lattice shine !"

1. Introductory.—Italy is the central of the three great peninsulas of Southern Europe. It is the "land of the sun"—the land of song, of music, of poetry, of painting, of architecture, of every kind of art. It has produced the greatest painters and poets; and artists of every country in the world look towards it with longing eyes, derive from it their strongest and highest inspiration, and learn from it their noblest lessons. The traveller who comes to it from the north finds a soft and delightful climate, clear skies, lovely and picturesque scenery, and perceives that he has indeed entered a "new world."

2. Boundaries.-Italy is bounded-

- N.—By the Alps, which separate it from France, Switzerland, and Austria.
- 2. E.-By the Adriatic.
- 3. S. and W .- By the Mediterranean.

3. Commercial Position.—So far as the sea is concerned, Italy has the best position in the Mediterranean ; and her wealth of coast line, her excellent harbours, and her large islands, enhance and strengthen that position. So far as the land is concerned, she lies next to the greatest industrial and commercial States upon the Continent ; and the three great tunnels through the Alps, Mont Cenis, Mont St. Gothard, and the Simplon, will bring her into direct communication with France, Germany, and Western Switzerland.

But there is no part of Europe so entirely shut off by Nature from the other countries of the Continent. She is shut off by the Alps.

ITALY

4. Shape and Size.—In shape Italy has been rightly compared to a boot, the heel being Cape di Leuca; the toe, Cape Spartivento; and the instep, the Gulf of Taranto.—Its length from north to south is about 700 miles; its average breadth, 100 miles. Its area, including Sardinia and Sicily, amounts to 110,620 square miles, or a little more than twice the size of England.

(i) If we turn the map of New Zealand upside down, we shall see that the two islands, looked on as one, are almost exactly of the same shape as Italy. Italy is the boot for the right leg; New Zealand, the boot for the left.

(ii) "From Shetland to Land's End may represent its length; from Hull to Liverpool its average breadth."

5. Build and Slopes.—Italy may be conveniently and naturally divided into three parts: Continental, Peninsular, and Insular Italy. Continental Italy consists of a level and fertile plain—the Plain of Lombardy—guarded by mountains both on the north and the south. Peninsular Italy is a mountainous plateau, almost filled by the Apennines and their branches. Insular Italy is composed of Sicily and Sardinia—both of them mountainous table-lands, with only one or two narrow plains,—Elba, the Lipari Islands, and a few others.

(i) About the middle of the Peninsula, the Apennines become a double chain; and these two chains support between them the wild table-land of the Abrand.

(ii) The long slope of the Apennines is to the west; the short, which is only about half the other, is to the east. Similarly, the southern slope of the Alps is very much shorter and steeper than the northern slope.

6. The Coast.—In the north of the Adriatic, the eastern shores are low and sandy. About Rimini, spurs from the Apennines reach the coast, which becomes high and rocky; and, in the extreme east, rises Monte Gargano, which appears on the shore as the cape called by the Italians Gargano Head. On the west and south, the coast is in general high and rocky, except in the district between the mouth of the Arno and Terracina, which contains three stretches of low and marshy land known as the Maremma, the Campagna, and the Pontine Marshes. It is the western coast that is most varied by bays, gulfs, and other openings.

(i) Guifs and Bays and Straits.-In the north, we find the Gulf of Genos, on which the wealthy city of Genos stands; about the middle, the deen embayment called the

Gair of Gasta, with the fortress-port of Gasta at the end of it; next the Bay of Naples, celebrated for its beauty all over the world; and lastly, the Gaif of Salerno, at the head of which stands the port of Salerno. In the south we find the deeply-cut Galf of Tarante, where dwell the Tarantese, the most indolent people in all Italy. Between Sicily and the toe of the boot run the Straits of Messina, soon to be abolished for travellers by the driving of a tunnel beneath their waters.

(ii) Capes.—Between Capes Spartivento and Di Leuca comes Cape Colonna, which receives its name from the marble pillars of a ruined Greek temple on the headland. The southern end of Sicily is called Cape Passare; the western end, Cape Boso.

(iii) The Marsuma, in Tuscany, is one of the most unhealthy districts in Europe. The Campagas lies round Rome, and is also a district haunted by fevers. The Fontime Marshes, north of the Gulf of Gaeta, are the most unhealthy of the three malarial districts. Once, twenty-three cities flourished in the district; it is now the haunt of wild boars, deer, and half-wild buffalces. "If a brigand seeks refuge in it, pursuit is stopped, and he is allowed to die in peace."

7. Mountains and Table-lands.—The Alps encircle the fertile valley of the Po—or the Italian Netherlands—with a mighty mountain-wall in the form of an arch. The Apennines start from the Maritime Alps and fill nearly the whole of the Peninsula; while, with a short break at Messina, they stretch themselves, under different names, over the whole of Sicily. They are like a herring-bone, with the spurs at right angles to the main chain. The highest peak of the Apennines is the "Great Rock of Italy" (9545 ft.), called also Monte Corno.

(i) No other region in Europe can rival the valley of the Po for the magnificence of its distant prospects. The whole elevated mass of the Alps rises before the eye—from the vineyards and mulberry trees of the plain, to the forests of beech, larch, and pines, then the mountain-pastures, and last, the naked rocks and the dazzling white snow-fields. Above all, the peak of Monte Rosa—

> "hanging there A thousand shadowy-pencilled valleys And snowy dells in a golden air."--TEXXYSON.

(ii) The volcanic mountains of Italy lie on one line—Veenvius, the Lipari Lelands and Mount Etna. (a) Mount Veenvius is a flattened cone, about 4160 ft. in height. In the year 79, an eruption buried the two cities of Herculaneum and Pompeii under showers of ashes and streams of mud. The last eruption was in 1872. (b) The Lipari Lelands, "born in the shadow of Mount Etna," all consist of heaps of lava and cinders. Two of them, Vulcano and Stromboli, are active; and the latter perpetually sends out clouds of steam at intervals of five minutes. (c) Mount Etna rises to the height of nearly 11,000 ft., with a slope so gradual that its base covers several hundreds of square miles. So long is the neck of this volcano that eruptions now take place through the sides; and 700 smaller ones exist on the slopes of the mountains.

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ITALY

8. Flains.—By far the largest and richest plain in Italy is the Flain of Lombardy, which in reality comprises the three distinct territories— Fledmont, Lombardy, and Venetia. It is also called the "Lombardo-Venetian Plain," or the Valley of the Po. It is one of the most fertile portions of the earth's surface; it is cultivated by a hardworking population; and it is full of large and wealthy cities.

9. Rivers.—Italy has only one great river—the Po. Some of the others, as the Arno and the Tiber, are famous in history, but are of very little use either for navigation or for irrigation. The Adige belongs partly to Italy, and partly to Austria.

(i) The Pe is one of the great rivers of Europe. It rises in two little dark lakes on the north flank of Monte Viso. It is fed on the one hand by the "aged snows" of the Alps, and on the other by the heavy rains of the Apennines. It drains an area of nearly 27,000 square miles (an area not much smaller than Scotland), of which nearly 11,000 are level, and indeed almost flat. It flows through and forms the very life of "the pleasant garden of great Italy;" and its course marks the line at which the sediment and debris from the Alps meet the sediment and debris from the Apennines. Its largest tributary is the Ticino (*Tichesno*). During countless ages, it has been maising its bed; so that now, at Ferrara, the surface of the river is higher than the roofs of the houses, and 30 ft above the level of the neighbouring country. Like all large rivers it is building its delta out into the Adriatic (at the rate of 82 ft. a year); and, in some hundreds of years, it will have blocked up the Guif of Trieste. The town of Adria, which gave its name to the Adriatic, now stands 20 miles inland.

- (a) The Po is useful for irrigation as well as for navigation. Its waters irrigate 5000 square miles and some parts of this irrigated area produce eight crops a year.
- (b) The embankments along the Po must be compared with those of the Netherlands. They protest 3 milliou acres of fertile land, which yield produce annually to the value of \$8,000,000.

(ii) The Armo rises in the Apennines, and flows to the west past Florence and Pisa, through a lovely and well-cultivated valley. It has a short course of only 150 miles.

(iii) The Ther rises not far from the sources of the Arno; and the two rivers form two sides of a triangle. They are connected by a canal through the tributary called the Chiana (Keenhug).

The waters of the Chiana flow partly into the Arno and partly into the Tiber ; and this may be compared with the Cassiquiare, which is a natural canal joining the Rio Negro and the Orinoco.

(iv) The Adige rises among the Rhaetian Alps; flows east and south: passes Trent (where the great Church Council was held in the 16th century); bursts through the Carnic Alps; enters Italy; and falls into the Adriatic after a course of 250 miles.

10. Lakes.—The chief lakes of Continental Italy are, in the order of their size, Garda, Maggiore, and Como. Each of them sends down a large river into the Po.

(i) Lake Garda is the largest of all the Italian lakes. Out of it flows "the smoothsliding Mincio." Lake Garda covers an area of 140 square miles, and is very deep.

(ii) **Maggiore** (which means the "Greater Lake") is longer than Como, but not so large as Garda. Part of this lake is in Switzerland. The Borromean islands, a group of four lovely islets, lie in the western arm of the lake; the Isola Bella rises from the water in ten successive terraces. Its outflow is the Ticino.

(iii) Come is one of the loveliest lakes in the world. Romantic scenery, steep hills, rocky headlands clothed with noble trees, beautiful gardens, tiny hamlets nestling in the woods on the shore, scattered white dwellings—all these can be seen; and at every turn new beauties. This lake discharges by the Adda.

11. **Climate.**—Italy stretches between 38° and 46° N. lat., and therefore possesses different climates. Continental Italy has a continental climate—of extremes. Peninsular Italy has, in general, a dry, very warm, and equable climate. The climate of Insular Italy is almost sub-tropical; but the heat is tempered by sea-breezes.

(i) In winter, Lakes Garda and Maggiore are sometimes frozen over; snow falls even in Lombardy; and the Plain of Northern Italy is chilled by cold winds from the Alps. The winter temperature of Turin is lower than that of Copenhagen.

(ii) The rainfall in the high valleys of the Alps is as great as in the wettest districts of Portugal; and, in the Plain of Lombardy, it is equal to that of Ireland.

(iii) The singular clearness of the air is the special characteristic of Italy. You feel as if you could touch with the hand mountains that are miles away; and the lines of tower and church and castle stand out with clear-cut perfection.

12. Vegetation.—In the northern plain we find maize, wheat, vines, olives, and mulberries, and they may sometimes be seen all growing in the same field. Rice is grown on the irrigated fields beside the Po.—The flora of the Apennines is very like that of Central Europe; and the truly Mediterranean vegetation—myrtles, olives. and other evergreens—is confined chiefly to the coast. The shores of the Tyrrhene Sea present one almost continuous grove of orange, olive, lemon, and citron trees.—In the extreme south, the vegetation is sub-tropical—the sugar-cane, the Indian fig, and the date-palm.

(i) Forests of the sweet chestnut clothe the sides both of the Alps and the Apennines; and in some districts supply the chief food of the inhabitants.

(ii) One of the great misfortunes of Italy has been the almost universal destruction of the forests. The consequence is, that in many parts of the Roman Apennines even the soil has been washed away by the heavy rains.

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13. Animals.—The larger beasts of prey are nearly extinct; but there are still in the forests a few wolves, lynxes, and stags; and, in the south, the wild boar and the porcupine are seen. Scorpions and mosquitoes are a pest on some parts of the coast.

14. Minerals.—There is no true coal; but anthracite or stone-coal is found in some places. The iron ores are the most important minerals of the country; and Elba has the largest iron-mines. Copper ores of great richness are found in Tuscany; and lead in Sardinia. Sulphur is of great importance to the wealth of Italy; and the largest mines are in Sicily.—Near Carrara, Massa, etc., marble is found in great quantities; and the Carrara variety is that pure white statuary marble which is famous all the world over.

15. Industries.—Agriculture is the chief Italian industry. Corn, wine, and oil are the staple products; and sericulture is successfully carried on in the north. Indeed, the most valuable product of Italy is stik. Flax and hemp are also largely grown; as the climate allows linen clothes to be worn during most months of the year. The pastures of the north are rich; and hence the making of cheese is a flourishing industry.

(i) The making of olive-oil and of wine is followed in most provinces.

(ii) In France, corn, wine, and oil are grown in different zones; in Italy, they are grown together almost everywhere.

(iii) Italy is the chief olive-producing country in Europe.

(iv) "As a silk-producing country Italy ranks second only to China, and leaves all its other competitors far behind."

16. Manufactures.—The manufactures of Italy are of small things, and on a small scale; and there are few manufactures in which the country is independent of foreign industry. There are cloth factories in Piedmont and Lombardy; cotton factories and iron foundries in Genoa and Naples; and much earthenware is made in Milan.

It is for minor manufactures that Italy is most noted : such as straw-plaiting, mosaics, cameos, and coral ornaments ; and in works of this kind she is unrivalled.

17. Commerce.—The Suez Canal has brought back to Italy much of the commerce which, before it was cut, was gradually leaving the Mediterranean. Her best customer is France; and she sells to that country five times as much as to any other. After France comes Great Britain; then Austria; Germany; and Switzerland. With four of these she is connected by railway. Silk is the chief article of export; next wine; next olive-oil; next fresh fruit; next eggs; and then come sulphur and raw cotton.

18. Large Towns.—Italy is a country of large and numerous cities. There are at least sixty-six which have a population of more than 20,000; and of these, fifteen have more than 50,000. Of these again, nine have more than 100,000. The nine largest cities are Naples; Milan; Rome; Turin; Palermo; Genoa; Florence; Venice; and Bologna.

(i) THE CAPTYAL. -EOME (280) is now, and has been since 1871, the capital of Italy; and was for ages the capital of the Roman Empire. She was once the Mistress of the World, and her steps to power were "the necks of Kings." She is still the most wonderful city on the face of the globe. Rome contains within itself three Romes --Pagan Rome; Mediseval Rome; and Modern Rome. The ancients spoke of it simply as Urbs, "The City;" and it is often called "The Eternal City." It is also called the "City of Seven Hills;" but there are really nine hills within the walls, which have a circuit of fifteen miles. It is above all a city of arts and artists; and there is no city that has within it so many splendid examples of all kinds of art-painting, sculpture, architecture, engraving, carving. The number of museums and collections of art in every period is endless. The countless churches and chapels, of all sizes and of every age from the rise of Christianity, are themselves so many picture galleries. The three most important buildings in Rome are the Collesum, St. Peter's, and the Vatioan. "Rome is great because of her past; and her ruins are more attractive than her modern buildings; she is a tomb rather than a living city."

- (a) The Coliseum was an immense oval building, which enclosed five acres, and could hold 80,000 persons, who met to see men fight with and kill men, or to contest with wild beasts.
- (b) The Vatican is the residence of the Pope. It contains 4000 rooms, filled with the most valuable gens of art; and a library of more than 100,000 volumes.
- (c) St. Peter's is the finest church in the world. It cost £12,000,000 to build.

(ii) Naples (470), the largest city in Italy, stands on the famous Bay of Naples. The Italian proverb is "See Naples and die !" For you will have seen the loveliest sight this world can show. The ground rises from the shore in terraces and hills clothed

In spite of the fact that by far the greater number of Italians are given to agriculture, an unusual proportion are congregated in towns. The Italian "dreads of all things an isolated dwelling. If he cannot live in the capital, then in a provincial city; if not, in a country town; if not, in a village; only never in a country house."

with groves of orange, olive, lemon, and palm trees; and behind all, the peaks of the snow-clad Apennines.

(iii) Milan (300) "the Great," is the capital of Lombardy. The great centre of interest in this city is its cathedral, built of white marble. It contains more than four thousand statues of saints, kings, and princes. The city stands on the railway which runs through St. Gothard tunnel, and is consequently a very important centre of trade.

(iv) Turin (240) stands in the upper valley of the Po, at a point towards which three Alpine passes converge. Its chief work is manufacturing silk.

(v) Palarme (210) is the capital of Sicily. It is a busy place of trade. Around the city stretches a beautiful and fertile plain called "The Golden Shell."

(vi) Gence (145) "La Superba" (the Proud), on the Gulf of Gence, is the chief sesport or "Liverpool of Italy." All the railways of Continental Italy converge upon Gence. Columbus was born there in 1446.

(vii) Florence (137) "La Bella" (the Fair) stands on the Arno. It was at one time one of the most powerful cities in Italy, and the home of great artists. It has produced a larger number of great men than any other city in Europe : among others, Dante, one of the three great poets of the world ; Petrarch, a noble lyric poet ; Michael Angelo, painter, sculptor, and architect ; Leonardo da Vinci, a great painter ; and Gallleo, the astronomer. Straw-plaiting and silk manufactures are its chief industries.

> "The brightness of the world, O thou once free And always fair, rare land of courtesy ! O Florence ! with the Tuscan fields and hills, And famous Arno, fed with all their rills ; Thou brightest star of star-bright italy !"

(viii) Vence (135) "the Rich," "the Queen of the Adriatic," stands on 72 islands in the Adriatic. The streets are noiseless—they are canals; the cabs, gondolas; and the doors of the houses open right on the water. "The salt seaweed clings to the marble of her palaces." It looks like a floating city. A bridge of 222 arches and 2000 ft. in length connects it with the mainland. The manufacture of looking-glasses, lace, and of glass beads has given a new stimulus to the trade of Venice.

"White phantom city, whose untrodden streets are rivers, and whose pavements are the abifting abadows of palaces and strips of sky."-LONGTELLOW.

(ix) Belogns (110) "the Learned," at the intersection of the railway from Milan to Brindisi, and from Venice to Leghorn, is a town of some trade. Its position is midway between Continental and Peninsular Italy.

19. Towns of Historic and other Interest.—The towns of Italy which are interesting from the point of view of history—the history of war, of peace, of art, of commerce—are countless in number; and we can make ourselves acquainted with but very few of them.

(i) Alessandria (31) is a strongly fortified town on the Tanaro. It is the terminus of eight railways, and one of the most stirring towns in Italy. East of it is Marengo, where the great Napoleon defeated the Austrians in 1800.

(ii) Mantua (28), on an island in the Mincio, is one of the four fortresses of the famous "Quadrilateral." Between Mantua and Milan are the battle-fields of Solferino and Magenta, where the French gained great victories in 1859.

(a) The plain between the Minclo and the Adige has been the scene of many a battle. "No spot on the earth's surface has been so frequently saturated with human blood."

(b) The Quadrilateral was "the key of the house"; and it is now in the possession of Italy herself.

(iii) Verona (60), on the Adige, is a strong fortress built to command the long narrow pass which goes down into Italy from the north.

(iv) Eavenna, once on the Adriatic, now four miles from it, was the Venice of ancient times. It is now remarkable as the city which contains more monuments and buildings of early Christian art than any other. Dante lies buried here.

(v) Piss (38), on the Arno, once a mighty republic, the rival of Venice, now a dull place, famous for its leaning tower built of white marble. Macaulay calls it "the proud mart of Pisa"; but its trade is gone, for the mouth of the Arno is silted up.

(vi) Reggio, a town nestling in groves of lemon and orange trees, stands on the Straits of Messina, and is a twin city with Messina.

The Italian cities are unrivaled in their treasures of art. "In almost every alley of every quist country town, the past lives still in some lovely statuette, some exquisite wreach of sculptured foliage, or some align but delies freeso, a variety of beauty which no English architect or sculptor has ever dreamed of." There is no other country in the world which can boast of au equal number of cities remarkable for their architecture, their statuary, their paintings, and their decorations.

20. Chief Ports.—The chief ports of Italy are Genoa; Leghorn; Ancona; and Spezzia (the last the great naval arsenal). Brindisi is a rising, as Ostia is a declining, port.

(i) Leghorn (80) is the "Hull of Italy," and the outlet of the Arno valley.

(ii) Ancona (32) is, after Venice, the best harbour on the Adriatic. Brindist is the third port; and, as the mails and passengers from England and France are shipped here for India, via the Sucz Canal, it is a rising place.

(iii) Spensia, on the Gulf of Spezzia, is the "Portsmouth of Italy."

(iv) Ostia (a word meaning mouths) is a decayed port at the mouth of the Tiber. It is now five miles from the sea, " buried beneath fields of cereals and thistles."

"Not ever again at even shall ship sail in on the breeze,

Where the hulls of their gilded galleys came home from a hundred seas.

For the marsh plants grow in her haven, the marsh birds breed in her bay,

And a mile to the shoreless westward the water has passed away."- RENNELL RODD.

(v) Not very far from Ancona is the small republic of San Marino. It has been a sovereign state since the 4th century.

21. Railway System.—Italy possesses a very complete railway system, especially in the continental part. There are altogether above 7000 miles of railway; and about 3000 more will be built in the course of the next fifteen years.

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(i) The network in the valley of the Po is very dense.

(ii) The long railway lines from north to south are compelled to run on either side of the Apennines; and they form a network only in the Valley of the Arno.

22. Telegraphs and Letters.—There are nearly 23,000 miles of telegraph line in Italy.—The post carries about 200 million letters and post-cards. This is at the rate of 6 a head per annum.

(i) Great Britain has 30,000 miles of telegraph.

(ii) British post-offices carry 1600 million letters and post-cards a year; which is at the rate of 53 a head.

23. Canals.—The canals in the Lombardian Plain are chiefly for the purpose of irrigation; the Chiana Canal connects the Arno and the Tiber; and the streets of Venice are one vast and intricate network of canals (about 250 in number).

5000 square miles in the valley of the Po are irrigated by canals. Indeed, this valley is the birthplace of canal-engineering.

24. Population and Populousness.—The population of Italy amounts to about 30,000,000 souls. The average density is about 260 per square mile; and this is the greatest density among the larger countries in Europe.

(i) The density in the province of Milan is nearly 1000 per square mile.

(ii) The average density in Belgium is about double that in Italy.

25. Political Divisions.—Italy is now divided into 69 provinces; but it is not necessary for us to learn their names. The ancient divisions, which have a place in history, and still live in the hearts of the people, are of more importance. The following are the chief of these:

- 1. Piedmont-Turin, Alessandria.
- 2. Lombardy-Milan, Cremona, Mantua.

5. Campania-Naples, Salerno, Gaeta. 6. Calabria-Reggio.

4. Tuscany-Florence, Leghorn, Pisa.

3. Venetia-Venice, Padua, Verona,

26. Character and Social Condition.—The Italians are a mixed race—the descendants of Romans, Greeks, Gauls, Goths, Normans, Arabs, and—in the north—Germans. The common notion is that they are extortioners, uncivil, given to revenge, assassination, lying, treachery, and dirt. This is a mistake. The most impartial travellers speak warmly of "the disinterested courtesy, the unselfish kindness with which they have been universally treated." The

genuine Italian is kind and courteous to all—high and low, rich and poor; and his courtesy is enhanced by a wonderfully gracious, charming, and attractive manner. He is sober and thrifty, and an ardent lover—as he cannot help being—of his country.

(i) "Italian men," says Mr. Hare, "are generally courteous, brave, and highminded; and the women are as kind and modest as they are unaffected."

(iii) "No Italian emigrates with the view of founding a new home elsewhere; but all return sconer or later with the money acquired abroad. The Italian migrates, never emigrates."

27. Government.—Like most other European Governments, the Italian is a "Limited Monarchy." The King and his Ministers form the Executive; and the Legislative Power is composed of two Chambers—the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies.

(i) One deputy is elected for every 57,000 of the population.

(ii) The standing army numbers nearly a million; and, with the militia, the whole army counts nearly 2,400,000.

(iii) The navy is very powerful; and it contains ten iron-clads of the first-class. Two of these are the largest war-ships in the world.

28. Religion and Education.—The Roman Catholic religion is the religion of Italy; but all creeds and forms of worship are permitted. Elementary education is far behind; about 62 per cent. of the people can neither read nor write. But the government is pushing on; and there are now about 60,000 schools. There are more than four hundred technical schools, and twenty-one Universities.

(i) There are in Italy only 62,000 Protestants.

(ii) In Upper Italy the percentage of "illiterates" is 40; in South Italy, 79.

29. Language.—Like French, Spanish and Portuguese, Italian is a descendant of Latin; and, of all its descendants, it is least changed from the parent-tongue. It is so full, so clear, so given to vowel-sounds that it is used in most countries as the best vehicle of music.

The Latin unus (one) becomes in Italian, uno; secundus, secundo; quartus (fourth), quarto; doctus (learned), dotto; saxum (a rock), sasso.

30. Colonial Possessions.—The Italian does not emigrate : he loves Italy too well. Hence there are no Italian colonies proper.

There are many Italians in Buenos Ayres.

THE PENINSULA.

1. Introductory.—The Iberian Peninsula, in the extreme southwest of Europe, is generally called The Peninsula, because it is of all the European Peninsulas the best known to us, and because it is much the largest of those which touch the Mediterranean.

(i) The Romans called it Hesperia, the land of Hesperus, the Evening Star.

(ii) It may be compared with Africa. Both have a simple outline; no islands near the coasts; few plains that open out on the sea. It is an Africa in miniature. The south of Spain is like Barbary; the Sierra Nevada and the Atlas are twin ranges.

2. Boundaries.—The Peninsula has the sea on all of its sides, except where the Pyrenees bound it on the north with a mountain-chain 250 miles long, between the Mediterranean and the Bay of Biscay.

(i) It lies between latitude 86° and 48° 45' N.

(ii) The south of Spain is in the latitude of Tennessee ; the north in that of Boston.

(iii) Madrid is in the latitude of Naples, Constantinople, Pekin, and New York.

3. Commercial Position.—Standing between the two commercial seas of the world, the Atlantic and the Mediterrancan, the Peninsula is as favourably situated for commerce as France, and it has far more large harbours; hence it ought to be one of the great trading countries of the world. It is not; and we shall see why later on.

4. Shape and Coast Line.—Its shape is very simple—almost square. It is also very compact. The coast line is only 2300 miles long, which gives one mile of coast to 98 square miles of surface.

(i) Its shape is like a bull's hide nailed upon a board-the neck at Gibraltar.

(ii) Like Africa, it is a "peninsula without peninsulas." Neither country has inlets of any size. Both are high table-lands.

5. Size.—The whole Peninsula contains about 225,000 square miles. This is about four times the size of England and Wales.

6. Build.—The Peninsula consists of one immense table-land, buttressed by very high ranges on the north and south, crossed by lower ranges from east to west, intersected by long valleys, and edged by a more or less narrow strip of lowland along most of the coast. The larger part of this vast plateau is upwards of 2500 ft. in height.

(i) The lowlands comprise only 1, th part of the whole area. Spain is a land of heights. It has the highest railway in Europe—across the Cantabrians ; the highest city—Madrid ; and the highest palace—San Ildefonso, which stands on ground higher than the summit of Mount Vesuvius.

(ii) The northern half of the table-land, comprising Leon and Old Castile, has an average height of 2700 ft.; the southern half, made up of New Castile and Estremadura, is only 2600 ft. above the sea-level. The average elevation of the whole surface is probably greater than that of Switzerland.

(iii) Most of the table-land consists of arid and treeless steppes. Hence the phrase, "tawny Spain," and the saying "Africa begins at the Pyrenees."

(iv) The build resembles that of France in several respects : (a) both slope to the Atlantic; (b) the main watershed in both runs from north to south; (c) the largest rivers flow to the Atlantic, only one large river with some minor ones to the Mediterranean; (d) there are few lakes in either.

7. Mountain Ranges.—The mountain-ranges which buttress the tableland on the north are the Pyrenees and their continuation the Cantabrian Mountains; the range on the south is the Sierra Nevada. The three chief ranges which rise from and run through the heart of it, are the Sierra de Guadarrama; the Sierra de Toledo; and the Sierra Morena.

(i) The chief roads and the only railways between France and Spain are round the ends of the Pyrenees. But two tunnels are in progress. The highest point in the Pyrenees is the Peak of Nethou, on Mount Maladetta (11,168 ft.).

(ii) The Sierra de Guadarrama forms the southern boundary of the Douro basin.

(iii) The Sierra de Toledo bounds, on the south, the basin of the Tagus.

(iv) The Sierra Morena forms the southern edge of the Guadiana basin.

(v) The Sierra Nevada (about 60 miles long) separates the valley of the Guadalquivir from the Mediterranean. Its highest summit is Mulhacen (11,660 ft.); but it has several other peaks above the limit of perpetual snow. In one valley there is a small glacier, the most southerly in Europe. The eye alone can trace the succeeding zones of vegetation from the foot to the line of perpetual snow: vines and olive trees; walnut-trees; oaks; bushes and turf; snow.

Sierra has nothing to do with the Latin serra, a saw ; it is only another form of Sakara-desert land. The Portuguese form of the word is Serra.

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8. Capes.—The chief cape on the north is Cape Ortegal; on the west, Capes Finisterre, Roca, and St. Vincent; on the south, Tarifa; on the east coast, Gata, Palos, St. Martin, and Creux.

(i) Ortegal is the north-west end of the Cantabrian Mountains.

(ii) Finisterre means Land's End; and the most westerly points of England, France, and Spain all have this name.

In France it is called Finistère-finis terras, the end of the land,

(iii) Roca means the Rock of Lisbon.

9. Bays and Straits.—The Peninsula is a "peninsula without peninsulas," and with very few re-entrances from the sea. The most remarkable inlets are the **Bias** on the north coast. They are very deep, are bounded by steep cliffs, and may be

compared with the fiords of Norway and the long sea-lochs of Scotland. These rias make fine natural harbours.—The only strait with which the Peninsula has to do is the **Strait of Gibraitar**, and that is in the keeping of England.



THE STRAIT OF GIBRALTAR.

(i) It was from the Ris of Corunas that the "Most Holy and Invincible Armada" started in 1588 to swallow up England.

(ii) The Straits of Gibraltar are about 13 miles wide. The Rock of Gibraltar has been held by the British since 1704.

10. Lowland Plains.—Almost everywhere between the table-land and the coast is a strip of low land, but the only lowland plains of importance—and these are not large—are the plains in the lower valleys of the Guadalquivir, the Tagus, and the Ebro.

11. **Rivers.**—The five great rivers of the Peninsula are the Ebro, the Douro, the Tagus, the Guadiana, and the Guadalquivir. The first of these flows into the Mediterranean ; the last four into the Atlantic. The minor rivers are the Minho, the Segura, and the Xucar. Of these the first flows into the Atlantic ; the two last into the Mediterranean. The minor rivers which flow into the Mediterranean, though all useless for navigation, are the cause of almost unparalleled fertility to the land which they irrigate.

(i) The Ebre rises in the Fontébré (=Fountain of the Ebro) in the Cantabrian Mountains, and falls into the Mediterranean after a course of 466 miles—nearly twice that of the Severn. Its basin—the largest in the peninsula—is a vast triangle bounded on the west by the midland plateau. One part of it is made useful for navigation by the Imperial Canal.

(ii) The Douro rises in the Lago Negro (Black Lake) in the Cantabrian Mountains. It receives a large number of feeders; but all are mere torrents. It flows into Portugal through deep gorges—like the cations of America, and, for fifty miles, forms the boundary between Portugal and Spain. It is navigable only in Portugal. Its length is 500 miles—more than twice that of the Severn.

(iii) The Tagus, the central river of the Peninsula, dividing its area into two nearly equal portions, rises in the Fuente (=fountain) Garia in the knot of mountains in the north-east, from which rivers flow in every direction. It is longer by 50 mlles than the Douro. It is of little value to Spain—of great value to Portugal; as near its mouth it expands into a basin 7 miles broad which could hold the navies of the world.

(iv) The Guadiana (= Wadi Ana) rises in the Sierra Morena, disappears under ground for about 20 miles, and rises to the surface in a set of springs called the Ojos (Eyes) de Guadiana. It has the same length as the Tagus, but a smaller basin and a still smaller rainfall. These three streams drain the great central plateau.

(v) The Guadalquivir (=Wadi-el-Kebir, or Great Wadi) rises in the Sierra Nevada, and flows through the fertile plain of Andalusia. It is the only river that at all seasons is a full-bodied stream, fed in winter by the rains, in summer by the snows. This and the Ebro are the only two rivers that flow through true valleys; the rest have a troubled course through rocks, gorges, cafons, defiles, and passes. The Guadalquivir is the only river in the country of much avail for navigation; steamers go up as far as Seville. It is about 340 miles long.

(vi) The Segura rises in the Sierra de Segura (at the east end of the Sierra Morena) and flows—some of it—into the Mediterranean. Its waters are so dammed up, led into innumerable channels, and utilised for irrigation, that only one-tenth reaches the sea.

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(vii) The Xmar rises not far from the source of the Tagus, and has a course of 317 miles; but most of its waters are captured for the irrigation of about 30,000 acres. The huertas (gardens) of the Xucar yield twenty millions of oranges a year.

All along this Mediterranean slope, there are innumerable small streams which give to this burning coast beauty and fertility—almost tropical vegetation and the finest fruits. Scarcely a drop of their water reaches the sca; all is used up for irrigation.

12. Lakes.—The lakes of the Peninsula are neither large nor numerous. Many of the rivers take their source from lakes of great beauty; but the only lakes of any importance are the five lagoons on the east coast, the largest of which is that of Valencia.

(i) A great deal of salt is made from these lagoons.

(ii) The Lagoon of Valencia is haunted by countless wild-fowl.

13. Climate.—The Peninsula possesses five well-marked climates. These differ in temperature, rainfall, and prevailing winds. First, there is the climate of the Pyrenees and the North, with abundant rain; second, the Western or Atlantic climate, with season rains; third, the Mediterranean climate of the Eastern slope; fourth, the African climate of the South; and last, the very dry climate, with great extremes of heat and cold, of the Central Plateau.

(i) Galicia is the rainiest province; Murcia the driest. In some parts of Galicia, about 150 inches of rain have been known to fall in a year.

(ii) The African climate-great heat and dryness-is found on the southern slope.

(iii) At Madrid, which is over 2400 ft. above the sea-level, there are only 9 inches of rain a year. The sea-winds which might water the table-land, have parted with their moisture on the edge of the plateau.

(iv) The climate is the driest in Europe. The importance of water on the table-land is shown in the number of names of towns or villages which take their name from water of some kind. Thus into the names of 288 the word *Fuente* (fountain) enters; of 144, *Rio* (river); of 600, *Molino* (water mill); and of 44, *Pozo* (well).

14. Vegetation.—The vegetation of course varies with the climate. The north and north-west are the lands of pasture and forest. The western slopes and terraces are rich in evergreens, vines, maize, and fruit. The eastern slope grows sweet wines; palms, oranges, and other sub-tropical plants. The southern slope produces rice, sugar, cotton, and mulberry-trees. The central table-land produces, in the better parts, the usual grains.

(i) The chief evergreens are the olive and the cork-oak.

(ii) An acre of ground in Valencia covered with orange-trees will sometimes produce £600 a year.

(iii) It was the Moors who introduced into Spain the cotton-plant, rice, and the sugar-cane. "The province of Andalusis is distinguished by the abundance of plants which have their true home in North Africa." The date-palm ripens here—but not on the opposite coast of Algeria.

(iv) The two Castiles, on the central plateau, are "the land of wheat and maize." The wheat is the finest in Europe.

(v) Esparto grass grows largely on the sea-slopes. It is used in Spain for making paper and ropes; and in Great Britain along with rags for making paper.

15. Animals.—The chief beasts of prey are the bear, the wolf, the lynx, and the wild cat. Among birds of prey are found vultures, eagles, hawks, falcons, and kites. On the southern shores flamingoes, pelicans, and other birds from Africa are seen. A kind of monkey —the only one in Europe—is found on the Rock of Gibraltar.

(i) The bear and lynx are found only in the Pyrenees. The boar and the wolf inhabit the forests and mountains of the north.

(ii) Wild bulls roam the forests of the Sierra Morena, and are also kept in the pastures of the Guadalquivir till they are brought up for the bull-fight.

(iii) Birds of passage from tropical climes are often seen—such as orioles, beeeaters, hoopoes, etc.; for the Peninsula lies in the route of those birds which cross from Africa to Europe.

(iv) The gall-nut fly, used in making ink ; the Spanish beetle, for fly blisters, the cochineal insect, etc., are all of commercial value.

16. Minerals.—The Peninsula is enormously rich in minerals. They are most abundant on or near the north and south edges of the table-land. Iron, coal, copper, lead, and quicksilver are the most important; but there is also a great deal of sulphur and salt

(i) Coal exists in many parts: the largest coal-field—Oviedo, 230 square miles being in the Asturias.

(ii) Copper in immense quantities is found in the country at the back of Huelva—the port of shipment. Near Huelva is Pales, from which Columbus sailed to discover the New World in 1492.

(iii) The richest mines of quicksilver in the world-after those of California-are at Almaden (= The Mine) on the northern slope of the Slerra Morena.

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SPAIN.

1. Introductory.—Spain is the land of contrasts. Once the most powerful state in the world, it is now one of the weakest. A land of heavy rainfalls, and of districts that are deserts from drought, of great river-valleys and small rivers, of temperate and of tropical fruits, a land which contains the hardest-working and also the laziest among mankind, where the smuggler is an honester man than the official who arrests him, where even the lowest classes are eloquent and noblemannered—such is and has long been the country we call Spain.

In the 16th century Spain was the strongest and richest power in the world; it is now only a fourth-rate power.

2. Extent.—Continental Spain contains an area of 191,000 square miles. With the Balearic Islands, the Canaries, and the strip of land in North Africa, it rises to nearly 198,000.

(i) The longest line that can be drawn in Spain—from north-east to south-west is 420 miles long.

(ii) Spain has 1 mile of coast for every 72 square miles of area. This is about the same proportion as in France.

3. Population and Populousness.—The population of Spain amounts to about 17 millions. This gives an average density of about 85 per square mile. In the coast-districts, and only there, it rises to 100.

(i) In England and Wales the average density is 500 per square mile.

(ii) The most densely peopled provinces of Spain are all maritime.

(iii) The average density of Spain is very little more than that of the most thinly peopled part of England-Westmoreland, which has only 82 per square mile.

(iv) Spain may also be contrasted with Italy: the former has a large country, the latter a large town, population.

4. Industries.—By far the most important industry in Spain is Agriculture. About 73 per cent. of the people are engaged in it, and yet not half of the surface is under cultivation. Valencia and Catalonia are the richest agricultural provinces; because in these the people have succeeded best in irrigation. Wheat and other cereals are most cultivated; then the olive; and next, the vine. The pasturage of the Merino sheep—of which there are

nearly six millions—is also an important industry. The fisheries are extensive. The catching of tunnies, anchovies, and sardines, gives employment to many fishermen.—The chief manufactures are cotton, silk, leather, paper, and hardware.

(i) The olive-trees cover 3 per cent. of the surface; the vine 2.8 per cent. The chief crops are thus: Wheat, oil, and wine.

(ii) The chief cotton factories are in Barcelona.

(iii) Rice is grown in the lower grounds on the Mediterranean.

5. Commerce.—The position of Spain between the two greatest commercial seas in the world, and her numerous excellent harbours ought to have made of her a great trading nation. But these advantages have been greatly neutralised by her laziness. The chief exports are wine, fruits, metals, and mineral ores, oil, and cork. The chief imports are raw cotton, coal, sugar, machinery, and salt-fish. The chief customers of Spain are Great Britain, France, Cuba, and the United States.

(i) Spain sends us more than £5,000,000 worth of wine a year.

(ii) A peculiar feature of the bare plains of the Castiles is their vast monotony. The hillsides and mountains are given to pasture; the plains to wheat and maize. There are no changes of crops; no fences; and no farm-houses. The husbandmen live in villages, ride out on donkeys to their work in the morning, and come back at night. This custom arose when the Moor was in the land—and it was dangerous to live alone; but the Spaniard is too lazy to change it.

6. The Largest Towns.—There are in Spain 16 towns with a population of more than 50,000; and of these five have over 100,000. These five are Madrid, Barcelona, Valencia, Seville, Malaga.

(i) The Capital.—MADRID, the highest capital in Europe (2400 ft. above the sea-level) stands in a dreary part of the dreary Spanish table-land, on the Manzanares, which flows—when it flows at all—into the Tagus. It contains about 500,000 inhabitants, and is therefore larger than Birmingham. It is a large square city, surrounded by walls twelve miles in circuit. Gloomy streets, high buildings, splendid palaces, courtyards with fountains and flowers within the walls; and outside no suburbs—but only the boundless dreary table-land sweeping up to the horizon. The climate is one of extremes: it has been described as "three months in an icchouse and nine in a furnace."

(ii) Barceleas (280) is the chief port of Spain, and the largest manufacturing town. Cotton is its chief manufacture ; and it is the "Spanish Manchester."

SPAIN

(iii) Valencia (180) is the centre of the Spanish silk-trade. The city is famous for its huerta, which grows countless numbers of oranges, grapes (for raisins), almonds, etc. The waters of the Guadalaviar are almost completely used up to irrigate this huerta. "Stalks of maize 25 ft. high may be seen in the gardens; the mulberry-tree gives four harvests a year; the same field yields four or five crops; and the grass is mown nine or ten times."

Huerta comes from the Latin horius, a garden, --a word which we have in our horicaliture, etc. (iv) Seville (140), on the Guadalquivir, is a half-Moorish city. The Spaniards call it the "Queen of Andalusia," the "Euchantress," and "the Gay." It is the centre of the sport of bull-fighting. Its most beautiful buildings are Moorish. Many of the houses also are Moorish, with flat roofs, and courts filled with flowers, in the centre a fountain of plashing water. It has the largest manufactory of tobacco in Europe.

(v) Malage (140), on the coast, exports dried fruit and wine. The city has the finest climate in Spain, and stands second in commerce only to Barcelona.

7. Other Large Towns.--The five next largest towns are Murcia, Zaragoza, Granada, Carthagena, and Cadiz. The populations of these range from 75,000 to 100,000.

(i) Murcia (100), on the Segura, is a seat of silk cultivation.

(ii) Zaragona (95), on the Ebro, sustained a sicge of seven months from the French in 1808-9.

(iii) Granda (78), one of the loveliest cities in the world, stands in a high plain commanded by the Sierra Nevada. It was the capital of the last kingdom of the Moors, who remained there for two centuries after they had been driven out of the rest of Spain. At the close of the 15th century, it contained 400,000 inhabitants, and was surrounded by a wall fortified with 1080 towers. The Moors called it the "Queen of Cities," the "Damascus of the West." The Alhambra is "perhaps the fairest palacefortness ever inhabited by a Moslem monarch."

(iv) Carthagena (86) is the most ancient town in Spain. It was founded by the Carthaginians. It is now one of the three great naval ports of Spain.

(v) Cadis (66, but with the towns that surround its bay, 200) competes with Lisbon for the trade of the New World.

8. Chief Ports.—The chief commercial ports of Spain are Barcelona, Malaga, Cadiz, and Valencia. The naval arsenals are Corunna, Carthagena, Barcelona, and Perrol.

(i) Barcelona is the largest port, and exports nuts.

(ii) Cadis is the port for the shipment of sherry.

(iii) Corunna is known in England as the port to which Sir John Moore led his troops in 1809. He fell there, and was buried "in his martial clock."

(iv) The harbour of Ferrel is large enough to contain the united fleets of Europe.

9. Railways, Telegraphs, and Letters.—Spain possesses about 6000 miles of railway, and will very soon have a thousand miles more. She has also more than 14,000 miles of telegraph line.

There are now in Spain nearly 30,000 miles of carriage-road.

10. Canals.—Spain stands at the opposite pole to Holland as regards canals. The Imperial Canal on the Ebro is the only one of importance for navigation—and even that is little used; but the irrigation canals which capture the rivers of the east coast add enormously to the national wealth. The chief are those of Valencia.

11. Political Divisions.—Spain was at one time divided into 13 provinces, many of which were kingdoms, and most of them independent. People spoke of "All the Spains." It is now divided into 49 provinces; but it is not needful for us to know more than the most important among the old and the new. These are Biscay, Galicia, Andalusia, Murcia, Valencia, Navarre, and the two Castlles.

1. Biscay : Bilbao, Vittoria.

The home of the Basque race. The province has many iron mines.

2. Galicia : Corunna, Ferrol, Vigo, Santiago.

An ancient kingdom with the finest harbours on the Spanish coast.

 Andalusia : Cadiz, Xeres (64), Seville, Malaga, Cordova, Granada. This province is "one of the great granaries of the world," and powesses the richest mines, as

well as the richest fruits and wines in Spain. Huelva is the chief mining district.

4. Murcia: Murcia, Cartagena. The driest province in Spain. Has the richest lead and silver mines.

5. Valencia: Valencia, Alicante.

The hill-sides are covered with esparto grass or with strong aromatic herbs.

6. Mavarre : Pampeluna.

An ancient kingdom.

7. Old Castile: Burgos, Valladolid (62).

An ancient kingdom, and the one into which all the others merged.

8. New Castile : Madrid, Toledo, Talavera, Almaden.

Another ancient kingdom. The two Castiles were united by the marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella in 1469. The Castiles received their name from the numerous castles erected by the Caristians as defonce against the Moors.

9. Balearic Islands : Palma (58), Port Mahon.

These are a continuation of the mountains of Valencia. They are "The Slingers' Islas" of the Ancents. The largest is Mallorca or Majurca; then Minorca (-Smaller Island); then Ivias (-Pine Island).

10. The Canaries : Santa Cruz.

The chief island is Teneriffe (12,000 ft. high). It has five distinct botanic regions.

12. Character and Social Condition.—The peoples of Spain differ from each other as much as the climates. The Catalan is hardworking, strong-willed, sober, and thrifty ; the Murcian is lazy, sleepy, and given to reverie ; the Valencian is industrious, gay, and easily induced to use his knife ; the Arragonese so stubborn that he "drives in nails with his head" ; the Andalusian graceful, eloquent, charming in manner, fond of song and dance and colour, lazy, poor—and content to remain so. The Galicians and Asturians are the hewers of wood and the drawers of water both for Spain and Portugal.—The "noble science of bull-fighting" still, unhappily, continues to brutalise the emotions of the otherwise noble Spaniard.

The siests or afternoon sleep, is an institution in Spain. Then, every city is like a city of the dead.

13. Government.—Spain is a constitutional monarchy—composed of King and Cortes (=Courts). The King is the Executive; the Cortes make the laws.

(i) The standing Army contains 180,000 men, of whom 23,000 are kept in Cuba.

(ii) The Navy consists of 6 iron-clads, and a large number of screw frigates and screw gun-boats. A fleet of 35 gun-boats is kept constantly cruising about Cuba.

14. Religion and Education.— The National Church of Spain is the Roman Catholic; and there are only 8000 Protestants in the whole country. There is a system of Elementary Instruction—very imperfect; there are Secondary Schools—very inefficient; there are ten Universities—fallen far from their former high estate.

Only about 25 per cent. of the people can read and write.

15. Language.—The Spanish language is a child of Latin—not of book-Latin, but of the spoken Latin of soldiers, ploughmen, and country people. It is a rich, noble, and dignified language.

(i) The Latin patrem becomes padre; salutem, salud; punctum, punto, etc. Sixtenths of its words are Latin; the rest Arabic, Teutonic, etc.

(ii) The Spanish language is at present spoken in a much larger part of the world (especially in South America and Mexico) than any other language—except English.

16. Colonial Possessions.—Spain was at one time the greatest colonial power on the globe; but she has lost most of her colonies. She still holds Cuba and Porto Rico; the Philippine, Sooloo, and other islands in Asia; and Fernando Po on the west coast of Africa.

(i) Oaba contains 11 millions of people, with 1000 miles of railway. It is one of the most fertile islands in the world. Slavery was abolished there only in 1886. Unrefined sugar and tobacco are the chief exports. The capital is La Habana (Havanna= the Haven).

(ii) The Philippines produce sugar, hemp, and tobacco. The capital is Manilla. There are 800 miles of telegraph in the islands.

(iii) Fernando Po is a volcanic island in the Gulf of Guinea. It is used as a place of exile for political offenders.

PORTUGAL.

1. Introductory.—In the farthest south-west of Europe, on the Atlantic Ocean, lies the little kingdom of Portugal, once one of the great exploring powers of the world, now a thriving, comfortable, and contented community. The country itself consists of the Atlantic slopes of the great Peninsular table-land.

(i) Bartholomew Diaz, a Portuguese, discovered the Cape of Good Hope in 1487; Vasco da Gama, another Portuguese, doubled it in 1497. Diaz called it Cabo Tormentoso (Cape of Storms); but the King of Portugal, who saw that by it lay the road to China, rechristened it "of Good Hope."

(ii) It was a Portuguese, Magelhaens (we call him Magellan), who first sailed round the world, in 1520-23, and gave his name to the Straits of Magellan.

2. Extent and Boundaries.—The area of Portugal amounts to 32,528 square miles; but, with the islands of the Azores and Madeira, which are regarded as part of the kingdom, it amounts to 34,038 It is bounded on the north and east by Spain, on the south and west by the Atlantic.

(i) It lies between 37° and 42° N. lat.

(ii) The land boundaries of Portugal are often said to be artificial; but this is not the case. (a) The Minho, Douro, Tagus, and Guadiana form distinct boundaries in parts of their courses. If we look carefully at the map, we shall see that the last three great rivers bend either north or south, and thus separate Portugal from Spain. (b) Where these rivers enter Portugal, they enter it through cafons, almost as long and deep as those of North America. These cafons and the rapids form a strong boundary.

PORTUGAL

(iii) Portugal may be said to be almost exactly identical with the zone of land which receives from 20 to 190 inches of rain. "The limit of the heavy rains brought by westerly winds from the Atlantic coincides very nearly with the political boundary of the two countries." Thus the country has two boundaries—a visible and an invisible.

3. Rivers.—The only river entirely possessed by the Portuguese is the Mondego. It waters a lovely green valley, full of cascades which sparkle among the leafage ; but it is useless for commerce.

4. Islands.—Continental Portugal has no islands of any importance off its coasts; but the Azores and the Madeira Isles (though not physically belonging to it) are politically reckoned as part of the kingdom. The Azores have a population of over a quarter of a million; Madeira, about 130,000.

(i) The Asores are volcanic islands. Some have risen out of the sea even since the group was discovered in 1432. The last occurrence of this kind took place in 1811. Angra, in Terceira, is the capital. St. Michael's is the largest island, and grows very fine oranges. The exports are oranges and lemons; wheat and maize; wine and fruits.

(ii) Madeira (a word which means *timber*) itself is the largest island. It once grew a very rich kind of wine; but that has failed. The rose, the myrtle, and the laurel bloom here along with the magnolia and the pomegranate. Coffee, sugar, and the banana are cultivated. The climate is soft, warm, and equable. The capital is **Funchal**.

5. Climate.—Humidity and equability are the marks of the climate of Portugal. Stand on the edge of the Central Plateau; and, on the west, you have a moist warm atmosphere, heavy rains, frequent fogs, rich green pastures, and luxuriant forests; on the east, a dry keen air, a brown parched soil, naked rocks, and treeless plains.

(i) The heavy rains make the Douro of Portugal a much larger and deeper stream than the thin and feeble Duero of Spain.

(ii) The rainy winds that cross Portugal have almost all their moisture taken out of them, and are passed on to the Spanish table-lands as dry winds.

6. Vegetation.—The nature of the vegetation may be best seen from the prevalent forest-trees. In the north we find **cak**; in the middle, chestnuts; in the south, cork-trees. The date-palm is grown in the farthest south.

7. Industries.-The chief industry of Portugal is agriculture.

Cereals are the largest product; but wine is the most valuable. Indian corn is the most important cereal; and wheat comes second. Rice is grown in the far south. There are a few cotton, linen, and woollen manufactures.

(i) The roughest implements are used—no better than those of the Arabs. Their plough is "a crooked branch with a tenpenny nail tied to the end of it."

(ii) The phylloxërs (a small insect which attacks the vine-roots) has destroyed thousands of vineyards in the north; and tobacco is taking the place of the vine.

8. **Commerce**.—By far the largest export is wine. Other chief exports are cork, copper ore, and onions. Portugal's best customers are Great Britain, Brazil, and France. The chief imports are cotton goods; iron; woollens; and grain.

(i) We buy 1 million's worth of wine a year from Portugal.

(ii) We send them $\frac{1}{2}$ a million's worth of cotton goods a year.

9. Population and Populousness.—The population of Portugal amounts to nearly 5 millions. The most populous province is Minho.

Belgium is four times more densely peopled than Portugal.

10. Towns.—There are in Portugal only two towns with a population of more than 100,000. These are Lisbon and Oporto. There are only six more towns which have a population above 10,000, two of them near 20,000. These two are Braga and Funchal (in Madeira).

(1) The Capital. Lisbon or (Lisbon the Proud) is one of the most magnificent towns in the world. For situation and also for splendour it vies with Constantinople, Palermo, Naples, or Genoa. It extends four miles along the Tagus,—with its suburbs—nine miles; and inland, about three miles. Like Rome, it is built on seven hills. Seen from the blue waters of the Tagus, the city presents to us dazzling white masses of houses, hills crowned by castle, palace, cloister, and cathedral. But, while the exterior is a superb scene of splendour and grandeur, most of the interior is full of mean, dirty, steep, narrow, and ill-paved streets. The earthquake of 1755 destroyed nearly 4000 houses and 60,000 people. The population is about 250,000, (=that of Bristol). Near Lisbon is Cintra, a lovely summer retreat. Behind Cintra is a hilly plateau, along which Wellington drew, in 1810, the lines of Torree Vedra, and thus saved Lisbon from the French.

(ii) Operto (=O Porto, The Harbour), on the Douro, is the second city in Portugal for commerce, the first in manufactures. The city rises from the river like a double

PORTUGAL

amphitheatre; and the upper parts are reached by stairs. It is the headquarters of the trade in port. Its population is 106,000, and it is about the size of Preston.

(iii) Brags (19) was the former capital of Portugal.

(iv) Funchal (19), the capital of Madeira, was once much resorted to for its temperate climate. There is a difference of only 10° between winter and summer.

(v) Coimbra (14) is the most populous town between Oporto and Lisbon, and the rainlest place in Europe. As much as 192 inches fall in a year. The rain-charged clouds come up from the Atlantic in battalions, are blown up the valley, massed against the sides of the mountains, and driven into higher and colder regions of the air, from whence the rain falls in bucketfuls on the lower grounds.

11. Railways, Telegraphs, and Letters.—Portugal possesses over 1000 miles of railway; about 300 more are building. There are more than 3000 miles of telegraph.—There are now good highroads between the large towns.

12. Political Divisions.—Portugal is divided into eight provinces, with which we need not make ourselves acquainted. Lisbon is in Estremadura; and Oporto is in Minho.

13. Character and Social Condition.—The Portuguese are a mixture of northern and southern races, with some trace of Arab, Berber, and Negro blood in their veins. The country people are kind, courteous, and gentle. They are fond of dance and song; and they hate Spaniards. The men are generally squat, short, and fat; the women have brilliant eyes, fine hair, lively features, and kindly ways. All are good-tempered, obliging, and polished in their manner. The peasants are hardworking and thrifty.

"The Portuguese is a gambler, but never quarrels; he is fond of bull-fights, but takes care to wrap up the bulls' horns in cork; and he is exceedingly kind to domestic animals."—RácLUS.

14. Government.—Portugal, like Spain, is a constitutional monarchy. There are two Chambers—the House of Peers and the House of Deputies.

(i) The standing Army numbers only 18,000 men; but it can be raised in time of war to 120,000.

(ii) The Navy consists of 32 steamers, of which one is an iron-clad.

15. Beligion and Education.—The Roman Catholic is the State religion; but all other forms of worship are tolerated.

(i) 82 per cent. of the people can neither read nor write.

(ii) Over-against this must be set the facts that the Portuguese can discuss a subject without quarrelling; and that they can make verses and songs with ease, in reply to each other, on the spot.

16. Language.—The Portuguese language is very like the Spanish : the difference lies chiefly in the vowel sounds.

Portuguese Douro, Spanish Duero ; P. Dom, Sp. Don ; P. bom (good), Sp. bueno.

17. Colonial Possessions.—Portugal has possessions in Africa and Asia. The following are the chief :—

(i) Africa: Cape Verde Islands; Angola (with a population of two millions); Mozambique; and Congo Districts.

- (ii) Asia: Goa (in India); Timor (in the Indian Archipelago); Macao (in China).
 - (g) The Cape Verde Islands are the most important, politically and commercially. They lie on the direct course of the steamers to Brazil.
 - (b) Slavery was abolished in the Portuguese Colonies only in 1878.
 - (c) The Empire of Brazil, once a part of Portugal, was recognized as independent in 1825. It now surpasses the mother country in population and wealth.

18. Historical Bemarks.—The fifteenth and sixteenth centuries were the period of Portugal's greatest maritime enterprise. Vasco da Gama doubled the Cape of Good Hope in 1497; and Magellan went through the Straits of Magellan in 1520.



ASIA

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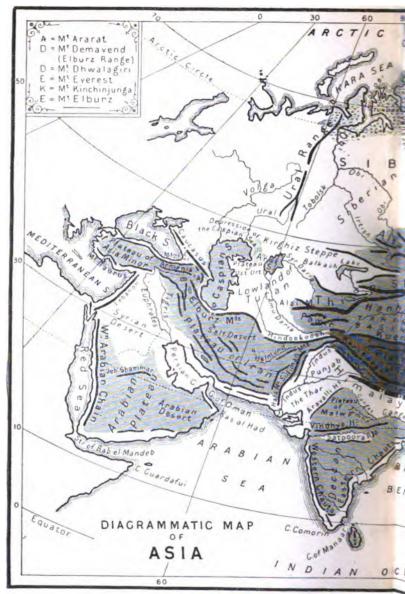
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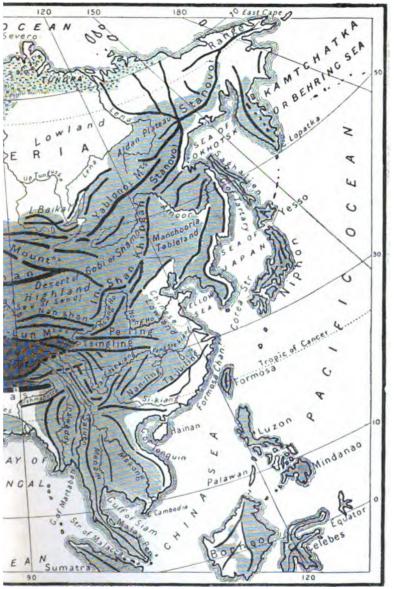
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w Geography



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1. Introductory.—Asia is the largest and also the most elevated of all the continents on the globe. It is, moreover, that continent which stands in nearest relation with all the others; for Europe and Africa are joined to it, while it approaches within a few miles of North America. It contains within itself the highest heights and the deepest depressions on our planet. It possesses the greatest variety of climates and productions; stretches beyond the Arctic Circle, and nearly touches the Equator; contains the pole of maximum cold and the intensest heat; contains the most densely peopled countries; the most various kinds of languages. The part of Asia which belongs to us is by far the most populous part of the British Empire; our Queen is more of an Asiatic than a European Power, and rules over more subjects in India than in all the other parts of her Empire taken together.

2. Asia and Europe : A Comparison.—The eastern and the western parts of the great continent of Eurasia (=Europe+Asia) are in many important respects strikingly alike. These points of likeness are :—

EUROPE	ASIA		
1. Contains many and large peninsulas.	1. Contains many very large peninsulas.		
2. The most important peninsulas run to the south.	2. The largest peninsulas run to the south.		
(i) Spain corres (ii) Italy (iii) The Balkan Peningula, (iv) Scandinavia	, Further India. Kamtabatha		
8. Has a large archipelago to the south- east.	 Has a large archipelago to the south-east. 		
	esponds to Ceylon. spond to The Sandas and Philippines.		
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EUROPE

- 4. Has her highlands and table-lands in the south.
- 5. Her rivers flow to all points of the compass.
 - (i) The Rhine, Rhone, and Danube rise near each other.
 - (ii) The Danube is the highway for Eastern Europe.

ABIA

- 4. Has her highest table-lands in the south
- 5. Her rivers flow to all points of the compass.
- (i) The Indus, Ganges, and Brahmapoetra rise near each other.
- (ii) The Yang-tse-kiang is the highway for Eastern China.

3. Asia and Europe: A Contrast.—There are also striking points of unlikeness between Asia and Europe :—

EUROPE.

- 1. Europe is the smallest of the five continents.
- 2. Europe is the continent of varied features.
- 8. Europe has a small trunk. Its peninsulas fill one-third of its area.
- Europe has a very long coast-line. It is three times as long as that of Asia in proportion to its size.
- 5. The mountains of Europe belong to the second class in height.
- 6. Europe has no twin-rivers.
- 7. Europe only shares with Asia a continental basin.
- 8. Europe has, on the whole, a marine climate.
- 9. Europe is easily accessible in all its parts from north to south.

ASIA.

- 1. Asia is the largest. It is five times as large as Europe.
- 2. Asia is the continent of the vastest and most monotonous plateaus.
- Asia has a very large trunk. Its peninsulas fill only one-fifth of its area.
- 4. Asia has, proportionately, a short coast-line.
- 5. The mountains of Asia are the highest in the world.
- 6. Asia has several pairs of twin-rivers.
- 7. Asia has the largest continental basin on the earth's surface.
- 8. Asia has, almost everywhere, a continental climate.
- Asia is accessible only from east to west. The table-lands bar communication between north and south.

4. Boundaries.—Asia has three mighty oceans on three sides of it the Pacific, the Indian, and the Arctic Oceans. On the west, the boundary runs in an irregular line from the Red Sea to the Kara Sea.

- (i) The Suez Canal separates Asia from Africa.
- (ii) The Black Ses, the Caucasus, and the Caspian form the European boundaries.

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(iii) The Ural River is a boundary on the west; but the Ural Mountains are not even "an administrative frontier," for the Russian maps make Europe begin to the east of these mountains.

5. Shape and Size.—Asia is a vast quadrangular mass, with its four corners facing the four points of the compass. It is 5990 miles long from west to east, and 5350 miles broad, from north to south. The total area amounts to 17,500,000 square miles, one-third of all the land on the globe; and more than the two Americas taken together.

(i) The length is measured from Cape Baba, in Asia Minor, to East Cape, in Behring Strait.

(ii) The breadth is measured from Cape Chelynskin in the Arctic Ocean, to Cape Romania at the south end of Malacca.

(iii) The largest land-line that can be drawn in Asia is 6770 miles long, and runs from the Isthmus of Sues to East Cape.

6. Coast Line.—While Africa is a huge trunk without limbs, Asia throws out large offshoots on two of its sides. The gulfs, too, which penetrate it have the greater value for commerce that great rivers flow into them, and thus form a kind of continuation of these gulfs into the heart of the land. The coast-line of Asia measures 51,000 miles in length. This gives 1 mile of coast to every 337 square miles of area. In spite of the magnitude of its peninsulas, Asia has a shorter comparative coast-line than all the other continents with the exception of Africa.

(i) Europe has 1 mile of coast to every 190 square miles of surface.

(ii) The peninsulas of Asia occupy 19 per cent. of its whole surface; those of Europe 33 per cent.

(iii) Nearly one-fifth of the coast-line of Asia is useless for commerce, that part, namely, which lies on the Arctic Ocean.

7. The South Coast.—The peninsular character of Asia shows itself strongest in the south. Three immense offsets carry the land of Asia into tropical latitudes; and three large sea-inlets from the south break into her southern shores. The three great southern peninsulas are Arabia, India, and Further India; the three immense gulfs are the Bay of Bengal, the Arabian Sea, and the Persian Gulf.

(i) Arabia resembles Spain, not only in position, but in character. Both are elevated plateaus, both rectangular in shape and monotonous in outline. The most easterly point of Arabia is Ras-el-Had.

(ii) India is like Italy in position, and also as regards the fact that both have a large island on the south. The most southerly point of India is Cape Comorin.

(iii) Farther India is like the Balkan Peninsula in position, in the facts that both are peninsulas of peninsulas, and that both have large archipelagoes to east and south-east of them. The most southerly point of the Malay Peninsula is Cape Romania, only 1° from the Equator.

(iv) The two great peninsulas of India and Further India, with the neighbouring archipelagoes, are "unequalled in the richness of their vegetation, the splendour of flower and foliage, and the beauty of their animal species."

(v) The Bod Sea is an arm of the Indian Ocean. In the north it divides into the Gulfs of Suss and Akaba, between which stands the Sinai Peninsula.

8. The East Coast.—On the east the peninsular character of Asia is much weaker. But the Pacific Coast has three prominent peninsulas, three immense convexities, and three festoons of islands enclosing inland seas. The peninsulas are those of Tchuktchi, Kamtchatka, and Corea. The convexities are those of Eastern Siberia, China, and Cochin-China. The festoons of islands are the Kurile Isles—which enclose the Sea of Okhotsk; the Japan Islands—which enclose the Sea of Japan and the Yellow Sea; and the Philippines—which enclose the China Sea. These island-festoons show a remarkable parallelism with the neighbouring coasts.

(i) The Aleutian Isles also enclose the Kamtehatka or Behring Sea. These islands and the peninsula of Kamtehatka are highly volcanic. The southern end is called Cape Lopatka.

(ii) The end of the Tchuktchi Peninsula is East Cape.

(iii) The Sea of Okhetsk is infested by fogs; and the periods of freedom from them in the year are counted only by weeks.

(iv) The Yellow Sea contains within itself the Gulf of Pe-chi-li.

(v) The China Sea contains the Gulfs of Tonquin and Siam.

9. The West Coast.—The western shores of Asia are washed by the Mediterranean, the Black Sea, and the Caspian. The great peninsula here is Asia Minor, which occupies the same position relatively to Asia, that Brittany does to Europe. There are no great reentrant gulfs; and only one island—Cyprus—represents the insular development of Asia in the west.

(i) The most westerly point is Cape Baba, near the island of Mytilene.

(ii) The numerous islands between Asia Minor and Greece-the Sporades and Cyclades-may be regarded as bridges for commerce and civilisation.

10. The North Coast.—The Arctic Coast is the most monotonous and the least developed of all. Sloping away from the sun, and facing a frozen ocean, it has no commerce, and is hardly visited even by travellers. The only peninsula is the **Taimyr**, and the only gulf of importance the **Gulf of Obl**.

(i) The end of the Taimyr Peninsula is Cape Chelyaskin (North-East Cape).

(ii) The fiord-like Gulf of Obi is nearly 500 miles long.

11. Straits and Isthmuses.—The Straits of Asia are all, with few exceptions, important links in the great chain of water-highways of the world. At Behring Strait, Asia draws close to North America; at Bab-el-Mandeb, to Africa; at the Dardanelles and Bosphorus, to Europe. The Strait of Malacca forms one entrance to the China Sea; the Sunda Strait, another.

(i) The Strait of Ormus forms the entrance to the Persian Gulf, after sailing through the Suif of Oman.

(ii) We pass through the Suif of Aden, before coming to the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb.

Bab-el-Mandeb means "Gate of Tears." Bosphorus means "Ox-ferry."

(iii) The isthmus which joins the Malay Peninsula to the mainland, is called the **lethmus of Krah.** It is about 83 miles wide.

12. The Islands of Asia.—The Islands of Asia are both large and numerous, especially on the south-east. There we find the grandest group of islands in the world. All the islands of Asia cover more than a million square miles—that is, about 6 per cent. of the whole surface of the continent. They belong to four distinct classes different in character as in position—(i) the Islands of the Arctic Ocean; (ii) those in the Pacific; (iii) those in the Indian Ocean; and (iv) the Islands in the Mediterranean.

(i) The only islands in the Arctic Ocean are the uninhabited groups of New Siberia (Liakhov) and Bear Islands—both "lost amid ice-fields." The former are noted for the quantities of fossil ivory found in them. Indeed, the whole north of Siberia is remarkable for the remains of the extinct mammoth (a kind of elephant) and the rhinoceros.

(ii) The Pacific Islands are on the grandest scale and of the most varied character.
(a) The Kurile Archipelage—called by the Japanese, "The Thousand Islands,"—is a chain of partially submerged mountains, all volcanic. There are more than fifty active volcances in the group. (b) The Saghalien belongs to Russia, and is rich in coal. (c) The Japanese Islands stand in the same relation to Asia, that Great Britain and Ireland do

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to Burope. Niphon is the "Great Britain of the East." (d) The Leo-case (or Liu-kiu) Islands, represent the remains of a highland region by which Japan was connected with the mainland. (e) Formesa (= "The Beautiful"), an island belonging to China, is noted for its high mountains and its rich flora. (f) Hainan, which protects the Gulf of Tonquin, belongs to China, and is rich in minerals. (g) The Philippines and Sunda Liulands close in the China See ; and Borneo is the second largest island in the world.

(iii) The Islands in the Indian Ocean are: (a) Geylon, which stands in the same relation to India, that Sicily does to Italy; (b) the Andamans and Micobars, in the Bay of Bengal. The Andamans are a volcanic group. They have been selected as a penal settlement for Indian convicts. (c) The Laccadives and Maldives are coral atolls.

(iv) The Mediterranean Islands comprise: (a) Oyprus, in the Levant, which belongs to Turkey, but is "protected" by Great Britain. It, like Ceylon, is one of the ancient centres of civilisation. (b) **Bhodes, Kes, Samos**, and **Mytilene**, are also said to belong to Asia. They form part of the Sporades.

13. The Build of Asta.—The build of this continent presents us with the most striking contrasts. We find here the greatest heights and the most deep-sunk depressions in the world; the most elevated table-lands, and the lowest plains. All vertical forms are to be seen here: Table-land, Steppe, Lowlands—even below the sea-level; isolated ranges, buttress-ranges, and plateau-ranges of mountains. There are four slopes, to the north, the south, the east, and the west. The "centre of gravity of the continent" is to be found in the mountain-knot formed by the junction of the Himalaya and the Karakorum. From this central knot radiate, like the spokes of a wheel, three vast plains and three vast table-lands.

(i) The highest mountain in Asia, and in the world, is Gaarisankar (="the Radiant"), or Mount Everest, 29,002 ft.

(ii) The deepest depression in the world is the valley of the Dead Sea, which is 1812ft. below the level of the Mediterranean. The Runn of Outch (in the west of India) is so low that the sea overflows it during the blowing of the south-west monsoon.

(iii) The three plains are the Lowiand of Turan; the Tarim Depression; and the great Indo-Gangetic Valley.

(iv) The three table-lands are the Highland of Pamir ("the Roof of the World"), the Plateau of Thibet, and the Plateau of Iran.

14. The Table-lands.—Asia is the Continent of Table-lands. It contains the highest and the most extensive table-lands on the face of the globe. Two-fifths of its whole area is filled with plateaus. They stretch across the continent in a mighty belt from Asia Minor

and Arabia to the East Cape. They may be divided into two parts : the Plateau of Eastern Asia; and the Plateau of Western Asia.

(i) The immense height and size of its plateaus make Asia the highest continent in the world. The average height above the sea-level is 2885 ft.; that of Africa is 2165; while North America is only 1950 ft.

(ii) Outside the chief plateaus are the isolated table-lands of Arabia and the Deccan.

15. The Eastern Table-land.—This high plateau stretches from the Himalayas to the north-east, a distance of 4500 miles. Its highest part is the <u>Plateau of Thibet</u>—the highest plateau in the world. Its surface has an average height of 18,000 ft., or more than three miles; and many parts of it are more than 4000 ft. above the summit of Mont Blanc. The Plateau of Thibet lies between the <u>Kuen-Lun</u> range on the north, and the <u>Himalayas</u>, which are its buttress-ridge, on the south. North-west of it rises the **Plateau of Pamir**, "the Roof of the World." North of it sinks down the <u>Mongolian Plateau</u>, which also contains the **Desert of Gobi** (or Shamo), itself a plateau, of the height of 4000 ft., while its lowest part is only 2200 ft. above the sea-level.

(i) The great depression of the Desert of Gobi includes the basin of the Tarim, ⁴ called the Han-bai (="Dried-up Sea"), and also the depression of Lake Leb-nor, into which the Tarim flows. This basin belongs to the great continental basin, the waters of which never reach the sea.

(ii) Lob-nor, which is four times as large as the Lake of Geneva, is drying up; and, even in the rainy season, is only a vast marsh, with its deepest part 15 ft.

16. The Western Table-land.—This plateau begins at the Hindoo Koosh and Suliman Mountains, and goes west till it ends in the tableland of Asia Minor. Its chief parts are the Plateau of Iran (to which Afghanistan and Persia belong); the Kurdistan Highlands; the Armenian Highlands; and the Plateau of Asia Minor.

(i) The Iranian Plateau is more than twice the size of France. Its lowest parts are 3500 ft. high. Towards the Caspian it becomes a wide salt-desert. Its northern and southern sides are nearly parallel.

(ii) The Kurdistan Highlands lie between the Eibars Mountains (which is their borderrange towards the Caspian), and the Mesopotamian Plain.

(iii) The Armenian Table-land is a plateau nearly twice the height of the interior of Spain; and it culminates in Mount Ararat, which is about 17,000 ft. high. The great salt-lakes Van and Urumiyah lie at altitudes of more than 5000 ft.

(iv) The Asis Minor Flateau is crossed by chains of lofty mountains (some of the peaks reach 10,000 ft.); and it is edged by the Pontie Mountains on the north, on the Black Ses shore, and by the Taurus Range on the south.

17. The Core of Asia.—The great central table-land of Thibet, with its bow-shaped buttress—the Himalayas, is the core of Asia. This,

the largest mass of rock in the world, "calls" the rain-bearing winds; drives them high up into the colder regions of the sky and thus condenses their immense stores of moisture : throws down the great full-



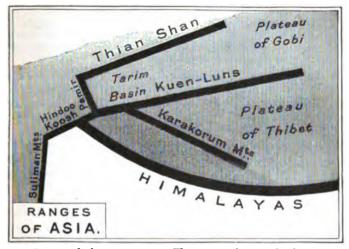
flowing rivers into the plains; and endows these plains with ever new supplies of fertile soil. If we seize firmly on this central fact, we shall quickly begin to understand the "economy" and the "life" of the Continent of Asia.

(i) As soon as the sun crosses the Equator, the Table-land of Thibet begins to be heated up; the air over it becomes warmer and therefore lighter; this air rises; air from other quarters rushes in to supply its place; and the indraught becomes so powerful that the NE. Trades are turned completely round and converted into southwest winds, which are called **Monsoons** (="season winds"). The NE. Trades blow in winter, from November to April; the SW. Monsoons from April to October.

(ii) Not only the great rivers of India, but those of Further India take their rise in this plateau and its continuations.

(iii) "The plateaus of Asia, with the regions enclosed by them, form a continent within a continent, differing in its climate, its flora, fauna, and inhabitants from the surrounding species."-RÉCLUS.

18. The Mountains of Asia.—The Mountains of Asia run, in general, from south-west to north-east. They are remarkable for the number of their parallel ranges. The key to their arrangement is to be found in the central knot formed by the Himalayas and the Karakorum, which is the centre of gravity of the whole continent. From that knot four ranges run to the east ; one to the west ; and one to the south. The four ranges to the east are the Himalayas ; the Karakorum ; the



Kuen-Lun; and the Thian Shan. The one to the west is the Hindoo Koosh; and the range to the south is the Suliman Mountains. Other important ranges are the Altai Mountains; the Khingans; the Mountains of Armenia; Mount Taurus; the Mountains of Lebanon; and the Ghats of India. The last two ranges (with the Sulimans) are the only ranges in Asia that run north and south.

(i) The Himalayas (=" Abode of Snow") are the grandest range in the world. "The highest plateau of the earth is girdled by the highest chain of mountains." Its shape is that of an arc. It is about 1500 miles in length, as far as from London to Constantinople; with a breadth in the west of 180 miles, which increases to 220. The mean elevation is from 17,000 to 19,000 ft. above the line of perpetual snow; and there are forty peaks that rise more than 24,000 ft. above the sea-level. The highest is Gaurisankar (or Mount Everest), which is 29,002 ft. high, nearly double the height of Mont Blane. Other high peaks are Dhawalagiri (26,826 ft.); and Kunchinjinga (28,156 ft.). The Himalayas do not form a single chain, but a number of more or less parallel ridges; and the most southerly one is the scarp of the Thibetan Table-land. The snow-line on the north side is at 18,000 ft.; on the south side it is 3000 ft. lower. This arises from the fact that the heat on the surface of the Plateau of Thibet drives the snow-line up. The higher valleys are filled with immense glaciers, to which those of the Alps are but licicles.

(ii) The Karakorum Mountains form the northern boundary of the Indus Valley. The highest peak is Dapsang (28,000 ft.); but there is a crest, called <u>Godwin-Austen</u>, and marked K², on the Indian Survey Map, which is 28,278 ft. high, and therefore the second highest mountain on the face of the globe.

(iii) The Kuen-Luns (in the Chinese Empire) rise north of the Karakorums, and their parallel ranges separate Thibet from Chinese Turkestan. Though its crests are not so high as those of the Himalayas, this range surpasses them in mean altitude and is, on the whole, the most elevated on the globe.

(iv) The Thian-Shan (="Sky Mountains") separate Turkestan from Eastern or Chinese Turkestan. The highest summit is the "Kaufmann Peak" (22,500 ft.).

(v) The Hindoo Koosh, in the north of Afghanistan, is highest at its eastern end; but most of the range is below the line of perpetual snow. It separates the Indus Valley from that of the Amoo.

(vi) The Salimans form the western boundary of the Valley of the Indus.

(vii) The Altai Mountains (="Gold Mountains") rise on the north-west of the Desert of Gobi. The range culminates in the Bisiuka (="White Mountain") whose twin peaks rise to 11,100 ft., or nearly the height of Mount Maladetta in the Pyrenees. The Yablonci and Stanovci Ranges strike north-east from the Altai.

(viii) The Khingans are a volcanic range, on the eastern edge of the Desert of Gobi.

(ix) The Armenian Mountains culminate in Mount Ararat, nearly 17,000 ft. high,—on which the Ark is said to have rested after the Deluge. It stands on Russian territory.

(x) Mount Taurus forms the southern buttress of the table-land of Asia Minor. Near the head-waters of the Euphrates, one of its peaks attains the height of 10,000 ft.—or nearly the height of Mount Etna.

(xi) The Mountains of Lebanon (in Syria) consist of two parallel chains, the Lebanon and the Anti-Lebanon—the Lebanon (="White Mountain") being the west or coast range. Two peaks in the Lebanon rise above the snow-line, and are over 10,000 ft. high. Mount Hermon, in the Anti-Lebanon, is 11,000 ft. in height, and is the culminating point of the Syrian Highlands. The valley between the two Lebanons is called Ocele-Syria (="Hollow Syria").

(xii) The Western and Eastern Ghats are the buttresses of the Deccan Plateau.

19. The Himalayas and the Alps.—The two highest ranges in Asia and Europe have some features in common ; and also several remarkable points of contrast. These are here set out in a tabular form :—

(i) Comparisons :

- 1. Both are highest in the middle.
- 2. Both have the form of a semicircle.
- Both have their long slope to north; their short and steep slope to the warmer regions of the south.
- 4. Both have numerous Alpine lakes.



(ii) Contrasts :

ALPS.

1. West group of Alps higher than east.

- 2. Points of semicircle to the south.
- 3. Southern slope goes down rapidly.
- 4. Passes numerous and easily crossed.
- 5. The Alps sends its waters both north and south.
- 6. The Alps are everywhere open to winds and sea influences.

HIMALAYAS.

- 1. West of Himalayas, lower.
- 2. Points of semicircle to the north.
- 3. Descends by four terraces.
- Few, vory high, very difficult and dangerous.
- 5. The Himalayas only to the south. Even those rivers which rise to the north of Himalayas (Indus and Brahmapootra) go south.
- The Himalayas contain shut-in valleys, great deserts, and vast solitudes.

20. The Plains of Asia.—The Plains of Asia are all on the outer borders of the continent, the interior being for the most part elevated. The sum-total of all the Asiatic plains amounts to about one-third of the whole continent. They consist almost entirely of the lower part of the great river-valleys. The three in the east and south are very fertile; the three in the west and north generally barren. The largest plain is the Plain of Siberia, which fills about one-seventh of the whole of Asia. The following is a list :—

(i) The Chinese Lowland, on the Pacific, copiously watered and most carefully and skilfully cultivated,-the most populous and fertile region on the face of the globe.

(ii) The Lowland ef Further India, a narrow but very fertile plain stretching from the Bay of Tonquin to the Bay of Siam, facing the great Island-world of the south. It is well watered ; but in some parts marshy, and hence very unhealthy.

(iii) The Lowland of British India (or "Plain of Hindostan"), watered by three great rivers, the Ganges, the Brahmapootra, and the Indus, and bounded by great plateaus. It borders on the Tropical Zone, and possesses the advantages, without any of the drawbacks, of such a situation. It is excellently well cultivated, and thickly peopled.

(iv) The Syrc-Arabian Lowiand, including the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates, and the country on the shores of the Persian Gulf. Much of it is sandy desert.

(v) The Turanian Lowland (the "Plain of Turkestan"), the deep depression in which the Caspian, the Sea of Aral, and Lake Balkhash lie; most of it naked desert.

(vi) The Siberian Plain—about one-half of Siberia—occupying the whole of the basins of the Obi and the Irtish, and a large part of the basins of the Yenisei and Lena. The northern part is occupied by the Tundras—a dismal frozen swamp, without towns or villages, and inhabited only by fur-bearing animals and sea-birds.

(vii) The Plain of Pega, on the Gulf of Martaban.

21. The Deserts of Asia.—The continent of Asia is crossed by a belt of deserts from the south-west to the north-east, much of which is entirely rainless. This belt seems to be a continuation of the Desert of Sahara. The following are the chief divisions of the belt :—

(i) The Syrian Desert, east of the valley of the Jordan. Its water-courses are mere "wadles," its soil sandy, its climate parched.

(ii) The Desert of Mesopotamia, between the Euphrates and the Tigris.

(iii) The Great Arabian Desert, in the south of Arabia. The sand is in some places 600 ft. deep.

(iv) The Great Sait Steppe, in Persia. The shifting sands in the Persian deserts have already absorbed several towns and villages. The desert of Kara Kum lies south, and of Kimi Kum east, of the Sea of Aral.

(v) The Deserts of Makran and Seistan, in the south-west of Afghanistan.

(vi) The Thar-the great sandy desert of Northern India, east of the Indus Basin.

(vii) The Desert of Gobi-a sweep of sandy wastes which stretches continuously across 40° of longitude.

22. The Rivers of Asia.—(i) The Rivers of Asia are the largest in the Old World. The longer streams take their rise in the great central table-land, flow north, east, and south into the Oceans that lave the lands; while there is also a vast Continental Basin, no water from which ever reaches the sea. There are two remarkable features of the river-system of Asia. One is the fact that the rivers flow in all directions from the core of the continent; the other is the presence of pairs of twin-rivers. The first phenomenon is due to three causes: (a) the central position of the Asiatic Table-lands; (b) the extraordinary height of the border-ranges, which even in the warmer regions rise above the line of perpetual snow, and preserve in this way inexhaustible stores of water; and (c) the girdling of the central table-lands with wide plains.

(i) The great rivers of America have larger basins than those of Asia; but they mostly flow in one direction.

(ii) The chief twin-streams are: the Tigris and Euphrates; the Obi and Irtish; the Ganges and Brahmapootra; the Sir and Amoo; the Hoang-ho and Yang-tse-kiang. "Asia is the Home of Twin-streams."

23. The Rivers of Asia.—(ii) Four great streams belong to the north of Asia: the Obi, the Venisei, the Lena, and the Amoor. The first three of these streams are ice-bound or ice-blocked for eight or nine months

in the year. Two belong to the south-east: the **Hoang-ho** and the **Yang-tse-kiang**. Eight belong to the south, and flow into southern seas: (a) the **Mekong**, Saluen, and Irrawaddy in Further India; (b) the **Brahmapootra**, Ganges, and Indus in Hither India; (c) the **Tigris** and Euphrates in Asiatic Turkey. $\angle \cdot$

(i) The Obi (2000 m.), and its chief tributary the Irtish, rise in the Altai Mountains. The Yenisei (3200 m.) rises in the high mountainous regions which border the Plateau of Gobi; some of its water comes from Lake Baikal. The Lena (3000 m.) rises in the Yablonoi Mountains. The Amoor (3000 m.) draws its waters partly from the Yablonois and partly from the Eastern slopes of the Khingan Range. The first three of these rivers are almost entirely useless for commerce, for several reasons: (a) they have their heads turned the wrong way and flow into a frozen ocean. All great commercial rivers either flow along a parallel of latitude, or, like the Mississippi, from a cold into a warm climate. (b) Their upper course is rapid and rough; their middle course is through primeval forest; their lower course is stopped by ice for nine months in the year, and the water from the lower and warmer latitudes overflows and forms marehes. But the tributaries of these great rivers—which flow east and west—in Middle Siberia, give great facilities for local traffic.

(ii) The Hoang-ho (2000 m.) or "Yellow River," and the Yang-tse-kiang (3200 m.) called by the Chinese "Blue River," rise not very far from each other in the eastern part of the Plateau of Thibet, and fall into the Yellow Ses after draining and irrigating almost the whole of China. Up to 1858, the Hoang-ho flowed into the Yellow Sea south of the Peninsula of Shantung; since then, it has emptied itself into the Gulf of Pe-chi-li. (The Mekong also rises near the head-waters of both these rivers.)

(iii) The Mekong (1600 m.) said to have the largest volume of any river in Asia, rises in the mountains of Yunnan, and drains the kingdoms of Siam and Cambodia; and Cochin-China. The Saluen (750 m.) and Irrawaddy (1200 m.) fall into the Gulf of Martaban, and have between them the rich Plain of Pegu. All these three are parallel streams.

(iv) The Brahmapootra (1800 m.)—"Son of Brahma"—called in its upper course the Sau-po (= "Holy Water") rises on the north side of the Himalaya Range. The Ganges (1500 m.) rises on the south side of the Himalayas, and flows through the great Plain of Hindostan. The united Ganges-Brahmapootra Delta is the largest in the world. The Indus (1800 m.) rises in the Plateau of Thibet, flows westward between the Karakorum and the Himalaya, and falls into the Arabian Sea. But most of its tributaries rise in the southern slopes of the Himalayas. These three streams rise near each other; and in this respect they may be compared with the Danube, Rhine, and Rhone.

(v) The Tigris (1100 m.) and Euphrates (1700 m.) rise in the Highlands of Armenia, enclose the vast region called Mesopotamia (= Mid-riverland), and join to form one river, the Shat-ei-Arab (100 m.), which flews into the Persian Gulf.

(vi) Comparative Lengths of Rivers.-Let the Thames, which is 215 m. long, be=2 in. : then we have-

- (a) **Thames** —— ;

(c) Ganges ----- 1; in.

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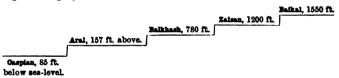
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24. The Continental Basin.—Every one of the six continents, with the exception of Europe, possesses an inland basin, the waters of which do not reach the ocean. But the Continental Basin of Asia is by far the largest in the world. If we measure the Turkestan Depression alone, which lies to the west of the Desert of Gobi, and which is watered only by the Tarim, we shall find that it covers an area as large as France, Spain, Germany, and England put together. But, if we measure the whole Continental Basin of Eurasia, the lowest part of which is the Caspian Sea, we shall find it cover 4,000,000 square miles—that is, 300,000 square miles larger than Europe.

(i) The Tarim (1700 m.) flows into Lob-nor (Lake Lob), which is becoming more and more of a marsh. In fact, the whole of this part of Asia is steadily drying up.

(ii) The Caspian and Aral Seas are fragments of an immense Mediterranean which at one time stretched from the Black Sea to the Arctic Ocean. Into the latter flow the twin streams of Bir and Amoo, which, like the Hoang-ho, have changed their courses.

25. The Lakes of Asia.—As regards lakes, Asia in its poverty presents a striking contrast to the wealth of inland waters which we find in North America and Africa. Most of the Asiatic Lakes are found on the north of the central table-land; and it is worthy of note that, as we go east they rise in elevation, and seem each to stand on a step of a mighty continental staircase. Thus :—



It will be observed that Lake Aral is about twice the height above the sea-level that the Caspian is below it, and that Balkal is at an elevation twice that of Balkhash.

There are many large lakes on the Plateau of Thibet, the best known being **Tengri-nor**. Smaller lakes are dotted over the surface of the other plateaus—the Deccan, Armenia, and Asia Minor. The largest lake in the Turkestan Depression is **Lob-nor**. On the great eastern rivers are many lakes, which can only be regarded as expansions of parts of the rivers.

- (i) The Dead Sea is lower still-its surface is 1312 ft. below the sea-level.
- (ii) The two largest lakes in Armenia are Urumiyah and Van, both of which are salt.



(iii) The following is a tabular view of the chief Lakes of Asia :--

1. Aral, in Turkestan.	7. Tun-ting, on the Yang-tse-kiang.
2. Baikal, in Siberia.	8. Po-yang, ,, ,,
3. Balkhash, ,,	9. Urumiyah, in Persian Armenia.
4. Zaisan, in Mongolia.	10. Van, in Turkish Armenia.
5. Lob-mor, ",	11. Dead Sea, in Syria.
6. Tengri-nor, in Thibet.	12. Sea of Galilee, in Syria.

(iv) Lake Baikal is the largest fresh-water lake in the Old World.

26. The Climate of Asia.—Asia has many climates; for it not only stretches from the Equator to within 12° of the North Pole, it rises from 85 ft. below the level of the sea to 29,002 ft. above it. Hence it possesses every variety of latitude and every variety of altitude. It has climates which are very hot and very dry; very hot and very moist; and it also has within it the pole of maximum cold, where the winter temperature is 85° below zero.—The temperature of the whole continent must be considered from three points of view: (a) going from south to north, when we find it grow always colder; (b) from west to east, when we find it grow more extreme,—intensely hot in summer, bitterly cold in winter; (c) from the lowest land to the highest—from tropical vegetation to the death and barrenness of the snow-line. From all these points of view we shall find that Asia is the Continent of Climatic Contrasts—the Continent of Extremes.

(i) Cape Romania is within 1° of the Equator.

(ii) Three-fourths of Asia lies in the Temperate Zone; but the word *temperate* gains a set of very remarkable meanings from the fact that much of the land within the Temperate Zone is at heights of from 2000 ft. to 18,000 ft. above the sea-level.

(iii) The Pole of Cold is near Verkhoyansk, in 67 N. lat. The average temperature for the whole year is 30° below freezing-point; and every wind that blows to it brings a warmer temperature than its own.

(iv) The contrasts are sharpest in the high table-lands. The summer suddenly succeeds winter, without gradation.

(v) The increase in extreme cold and extreme heat as we go from west to east is due chiefly to the fact, that we get further and further away from sea-influences. Hence we find more and more of a continental climate. This is the case in Europe also. Contrast the climate of Moscow with that of Edinburgh.

(vi) The contrasts of different altitudes is best seen in the difference between the Lowlands of Northern India and the Table-lands of Thibet. In the one, tropical heats, tropical moisture, tropical vegetation, teeming plains, densely peopled cities: in the other, arctic winters, bleak steppes, stunted vegetable growths, and hardly a human being. Such a contrast cannot be found elsewhere in all the world, except in regions separated by 50° of latitude.

27. The Bainfall of Asia.—The contrasts in the rainfall of Asia are as great as in the temperature. The driest and the wettest regions on the face of the globe are found here. In the Karakum Desert, north of the Sea of Aral, whole years pass without rain; in the Highlands of Assam, 50 inches of rain will fall in a month. The southern slopes of India and Further India receive more than half the whole rainfall of the continent.

(i) In the year 1858 it rained only four hours in the Karakum Desert.

(ii) Chirrapeenje, in the Khasia Mountains, at the head of the Bay of Bengal, is the rainiest spot in the world. The annual rainfall amounts to about 610 inches.

(iii) The South-West Monsoon brings most rain. The ocean is a "seething caldron;" the monsoons carry millions of tons of moisture; they discharge them on the Himalayas and the Western Ghats in deluges. Some Indian valleys receive in one downpour more rain than falls in some parts of England in a whole year.

28. The Four Climatic Regions.—There are in Asia four clearly marked climatic regions. (i) The Eastern Region of Higher Asia, the characteristics of which are drought and cold. (ii) The Southern and South-Eastern Region of Lower Asia, the characteristics of which are great heat and much moisture. (iii) The Table-land Region of Western Asia, which has a very dry and almost African climate. (iv) The Northern Region (Siberia), the characteristics of which are great cold and little rain.

(i) The High Eastern Region owes its severe climate to its enormous elevation, to the fact that it is shut off from oceanic influences (rain-carrying winds) by high borderranges, and to the consequent dearth of rain, and lack of rivers and lakes. Winter lasts half the year; and the hot summer "follows hard upon." Only the watered valleys have any useful vegetation.

(ii) The South and East of Asia lie open on both sides to sea-influences, and have an abundance of periodical rains. The South-West Monsoon period is the period of rain for most of India. Along with abundance of rain we have, in most parts, a vertical or nearly vertical sun.

(iii) The dry African climate is found specially on the Plateaus of Iran and Arabia. In fact, much of Arabia may be looked upon as a continuation of the Sahara.

(iv) The Northern Region slopes away from the sun, lies open to the cold north winds that come from a frozen ocean, and is shut off from the south by high mountain walls. A long winter is followed by a short, but very hot, summer, in which the crops ripen with great rapidity—as, in the higher latitudes, the sun is above the horizon for twenty or twenty-two hours out of the twenty-four. 29. The Vegetation of Asia.—The flora of Asia is as various as its climates, and the contrasts are nearly as great. From the dwarfwillows, two or three inches high, of the Tundra region, to the gigantic banyan, under whose branches thousands of people can find shelter, all kinds and sizes of plants and trees are found in Asia. As in the case of the climate, we may distinguish four zones of Vegetation: (i) the High-Eastern; (ii) that of the South and South-East; (iii) that of Western Asia; and (iv) the Northern Zone.

(i) On the high plateaus and steppes, those bushes prosper which have hardly any leaves—like the juniper. During the spring, even the dry deserts are covered with a rich carpet of nutritious grass. If we cross the plateau, and descend on the Pacific slope, we find a very rich flora—walnuts, lime-trees, maples; and, in the virgin prairies of the Amoor, man and horse are easily concealed in the gigantic grasses. Further south, in the Chinese lowlands, rice and cotton are grown.

(ii) In the South and South-East, the richest flora is seen. This extends over India, the peninsula of Further India, and the archipelagoes. The southern slopes of the Himalayas, bathed in the drenching rains of the monscons, are clothed with forests up to the height of 18,000 feet—pine, Scotch fir, yew-trees, the deodar (or Indian cedar), and an immense variety of rhododendrons, some of them 90 feet high. In the lowlands, all kinds of tropical plants thrive—sugar-cane, cotton, opium, indigo; and along the coast, the cocca-nut palm and the banyan. Ferns reach the size of large trees. In the forests, red-cotton trees, india-rubber, and bamboos grow with immense luxuriance. Rice is the chief food-plant of Southern Asia; and millions upon millions in India and China eat nothing else. In Borneo and other islands of the archipelago, the sago-palm, the bread-tree, and the tamarind grow largely and bountifully. All kinds of spices, too—nutmegs, cloves, ginger, cinnamon—grow in the hot and moist atmosphere of the islands. In fact, the archipelago is the_ special region of spices, as it is also of vegetable poisons.

(iii) In Western Asia the flora is like that of the south of Europe. The birch is characteristic of the forests; and the vine, plum, cherry, apricot, and pear, belong originally to this region. Laurels, olive-trees, myrtles, are also found here.

(iv) The Tundra—a region of swamps—where the ground is frozen to a great depth, produces dwarf willows, dwarf birches, lichens and mosses. Further south, however, we find the larch, poplar, birch, pine, and other European trees. Corn grows well in most parts of Siberia; and barley ripens even as far north as Yakutsk. In the spring the meadows of Siberia are dazzlingly bright with peonies, gentians, asters, and other strongly coloured flowers.

30. Asia the Home of Useful Plants.—It is to Asia that Europe is indebted for most of her useful plants. To her we owe most of our grains; most of our kitchen-vegetables; and the best of our fruits. Several of our most valuable forest-trees come from Asia,

(i) Wheat, barley, cats, and millet come from Western Asia.

(ii) Onions, peas, beans, spinach, radishes, etc. come from Western Asia.

(iii) The apple, pear, plum, cherry, almond, and mulberry were first cultivated in Asia The raspherry, too, is an Asiatic fruit.

(iv) The pine, larch, birch, poplar, willow, and other trees, come to us from Asia.

31. The Animals of Asia.—Asia is rich in all kinds and varieties of animals. It is richer in mammals than any other continent; and it is especially rich in carnivorous animals. The fur-bearing animals; the ox-tribe, which is very characteristic of Asia; the most colossal, powerful, and savage wild beasts; birds of many kinds; reptiles of the most deadly character—all of these are found in different parts of Asia. The tiger is the most dreaded of all the Asiatic beasts of prey.

(i) Asia possesses 600 species of mammals-that is, one-third of all the species known in the world.

(ii) Siberia is the true habitat of fur-bearing animals; such as the bear (black as well as white), wolf, fox, sable, ermine, marten, otter, beaver, etc. The hare, wild boar, stag, reindeer, and elk, are also found in Siberia.

(iii) The Central Plateau has a fauna of its own. Among others are the wild ancestors of our own domestic animals—the wild horse, wild donkey, and wild camel. The yak, several kinds of antelope and the roebuck, are characteristic of the central table-land. The tiger roams as far north as Lake Zaisan—and even as far as Baikal.

(iv) The tropical fauna of Asia is very rich-richer than that of Africa. It is especially rich in carnivora, which find ready refuge in the thick jungles and the dense foresta-lions of the maneless order, tigers, hyenas, and jackals. Then we have the Indian elephant, the Sumatran rhinoceros, and the buffalo; many varieties of deer, monkeys, and long-armed apes, among which is the orang-outang. Still more rich is the fauna of the Indo-Chinese Peninsula. The reptiles include the python (sometimes 30 feet long, which kills, not by poison, but by compression), and the deadly cobra, or hooded snake; while in the south of the continent the crocodile is universally distributed.

(v) Asia is very rich in song-birds; and Eastern Asia in birds of brilliant and varied plumage. The parrots of India are remarkable for their beauty. The peacock is a native of India; the golden pheasant comes from China; the bird of paradise from Malaya and New Guinea. The birds of India are surpassed in beauty and variety only by those of tropical America. 32. Asia the Home of Domestic Animals.—Europe is also indebted to Asia for all her domestic animals, and for all her domestic poultry except the turkey. Asia's own domestic animals—used as beasts of burden—are the camel, elephant, zebu, horse, and reindeer.

(i) The tarkey is a native of North America, and was introduced into Europe in the 16th century.

(ii) The camel is the "ship of the desert" from the shores of the Red Sea to the furthest eastern edge of the Gobi.

(iii) The elephant is employed both to carry and to draw in all parts of India.

(iv) The setu (one-humped ox) is used as a beast of burden, as well as for draught in the plough or in wagons-

(v) The horse is found in the greatest perfection in Arabia, and in the hot and dry countries of Western Asia.

(vi) The reindeer is used for the saddle as well as for draught in Siberia.

33. Population and Populousness.—Asia gives birth to more than one-half of the human race. Her population is estimated at 840 millions. The most densely peopled part of the continent is in the east—in Japan and China; the most thinly peopled in the north. In fact, a rain-map of Asia would serve also as a population-map; where the rainfall is greatest, the population is densest.

(i) The average population for the whole of Asia is 49 per square mile.

(ii) The densest parts of Japan and China reach 560 per square mile (Belgium —on the opposite side of Eurasia—has 535).

(iii) One-tenth of the whole continent is totally uninhabited.

(iv) In Southern and Eastern Asis more than half of mankind are packed within a space less than one-sixth of the dry land on the globe.

34. Peoples.—The inhabitants of Asia belong mostly to two great races—the Caucasian (or Fair type) and the Mongolian (or Yellow type). The latter are by far the most numerous; for they embrace about seven-tenths of the whole population. The Caucasians number only one-tenth. In addition to these, there are minor races, the most important of which is the Malay.

(i) The Mongolians have a yellow skin, broad flat face, high cheek-bones, black eyes, long lanky black hair, flat noses, no beard, and oblique, deep-sunk eyes. The best-looking specimens are found in Japan. This race speaks a monosyllabic language.

(ii) The Caucasians have a fair complexion, high forehead, aquiline nose, straightset eyes. The noblest-looking specimens are to be found in Georgia in the Caucasus district. All the more civilised peoples of Europe belong to the Caucasian race.

(iii) The Malays have a black or brown skin, projecting forehead, thick flat nose, large mouth, black eyes, soft black thick and curly hair.

35. Beligions.—Asia is the cradle of the four chief religions of the world—the Jewish, Christian, Buddhist, and Mahometan. About 560 millions—nearly one-third of mankind—are Buddhists; nearly 190 millions profess Brahmanism; the Mahometans number 90 millions; and the Christians, 20 millions. The nomadic tribes of Siberia and Central Asia are given to Shamanism.

(i) Buddhism was founded by an Indian Prince, called Sakya Mouni, surnamed Buddha (="the Enlightened"), who lived about 500 B.C.

(ii) Brahmanism is the religion of Brahma, the creator.

(iii) Mahometanism was founded by Mahomet, an Arab, who lived 570-632. The doctrines are found in the sacred books called Alkoran (=the Koran).

(1v) Shamanism is a form of idolatry which recognizes the existence of good and evil powers-deities, demons, etc., which must be sacrificed to and propitiated.

(v) There are some fre-worshippers, called Parsees, in India.

36. The Industries of Asia.—In the far North, we find hunters and fishers. In the central part a nomadic pastoral life prevails. The settled and sedentary occupations are found on the outside edge of the plateaus in the East, South, and West. Taking Asia as a whole, the chief industry in it, as in other parts of the world, is agriculture. Grasing is the industry of the steppes and plateaus of the interior, which supplies European markets with hides, wool, and tallow. Further north, hunting is the industry; and the Siberian peasants as well as the nomad hunters export every year large quantities of rich furs. The spinning and weaving of cotton in ateammills is now common in India. Decorative arts, such as carving, inlaying, embroidering, etc., have come to the highest state of perfection in India, China, Japan, Persia, and Asia Minor; and these countries send us silk, jewellery, carvings, carpets, silver and gold work, specimens of cutlery, and articles of furniture. many of which far surpass in taste and beauty anything that can be produced in Europe.

(i) Rice, millet, wheat, and other grains are grown in the fields of China, Indo-China, and Japan; while in Southern and Western Siberia excellent crops of wheat, barley, and rye are raised.

(ii) In India and Asia Minor much cotton is produced.

(iii) Tea-growing forms the chief industry of Southern China and Assam; and it is also grown in India and Ceylon.

(iv) Coffee is produced in Arabia, India, Ceylon, Java, and other parts of the south.

(v) The sugar-cane is cultivated largely in the south and south-east.

(vi) The silkworm culture is widely spread in China, Japan, India, Turkestan, Persia, and Asia Minor.

(vii) Spices are largely grown in the Great Archipelago.

(viii) Indigo, jute, dyes; opium, quinine, are produced in many parts of the southeast and south.

37. The Commerce of Asta.—The trade between the different parts of Asia is the oldest in the world, and dates back many thousands of years. It has been carried on chiefly by camels and on horseback. But, since the opening up of India, China, and Japan, and the introduction of steam navigation, an immense trade with Great Britain, the west of Europe, and the United States, has come into existence. There is also a very large overland trade with Russia. All the large ports in the south and south-east of Asia are in steam communication with Europe and the United States by means of the Suez Canal.

38. Land-ways and Water-ways.—The land-ways of Asia are chiefly footpaths or tracks; and only in India are there good macadamised roads, made by British engineers. In Siberia there is a well-known track—running east and west—from one end of the continent to the other; but the traveller who tries to go from north to south is stopped or hindered by plateaus and mountains clothed with impenetrable forests, cut into by deep gorges and gullies, and by pathless deserts. In India there are now about 20,000 miles of railway; in 1853 there were only twenty. The Chinese have made up their minds to introduce railways; and this will open up much of their densely peopled country. The Russians are busy laying down railways in Siberia and also in the interior. The water-ways of China form the chief arteries of communication; and the deep and broad streams—connected by canals—give roads for traffic into the very heart of the country. In the northern lowland, the flatness of the plain and the bifurcations of tributaries supply a water-way east and west; and thus a great line of water communication crosses Siberia and joins the Amoor, which is navigable for more than 2000 miles.

Telegraphs connect the east and the west, both in the northern and the southern parts of the continent.

(i) In winter, the Siberian rivers are used as sledge-roads.

(ii) St. Petersburg can telegraph to Vladivestock, on the Sca of Japan. By the wire which crosses Turkestan and Mongolia, it can also send messages to Pekin and Shanghai. London is connected with the large towns of India, with Singapore, Hong-Kong, and Nagasaki in Japan. Odessa can telegraph to Bombay, etc.



INDIA.

1. Introductory .--- India, or Hindustan, is one of the most remarkable countries in the world. It possesses one of the oldest civilisations, and one of the oldest literatures; social traditions of caste and manners which have existed for many thousand years; the most beautiful architecture, the finest decorative work side by side with inferior art in painting and music ; one of the most crowded populations in its fertile plains,-with the most striking contrasts between boundless wealth and poverty even to starvation. It has been for ages the object of envy and the prey of different conquerors ; until, at length, it reposes in peace and comparative prosperity under the rule of QUEEN VICTORIA, EMPRESS OF INDIA. The Empire of India is composed of twelve provinces under direct British rule, and about one hundred and fifty feudatory states, which acknowledge the overlordship of the British crown. Considered from many points of view, India is rather a continent than a country.

(i) The name Hindustan is properly limited to the valleys of the Jumna and the Upper Ganges. India is properly the country of the Indus.

Hindustan-Sign or country of the Hindus; as Afghanistan is-Country of the Afghans, and Beluchistan-Country of the Beluchis.

- (ii) The Indian title of the Queen is Kaiser-i-Hind.
- 2. Boundaries.-India is bounded-
 - 1. W. by the mighty buttress-"the double wall"-of the Himalaya-the grandest range in the world.
 - 2. E. by Burmah and the Bay of Bengal.
 - S. S. by the blue waters of the Indian Ocean, over which the bold headland of Cape Comorin looks out.
 - 4. W. by the mountainous lands of Afghanistan and Beluchistan, with the Arabian Sea.
- (i) "The Himalayas nowhere yield a passage for a modern army."

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3. Extent.—British India fills the enormous area of 1,574,450 square miles—or more than twenty-five times the extent of England and

Wales. Of this area more than a million square miles is ruled directly by Great Britain; more than half a million is under native rulers—who pay tribute to and are under the control of the Empress of India. The shape of India is that of a great triangle —the Himalayan Range forming the base, and Cape Comorin the apex.

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(i) It extends from 8° to 85° N. lat.—from the hottest regions near the Equator to far within the Temperate Zone. The Tropic of Cancer runs south of the Ganges Valley.

(ii) The greatest length and the greatest breadth are both about 1900 miles : and each side of the triangle is also about 1900 miles.

4. Coast Line.—India has a comparatively short coast line of 3600 miles, which gives one mile of coast to each 416 square miles of area. The coast line is, on the whole, regular and undeveloped; has few good harbours; and, in many parts, the heavy and constant surf makes it difficult of approach. The best-known parts are the Orissa, the Golconda, the Coromandel, the Konkan, and the Malabar Coasts.

(i) The coast of Great Britain gives 1 mile to about 35 square miles of area.

(ii) The Orissa Coast lies between the Hooghly and the Godavery. The Golosada Coast lies between the Godavery and the Krishna. The Coromandel Coast lies between the Krishna and Cape Comorin. The Konkan and Malabar Coasts lie between Cape Comorin and Bombay.

(iii) The Bann (= wilderness) of Outch, between Gujerat and Scinde, is a vast saline swampy desert, larger than all Wales. It becomes a salt lake during the south-west monsoon; but, in the dry season, a plain of sand, with such a stench from the bodies of stranded fish that no horse will face it. East of the Runn is the Gulf of Gambay; and these two are joined during the rainy season. The Gulf of Mansar lies between Ceylon and the mainland, and is separated from Falk's Strait by Adam's Bridge.

5. Islands.—The Islands belonging to India are :- Ceylon; the

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Laccadives, and the Maldives on the west coast of British India; and the Andamans and Nicobars, on the west coast of Further India.

(i) Ceylon is described on p. 260.

(ii) The Laccadives are a group of islands of coral formation, among which are 20 atolls, and many islets and reefs, mostly barren, or producing only cocca-nuts. The Maldives or "Thousand Isles" form a chain of coral islets, with 17 atolls, each enclosing a deep lagoon fringed with reefs richly clothed with the cocca-nut palm. The group is governed by a Sultan, who pays tribute to the Government of Ceylon.

(iii) The Andamans are a group of volcanic islands, surrounded by dangerous coral reefs. The harbour of **Fort Blar**, in South Andaman, is the chief penal settlement for India. The Nicobars, to the south-east of the Andamans, are a group of lovely islands with a very rich flora, but poor fauna.

6. The Build of India.—Four highland systems, one vast plain, and one vast plateau make up the relief of India. The highland systems are those of the Himalayas, the Vindhyas, the West and East Ghats; the plain is the plain of the Indus and Ganges Valleys—called the Indo-Gangetic Plain; and the plateau is the Plateau of the Deccan.

(i) The Himalayas have been already described on page 227.

(ii) The Vindhys Range forms the northern scarp of the table-land of the Deccan. Its southern slope, which faces the valley of the Nerbudda, is very steep and looks like the weather-beaten coast of an ancient sea. The Satpurs Range, on the south of the valley, runs parallel with it.

(iii) The Western Ghats run along the Malabar coast of India. The plain between them and the sea is only about 30 to 40 miles wide. From this plain they rise like an immense wall facing the ocean; but their eastern slope is very gradual towards the central table-land. In many parts they rise in magnificent precipices and headlands out of the ocean, and look like colossal "landing stairs" from the sea. The mean height is about 3500 feet; and the culminating point is Mahabaleshwar Peak (4800 ft.). They end in the Nilgherries or "Blue Mountains," the highest peak in which is Dedabetta (8700 ft.). Then comes a broad gap or depression called the Fal Ghat, which seems to have been an old sea-channel; and lastly comes another set of nountains, Cardamum or the Anamalah Mountains, which are the culminating height of India Froper. Anamedi (8800 ft.) is the highest point.

(iv) The Eastern Ghats likewise run parallel with the coast. But they have a much lower mean elevation, are further from the coast, and are broken into fragments by broad valleys and river gorges. They form the eastern scarp of the Deccan. They are highest in the north.

7. Plains.—The great Indo-Gangetic Plain or Plain of Northern India, stretches from the Khasia Hills to the Suliman Mountains, and lies between the Himalayas and the Deccan. It is triangular in shape, and has a total length of 1500 miles—the distance from Paris to Moscow. It is the most densely peopled part of the whole country. Its eastern slope is drained by the Ganges ; its western by the Indus.

(i) The Plain of the Ganges is remarkably fertile and populous; but in the north of it there lies a deep depression, at the foot of the Himalayas, called the Zerai, with rank vegetation, fever-breeding air, and frequented by all kinds of wild beasts.

(ii) The Plain of the Indus contains the fertile Punjab (or "Five-River Land"), the Great Indian Desert (or "Thar"), and the saline desert called the Runn of Outeh.

(iii) About 150 millions of people are fed on these two plains. Two harvests, in some provinces three, are reaped each year.

(iv) The East Coast Plain, at the foot of the Eastern Ghats, is much wider and more fertile than the West Coast Plain.

(v) If India were to subside about 600 feet, the Deccan would appear as a large island; and the Indo-Gangetic Plain would be a broad channel connecting the Arabian Sea with the Bay of Bengal, and washing the feet of the Himalayas.

8. Table-lands.—In addition to the great Deccan Plateau, India has the Table-land of Malwa, which is supported between the Aravulli Hills and the Vindhyas.

(i) The Deccan is a triangular plateau with an average elevation of from 2000 to

8000 feet. It has a gentle slope towards the east. It has the Vindhya Range on the north, and the Western and Eastern Ghats as its boundaries on the west and east. It is an upland region of plateaus, mountain ranges, and highlands; and many parts of it are extremely fertile. The "black soil" of the Deccan, called also "cotton soil," is proverbial for its enormous fertility.

(ii) The Malwa Plateau, between the Aravullis and the Vindhyas, is comparatively small, but it is inhabited by a people more vigorous than the ordinary "mild Hindu."



The scale of this map will be understood from the fact that Ceylon is nearly as large as Scotland.

9. Bivers.—India possesses, in proportion to its size, a greater number of streams that flow into the sea, than any other country in Asia. Its rivers fall easily into two systems, which require to be separately studied. These are:—the river-system of the Great Northern Plain; and the river-systems of the Southern Plateau. To

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the former, belong the Indus, the Ganges, and the Brahmapootra, which carry the rain-fall, not only of the southern, but also of the northern slopes of the Himalaya to the sea. To the latter, the Nerbuda, the Taptee on the western slope ; the Mahanuddy, Godavery, Krishna, and Cauvery, on the eastern slope.

(i) The Indus (1800 miles) rises behind the Himalayan Ranges, on the table-land of Thibet itself, and breaks its way through the whole Himalayan system. It receives on its left bank, from the western Himalayas, the waters of the Jackum, Chemab, Eavee, and Sutiaj; and these four great rivers, with the Indus itself, make up the Punjab or "Five Rivers." On its right bank it receives the southern drainage of the Hindoo-Koosh by the river Gabul, at Attock, which is 900 miles from the sea. In its lower course, the Indus receives no affluents at all. Throughout its course, it flows by no important towns; all the large towns in its basin lie in or near the Chemab and its other tributaries. This arises from the shifting character of its banks.

(ii) The Ganges, or the "Holy Ganga" (1500 miles), is the great river of India, Although shorter than the Indus, it has a larger area of drainage; and its basin is immensely more fertile. It flows out of a low arch in a glacier called the "Cow's Mouth," on the southern face of the Himalayas, at the height of 13,000 feet above the level of the sea. It enters the Great Plain at Hardwar; and here it is only 1000 feet above the sea-level. Five-ninths of its water is drawn off to a canal of navigation and irrigation-the largest of its kind in the world-which, after a course of 300 miles, again joins the Ganges at Cawapere. Its chief tributary, the Jumna, joins it at Allahabad (="The Abode of Allah"). The Goomtee, with several other large affluents, falls into it from the Himalayas. It joins, in its lower course, the Brahmapootra ; and the two together form an immense delta, called the Sunderbunds, nearly as large as Ireland, on the outer edge of which new land is constantly building itself out. The Ganges is navigable for large vessels to Chandernagore. The branch on which Calcutta stands, and which the Hindoos regard with even more reverence than the Holy Ganges itself. is called the Hooghly. While the Indus, owing to the shifting of its course, has no important town on its banks, the Ganges has a very large number of large towns, and a countless number of villages on its tributaries large and small. The "Bore" is a tidal wave five to ten feet high, which rushes up the Hooghly with a great roar at the rate of eighteen miles an hour.

- (a) "The navigation of the Lower Ganges and its branches is a wonderful speciacle. Every trader and landowner keeps many vessels; every peasent has his boat, as an English farmer his gig; and every labourer his cance. The river-craft are to be counted by hundreds of thousands. At several points the vessels anchor for months at a time and form floating cities and marts, where a great deal of business of all kinds is done."
- (b) "The work done by the Ganges, as the water-carrier and fartiliser of the densely peopled provinces of Northern India from its source to its mouth, entities it to rank as the foremost river on the sorfhoe of the globe. It has three distinct stages in its life. In its first stage it dashes down the mountain-tides of the Himalaya, cuts out deep guilles in the solid rock, and ploughs up glens and ravines on its resistless way. In the second stage it makes its way peaceably through the plain, receives the mud and drainage of Northern India, and rolls on with an ever-increasing volume of water and silt. Its bed is raised by its own silt; and in its third stage, it splits out into channels like a jet of water suddenly obstructed by the finger. Each of the channels thus formed throws out in turn its own channels to right and left."

(iii) The Brahmapoetra (1800 miles), or "Son of Brahma," is a most mysterious river; and many parts of its course are still unknown. It is called the Sampo in Thibet, the Disong in Assam, and the Brahmapoetra in British India. The Sampo plunges into a ravine, and flows for about 100 miles through a still unexplored region of the Himalayas. It brings down twice as much mud as the Ganges. In the rainy season its lower course is converted into a mighty inland sea, which floods the whole of the Assam lowlands. It has a very large number of tributaries.

(iv) The Nerbada (800 miles) rises in the highlands of the Deccan, and flows between the Vindhyas and the Satpuras, westward into the Arabian Sea. It is too rapid for navigation. When it enters its middle course, it passes through the "Gorge of the Marble Rocks." The stream of clear green-blue waters winds between two glittering walls of snow-white marble carved into pillars and fantastic shapes by the hand of nature, here and there broken and contrasted by a mass of black volcanic rock, which intensifies the dazzling whiteness of the marble walls. Blue sky, blue waters, black basalt, white marble—together make up a most lovely and striking picture. On the ledges of the bare rock countless swarms of bees have built their hives; and here and there the cliffs are crowned with temples wrought with the most delicate art. South of the Satpura flows the Taptee parallel with the Nerbudda, but with only half its length.

(v) The Mahanuddy (520 miles) rises on the eastern slope of the Deccan, and though famous for destructive floods (in 1866 the villages of 11 million of natives were completely submerged), is navigable by boats for about three-fourths of its course. It enters the sea by a large delta which forms the province of Cuttack.

(vi) The Godavery (900 miles) is the largest river in the Deccan. It rises on the east side of the Western Ghats, crosses the whole Deccan, and drains a basin as large as the whole of Great Britain and Ireland. It enters the Bay of Bengal by a mighty delta. In its basin a network of canals amounting to 500 miles has been constructed, both for navigation and for irrigation, by British engineers. The Kriaha (800 miles) also rises in the Western Ghats, and crosses the whole peninsula. It falls into the Bay of Bengal, by a delta, not far from the Godavery; and the overflow of both streams forms Lake Colar-a lagoon-the largest in India, nearly 50 miles in length by 14 miles broad. The rapidity of the Krishna makes it useless for navigation.

(vii) The Convery also rises in the Western Ghats (in the Coorg Territory), crosses the plateau of Mysore, and enters the Bay of Bengal by a large delta. It enters the coast-plain by two magnificent falls, one of which is 460 feet high.

(viii) The deltas of these three rivers are "tracts of inexhaustible fertility," mostly rice-bearing. They have also, within recent years, been traversed by a network of canals; and thus the populations in them are guarded against the risk of famine.

10. Lakes.—The Lakes of India are neither large nor important. There are no great lakes or fresh-water seas such as are seen in Africa or in North America. The largest lakes are either lagoons or expansions of a river-course. The chief lagoons on the east coast are those

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of Chilka and Palicut: Cochin is on the west coast. The lakes formed by rivers are Colair, between the mouths of the Krishna and the Godavery; and Wular on the Jhelum, in the Vale of Cashmere.

(i) The **Cochin Lagoca** or "Back Waters" affords a long line of inland navigation; and most of the local trade between Cochin and Travancore is carried on in this calm natural canal.

(ii) The Colair is more a marsh than a lake; but in the rainy season it becomes a sheet of water about 100 square miles in extent.

(iii) The Deccan Plateau, thousands of years ago, seems to have consisted of a set of lake-valleys or lacustrine basins. The peasants of the Deccan and the Coromandel Coast have restored \$5,000 of these lakes (so that some parts of India look like the Finnish Table-land), and use them as reservoirs for irrigation purposes.

11. Climate.—Four conditions must be carefully kept in view in forming an estimate of the climate of any part of India: the latitude; the altitude (as in the case of the Deccan Plateau); the nearness to a desert—the Desert of Thar in the west; the nearness to the sea. This last condition takes account of the direction of the prevailing winds. In a region which stretches across nearly 30° of latitude from Ceylon to the high summits of the Himalayas—we should expect to find all kinds of climate—from the air of a "furnace-blast" to the intense cold of the high plateaus. And we do find them. These climates may be considered going from north to south, from east to west, and from the table-lands to the low country.

(i) The slopes of the Himalayas have a cool and refreshing air. At Agra, on the Jumna, which receives hot winds from the Thar, the average summer temperature is 94° in the shade. At Utakamund, in the Nilgherries, the height of the situation and the sea-breezes keep the summer temperature down to 60°. The provinces south of the Satpura range are generally cooler than the Indus and Ganges basins, because of their greater elevation.

(ii) The east coast is hotter than the west.

(iii) The high interior of Ceylon possesses a cool and refreshing atmosphere. In the hot season, especially from March to May, the heat on the Deccan is greater than on the coast; but, as it is much drier, it is much less oppressive.

(iv) The rainfall in parts of India is larger than on any other part of the earth's surface. The rainfall which comes with the south-west monsoon is something enormous. On the Malabar coast as much as 480 inches a year has been known; in the caldron-like valley of Assam more than 600 inches.

(v) Up and down the great Indo-Gangetic valley, at different seasons, sweep the monsoons, at right angles to their usual course. Thus moisture brought from the Bay of Bengal may fall as rain on the Western Himalayas.

12. The Seasons of India.—There is no winter in India; there are three seasons; and these are the seasons of heat, rain, and cold. The hot season lasts from the time the sun crosses the Equator till the period when he is vertical over the Tropic of Cancer—that is, from March to June; the wet season, from June to October; and the cool or "cold" season, from October to March.

The rainy season varies with the different parts of India. When the great heat over the Plateau of Thibet has turned the north-east trades into south-west monsoons, the Malabar coast has its rainy season—that is, from April to October. But, when the ordinary north-east trades are blowing,—that is, in winter—they bring rain to the Coromandel coast; and the rainy season of this coast lasts from October to April. As the north-east trades have very little sea to blow over, these winter rains on the east coast are not so heavy.

13. Vegetation .- Most of India lies within the tropics ; but, with many different climates, it has also many different floras. The dripping hills of Assam and the steaming swamps of the Terai give the most luxuriant tropical vegetation ; the dry lands of the Scinde produce a flora like that of Arabia; the elevated lands grow the trees and grains of the Temperate Zone. If we look at the Indian flora from the point of view of altitude, we shall find-from the foot of the Himalayas to the snow-line-the whole gamut of vegetable life, from tropical, through sub-tropical plants, up to the lichens and mosses of arctic climates. The forests on the mountain slopes yield teak and sal-the most valuable of timbers. They were at one time recklessly burned by wandering tribes; but they are now increasing everywhere under the care of the "Indian Forest Department." The various palms, which supply food, drink, clothing, furniture, and building materials to the natives, grow mostly on the low lands of the coast. The useful **bamboo** is found everywhere in the jungle.

The Terai is the malarious depression at the foot of the Himalayas.

(i) Some geographers give four divisions for the flora of India: (a) the Himalayan Slopes; (b) the almost rainless Basin of the Indus; (c) the drenched Assam; (d) the Deccan Peninsula, which is the part of India with the smallest extremes.

(ii) The banyan or Indian fig grows to an enormous size. One of these trees is said to cover four acres of ground, and to be able to give shelter to an army. The deodar (the "Tree of the Gods"), an immense cedar, flourishes on the Himalayan slopes. (iii) In the hotter parts of India, pepper, cinnamon, gum-trees, cotton, indigo, sugar, are largely grown.

(iv) The flora of the Khasia Hills, in Assam, is the richest in India-perhaps in the whole of Asia; and it includes no fewer than 250 species of orchids alone.

(v) The cocces-nut palm and the bamboo supply the natives with almost everything they want—including food, oil, rope, and timber.

14. Animals.—The tiger and leopard; the elephant and rhinoceros; the maneless lion; the hyena, the jackal, and the wolf; bears of different colours; deer of various kinds; the buffalo and the wild ass; and many kinds of monkeys—are all encountered in different parts of India. There are also many kinds of dangerous serpents. Among the domestic animals, the most important are the camel, the zebu or humped ox, the yak, and the goat of Cashmere.

(i) The "Boyal Bengal Tiger" is the "king of beasts" in India. He has preserved his empire in every part of India. He attacks chiefly gazelles, antelopes, wild boars, and often man himself. One "man-eater" is said to have devoured 80 human beings every year. One of these beasts stopped public roads, caused thirteen villages to be deserted, and an area of about 260 square miles to be left untilled.

(ii) The elephant holds his own in the swamps and jungles of Assam and the Terai. The rainceases plunges about in the muddy regions of the Sunderbunds. The leopard (commonly called "panther") is more daring even than the tiger, and also feeds on human flesh. The Hos, nearly extinct, is still found in Kathiawar, Guzerat.

(lii) The most widely spread screpent is the cobra di capelle; and, in some districts, there are about 200 to the square mile. In 1877, a total of 16,777 persons are reported to have been killed by snakes, against 819 by tigers.

(iv) The crocodile and the gavial are found in the Ganges.

(v) There are two kinds of values, both "scavengers," keeping the streets clear of offal; and, from their grave manner, they are known as "philosophers" and "adjutants." (The proper "adjutant bird" is a kind of crane.)

(vi) But the chief plague of India is found in the clouds of locusts, the legions of rats, the hordes of ants, and the hosts of microscopic creatures which prey upon the crops. "Clouds of locusts appear, and leave no traces of green behind them."

15. Minerals.—India is comparatively poor in minerals. It has a good deal of coal, but the coal is poor in quality. It has also a little iron, copper, and tin. The most extensively worked mineral is salt, which the Government keeps in its own hands. Diamonds are found in some districts; and gold in the state of Mysore.

(i) "There are beds of iron-ore and limestone, which hold out the possibility of a new era of enterprise to India in the future."-TEMPLE.

(ii) The salt found in the Punjaub occurs in solid cliffs, of a wonderful purity. The "Salt Range" runs through the district of Jhelum.

16. Industries.—The most important industry in India is agriculture. More than two-thirds of the adult males of India are engaged in this pursuit. The Hindoos have always been skilful weavers; but this, with other native industries, is dying out. The chief grains grown are millet, rice, and wheat; the chief fibres cotton and jute; while optum and indigo, tobacco, tea, coffee, and chinchona, sugarcane, spices, and other plants, are largely grown.

(i) Millet is the cheapest food; rice is the food of the inhabitants of the Ganges Basin, but most of it is grown for export. North of the line of lat. 25° North, millets and wheat are grown, not rice. In the Delta, rice is the staple crop and the universal diet. In a single district—Bangpur—295 separate kinds of rice are known to the peasant. But, "taking India as a whole, the staple food-grain is neither rice nor wheat, but millet, which is probably the most prolific grain in the world."

(ii) Cotton is grown largely in the fertile "Black Lands" or "Cotton Lands" of the Deccan; in the Madras Presidency; and in the North-West Provinces (especially in the Dooab between the Ganges and the Jumna). "Jate is essentially a crop of the Delta, and would exhaust any soil not fertilised by river-floods."

(iii) The cultivation of the poppy for making optum is restricted by the Government to certain parts; and a duty of several millions is annually raised on it.

(iv) Indige is grown throughout the valley of the Ganges from Dacca in Eastern Bengal up to Delhi. "It is the foremost staple grown by European capital."

(v) Two thrives in Assam, where it grows wild; but the management of the plantations has been improving every year for the last twenty years, and Assam now sends enormous quantities to England. Tea is also grown on the hill-ranges that skirt the plains of the north-east. Coffee is cultivated in the south of the Deccan and in Ceylon. The Chinchena tree thrives on the sides of the Nilgherries.

(vi) The cotton, rice, sugar, and tobacco of India are much inferior to those of North America. The maize, wheat, fruit, and vegetables are also inferior to similar growths in Europe. But India surpasses all other countries in indigo, jute, opium, tea, and coffee.

17. Manufactures.—Cotton-spinning and weaving are carried on in the Bombay Presidency; and there are jute factories in Bengal. But the native manufactures of India are, in general, on a small scale;

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and Indian artisans have always been celebrated for the delicacy and beauty of their workmanship—especially in gold, steel, and ivory. But whereas, in the last century, cotton goods were sent from India to England, the process is now reversed.

"The organisation of Hindoo society demands that the necessary arts, such as those of the weaver, the potter, and the smith, should be practised in every village."

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18. Commerce.—The commerce of India is very large; and it has been steadily growing under British rule. The chief trade is done with Great Britain, China, France, Italy, and the United States. The yearly exports amount to nearly $\pounds 90,000,000$; and the imports to more than $\pounds 65,000,000$. The exports of the first class are grain, raw cotton, optum, and seeds; in the second class are hides, jute, tea, indigo, and coffee. The imports of the first class are cotton manufactures (which amount every year to nearly $\pounds 30,000,000$); after these, but a long way after, come, in the second class, metals, hardware, silk, sugar, liquors, machinery, and coals. More than 5000 vessels are engaged in the trade of India.

(i) "Bombay and Calcutta may be called the two centres of collection and distribution, to a degree without a parallel in other countries."

(ii) The two largest imports are cotton goods and treasure-silver and gold. The silver is converted into ornaments; and the gold is hoarded.

(iii) "The India of antiquity was a dealer in curiosities; the India of the East India Company was a retail dealer in luxuries; the India of the Queen is a wholesale producer of staples with an enormous export business."—HUNTER.

19. Cittles.—India possesses sixty cities and towns with more than 50,000 inhabitants. Of these, twenty-three have more than 100,000. The six largest cities are Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Hyderabad, Lucknow, and Bonares.

There are more than a thousand towns which have a population of about 10,000.

(i) **Calcutta** (900), the capital of the Empire of India, the central seat of the British-Government, and the residence of the Governor-General, stands on the Hooghly, which is the largest and most westerly branch of the Ganges Delta. Its splendid buildings have given it the name of the "City of Palaces." The winding waters, the varied foliage, the amphitheatre of magnificent edifices, the forest of masts that look in on the city, all make up a very imposing picture. Calcutta is one of the great ports of Asia. It is also the second largest city in the British Empire.

The longitude of Caloutta is 88° East. When it is 6 r.m. at Calcutta it is noon in London, and 7 A.m. in New York.

(ii) Bombay (300), the capital of the Presidency of Bombay, stands on a small ialand which is connected with the mainland by an artificial causeway. It is the largest and safest harbour in India, and one of the great seaports of the world. It occupies the best position for commerce in the whole of Asis; and, since the opening of the Suez Canal, it has been rapidly surpassing Calcutta in its trade. It has made some of the noblest docks in the world. It was the American war of 1861-65 that made the fortune of Bombay; for it then became the chief cotton mart of the globe. Its streets are thronged with people of every race, tongue, and colour. Among the chief merchants are the Parsees, who are fire-worshippers. (The name is a contraction of Bom Bakia, the Portuguese for "Good Bay." It came to England as part of the dowry of Catherine of Braganza, daughter of the King of Portugal, and wife of Charles II. The East India Company received it from Charles for a rent of £10 a year.)—On the neighbouring islands of Salsette and Elephanta are the remains of wonderful temples hollowed out in the native rock. On the table-land east of Bombay stands the city of **Poesab**, the chief station between Bombay and Madras.

(iii) Madras (420), the capital of the Presidency of Madras, is the third largest town in India, and the third scaport in rank. It stands on—or rather stretches for eight miles along—a surf-beaten shore, exposed for months together to the full fury of the north-cast monsoons. The houses are blindingly white. An artificial harbour and piers have now been built, which enables vessels to come up and discharge their cargoes. The summer capital of the Presidency is Utakamund (7000 ft. above the sca) in the Nilgherries; just as Simla is the summer capital of Bengal.

(iv) Hyderabad (370) is the capital of the Nizam's Dominions, in the Deccan. It is the largest city in the Deccan; and a great railway centre. It is a Moslem rather than a Hindoo city; and the streets are crowded with Arabs, Afghana, and Rohillas. It is naturally and strongly fortified by a belt of desert borderland—on which lies a mighty chaos of granite rocks; and this belt is in some places 18 miles wide. The Nizam has a body-guard of Amazons. Not far from the city stands Gelocads, the former capital of the kingdom. Diamonds used to be polished in Golconda; but the diamond mines were at Karnul.

(v) Lucknow (270) is the capital of the former kingdom of Oude, now in the North-West Provinces. It is a magnificent city, full of palatial structures; but to Englishmen it is most memorable for the stubborn defence by Lawrence in the Mutiny of 1857, and its gallant relief by Havelock. Cawnpore (160) was, in the same war, the scene of a terrible massacre of English women and children.

(vi) Benares (210), on the Ganges, is the "Holy City" of the Hindu Brahmans. It is crowded with palaces and Hindoo temples; and the countiess palaces, temples, towers, mosques, cones, spires, cupolas, minarets, porticoes, sanctuaries, flights of steps to the river—with the altars, shrines, statues, and images set up at the corner of every street—make up the most characteristic scenes in the whole of India. It is the centre of Hindu learning. The interior is a labyrinth of narrow winding streets, where one is jostled and hustled by crowds of pack animals, camels, horses, asses, and sacred bulls, while monkeys chatter from the balconies. The "ghats," or flights of steps to the river, are crowded with pilgrims and fakirs, many of them performing their ablutions in the sacred stream.

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رع 20. Historic Towns.-India has experienced so many vicissitudes, been overrun by so many conquerors, has seen the rise and fall of so many empires and kingdoms, that it is full of places which have left their mark in history and which still retain the memories of past and departed greatness. The most important of these towns are Delhi. Patna, Agra, Amritsar, Lahore, Allahabad, Jeypore, Meerut, Nagpore, Trichinopoly, Peshawur, Dacca, Jubbulpore, Indore, Umballa, Calicut, and surat. Most of these cities stand in the Ganges-Jumna valley ; and no region in the world presents such an array of splendid and famous cities.

(i) Delhi (180), on the Jumna, was for centuries the proud capital of the great Mogul, and the centre of the Moslem world in India. It once covered an area of 20 square miles, and the ruins of different cities all called Delhi cover 46 square miles. Its finest building is the Jama-Masjid, the largest and finest mosque in India. It stands in the true centre of India-that is, where the great historic roads from the basin of the lower Ganges, from the Hindoo Koosh, from the Indus Valley and the Gulf of Cambay, meet and cross. At present it is the chief centre of trade within the triangle formed by Calcutta, Bombay, and Peshawur.

(ii) Patna (175), on the Ganges, is an old Moslem town. But at present it is one of the chief trading centres of India; makes up and exports opium; sells rice; and its warehouses stretch for 12 miles along the banks of the river. Near it is Gaya, the birthplace of Sakya-Mouni (surnamed Buddha, or "the Enlightened"), the founder of Buddhism. Here he sat for five years in the shade of a banyan, absorbed in contemplation. Hence, for Buddhists, Gaya is the "Holy City."

(iii) Arra (165), on the Jumna, is celebrated for the exquisite and indeed perfect beanty of the Taj-Mahal-an edifice erected to the memory of his wife by Shah Jehan at a cost of three millions sterling. Built of pink sandstone and white marble, standing amid the sombre green of cypress-trees, seen in the liquid atmosphere of a moonlight night, it presents a sight that can never be forgotten.

(iv) Amritaar (155), in the Punjab, is the sacred metropolis of the religious sect called Sikhs. Here is the Lake of Immortality and its Golden Temple-one of the most beautiful and elaborate buildings in the world. This city is the entrepôt for goods sent from Calcutta and Bombay to Cashmere and other markets of Central Asia. During the great feasts the city becomes a chromatic frenzy of colour; the streets being hung with shawls, carpets, curtains, and banners of every kind.

(v) Labore (152), on the Ravee, in the richest of the dooabs, is the capital of the Punjab, and the administrative and railway centre of the North-West Provinces.

(vi) Allahabed (150), at the confluence of the Ganges and the Jumna, and midway between Calcutta and Bombay on the Great Indian Peninsular Railway, is now the true commercial centre of the Indian Empire. (The name means "Abode of God.")

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(vii) Jeppere (145), the capital of Jeypore—one of the twenty Native States in "Rajputans,"—on a plateau east of the Thar, calls itself the "Paris of India," and is one of the finest towns between the Indus and the Ganges.

(viii) Meeret (100), in the docab between the Ganges and the Jumna, is celebrated as the town where the Sepoy Mutiny of 1857 broke out.

(ix) Nagpore (100) is the most important town in the Central Provinces. It was one of the chief towns of the old Mahratta Kingdom.

(x) **Trishisopoly** (85), the largest city south of Madras, stands at the head of the Cauvery Delta, the garden of Southern India. It is commanded by a strong fort, perched on a steep granite peak; and bloody were the struggles between the English and French in the last century to keep possession of it.

(xi) Peshawar (80), on the Cabul River, above where it joins the Indus, and opposite the mouth of the Khyber Pass, is the bulwark of the Indian Empire against Afghanistan. "The shadow of Russia is projected towards this point."

(xii) Dasses (80), on a tributary of the Brahmapootra, was once the capital of Bengal, and the centre of the Mahometan world in Eastern India. The ruins of its palaces are scattered over the surrounding jungle.

(xiii) Jubbalpore (76), in the Central Provinces, is the chief town in the valley of the Upper Nerbudda. It stands on the main line of railway between Calcutta and Bombay. It stands near the "marble gorge" of the Nerbudda, and in the middle of some of the finest scenery in India.

(xiv) Indere (76) is the capital of one of the most powerful Native States on the Malwa Plateau. It is the centre of the opium trade.

(xv) Umballs is an important military station. It guards the road between Lahore and Delhi, and is the bulwark of Simls, the summer capital of British India, high among the hills of the Sub-Himalaya.

(xvi) Calicutis the largest city on the Malabar coast. It was the first Indian seaport visited by Vasco da Gama in 1498. It gives its name to *calicoes*, but no longer produces them. It exports the gold ores of Wainad, the coffee of the Nilgherries, and the teak of the Western Ghats.

(xvii) Surat was in the early days of the East India Company the chief trading-place on the west coast. It gives its name to a coarse kind of cotton.

21. Communications.—Up to the middle of the present century, there were in India few roads, and not a single mile of railway. The roads of the country were footpaths or tracks fit only for oxwagons; and, except where there were navigable rivers, all burdens had to be carried on the backs of men or of oxen. At the present time, there are nearly 20,000 miles of railway; 13,000 miles of navigable canal, artificial and natural; and 560,000 miles of postal

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route. There are over 35,000 miles of telegraph lines. Great trunk lines of railway cross the Peninsula, from west to east, at four different parts; and these are again connected by branch lines with all the larger towns. Thus the three great capitals, Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras, are all connected by railways. The highways are magnificently engineered and solidly built, and are noble specimens of skill in their gradients, cuttings, bridges, and embankments. The canals, both for navigation and for irrigation, are splendidly constructed. If, then, we take the water-ways, the railways, and the highroads together, we shall find that the densely peopled parts of India are as well provided with the means of communication as any country in Europe.

(i) The railways of British India give one mile of rail to every 75 square miles of area. The longest railway is from Calcutta to Peahawur, up the Ganges and Indus valleys. The other railways are carried over the Ghats, over the Vindhyas and other ranges, and through the highest passes.

(ii) Of the 560,000 miles of postal routes, only 20,000 are properly constructed highroads. The longest of them runs from Calcutta to Peshawur; and this skilfully engineered and well-kept road of 1500 miles is one of the wonders of the world, as well as one of the triumphs of British military rule.

(iii) All the great deltas, not only of the Ganges-Brahmapootra and Indus, but of the peninsular rivers, are intersected by numerous water-courses; and the lagoons and backwaters along the coast are of the greatest service to navigation. In addition to the navigation canals, those for irrigation are often used by small craft for hundreds of miles. "In the Gangetic Delta the population are half amphibious. Every village can be reached by water in the rainy sesson, and every family keeps its boat."

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22. Population and Populousness.—The population of India amounts to about 290,000,000 souls. Of these, 230,000,000 are in British India; and the rest in Native States, which are, in different ways, more or less under the control of the British Government. The average density of the population is 194 to the square mile.

(i) Great Britain has 800 to the square mile; France has 185, so that India and France have a nearly equal density.

(ii) The highest density is in the Ganges Valley, which has an average of 500 to the square mile. In some parts 984 to the square mile are found—and that, too, in districts which are purely agricultural.

(iii) The highest density in the Deccan is found in Cochin, a native state in the Presidency of Madras, which has 442 to the square mile.

(iv) The plains of the Ganges and Indus support 150 millions ; the remaining 110 millions live in the Deccan.

23. Inhabitants.—"There is scarcely a country in the world which contains a greater diversity of tribes and races in every stage of civilisation, from the cultured European and philosophic Hindu down to the most degraded savages." There are, speaking broadly, two distinct stocks—the Hindu (in the Northern Plains), and the Dravidian (in the Deccan). The Hindus speak Hindustani, or Bengali; the Dravidians either Telugu or Tamil. But more than a hundred different languages are spoken within the boundaries of Indis

About 85 millions of people speak Hindustani ; about 40 millions, Bengali ; about 18 millions, Telugu ; and 13 millions, Tamil.

24. Political Divisions.-The Governor-General of India resides in Calcutta, and is the immediate representative of the British Government, and the Viceroy for the Queen as Empress of India. He rules over all India, and also, directly, over some small districts. Under him are the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal: the chief Commissioner of Assam : the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-West Provinces and Oude: the Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab: the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces (including Nagpore, Jubbulpore, etc.); the Chief Commissioner of Burmah; the Governor of the Presidency of Bombay; and the Governor of the Presidency of Madras. Besides, there are a number of Native States, which are controlled by the British Government; and the most important of these are the Rajputana Agency; the Central Indian Agency; Hyderabad, and Mysore. In the Himalayas there are three states, Bhutan, Nepaul, and Cashmere, which are independent, but pay a small tribute to the British Government.

(i) The map of India is particularly puzzling. The best thing to do is to get hold with the eye of the Native States of Mysore and Eyderabed in the Deccan; and then of the country called **Rajputana**, which lies to the east of the Thar; and refer all other provinces to these.

(ii) The "Agencies" embrace a large number of small states—each with its own native ruler. There are about 150 Native States ; and in each capital resides a British official who is called the "Resident."

(iii) It is the deep-sunk swamp of the Terai-dangerous to cross even on horseback,-that has preserved the independence of Nepaul and Bhutan.

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(iv) The Queen was solemnly proclaimed Empress of India (Kaiser-i-Hind) at Delhi —the capital of the old Mogul Empire—on January 10, 1877. The affairs of the country are really managed by a number of Englishmen, Scotchmen, and Irishmen, who belong to the Civil Service of India; and many of these young men have under their rule districts containing hundreds of thousands of human beings, "without any check but their own consciences in administering laws of extreme severity."

25. Religions.—The chief religion of India is Brahmanism : it is the religion of three-fourths of the people. In the north, there are large numbers of Mahometans—over 50 millions. Buddhism has almost completely disappeared from the Peninsula, but holds its ground in the Himalayan Valleys and in the south of Ceylon. The Christians as yet number under two millions.

(i) Gaste is the chief social feature of Brahmanism. There were originally four castes, the chief being the Brahmans, who are sprung from the head of Brahma himself. But there are now 2500 main divisions of caste; and in Madras alone about 4000 minor distinctions. The two extremes are the Brahmans and the Kanjars. The latter are scavengers; they feed on carrion, dwell in kennels, and may be struck or even killed with impunity. The former are the "heirs of all things." A "scale of distance" has been drawn up; and the Kanjar must keep 100 paces from the Brahman. Before the British rule, death was the penalty for breaking these regulations; for even the shadow of a low-caste man would "pollute" the personage of high-caste. So ingrained is this spirit even now, that a Christian convert "will not eat with the priest by whom he has been converted; and the father closes his door to the son who has travelled abroad, and thereby lost caste."

(ii) Mahometanism is also called Islamism. (Islam means "God's will be done!")

(iii) Nature-worship, such as the worship of serpents and "evil spirits," prevails among many of the wild tribes in the hills. Trees, stones of fantastic shapes, useful plants, noxious plants, wild beasts, tame animals, etc. etc., are all objects of worship.

26. British Provinces.—The following is a tabular view of the chief territorial divisions in India under the direct rule of Great Britain :—

BRITISH PROVINCES.

PROVINCES.	POSITION.	CHIEF TOWNS.
1. Bengal The Basin of the Lower Gar with its delta.		Galouttia, Patna, Murshedabad, Dacca.
2. North West Pro- vinces and Oude Upper Ganges and Jumna Basin		Allahabad, Benares, Cawnpore, Agra, Meerut, Lucknow.
8. Punjab	The Basin of the Five Tributaries of the Indus; and also Delhi.	Lahore, Delhi, Mooltan, Peshawur, Simla.

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PROVINCES.	POBITION.	CHIEF TOWNS.	
4. Central Provinces	Northern part of Deccan, between the Nerbudda and the Godavery.	Nagpore, Jubbulpore.	
5. Assame	East of Bengal, the Valley of the Lower Brahmapootra.	Gachati.	
6. Bombay	Western District of India, from Beloochistan to Mysore.	Bombay, Surat, Poonah, Kurrachee, Hyderabad.	
7. Madras	From Lake Chilks to Cape Comorin, and partly bounded on the west by Hyderabad and Mysore.	Madras, Masulipatam, Arcot.	
8. British Burmah	Strip on west coast of Further India, to the Isthmus of Krah.	Bangoon, Martaban, Moulmein. _{Coo}	

(i) Bengal or the Lower Provinces is part of the great alluvial plain of the Ganges. It also includes the Delta of the Ganges-Brahmapootra "with its thousand mouths."

(ii) The North-West Provinces (with Oude) comprise the alluvial plains of the Upper Ganges and the Jumna. Oude is one of the most populous parts of the globe. The district between the Ganges and the Jumna is called the Decab.

(iii) The Funjab consists mostly of the basins of the Upper Indus, but also embraces a part of the Ganges Basin. The tracts along the rivers are fertile; but the "dooabs" are often mere wildernesses of scrub and jungle. Only about half the Punjab is under direct British rule; the rest is filled by 34 Native States.

Ab in Punjab and Dooab is the same as as in our Avon, and means water. Punj means fee; and is the same word as our punch - a drink of five ingredients, --the Greek pents, the English fee. Doo is the same word as our two.

(iv) The Central Provinces form an irregular square which embraces the upper courses of the Nerbudda and the Mahanuddy. The Satpura Range runs through them.

(v) Assam Proper is an extensive alluvial plain about 450 miles long and 50 broad, along the Brahmapootra. It includes, also, ranges of hills, the chief of which is the Khasia Range. The rainfall here, owing to the moisture-laden winds from the south being heaped in a narrow valley, is the largest in the world. Chirapocajee has an annual rainfall of 610 inches.

(vi) The Bombay Presidency stretches from the Punjab and Beloochistan southwards to Mysore, for a distance of 1100 miles. It is nearly as large as France. The largest of the Native States in this province are Outch and Baroda, in the country called Gujerat. The country on the Lower Indus is called Scinde.

(vii) The Madras Presidency stretches from the Chilka Lake to Cape Comorin, includes the whole of the Eastern, and a large part of the Western Ghats. It includes the old provinces of the Carnatic, Malabar, etc. It is 1000 miles long; and its area is larger than that of Prussia.

(viii) British Burmah is described on p. 265.

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27 Native States.—The following is a tabular view of the chief Native States which are more or less subject to the authority of Great Britain :—

NATIVE STATES

	NATIVE STATES,	
STATES.	Position.	CHIEF TOWNS.
1. Cashmere	North of the Punjab. In a Himalayan Valley.	Jammu, Srinagar.
2. Rajputana	The general name for 20 States east of the Lower Indus.	Jeypore, Jodpore (capi- tals of two).
 Central India or Indore Agency. 	64 States between Rajputana and the Central Provinces, The largest are Scindia's Dominions and Holkar's Dominions,	Gwallor, Indore.
4. Gujerat •	Between the Gulfs of Cutch and Cambay.	Baroda.
5. Hyderabed or the Ni- zam's Dominions.	Between the Central Pro- vinces and the Presidency of Madras.	Hyderabad, Aurungabad.
6. Mysore	South of the Krishna.	Bengalore, Mysore.
7. Travancore	South-west of Madras Pre- sidency.	Trivandrum.

Repail and **Ehutan** are Independent States in the Himalayas ; but have treaties with the British Government.

(i) Cashnere lies in the basin of the Upper Indus among the Himalayas—"in the grandest alpine region:" it is one of the loveliest spots in the whole world. The Vale of Cashnere is hemmed in on all sides by snow-clad peaks, and is watered by the Jhelum, which forms in its course Lake Woolar and other beautiful lakes. The snowy peaks, the romantic gorges, the calm lakes—which reflect the trees, mountains, and sky—the clear streams with their rapids and waterfalls, the magnificent woods, the meads thickly bespangled with flowers, the absence of wind, and the perpetual spring, all go to make up the ideal of an earthly Eden. The capital is Stringar (150), an "Indian Venice," intersected by canals, which are enlivened by boats gliding in all directions. The houses have gardens on the roof, which are always bright with flowers. Jamma is the official capital.

(ii) **Eajputana** lies in the north-west of India, and is the name of a wide region, in which lie 20 Native States, ruled by Rajahs. Although larger than the United Kingdom, its population is little more than 10,000,000. The Aravulli Range runs through the east of this region, and the Thar Desert lies in the west. The chief British Agent, who regulates all these states, resides at Ajmere—a small territory under the direct rule of the Viceroy. The three largest Rajput States are Jodpore, Oodeppere, and Jeppere.

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(iii) The Central India or Indere Agency lies between Rajputana and the British Central Provinces. It comprises 64 Feudatory States. The largest is Gwaller, which is governed by the Maharajah (="Great Rajah or Emperor") Scindia ; but the British Agent resides at Indore, the capital of the dominions of the Maharajah Holkar. Gwaller is a typical Indian fortress. A sandstone rock about a mile and a half long, whose steep white cliffs rise boldly out of the verdure and the small mud dwellings of the plain, commands the whole country for 60 miles in every direction. This stronghold has been fought for, over and over again, by the different masters of India. It was twice stormed by the British ; and it is now one of the strongest positions in all India.

(iv) Gujerat is a rich alluvial country, which comprises the states of Kathiawar, Outch and Baroda. The sovereign of Baroda is called the Guicewar (or "Cowherd").

(v) Hyderabad (or the Nisam's Dominions) is by far the largest and most important Native State in all India. It lies in the heart of the Deccan and is extremely fertile. From the diamond-fields of the Kistna Valley have come many famous gems, such as the "Kohinoor" (Mountain of Light). The capital is Hyderabad (there is another Hyderabad in Scinde, near the head of the Indus Delta). Not far from Aurungabad stands the little town of Assaye, near which Sir Arthur Wellesley (afterwards the Duke of Wellington) gained a great victory over the Mahrattas in 1803.

(vi) Mysore consists of an extensive table-land a little more than half the size of England. The surface is dotted over with remarkable rocks, called Dreegs (="Inaccessible")—isolated bluffs, formerly marine islands, which look "like hay-cocks scattered over the surface of a meadow." Some of them rise to the height of 1600 feet, and can only be scaled by steps cut in the rock. Many have perennial springs on the top; and are thus impregnable strongholds, framed by Nature.

(vii) Travancere is a state on the south-western coast. Most of it is covered with forest; but the low lands on the coast are very fertile. Round Trivandrum is a vast district which grows about 22,000,000 palm-trees—palmyra, cocca-nut, and others. Beside Travancore is Cochin, another small Native State. The capital is Cochin (="Little Port"). "Here Vasco da Gama died in 1525; here was built the first European church; and here was printed the first book in India."

(viii) Mepaal, the native country of the warlike Ghoorkas, is a narrow mountain-state among the Himalayas. Mhatmandu is the capital, and the key to the chief passes across the Himalayan range. Though independent, Nepaul has to receive a British Resident. Sikkim, a small Feudatory State, lies to the east. Darjoeling is a healthresort of the English, and is the centre of British rule in the Himalayas.

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(ix) Bhutan is another state in the Himalayas, with some of the grandest scenery.

28. Ceylon. The "Pearl of the Eastern Seas"—Ceylon (="the Resplendent")—is a pear-shaped island almost connected with the mainland by Adam's Bridge, a chain of low coral reefs and sandbanks. It is nearly as large as Scotland. The interior is filled with a lofty table-land, from which rise many high peaks. The highest is **Pedro**

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Tallagalla (8260 ft.). The central highlands form a complete waterparting, from which numerous rivers flow in every direction through the broad belts of lowlands round the coast; and thus Ceylon is one of the best-watered countries in the world. The largest river is the Mahavila Ganga. The soil is extremely fertile, even in the highland regions; and the climate is warm—but cooler than in the corresponding latitudes of India. The population is about half that of Scotland. The chief products are coffee, cinnamon, tea, cocoa-nuts, and tobacco. The immense forests yield satin-wood, ebony, etc. Colombo is the capital; Kandy (the old capital) high up among the hills is the summer retreat of the English residents; and Point de Galle was the great port of call for the lines of steamers which ply in the Eastern waters.

(i) Ceylon is not under Indian rule; it is a Crown colony, managed by the Colonial Office in London.

(ii) The people are called Singhalese, and are Buddhists.

(iii) A railway connects Colombo and Kandy. Colombo is now the chief port.

29. The few possessions in India held by Foreign Powers are :- (a) By the French: 1. Pondicherry, a seaport town south of Madras.
2. Mahé, a little port, north of Calicut, on the Malabar Coast.
3. Chandernagore, a small town on the Hooghly, north of Calcutta.

(b) By the Portuguese: 1. Goa, a small well-watered and fertile territory on the west or Malabar coast of India. 2. Damman, a small port, north of Bombay. 3. Diu, a port on a small island in the Gulf of Cambay opposite Damman.

THE SPELLING OF INDIAN NAMES.

The spelling of Indian names has been greatly altered lately, and the old-fashioned spelling is destined to die out. The spelling in the text is that which is most usual; but it is as well to make ourselves acquainted with both forms. In the new spelling, a replaces u; and u the old-fashioned o.

NEW SPELLING.	OLD SPELLING.	NEW SPELLING.	OLD SPELLING.
Panjab.	Punjaub.	Lakhnau.	Lucknow.
Atak.	Attock.	Jaipur.	Jeypore.
Jamna.	Jumns.	Jodhpur.	Jodpore.
Rann of Kachh.	Runn of Cutch.	Maisur.	Meysore.
Banaras.	Benares.	Arkat.	Arcot.
Kanhpur.	Cawnpore.	Karachi.	Kurachee.
Bangulur.	Bangalore.	Haidarabad.	Hyderabad.

INDO-CHINA.

1. Introductory.—Indo-China or Further India is the name given to the mighty "Peninsula of Peninsulas," which lies between the Bay of Bengal and the Chinese Sea—between the Brahmapootra and the Gulf of Tonquin. It lies almost wholly within the Torrid Zone—the Tropic of Cancer running through the north of Burmah. There are four countries in this region—the Empires of Burmah and Annam, the Kingdoms of Siam and Cambodia, in addition to territories which are under the rule of Great Britain and of France.

2. Extent.—The area of this great region is about 873,000 square miles—that is, more than four times the size of France. But the population is estimated at only 36,000,000, which is less than the present population of the French Republic. Of the three Great Monsoon Countries, this has by far the smallest population—a population not to be compared for a moment with the teeming millions of India and of China.

(i) The three Monsoon Countries are India, Indo-China, and China.

(ii) The population of Indo-China gives only 45 to the square mile.

(iii) The sparsity of population in Indo-Chins is due to three causes : (a) the great number of mountains, (b) the density and extent of the forests, and (c) the insecurity of human life.

3. Coast Line.—The sea-board of Indo-China is of a highly varied character; it is diversified by bays, bights, gulfs, islands, and headlands. There are plenty of opportunities for good and commodious harbours; and the length of the coast line is largely increased by the magnificent deltas at the mouths of the great rivers.

(1) The chief openings are the Gulf of Martaban, the immense Gulf of Siam, and the Gulf of Tonguin.

(ii) The chief headlands are **Cape Negrais**, west of the Irrawaddy Delta, and **Cape Romanis**, pointing "like a mighty finger" to the Equator, which it approaches within about one degree. The latter cape is the most southerly point of the whole continent.

(iii) The Straits of Malacca divide the Malay Peninsula from the island of Sumatra-

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4. Build.—By far the largest part of this vast region consists of long ranges of mountains which start from the Plateau of Thibet, run from north to south (at right angles to the Himalayan Range), and enclose long and very narrow parallel valleys, which open out here and there into wide and fertile basins.

5. Mountains.—The mountain ranges of this immense country have been little explored; and, in many instances, not even their names are known. Those best known up to the present time are : the Yoma Mountains; the Patkoi Range; and the Mountains of Siam.

(i) The Yoma Mountains separate Aracan from Burmah Proper. (Yoma is a Burmese word meaning Highland.)

(ii) The Patkoi Range runs between Burmah and Assam.

(iii) The Mountains of Siam run between Siam and the Province of Tenasserim.

6. Plains.—There are in this region three well-marked, great, and very fertile plains: the Plain of Pegu, the Plain of Siam, and the Plain of Tonquin.

(i) The Plain of Pegu includes the vast and very fertile delta of the Irrawaddy.

(ii) The Plain of Siam is the wide lower valley of the Menam.

(iii) The Flain of Tonquin fills almost the whole of the country of Tonquin and embraces the rich delta of the Song-Ka.

7. Rivers.—Five great rivers water this vast peninsula; and three of them take rank with the largest rivers of Asia. These three are: the Irrawaddy; the Saluen; and the Mekong. The two shorter rivers are the Menam and the Song-Ka. \hat{a}_{μ}

(i) The **Drawaddy** (=" Elephant River") rises on the Chinese frontier, is 1200 miles long, and is navigable—to Bhamo—for 900 miles. Its delta is one of the largest and most intricate in the world, and indeed, its lower water-courses intermingle (all round the Gulf of Martaban) with the deltas of the Sittang and the Saluen. Its discharge in August, just after the rainy monsoon, is larger than that of the Congo; and its average yearly discharge is the same as that of the Ganges.

(ii) The Salusa rises in the Yunnan Mountains, where the Irrawaddy, Mekong, Hoang-ko, and Yang-tee-kiang have their head waters. It is navigable for 80 miles from its mouth.

(iii) The Mekong ("the great artery of Further India"), rises in Thibet, flows through Yunnan, Burmah, Siam, Cambodia, Cochin-China, and falls into the Chinese Sea. It has the largest basin of all the rivers of Further India.

(iv) The Menam (=" Mother of Waters") rises in Lao, and flows into the Gulf of Siam. "Its mouth forms the central part of a vast circle, towards which converge all the sea-routes on the one hand, and on the other all the highways of the river valleys."

(v) The Soag-Ka = "Great River" (called the "Red River" by the French), rises in Yunnan, and falls into the Gulf of Tonquin. Its basin is one of the most fertile and most densely peopled regions in th Peninsula. Though occupying scarcely onetwentieth part of Indo-China, it contains about one-half the inhabitants. In the large number of towns and villages on its cultivated plains, it resembles the more crowded parts of China.

(vi) Lakes.—There is, in all Indo-China, only one lake of any size or importance, Lake Tonté-sap. It lies in the valley of the Mekong, and is connected with that river.

8. Climate.—Standing between two oceans, mostly within the tropics, and in the monsoon region, Indo-China has a climate which is both extremely hot and extremely moist, and which becomes malarious, and even pestiferous, in the low rich lands of the deltas.

(i) The rainy season, which is brought by the South-west Monsoon, lasts from April to October.

(ii) The climate of the long Malay Peninsula is tempered by the presence of the ocean on both sides, and the temperature of Singapore, at the end of the peninsula, is, on this account, more bearable than that of Madras.

9. Vegetation.—A great part of the surface of the Peninsula is covered with dense primeval forest, in which teak, gum-trees, the gutta-percha plant, bamboo, and other tropical growths, are found in great abundance. The staple of agriculture in the lower grounds, and especially in the swampy deltas, is rice. But cotton, tobacco, sugar, indigo, tea, coffee, and most spices, are also cultivated.

10. Animals.—The most common wild animals of Indo-China are the tiger, elephant, leopard, rhinoceros, wild boar, and crocodile. The gibbon and other large apes, and numerous serpents are found in the forests.

In some parts, the tiger is looked on as a god; his teeth are worn as amulets; and his praises are placarded on the houses in coloured paper to avert his wrath.

11. Minerals.—There is a great deal of mineral wealth in Indo-China; but it is insufficiently worked. There is a good deal of gold in Siam; there are ruby mines in Burmah; and there are very valuable tin mines in the Malay Peninsula. 12. Inhabitants.—The Indo-Chinese belong mostly to the **Mongol** family. In Cambodia and Siam there are also proples of the **Cancasian** stock; while the Malays and the Negritos of the Malay Peninsula belong to a separate family. The **Buddhist** religion is everywhere predominant. $\gamma_{\rm p}$

13. Industries.—The most important and most general industry of all the Indo-Chinese countries is **agriculture**. Rice is the grain most grown, and the main article of export. **Sugar** is also grown; and the **mulberry** is cultivated for the sake of the silkworm. Cotton, indigo, and tobacco, are also grown for exportation. The Siamese and Annamese are very skilful in gold and silver work, in fine carving, and in inlaying. The commerce of these countries is mostly in the hands of the Chinese, who are very clever traders.

14. Divisions.—The following are the political divisions of the Indo-Chinese Peninsula :—

DIVISIONS.	CONDITION.	CHIEF TOWNS.
1. British Burmah	Under the Government of	Rangoon, Moulmein, Prome.
	India.	
2. The Empire of Burmah	22 27 29	Mandalay, Ava, Bhamo.
3. The Kingdom of Siam	Independent	Bangkok.
4. Empire of Annam	A French Protectorate	Hué, Hanoi.
5. Kingdom of Cambodia	French Protectorate	Udong.
6. Lower Occhin-China	Under French rule	Saigon.
7. Malay States	Independent	Perak, Johore.
8. The Straits Settlements	Under British rule	Singapore, Malacca.

15. British Burmah.—The country still called British Burmah is a long strip of coast-land, which is divided into three provinces: Aracan, Pegu, and Tenasserim. The capital is Bangoon (140) on the Irrawaddy.

(i) Aracan is a strip of country on the east side of the Bay of Bengal. Its low, marshy, steaming plains produce much rice, which is shipped at the capital Akyab.

(ii) Page is another rice-growing country. On the mountain-slopes there are vast forests of teak and other valuable woods. **Rangoon** is the capital—the busiest seaport, after Calcutta, on the Bay of Bengal. It exports teak, gums, spices, and rice. It has an excellent position at the confluence of three rivers and several navigable canals. Further up, also on the Irrawaddy, is **Proms**, the inland terminus of the **Rangoon** railway. It was at one time a very large city, with a circuit of 36 miles. (iii) Tenasserim lies east and south of the Gulf of Martaban. The productions are rice, cotton, indigo, etc. The chief town is Moulmein, a port at the mouth of the Saluen. Mergui is a small port which sends edible birds'-nests, found on the Mergui Archipelago, to the Chinese markets.

16. Burmah.—The Empire of Burmah is now part of the British possessions (it was added in 1886), and has been placed under the rule of the Indian Government. It is a rich inland country, sadly in want of development. It is nearly as large as Spain; but its population is only about 3,000,000. The capital is **Mandalay** (80), on the Irrawaddy.

(i) The Irrawaddy valley is extremely fertile, and produces rice, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize, etc.

(ii) The country is rich in minerals-in iron, lead, copper, coal, and gold.

(iii) The chief artery of traffic is the Irrawaddy, which is navigable up to Bhamothe largest entrepôt in the kingdom, and the chief military station towards China.

(iv) The "white elephant" of Burmah ranks next to royalty itself. It has estates, a palace, a chamberlain, four gold umbrellas, and a suite of thirty courtiers. But it is often not white; but has only a few white specks behind the ears.

17. Siam.—The Kingdom of Siam lies between Burmah and Annam, and is somewhat larger than the Austrian Empire, with a population, however, of only 6,000,000. The land is very rich; but only onetwentieth is under cultivation. It contains the whole basin of the Menam and part of the valley of the Mekong. The capital is Bangkok, on the Menam.

(i) The chief product and export is rice. The chief export to Great Britain is teak; and we send to Siam arms, machinery, and some cotton goods. Most of the country, however, is dense unexplored forest.

(ii) Bangkok (500) on the Menam, is the largest city on the Asiatic seaboard between Calcutta and Canton. It is the "Venice of the East." Both sides of the river are covered with floating houses and carved dwellings; while above the houses rise the dense foliage of the trees and the tall masts of the shipping, and, over all, the lofty pyramidal tops of the pagodas, "glittering like gold in the strong sunshine." The chief traders are the king, the royal princes, and the Chinese.

18. Annam.—The Empire of Annam lies along the east coast of Indo-China, and is now a French Protectorate. It is nearly as large as Sweden, and has the dense population of probably 15,000,000. The most fertile and wealthy parts are Tonquin and Cochin-China. The capital is Hué (60), near the coast—a town strongly fortified by the French.

(i) Tompain, the most fertile province, is now entirely in the hands of the French. It contains the whole of the rich delta of the Song-Ka. It has seventeen iron, fourteen gold mines, and other mineral wealth. Its capital is Hanei (150), a very busy port, about 100 miles from the sea. Its streets are paved with marble.

(ii) The only highroad in the country runs from Hué to Hanoi.

19. Cambodia.—The Kingdom of Cambodia, once a large and powerful kingdom, has been greatly reduced by the attacks of Annam, Siam, and France, till it is now little more than the size of Scotland with a population of over a million. It lies on the lower course of the Mekong, between Lake Tonté-sap and the Delta. Its capital is Namvam, which stands at the confluence of four water highways.

(i) The little foreign trade done is done at the port of Kampet.

(ii) In the north of the country are the ruins of Ankor-Wat, the most remarkable monuments in Further India.

20. Lower Cochin-China.—This country is now completely the property of the French. It consists chiefly of the Mekong Delta. It exports rice, teak, cotton, etc., from its capital of Saigon, on the Saigon river. Its hot and moist climate makes it singularly unhealthy for Europeans.

21. The Malay States.—These States are very small; many are under British protection; and none are so strong as to dare to act in defiance of Great Britain. The petty rulers call themselves Rajahs; and the two best-known states are Perak and Johore.

(i) The country is chiefly forest-covered mountain, inhabited by aboriginal tribes, of the Negrito stock. But the inhabitants of the lowlands and the coast are Malays.

(ii) It is proposed to cut a canal through the Isthmus of Krah, which joins Burmah to the Malay Peninsula. This would shorten the voyage between Mergui and Bangkok by 1300 miles, and greatly facilitate trade. The Isthmus of Krah would then take its place with Panama and Sues.

22. The Straits Settlements.—The Settlements on the Straits of Malacca consist of a number of small territories which we have seized,

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from the island of Pulo Penang down to Singapore. They are of value chiefly as the keys to the highly important water-gate into the China Sea and the waters of the mighty East Indian Archipelago. There are four settlements : Penang, Wellesley, Malaoca, and Singapore.

(i) Fals Fenang, or Prince of Wales Island, is a small but fertile island off the west coast of the Peninsula, at the mouth of the Straits.

(ii) Wellesley Province (which is part of the "Penang Territory") is a small but immensely fertile country. It produces large quantities of rice, pepper, cloves, nutmegs, cotton, tobacco, tea, coffee, sugar, and cocco-nuts.

(iii) Malacca is the oldest and also the largest of the Straits Settlements. The trade of the town of Malacca (the oldest city in the Peninsula) has declined lately, owing to the superior position for trade of Singapore.

(iv) Singapere (="Lion City") is an island 27 miles long by 14 wide, standing in one of the greatest commercial centres of the globe. All the great water highways of the east and south converge on this point. Hence the port of Singapore (160) possesses the monopoly of the trade between India and the Further East. Its docks and quays are crowded with vessels from every part of the globe; and they carry away tin, all kinds of apices, cereals, tes and coffee, gums and olls, cutch and gambler, gutta-percha and india-rubber, and other produce.

(v) Great Britain buys from the Straits Settlements to the extent of £7,000,000 a year (tin alone 2 millions) and sells to the amount of over £4,000,000.

THE CHINESE EMPIRE.

1. The Chinese Empire.—This vast empire fills more than onefourth of Asia, and is a good deal larger than the whole of Europe. It comprises : China Proper ; Thibet ; Mongolia ; Corea ; and parts of Mantchooria and Turkestan.

(i) The Chinese Empire runs with Asiatic Russia along a frontier of 3000 miles.

L CHINA PROPER.

2. China Proper.—China Proper is a vast, rich and densely peopled country in the east of Asia, about half the size of the whole Empire. It is bounded on the

N. —By Mongolia.
 E. —By the Pacific.
 S. —By the China Sea, Annam, and Siam.
 W.—By Burmah and Thibet.

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- (a) China is also called the "Middle Kingdom"; the "Empire of the Pure"; the "Flowery Land," that is, the "Land of Culture and Courtery."
- (b) China is divided from Mongolia by the "Great Wall of China." At certain points the wall is double and even triple; and the whole is said to be 2000 miles long. It has turrets and strong forts at certain intervals; and, "like a huge shake turned to stone," it winds away over the crests of craggy heights, down deep gorges, over lofty plateaux. The height varies from 30 to 30 ft.; and the breadth of the top is 35 ft.

2. Size.—The area of China amounts to nearly 1,300,000 square miles, or more than six times the size of France.

(i) Its length from north to south is about 1750 miles. It lies between 20° and 42° North lat.; or in the space corresponding to that between Timbuctoo and Madrid.

(ii) Its breadth is 1850 miles.

(iii) In shape it is an irregular circle, the landward and seaward semi-circles being nearly equal.

3. Coast Line.—China has a very long coast line—of 5000 miles, which gives one mile of coast to every 260 square miles of surface.

(i) The chief inlets are the Gulfs of Ps-che-lee, Leac-tong, and the Bay of Corea-all in the Yellow Sea; the Bay of Hang-chow, and the Gulf of Tonquin.

(ii) The chief straits are the Pe-che-lee, at the mouth of the Gulf; Fee-Kien, between the island of Formosa and the mainland; and Hainan, between the island of Hainan and the mainland.

(iii) The only peninsula of any size is Shantung (="East of the Mountains").

4. Islands.—Among the numerous islands which girdle the coast from the Yellow Ses to the Gulf of Tonquin, the most important are Formosa, Hainan, and Hong-kong.

(i) Formosa (="the Beautiful") received its name from the Portuguese, struck by the charming aspects of its wooded heights. It is about 240 miles long, and has a magnificent range of mountains running through it from north to south. It is famous for its bamboos, which sometimes grow to the height of 100 ft.

(ii) Hainan is not quite so large as Formosa. It is also very mountainous; and the central mass is called "Five-Finger Mountain." Its mountains contain gold, silver, copper and iron; and the lowlands are extremely fertile.

(iii) Hong-kong is an islet at the eastern entrance of the Canton River. Macao (which belongs to the Portugnese) lies at the western entrance; and the two islets "symbolise the setting star of Portugal and the rising star of Britain in the seas of the East." Hong-kong is a mass of granite and basalt, varied with hill and dale, woods, lakes, and rivers, rocky creeks and sandy beaches. When it was occupied by the British in 1841, it had a population of 2000 souls; now it has nearly 200,000. It does nearly half of the import trade into China. It unhappily lies within the limits of cyclones; and, in 1874, one of these overthrew 1000 houses, wrecked 33 large vessels and several hundred junks, and destroyed many thousand lives. The chief town is called Victoria. Its harbour is one of the finest in the world, and is gay with the flags of all nations.

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5. Build.—China is for the most part mountainous, especially in the west and south. In the west, very high ranges, which run from north to south; north of the Yang-tse-kiang, lower ranges and a vast and fertile plain; south of the Yang-tse-kiang, ranges of mountains running from west to east—such is the build of China.

(i) The western mountain-range, which runs from north to south, and forms the eastern buttress of the great table-land of Central Asia, is called Yung-ling.

(ii) The range between the basins of the Hoang-ho and the Yang-tse-kiang is called Fa-niu-shan.

(iii) The range to the south of the Yang-tse-kiang basin is called Nan-shan.

(iv) The high water-partings to the north and south of this great artery of China are also called by the generic names of **Pe-ling** and **Man-ling**—or North and South Ranges. The intervening uplands between the two basins are easily crossed; and hence the national unity is preserved.

(v) "The Chinese Mesopotamia (='the Country between Rivers') is the richest granary in the world."

6. Flains.—From the Gulf of Leao-tong to the valley of the Yangtse-kiang stretches the Great Plain of China, one of the vastest and richest lowland plains in the whole world. It is larger than the whole of France. The richest parts lie along the lower courses of the Yellow and the Blue Rivers. The chief wealth of this plain consists in the immense quantities of rich yellow earth called loss.

(i) Loss is a solid but friable earth of a yellowish colour. This earth covers, at various thicknesses, an area, in the north of China, of about 250,000 square miles—or more than all Austria-Hungary. In some places it is 2000 ft. deep. In its perpendicular cliffs are dug out innumerable caves, in which dwell the large majority of the people who inhabit the losss region. Its surface yields the richest crops, without manure and with the smallest labour. It enables the cultivation of wheat to go on at the height of 8000 ft. It is called **Heang-bai** (or Yellow Earth); it gives its name to the **Heang-ba** (or Yellow Kenperor) or "Lord of the Yellow." Roads are cut through it—about 8 or 10 ft, wide; and the wheeled traffic is conducted by the help of "shuntings."

(ii) "In these regions everything is yellow—hills, fields, highways, houses, the very torrents and streams. Even the vegetation is often covered with a yellow veil, while every puff of wind raises clouds of fine dust. This yellow earth is the richest soil in China. It contains all the nutritive elements of plants, and serves as a manure for other lands."—Réclus.

(iii) The loess of China may be compared with the "Black Lands" of Russia (p. 174), and of the Deccan (p. 244).

7. Rivers.—China possesses four great rivers: the twin streams Hoang-ho and Yang-tse-kiang (or Yellow and Blue Rivers); the Si-kiang; and the Pe-ho.

(i) The Hosag-be (2600 miles), the "Ungovernable," the "Sorrow of the Sons of Han," rises in the "Starry Lakes" on the inland plateau of Thibet, drains a region three times as large as France, and falls into the Gulf of Pe-cho-lee. Up to 1853 it flowed into the China Sea, south of Shantung, and joined the delta of the Yang-tsekiang. It has changed its course nine times in the course of the last 2500 years. The immense deposits of yellow earth which it brings down are constantly raising its bed; and, as in the case of the Nile, the Mississippi, and the Po, it flows at a higher level than that of the surrounding plain; sometimes bursts through its embankments artificial as well as natural—sweeps away towns and villages, and ruins the crops of immense agricultural regions. In consequence of its deposits, the land gains on the sea at some points at the rate of 100 ft. a year. It carries down four times as much sediment as the Ganges. It receives fewer large tributaries than any other great river in the world.

(ii) The Yang-tee-kiang (3200 miles), "Blue River," called also "Great River," is the longest river in the eastern half of the globe. It rises far west in the table-land of Thibet. It is navigable up to I-chang, 1000 miles from the sea. At Hankow, 700 miles inland, it is a mile in breadth. It is fed by numerous tributaries, some of great size; and the navigable waters of the whole system amount to 13,000 miles—about half the circumference of the globe. For thousands of years its waters have carried more vessels laden with merchandise than all the seas and rivers of Christendom put together. Along its course many large lakes are found—the greatest of which are Po-yang and Teng-ting.

(iii) The Si-kiang(1100 m.) or "West River" joins with the Pe-kiang(="North River") to form the Canton or "Pearl River." It is the great water-highway of the south. Thanks to the tides, the channels of the delta are all navigable; and a district of over 8000 square miles requires no land-roads. The population is amphibious; and is almost always affoat.

(iv) The Fo-he (="North River") is formed by the junction of a number of short streams. Fo-hin (="North Court"), the capital, stands on this river.

8. Climate.—As most of the mountain-ranges run east and west, the winds from the sea obtain easy access to the heart of the country; and thus the extremes of temperature are softened. Taken as a whole, China is colder than the countries of Western Europe in the same latitude; and the extremes of temperature are always greater. The North of China has a warm rainy summer; and a clear cold frosty winter. The South has, on the whole, a hot climate—more especially those parts which lie near and within the Tropic of Cancer.

(i) The average climate of Pekin, which is in lat. 40°, is very like that of the South of England, which is in lat. 50°; only the extremes are greater in Pekin.

(ii) When the monsoons blow, Ohina receives an enormous quantity of rain, muck more than the corresponding latitudes in Western Europe.

9. Vegetation.—The Chinese flora is extremely rich. The characteristic plants are evergreens, flowering shrubs, and resinous trees. From the "Flowery Land" come the camellia, the jasmine, and the azalea.

(i) The same lands, in the south, will grow the sugar-cane and the potato; the bamboo and the oak; wheat and cotton.

(ii) The laurel is a characteristic of the Chinese landscape.

10. Animals.—The tiger and panther infest the less populous districts; monkeys are found in the thickets near Pekin; and reptiles of the snake, salamander, and lizard orders are very numerous. There are also great numbers of birds.

(i) The tiger and the panther are disappearing.

(ii) Out of 764 species of Chinese birds, 146 belong also to Europe.

11. Minerals.—China abounds in metals, salt, and coal. Its iron is good; its copper the best in the world. Its coal-fields,—and there is coal in every province,—are twenty times as large as all the coalfields of Britain and Europe taken together.

(i) The coal-fields in the province of Sechuen alone cover 100,000 square miles about half the area of France. But they are badly worked; and, while Britain turns out 150 million tons a year, China has an output of only 3 millions.

(ii) There are in China supplies of ores and coal "sufficient to revolutionise the trade of the world."

(iii) The quality and colour of Chinese bronzes are unrivalled.

13. Industries.—The chief industry in China is agriculture; and it is everywhere held in the highest esteem. Of manufactures, those of silk, cotton, and earthenware ("China") are most important.

(i) In the fertile plains, especially about Shanghai, one acre will support eight persons. The fertile soil of China has been tilled for thousands of years without showing any signs of exhaustion.

(ii) "Apart altogether from the 'Yellow Lands,' the arable regions of China have maintained their fruitfulness for over four thousand years, entirely through the thoughtful care of the peasantry in restoring to the soil under another form all that the crops have taken from it. Nothing is wasted."

(iii) The North of China produces wheat, millet and cotton; the South, rice, tea and sugar, silk and opium. Rice is the staple food of the central and southern provinces. The rice-growing tracts are the heart of the country, the seats of the densest population, and the focuses of commercial life. The silk-worm is a native of China; and mulberry trees are grown in vast numbers. The poor eat locusts, silk-worms, and snakes; the rich, sharks' fins and swallows' nests.

(iv) The forests have been so completely sacrificed to tillage, that even wood for coffins has to be imported from abroad.

(v) Not a weed is to be seen anywhere; and "the ground is so thoroughly clean, and so exquisitely pulverised that after a week's rain the traveller will sometimes look about in vain for a clod to throw into a pond to startle the water-fowl."

(vi) In addition to the making of "China," the Chinese are celebrated for their skill in ivory-carving, bronzes, lacquer-work, and printing. There is no "division of labour." "Every artistic object is the work of one artist, who designs, models, and paints it."

14. Commerce.—The internal commerce of China—that is, the trade between the different provinces, many of which are larger than European countries—is the largest and oldest in the world. Its foreign trade is not so large, but is growing. Tea and silk are the great staples of export. Cotton goods and optum are by far the largest imports. Almost the whole of the foreign trade of China is done with Great Britain and the British Colonies.

(i) Black and green tea are the leaves of the same shrub, prepared in a different way. The best tea is sent overland—to Russia.

(ii) Two-thirds of all the exports from China to Great Britain consist of tea. This export is diminishing, however, every year, owing to the increase in the growth of Assam tea. In 1875, we bought nearly $\pounds 11,000,000$ worth of tea from China; in 1886, we bought less than $\pounds 6,000,000$ worth.

(iii) Rice is a large import; it is brought from Siam, Annam, and Cochin-China.

(iv) "It is the Chinese who have created the prosperity of Singapore."

15. Ports.—China has a very extensive coasting-trade, which is carried on by British, foreign, and Chinese vessels; and excellent harbours line the coasts as well as the banks of the great rivers.

Great Britain has the right of access to 23 ports of the empire, which are called "Treaty Ports." The most important of these are Tientsin; Ichang; Hankow; Nankin; Shanghai; Foochow; Amoy; and Canton. Of these ports, Shanghai and Canton are the largest.

(i) Tientmin (1000), on the Pe-ho, is the scaport of Pe-che-lee and of Mongolia. The name means the "Ford of Heaven." Here are the Government granaries, and the salt depót for North China.

(ii) I-chang (40), at the head of navigation on the Yang-tse-kiang, is the most inland city open to foreigners. It is 1000 miles from Shanghai; and it produces the best opium in China.

(iii) Hankow (800) stands on the Yang-tso-kiang. This city, with two others close beside it, had, before the Taiping rebellion, a joint population of 8,000,060. It is the chief centre of the tea-trade in China.

(iv) Maskin (155), a name which means South Court, stands on the Yang-tse-kiang, and was formerly the metropolis of the empire, and long the largest city in the world. It is the metropolis of letters and learning; and 12,000 students are examined in it every year.

(v) Shanghai (400), near the mouth of the Yang-tse-kiang, is the first commercial mart in the empire. It is the only Chinese city which possesses dockyards, where vessels are built under the eye of European engineers.

(vi) Foochow (640) is the chief scaport between Shanghai and Canton. The name means "Happy Land." It stands about 80 miles above the mouth of the Min.

(vii) Amoy (100), on the Straits of Foklen, possesses one of the very finest harbours in the world. It exports tea and sugar and emigrants; and imports opium.

(viii) Ganton (1700), on the delta of the Si-kiang and Pe-kiang, is the foremost among Chinese cities for industries. Silk-spinning, porcelain, paper, and glass-making, lacquer-work, ivory-carving, metal-work—all these are of the best kind; and "Canton fancy goods" are more highly prized than those of Paris. The river is covered with a crowded city of boats.

16. Highways of Communication.—"China Proper is intersected in every direction by 2000 imperial highways, which, with the great number of navigable streams, and the extensive system of canalisation, render the country one of the richest in means of communication in the whole world." There are as yet no railways.

(i) Many of the roads are at present in very bad condition. In the rice grounds, they consist "merely of blocks two ft. broad, and raised about three ft. above the water."

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(ii) Many of the imperial highways are magnificent roads 80 ft. broad, paved with granite blocks, lined with trees, cut through the spurs of the mountains, and sometimes even tunnelled.

(iii) The chief trade route between China and Russia runs from Pekin to Maimachin, which is separated from Kiakhta in Siberia by a small stream.

(iv) A short railway, nine miles long, was opened by an English company in 1876 from Shanghai to Wusung. The year after, it was purchased and broken up by the Government. The city of Shanghai is traversed by tramways.

(v) There are 4000 miles of telegraph line.

17. Provinces.—China Proper is divided into provinces, most of which are much larger than England. The most populous is **Shantung**, which has 560 persons to the square mile.

(i) Sechnen is one of the richest in agricultural produce.

(ii) Tunnan (which is almost independent) is richest in mineral wealth.

18. Great Cities.—China is the land of great cities and of crowded populations. Several towns have more than a million inhabitants; and there are at least a hundred towns with more than 100,000 inhabitants. In spite of this, however, the rural population is much larger than the urban. The capital of the country is **Pekin**.

(i) Fekin (500) or "North Court" stands in a plain, about 12 miles from the Pe-ho. It is inferior in population to its own port of Tientsin. It consists of two cities, which are separated from each other by a high inner wall. The northern city is the "Tartar" or "Mantchoo"; the southern, the Chinese town. "At one of the most crowded cross-roads of the Chinese town, the headsman and his assistants are constantly occupied with their sanguinary office." In the Mantchoo city stands the "Yellow quarter," in which is the Imperial Palace, the only building in China faced with yellow porcelain. Here stand also the Temples of Heaven and Agriculture. Close to the latter is the field where the Emperor and the Imperial Family meet every spring "to guide the ivory and gold plough while invoking the blessings of Heaven and Earth on the fruits of the land."

19. Government.—The Emperor of China is the Head of the Empire, the Head of the State Religion, the Head of every Chinese Family. The State is a large Family; the Emperor is its High Priest and Head; he is at once the "Father and Mother" of his children. The Emperor is also the "Vicegerent of Heaven." The eighteen provinces are governed by Mandarins of the highest rank.

(i) If the Emperor asks for the life or for the property of a citizen, both must be surrendered with humble gratitude.

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(ii) The Emperor is dressed more plainly than any of his Mandarins. Yet the highest dignitaries fall prostrate before his empty throne or his yellow silk umbrella. In the provinces, the Mandarins "burn incense when they receive an imperial despatch, and turning towards Pekin, strike the ground with their head." "Tremble, and obey !" is the invariable termination of all imperial proclamations.

(iii) The Emperor is the "Son of Heaven," the "Sovereign of the Four Seas," and of the "Ten Thousand Peoples."

20. Religion.—China Proper has three religions: Confucianism; Buddhism; and Taoism. The mass of the people are Buddhists; the upper classes follow the doctrines of Confucius.

(i) "Large numbers of the Chinese in Middle and Southern China profess and practise all three religions."

(ii) Confucianism is a code of moral doctrines and of conduct; not a religion.

(iii) Tao means the "Way of Safety"; and it was originally a pure philosophy. It is now only a mass of magical rites and superstitions.

21. Education.—In some respects, China is still the best educated country in the world; and it possesses the oldest literature. There is a deep-rooted respect for learning amongst all classes. All offices are gained solely by public examination, and a man may be examined even at the age of eighty.

(i) "Education is the highroad to honour and emolument." But the only works studied are those called the "Nine Classics;" and these are practically learned by heart. Thus memory is the chief faculty cultivated by the Chinese.

(ii) Modern Science and Modern Languages are now, however, taught in Pekin, in the "Tungwen" or Foreign College; and the course in this College lasts eight years.

22. Manners and Customs.—The most distinguishing mark of the Chinese is their courtesy and kindliness. "Even strangers have travelled from one end of the land to another without even meeting with a rudeness or incivility." Age is reverenced by all. A drunk person is never seen in the streets. Industry is the chief passion; and peace the universally required condition. Most of their customs are the exact opposite of ours. The place of honour is the left; the mourning colour is white; the sign of being puzzled is to scratch the knee. Physicians are paid when their patients are well; their pay stops when they fall ill.

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(i) No other nation has so few warlike songs.

(ii) In China "roses have no fragrance; roads no vehicles; ships no hulls; workmen no Sundays; and magistrates no sense of honour."

(iii) Most of the women cramp their feet till they are only 31 inches long. An old man is highly flattered by the inquiry after his "honourable teeth."

(iv) "All virtues have their source in etiquette," says Confucius.

23. People and Language.—The Chinese are in reality a very mixed race; though they are generally regarded as belonging to the Mongol type. The language is monosyllabic.

(i) The ordinary Chinaman is short, round-faced with high cheek-bones, has broad flat features and a small nose, oblique black eyes, black lanky hair, little or no beard, yellow or brown complexion.

(ii) There are practically as many symbols as there are words in the language-43,496 altogether.

II. THIBET.

24. The Country.—Thibet (or the "Snowy Kingdom") is the name of the elevated country which lies between the Kuenlun and the Himalayas. It is the loftiest table-land on the face of the globe; and the inhabitants breathe an air which has less than half the density of ours. The Karakorum Mountains lie in the west. The Sanpo and Upper Brahmapootra drain the southern valleys; the Upper Yang-tsekiang the eastern districts. The lake called Tengri-nor, which stands at the elevation of 15,000 ft., receives the drainage of the great Continental Basin which lies in the interior.

"That awful plateau, three times the size of France, almost as cold as Siberia, most of it higher than Mont Blanc, and all of it, except a few valleys, destitute of population."

25. People.— The inhabitants form a branch of the Mongolian Family. They are gentle, frank, dignified, courageous, fond of music and song. They are Buddhists in religion.

(i) "When two persons meet, they salute each other several times by showing the tongue and scratching the right ear."

(ii) Thibet is the centre of Buddhism. The High Priest is the Dalai-Lama (= "Ocean-Lama"), who lives at Lhassa, the capital.

26. Industries and Towns.—The chief, almost the only, industry of Thibet is pasturage. The staple product is wool, of which vast quantities, of the finest texture, are produced on the boundless grassy plains and mountain slopes in the more sheltered and lower parts of the country. The only large town is Lhassa (50), the capital, and the religious metropolis of the Buddhist world in the Chinese Empire.

(i) Milk, butter, and barley-meal form the chief diet of the people.

(ii) The priests in Lhassa number 20,000.

(iii) "The Thibetans are born traders. Every house is a shop; every lamassary (monastery for lamas) a warehouse. Caravans of yaks and sheep heavily laden cross the country in all directions. Nearly all the profit of the foreign trade goes to the monasteries; and thus, notwithstanding its natural poverty, Thibet supports in wealth and luxury a whole nation of monks."

III. EASTERN TURKESTAN.

27. The Country.—Chinese (or Eastern) Turkestan is a part of the vast Continental Basin of Central Asia. It may be briefly described as the western half of the Han-hat or "Dried-up Sea," or as the Basin of the Tarim. It is a country more than four times the size of France; but its population is little over half a million.

(1) The climate is continental in the severest sense : a cold winter follows a burning summer. The summer and autumn are rainless. The air is constantly charged with dust or sand.

(ii) "The sands, driven before the winds in ceaseless billows from the Eastern Gobi, have gradually encroached on the cultivated lands, swallowing up populous and flourishing cities, memorials of which are still found in the gold and silver ments, and even in the bricks of tea constantly exhumed at certain spots. Extensive ruins of cities are known to exist in the Lob district."

(iii) The Tarim is nearly as long as the Danube; but it grows smaller and smaller as it approaches Lob-nor. The Lob-nor is the last remnant of an ancient sea.

28. People and Towns.—The inhabitants of the Tarim Basin are a mixed race. In the lowlands agriculture is pursued; in the uplands, pasturage. The two largest towns are **Kashgar**, the capital; and **Yarkand**.

(i) Kashgar (100) is a commercial entrepôt of great importance. It is celebrated as

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the birthplace of the hero Rustum, who is described in Matthew Arnold's poem "Sohrab and Rustum."

(ii) Yarkand (150) is the largest city in Chinese Turkestan. It lies in the centre of the most productive district.

(iii) The trade-caravans from Turkestan to India go by the Karakorum Pass; to Western Turkestan by the Terek Pass, which is the route of the (future) Russian railway to China viā the Tarim Basin.

IV. MONGOLIA.

29. The Country.--Mongolia is a vast region of Central Asia, which lies between Thibet and Siberia, and which includes the vast desert of Gobi or Shamo.

(i) The Kuen-lun divide Mongolia from Thibet.

(ii) The Altai divide it from Siberia.

(iii) The whole belt of Central Asia, from the Amoor to the Volga, most of which is directly or indirectly subject to China, is called by its wandering inhabitants the "Land of Grass."

30. People and Industries.—The inhabitants are Mongols; and Mongolia is the true primeval home of this branch of the human family. They are nomads; and their chief wealth consists in flocks and herds. The chief towns are Urga the capital, Maimachin, and Kobdo.

(i) Urga, or "Great Camp," has a large triennial fair, which is visited by about 200,000 persons from every part of Mongolia.

(ii) Maimachin stands on the frontier. It is the last station on the great Chinese route from Pekin to Siberia.

(iii) Kobde is the entrepôt of the Russian dealers from the Altai mines.

V. MANTCHOORIA.

31. The country.—Mantchooria is a large country which lies between the Amoor and the Corea Peninsula ; and between the Khingan Range on the west and Russian Siberia on the east. There are two distinct regions : the northern, which drains through the Sungari into the Amoor ; the southern, through the Liao-ho, into the Yellow Sea. 32. People and Towns.—The Mantchoo Tartars are the race who conquered China; and a Mantchoo family sits on the Chinese throne. Agriculture is their chief industry. The two largest towns are, Kirin the capital, and Moukden, the old capital.

(i) Eiria (120), on the Upper Sungari, has a large trade in timber.

(ii) Mouldon is a large and flourishing city, cleaner than Pekin, better built, and with brighter shops.

VI. COREA.

33. Corea.—The country called Corea is a peninsula which stands between the Yellow Sea and the Sea of Japan. It is nearly as large as Great Britain; but its population is less than 9,000,000. It is practically independent of China. It is a very mountainous country, rich in gold, silver, iron, coal, and other metals and minerals.

In form it resembles Italy. It has for backbone a range of mountains, the long alope of which, as in Italy, is to the west. The island of Qualpart occupies the position of Sicily.

34. People and Towns.—The people are a mixed race. They are both industrious and ingenious. They have thrown open three of their ports to foreigners; import some cotton goods; and export cowhides and beans. The capital is **Seconl** (250).

(i) The written language of the Chinese, Japanese, and Coreans is one ; their spoken languages are different.

(ii) The Coreans are the great paper-makers of the East.

THE JAPANESE EMPIRE.

1. Introductory.—The beautiful land of Japan, or "Country of the Sun," has been often called, and with much justice, the "Great Britain of the Pacific." There are many points of analogy and resemblance between the two countries ; and it may be useful to enumerate these in their order.

JAPAN AND GREAT BRITAIN.

1. Both are insular Empires, with countless islets round their shores.

2. Both are extremely well situated for commerce, lying opposite countries that are highly industrious and commercial.

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8. The capitals of both lie at the head of great oceanic water-ways—the one of the Pacific, the other of the Atlantic.

4. Each has a very highly indented coast and long coast-line, with good harbours.

5. Both have a higher temperature and fewer extremes in climate than the countries in the same latitude on the respective mainlands off which they lie.

6. Each is warmed by a warm ocean-current—Great Britain by the Gulf Stream, Japan by the Kuro-Sivo, or "Black Stream."

7. Both peoples are industrious and fond of commerce.

8. Both peoples are very conservative; and yet, when necessity has arisen, have brought about thorough revolutions.

9. London and Tokio are both aggregates of towns and villages, slowly absorbed into the great central city—the former "a wilderness of bricks and mortar," the latter "a wilderness of bamboo and paper."

10. The climates of both are addicted to fogs.

2. Size.—Japan consists of four large islands, and about 3850 islets. The large islands are Nip-pon, Shikoku, Kiushiu, and Yezo. Their area amounts to 148,456 square miles, or 1³/₃ times the size of Great Britain.

(1) The three groups of islands of which the Empire consists are bent like a bow outside three inland seas; the Loo-Choe Islands lying in a curve outside the Yellow Sea; the Japan Islands curved opposite the Japanese Sea; and the Kurile Islands (which are a continuation of the Peninsula of Kamtchatka) opposite the Sea of Okhotak. The Bomins, in lat. 28°, also belong to Japan.

(ii) The four large islands lie between 31° and 45° N. lat; or in a space corresponding to that between the south of Morocco and the south of France.

(iii) Nip-pon (called by the natives Honde or Heashin) is just the size of Great Britain; and Del Mip-pon, or "Great Japan," is the native name for the whole country.

3. Coast Line.—The coast line is very long, and is in many parts magnificently indented with deeply re-entrant bays and gulfs. The best known are the **Bay of Tokio**, and the **Gulf of Osaka**.

(i) The best-known strait is La Perouse, between Yezo and Saghalien.

(ii) The Straits between the three southern islands are narrow and "more easy to cross than are many rivers."

(iii) The coasts of the Inland Sea resemble those of Norway with an Italian sky over them, and with the vegetation of the East. Its countless islets, bluffs, headlands, creeks, and inlets,—its clear waters and sub-tropical vegetation, present a varied panorama of unrivalled scenery. 4. Build.—The whole series of islands seems to consist of the summits of a submerged mountain-range, running from south-west to north-east. All the islands are mountainous; and the lowlands form only one-eighth of the surface. The highest peak is Fusi-yama, which is over 14,000 ft. in height, and not much lower than the Matterhorn in Switzerland.

(i) Fusi-yama is an extinct volcano, "a huge, truncated cone of pure snow" near Tokio, in the island of Nip-pon. The crater is 500 ft. deep. It is the first grand object seen by the traveller; and it forms the background of every Japanese landscape painting. "Like a vast and splendid temple, it stands high above the oceanplain, white with snow, and glittering in the sun." Its apex is shaped like an eightpetalled lotus flower.

(ii) Most of the rivers are only mountain-torrents.

5. Climate.—The climate of Japan is not unlike that of the South of England—except that the extremes of heat and cold are greater. The **Euro-Sivo**, or "Black Stream," is the most influential element in the temperature. The **Oya-Sivo**, a cold current from the Sea of Okhotsk, fringes in winter the coast of Yezo with drift ice, and supplies Nip-pon with large quantities of excellent fish. On the whole, the climate of Japan is 10° colder than that of the corresponding latitudes of Africa and Europe. The summer monsoons bring heavy rains.

(i) "The traveller's opinion of the climate depends very much on whether he goes to Japan from the east or from the west. If from Singapore or China, he pronounces it bracing, healthful, delicious; if from California, damp, misty, and enervating."

(ii) "The summer is hot, damp, and cloudy; the winter, cold, bright, and dry. While Pekin has the winters of Upsala, and the summers of Cairo, Tokio suffers far less from extremes of heat and cold."

(iii) The west side of Nip-pon is unaffected by the "Black Stream"; and sometimes the snow lies 4 ft. deep. This in a latitude three degrees south of Naples.

6. Vegetation.—The flora of Japan is one of extraordinary richness and vigour. The mulberry, the tea-plant, the sugar-cane, the bamboo are all cultivated; while rice and cotton, and the fruit-trees of the Temperate Zone, have been acclimatised. The forests present a greater diversity of species of trees than in any other country in the world : and there is four times more forest than tilled land. (i) "Nowhere else within an equal range can one meet so many different kinds of conifers and deciduous trees; and the brilliant red and scarlet autumnal tints of the Japanese woodlands are even more striking and beautiful than those of North America."

(ii) The bamboo is here also of the greatest use. The framework and furniture of houses; the sails of junks; screens, mats, paper, walking-sticks are all made of it.

(iii) On the road from Tokio to the Nikko Temples is an avenue of cedars and pines 50 miles long, some of the trees 60 ft. in height.

7. Animals.—The general cultivation of the land has driven away or destroyed many of the wild beasts. The small Japanese bear, the fox, the wild boar, the badger, and the monkey, and a kind of deer, are still found. There are many kinds of birds; and in Yezo especially, there are crows by the million. Of domestic animals, the horse and the ox are the chief.

(i) Most of the farms are very small; and hence oxen are little used.

(ii) The fisheries are very productive; and there are countless fishing villages round the coast. Herrings, cod, sole, crab, lobster, salmon, and carp, are caught.

8. Minerals.—The most important minerals are copper, silver, and iron. Coal-beds extend from Nagasaki to Yezo. The supply of sulphur is said to be inexhaustible.

The iron is so good that it makes the best steel; and the excellent temper of Japanese sword-blades is well known.

9. Inhabitants.—The Empire of Japan is inhabited by a people of mixed race. There are two distinct types—those of the peasants and of the aristocracy. The former seem to be of Mongol extraction; the latter more mixed. The northern island of Yezo is inhabited by a hairy race called Ainos.

(i) In character the Japanese exhibit striking contrasts to the Chinese. The Chinese are dirty, the Japanese scrupulously clean; the Chinese are conceited and despise everything foreign, the Japanese keep an open and receptive mind for everything that is good, no matter from what quarter it comes.

(ii) The Almos are a primitive people; and the bodies of many are covered with short bristly hair. Miss Bird says: "I have seen boys whose backs are covered with fur as fine and soft as that of a cat."

10. Population and Populousness. — The population of Japan amounts to nearly 40,000,000. In the three southern islands the populousness rises to 400 per square mile—a density above that of the United Kingdom, and as great as that of Holland. (i) The rural and the urban population seem to be equally balanced.

(ii) "Although Japan is to a large extent covered with mountains, and in the north too cold to be thickly peopled, the population of the archipelago is far denser than that of France."

11. Industries.— The chief occupation is agriculture, which is carried on with great diligence and skill. The Japanese are also renowned potters; and their most distinctive mark in this art is a wonderful grace and skill in ornamentation. In lacquer-ware they excel the Chinese in delicacy and finish. They are also makers of excellent paper. In ivory carving, and especially in the inlaying of metals, they are by far the first artists in the world.

(i) The Japanese are, in agriculture, rather market gardeners than farmers. Nowhere is there more neat and painstaking tillage. They employ the "small" or spade culture used in Belgium. Every kind of town refuse is used for manure; and large quantities of fish are imported from Yezo to enrich the land. Most of the cultivated land consists of rice-fields, commonly termed "paddy-fields."

(ii) The Japanese porcelain is more graceful in form and finish than the Chinese.

(iii) "If the rank of nations in the scale of civilisation is to be determined by the quantity of paper consumed by them, the Japanese might certainly claim the first place. They use paper, not only for printing and painting, but also for a multitude of other purposes. Quires of paper take the place of our handkerchiefs and table-napkins; the stools used as pillows are covered with paper; the windows have panes of paper instead of glass; while panels of the same material form the movable partitions of houses. Paper garments coated with wax are worn in rainy weather; and in machinery, paper bands are found more durable than those of leather."

(iv) In their ivory carvings the Japanese show striking originality, endless versatility, and quaintest humour; while they lay all the sights of nature under contribution.

12. Commerce.—The foreign trade of Japan has enormously increased since the opening of the Treaty Ports. The chief exports are raw silk; then, at some distance, tea; and next, rice and coal. The chief imports are cotton yarn and cotton goods; sugar; woollen goods; and metals. North America is the largest buyer; Great Britain the largest seller; and next to these come China and France. The trade done with the United Kingdom, in both imports and exports, amounts to about $\pounds 5,000,000$.

(i) Compared with the internal trade, the foreign trade is still very small: it amounts to only 8s. per head of the population.

(ii) There are 56 ports; but only six of these are Treaty Ports: Magasaki (on Kiusiu), Kobé, Omka, Yokohama, Migata, and Hakodaté. Hakodaté is a northern port, with a large and safe harbour, on the island of Yezo. Niigata is the only Treaty Port on the west coast between Hakodaté and Nagasaki—a distance of 1100 miles.

13. Towns.—There are many large towns in the Empire of Japan. There are twelve which have more than 50,000 inhabitants; and, of these, five have more than 100,000. Of these five the three largest are Tokio, the capital; Osaka; and Kioto.

(i) Tokis (1500), formerly called Yedde, is not only the capital, but the largest city in Japan. The new name dates from 1869, when it became the residence of the Mikado. Most of the houses are of bamboo and cardboard—which is safer in the frequent earthquakes, but dangerous in the event of fire. The city is an aggregate of about one hundred small towns and villages. The chief industries are in bronzes and lacquer-ware. The streets are crowded by the jinriki-she or Japanese cab drawn by one or two men. Tokio is the chief industrial centre of Japan. On the south side of the Guif of Tokio lies Yekehama(120) the chief centre of the trade with the West. and the terminus of steam navigation with Europe.

(ii) Omaka (450) is the "Venice of Japan," and the queen of Japanese cities. It is the second largest city, and the first for trade with the interior. It is intersected in every direction by rivers and canals, crossed by more than 300 bridges. Facing Osaka, on the coast of the Inland Sea, are the seaports of Hioge and Kebé, the latter of which is a Treaty Port.

(iii) Elote (280) or Kioto-Fu was the capital for about eleven hundred years, and is still called Fu or "Imperial." It still remains "the city of beauty, elegance, and refinement." Here, too, are found the most skilled Japanese artists in silks, brocades, embroideries, enamels, porcelains, and metal wares.

14. Ways of Communication.—The inland seas, now lit up by numerous lighthouses, are the oldest roads in Japan. There are now nearly a thousand miles of railway in existence; and more in contemplation. There are 7000 miles of telegraph.

(i) The merchant navy of Japan possesses over 800 vessels, and nearly 17,000 native craft. Admiral Hope, when sailing through the Inland Sea in 1870, met upwards of 1500 junks, besides barges and boats.

(ii) The best-known highway is the Tokiado, 507 miles long, between Tokio and Kioto.

(iii) The railways are as much frequented as the busiest lines in Europe.

(iv) There are nearly 5000 post-offices. About 60 millions of letters; 40 of postcards; and 20 of newspapers are carried yearly There are about 8,000,000 telegrams sent every year. 15. **Beligion.**—As in China, three religions co-exist side by side. The oldest is the national religion called **Sintoism** (=the "Way of the Gods") or the "Worship of Spirits." The second is **Buddhism**, which was introduced about 550 A.D. The third is **Siza**, a kind of Confucianism. Complete liberty is extended to the preaching of Christianity.

(i) Sintetam includes the worship of the heavenly bodies, of ancestors, and of spirits. There are "eight millions" of spirits; and the Mikado, or reigning sovereign, is said to be one.

(ii) Since the Revolution of 1868, Buddhism has fallen into disfavour. The wealth of the priests has been confiscated; the artistic treasures of the temples taken away; the buildings converted to everyday uses, and the countless bells sold to America. "Decaying shrines and broken gods are to be seen everywhere." There are still, however, 73,000 Buddhist, and 190,000 Sintoist temples.

16. Education.—The Government is doing all it can for education of every kind. There are nearly 4,000,000 children in the Elementary Schools, and the High, Normal, and Technical Schools are well attended. There is one University.

 The Japanese people are eager for instruction, and very willing to pay well for it. By law, Elementary Schools must be founded in the proportion of one to every 600 souls.

(ii) About eighty books are published, on an average, every week.

(iii) Many Professors and Teachers have been brought from England, Scotland, and Germany, to instruct the people in the arts and sciences of the West. It was even proposed to abolish the national speech, and to adopt the English tongue as the language to be used in all Law Courts, newspapers, and schools.

17. Government.—The Government of Japan is an absolute monarchy, the head of which is the Mikado. He has under him a Supreme Council, and a Legislative Council. Parliamentary Government is promised for 1890.

(i) Before the Revolution of 1868, when "New Japan" sprang into being, the country was governed by the **Shogun**, or chief vassal of the Mikado. He took the title of **Tyceca** and represented himself as the Temporal Sovereign. The Mikado was regarded as a sacred personage—an "Emperor-god," whose foot must never touch the ground, who must never be seen by his subjects—but only worshipped. In 1868 the Shogun resigned; and the Mikado put down the power of the Feudal Lords or "Dalmlos," and took all power into his own hands.

(ii) "The Revolution of 1868 begins a new era; Old Japan is dead."

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18. Army and Navy.—The best protection of Japan is her insular position; and she needs no standing army. But she has formed a small army of 60,000 men, drilled and organised on the European model. Her navy consists of 18 men-of-war, some of them armoured "ram-cruisers," and some iron-clad frigates.

19. Social Character.—The Japanese are essentially kind-hearted, gentle, courteous, amiable, temperate, orderly, and thrifty. The labouring classes are hard-working, calm, patient, and submit without complaint to the greatest hardships and privations.

(i) Men of the highest rank are singularly destitute of haughtiness.

(ii) "In all that regards frugality, self-respect, the sentiment of honour, mutual kindness and consideration, the mass of the Japanese certainly stand on a higher level than most Western peoples."

(iii) "Their industry is ceaseless; they have no Sabbaths and only take a holiday when they have nothing to do. Their spade-husbandry turns the country into one beautifully kept garden, in which one might value look for a weed."

ASIATIC RUSSIA.

1. Introductory.—Russia is a power that grows in territory and in influence every year; and it grows most in Asia, because it has most room to grow in that continent. Year after year it subdues some tribe or clan or kingdom to itself; year after year it keeps pressing . to the south and east.

(i) Since the time of Peter the Great (1672-1725), the Russian Empire has increased by 2,500,000 square miles.

(ii) The three great Powers that share almost the whole of Asia among them are Britain, China, and Russia; and in a very short time the territories of these Powers will be conterminous with each other.

2. Divisions.—Asiatic Russia comprises three great divisions : Cancasia ; Central Asia ; and Siberia.

CAUCASIA.

3. Caucasia.—The province of Caucasia forms one "Governor-Generalship" in the Russian Empire. It is divided, however, not by the Russians, but by geographers—into Cis-Caucasia and Trans-Caucasia, the first on the European, the second on the Asiatic side, of the great Caucasian Range.

(i) Cis-Caucasia is properly in Europe.

(ii) The area of the whole region amounts to 184,000 square miles, or more than three times the size of England and Wales.

 \checkmark 4. Mountains.—The Caucasus is an immense mountain-isthmus which stands between the Black Sea and the Caspian, and which is separated from the Armenian Table-land by the valley of the Kur. It forms the natural boundary between Europe and Asia. At the meeting-point of three Empires—Russia, Turkey, and Persia—rises Mount Ararat, to the height of nearly 17,000 ft.

(i) The absence of transverse valleys has prevented the crossing of peoples; and this inaccessibility has made the range a fitting home for warlike tribes and races.

(ii) The range grows broader as it goes towards the east, where ft splits into two. The highest peak is the extinct volcano Mount Elburs (18,570 ft.); but there are five other snow-clad peaks, all considerably higher than Mont Blanc. The mean altitude is so great that, for 100 miles, there are no passes lower than 10,000 ft... twice the height of Ben Nevis. In the middle of the range occurs the tremendous fasure of the Dariel Gorge, through which there is a pass at the height of 8000 ft. Through this pass runs the military road from Vladikavkaz, the capital of Cis-Caucasia, to Tiflis, the capital of Trans-Caucasia.

(iii) Although higher than the Alps, the Caucasus is far less covered with snow and ice. The best-known glacier is the **Deedoraki**, which moves at the rate of four inches a day; while the average velocity of glaciers on Mont Blanc is about 12 inches.

(iv) The Persians call Mount Ararat "Noah's Mount."

5. Bivers.—Cis-Caucasia is watered by the Kuban and the Terek; Trans-Caucasia by the Kur, with its affluents, the Aras and the Rion.

(i) The Kuban flows into the Black Sea; the Terek into the Caspian. The Terek brings down such a quantity of mud from the mountains that its delta is advancing into the Caspian at the rate of forty yards a year. In fact, it is doing more to fill up the Caspian than the Volga itself.

(ii) The Kur flows into the Caspian; the Rien into the Black Sea. The Kur is navigable for small vessels for more than 400 miles. Its lower curve is one of the best fishing-grounds in the world, teeming as it does with sturgeon and white fish.

6. Climate.—The climate of course varies chiefly with the altitude ; and there are enormous diversities. Cis-Caucasia is both drier and

colder than the southern slope; and, speaking broadly, there is, for the whole region, a difference of 25° between winter and summer.

The snow-line is 2000 ft. higher than in the Pyrenees, though both ranges lie in the same latitude. This is due to the greater heat of summer, as Russia has much more of a continental climate than either France or Spain.

7. Plora and Fauna.—The vegetation of the Caucasus reaches a higher line than that of the Alps. Barley is grown as high as 8200 ft.; wheat to 6700 ft.; and the vine to 3630 ft. The lowland tracts on both sides of the range grow heavy crops of rice, maise, and wheat. Caucasia is the fatherland of our apples and pears. The southern regions of Trans-Caucasia are the native homes of the laurel, orange, citron, vine, and mulberry.

(i) The forest zone of each side is 500 miles long, and nearly 20 miles broad.

(ii) Wheat grows in the Caucasus at 3000 ft. higher than in the Alps.

(iii) In the mountain-gorges of the central range not a blade of grass will grow.

8. **Peoples.**—Nowhere in the world have met together so many different races and so many various languages. In the numerous high mountain-valleys, there are said to be no fewer than 150 different peoples—stems of different races, speaking 70 different languages. Hence the Caucasus has been called by the Persians "the Mountain of Tongues." The Georgians, Circassians, Mingrelians, and Imerians, are the best-known peoples.

(i) Ancient Latin writers say that at one part on the Black Sea interpreters for 130 different languages were required.

(ii) The Russians took nearly 100 years to subdue this region; and some tribes, especially the Tcherkesses, rather than serve Russia, left their country en masse, and emigrated into neighbouring lands.

(iii) The Georgians and Circassians have always been famous for their personal beauty.

9. Population.—The population is estimated at 6,500,000. It is the southern slope that is most densely inhabited.

10. Industries.—Agriculture is the chief, and almost the only, industry.

11. Highways.—Vladikavkaz is the central point from which all roads radiate—especially the great military and commercial highway

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through the Dariel Gorge on to Tiflis. There are only two railways : one from the head of the Sea of Azov to Vladikavkaz; the other, on the south, from Poti on the Black Sea to Tiflis and thence to Baku, on the Caspian.

It is proposed to make a railway through the Dariel Pass.

12. Divisions and Towns.—Cis-Caucasia is divided by the Russians into three governments, the best known of which is Stavropol. Trans-Caucasia is divided into eight governments, the best known of which are Tiflis and Erivan. The largest towns are Tiflis, Stavropol, Poti, Baku, Kars, and Erivan.

(i) This (110) is the capital of the "government" of Caucasia. It stands on the river Kur, at the southern end of the great military and post-road from Vladikavkas. It is connected by rail with Poti on the Black Sea, and with Baku on the Caspian. It is the largest city in Asiatic Russia. (The name means "Hot Town," and has reference to the sulphur springs near and round it.)

(ii) Stavropel (40) is the capital of the Stavropel "government;" and stands on the verge of the steppe-on one of the advanced terraces which flank the north foot of the Cancasus.

(iii) Baku (70) is the centre of a district rich in petroleum. Close to the town 700 oll-wells have been sunk. There is an old and famous shrine—"the fire-springs"—of the Persian fire-worshippers, which is directly fed with gases from the subterranean fires. Baku is the Caspian port of Trans-Caucasia. Its petroleum is used as fuel for working the engines on the great Gentral Asian Bailway.

(iv) Ears is a formidable stronghold which held out against the Russians during the Crimean War. The town is built of lava blocks.

(v) Erivan, at the foot of Mount Ararat, is the capital of Russian Armenia. It has the worst climate in Caucasia—sudden changes of temperature, malaria, and duststorms. Alexandropal is another stronghold in the Aras basin ; and these two places give the Russians complete command of the head-waters of the Euphrates.

(vi) The Armenians are the chief people in this part of Russia. They profess a very ancient form of Christianity. "Deprived for centuries of all political unity and national independence, the Armenians have been scattered for two thousand years over the Eastern world. When their country fell a prey to foreign conquerors, they preferred to become 'strangers among strangers, rather than be alaves in their native land.' They migrated in multitudes, and since the 11th century have been settled in Russia, Poland, and Galicia. At present they are found in all the large emporiums of trade from London to Singapore and Shanghai, everywhere distinguished by their commercial enterprise."

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RUSSIAN CENTRAL ASIA.

13. Russian Central Asia.—This division of Asiatic Russia lies between Siberia on the north; Persia and Afghanistan on the south; and the river Ural and the Caspian Sea on the west. It is a region which the Russians have been gradually subduing for more than two hundred years; and their latest triumph is the conclusion of the Central Asian Railway to the ancient historic city of Samarkánd. The area of this vast region is about five or six times as large as France; but its population is little more than 5,000,000.

(i) The Central Asian Ealway was opened on May 37th, 1888. It starts from Assom Ada, on the Caspian; goes to Merv, thence to Bekhara, and on to Samarkánd. It crosses the famous rivers Tejend, Murgh-ab, and Amu (Oxus). "It seems but the other day that the tract of territory through which the railway passes was haunted by as flerce and intractable a set of man-stealers and murderers as ever plagued the world. For centuries the border-land between Persia and Turkestan had been the unhappy hunting-ground of wild tribes, whose occupation was rapine, and who swept off the victims of their forays to be sold like cattle in the great slave-mart of Merv. To-day the trains come and go between Assoun Ada and Merv, and proceed from Merv to Samarcand, with as much regularity as between Wimbledon and Waterloo; and the through train for Bokhara starts from the Caspian with as little to-do as the Scotch Express leaves Euston for Edinburgh." It is now possible to travel from London,--by St. Petersburg, Moscow, Vladikavkas, Baku, and Assoun Ada, --to Samarkand in 12 days; whereas it would require as many weeks to reach it by the Sues Canal and British India.

14. Surface.—Russian Central Asia is mostly desert and steppe; but it also embraces those picturesque and mountainous countries which lean on both sides of the Thian-Shan, and on the western slopes of the high Pamír. Besides these mountain regions, there are: (i) the Kirghis Steppe; (ii) the Flateau of Semirechinsk (or "Seven-River-Land"); (iii) the Kara-Kum and Kiril-Kum deserts; and (iv) the sterile plateau of Ust-Urt.—It may be described, in general terms, as the Eastern Region of the Aralo-Caspian Basin.

(i) The Alai-Bange, a branch of the Thian-Shan, throws down the Syr (or Jaxartee) the main stream of Western or Russian Turkestan—into the Aral Sea.

(ii) The **Kirghis Steppe** is a vast grassy region roamed over by the normal Kirghis Tartars, with their flocks and herds. Their chief wealth consists in broad-tailed sheep and camels. "Scarcely a tree or a shrub is visible on these steppes. The whole region presents the aspect of a boundless sea, whose rolling billows have become suddenly solidified." (iii) The Kara Kum, or "Black Sands," lies south of the Aral. The Kisil Kum, or "Red Sands," lies between the Syr and the Amu.

(iv) The Ust-Urt= "High Plain "—the Kirghis Steppe being called Ast-Urt or "Low Plain "—is a bare plateau, about 300 miles wide, to the west of the Aral. It rises to the height of 600 feet above the sea-level of the Aral, and 830 above the Mediterranean, and its edges are sharply marked by a steep descent like a wall, almost all round, which is called the "Chink" (=cliff). It is impossible to climb the Chink; but the ravines enable one to get into the interior, where there are numerous pastures. The Ust-Urt is "the most plateau-like of all plateaus."

15. Bivers and Lakes.—Beginning from the west, the chief rivers are the twin-streams Amu and Syr, which enter the Sea of Aral; the Seven Rivers which flow into Lake Balkhash, the largest of which is the IIII; and the Irtisch, a great tributary of the Obi. The Sea of Aral and Lake Balkhash are the chief lakes.

(i) The Amu-Daris (=Amu River) or Oxus, collects the drainage of the Great Pamir. Half of its water is absorbed by the irrigation canals of the Khivan Oasis, by which 4000 square miles of marvellously fertile alluvial land are watered.

(ii) The Syr-Daria or Jaxartes, rises in the Alai Range, "in the very heart of the Thian-Shan." It enters the Aral by a marshy delta, "haunted by an astonishing number of wolves, wild boars, and deer."

(iii) The III is partly a Russian and partly a Chinese river.

(iv) The Irtisch rises in the Chinese Altai, and is a large river before entering Russian territory.

(v) The Sea of Aral (="Sea of Islands") is somewhat larger than the Irish Sea. But it is very shallow; and is, indeed, drying up. Though it lies in the same latitude as the south of France, it is frozen a foot thick in winter.

(vi) Lake Balkhash is called by the Chinese the "Western Sea." Its water is so sait that it proves fatal to animals driven by thirst to drink it. South from it, and on much higher ground, is Lake Issik-Kul (="Hot Lake"), which also belongs to the Aralo-Caspian Basin. Like all the other rivers and lakes in this basin, it is drying up.

16. Climate and Productions.—The climate is everywhere untempered by sea-breezes—is thoroughly continental, intensely cold in winter, scorchingly hot in summer. Where rivers flow, and irrigation can be employed, the finest fruits, vegetables and cereals are produced; where the only reliance is on rain, only grass for pasturage can be grown.

(i) In Khiva, where the water is drawn from the Amu, wheat yields sixty, and rice seventy fold.

(ii) Samarkánd, owing to the waters of the Zaraíshan. though on very high ground, is a "perfect garden in the wilderness."

17 Divisions and Towns.—The Russians have divided this region into nine "governments," which are called chiefly after the names of the rivers. It is of more importance for us to know the names which occur in history—such as Western (or Russian) Turkestan, the old Khanates of Kokand, Khiva, and Bokhara, with their towns of the same name. Tashkend is the capital of and the largest town in Western Turkestan; while Samarkand is the terminus of the great Central Asian Railway.

(i) Kokand (60), surnamed "the Delightful." is very unhealthy; but its basear is still the best stocked in Russian Turkestan.

(ii) Ehiva, on the Amu, is the capital of the Khanate of Khiva, now practically a province of Russia. This casis is one of the loveliest in Asia. "Everywhere water flows in abundance, bowered by poplars, elms, and other trees; the fields are encircled by avenues of mulberries; the white houses are like bowers buried in flowers and foliage; the nightingale, scarcely elsewhere known in Tartary, here warbles in every rose-bush." The land, like Egypt, is yearly renewed by the alluvium of the river, and is inexhaustibly fertile. It was one of the chief slave-markets in Asia before Russia put a stop to the traffic.

(iii) Bokhara (="the City of Temples") in the valley of the Zarafshan (which is exhausted before reaching the Amu by countless irrigation canals), stands in a splendid situation for international trade. It is the great central mart between Nijni-Novgorod and Peshawur; India, Afghanistan, and Persia send their wareą to its bazaars. But it is threatened with ruin by the gradual loss of water from the uplands. "The shifting dunes are already partly encroaching on the oasis, filling the irrigation canals, and slowly changing the country to a desert." It is still a "City of Schools," and has 100 colleges. The Khanate is completely subject to Russia.

(iv) Tashkend (130) is the capital of Russian Turkestan, and one of the first cities in the Empire. The town covers a space nearly as large as Paris. It occupies the centre of the irrigated lands between Samarkand and the Seven Rivers. The roofs are covered with a layer of earth laid out in flower-beds.

(v) Samarkánd (36) is the capital of the valley of the Zarafshan, which has made it a "garden in the wilderness." It is full of remains of beautiful architecture; contains the most magnificent mosque in all Central Asia, and the tomb of Tamerlane, the Eastern conqueror of the 14th century.

18. A Betrospect and a Forecast.—Traces of former rivers and channels, which were the main arteries of prosperous regions within the period of written history, have now disappeared. Of the highly developed civilisation which grew up and flourished in Bactriana, Bokhara, and Samarkand, the last traces are now undergoing rapid obliteration through the drying up of the rivers and lakes. . . . The whole country is dotted with lakes, which are rapidly disappearing under the hot winds and shifting sands of the deserts.

SIBERIA.

19. Siberia.—The vast region called Siberia is the chief Asiatic possession of the Russian Empire. Much of it can hardly be called civilised; but the commercial future of the southern part of the country is highly promising.

(i) The boundaries of Siberia are as follows :

- 1. M. -The Arctic Ocean.
- 2. E. -The Pacific.
- 8. S. The Chinese Empire and Russian Central Asia.
- 4. W.-Russia in Europe.

(ii) It is generally divided into Western and Eastern Siberia. Western Siberia comprises the basin of the Obi and Irtisch; Eastern Siberia, the rest of the country, to the Pacific.

(iii) We usually think of Siberia as a snow-clad desert, with a climate of an abominable monotony of cold. But we must remember (a) that it stretches through 25° of latitude and 120° of longitude; (b) that it is larger than Europe and possesses all kinds of soil, many kinds of climate, and the most varied products; (c) that it has "black-earth prairie steppes or rather pampas" on the Tobol, as well as alpine scenery and lakes in the Altai; (d) that it has enormous pastures with food for millions of cattle as well as rich mines; and (c) that it cannot be spoken of as one whole. In one respect, however, the common idea is right: Siberia is colder than any other country in the world—latitude for latitude.

20. Extent and Population.—The area of Siberia is estimated at 4,826,000 square miles—that is, larger than the whole of Europe by more than 1,100,000 square miles. The population amounts to only 5,000,000, or about one person for each square mile of land.

(i) The greatest length of Siberia from Behring Strait to the Urals is 3600 miles Its greatest breadth is 1800 miles.

(ii) It occupies more than one-fourth of the whole of Asia.

21. Build.—Most of Siberia is a vast plain which slopes uniformly in a north-western direction. The whole country consists of two well-marked divisions—Lowlands and Highlands. The lowlands form

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a great plain, which is broadest in the west and grows ever narrower as it goes east; the highlands consist of table-lands and mountainranges, which form the edge or buttress of the central plateau of Asia. The highlands become broader as they go east.

(i) The north coast is low and ice-bound for most of the year. The chief capes are Morth-East Gape (or Chelyuskin), the most northerly point of the Old World; East Gape, the most easterly; Gape Lopatka, at the south end of Kamtchatka.

(ii) The chief inlets are: the Gulf of Obi; the Gulf of Yenissi; Taimyr Bay; Khatanga Bay; Gulf of Anadyr; Gulf of Tartary, between Saghalien and the mainland.

(iii) The chief islands are : the Linkhov Islands, famous for their fossil ivory ; New Siberia ; Bear Islands—all in the Arctic Ocean. In the Behring Sea are St. Lawrence ; Behring Islands ; and the Aleutian Isles.

22. Mountains.—The southern edge of the table-land is bordered by ranges of mountains, the best known of which are the Altai, the Yablonovoi, and the Stanovoi.

(i) The Altai (="Gold Mountains") Range has a mean altitude of about 5000 ft., with numerous creats from 6000 to 10,000 ft. The mining region of the Altai belongs wholly to the Russian Imperial Crown, and is nearly as large as the whole of France. The most abundant metals are silver and copper; but gold, lead, zinc, iron are also extracted.

(ii) The Yablonevoi (or "Apple Range ') runs south of Lake Baikal, near the Chinese frontier.

(iii) The Stanevei, with the Yablonovol, forms part of the "Great Divide" which separates the basin of the Amur from the basins of the Lena and other rivers which flow into the Arctic Ocean.

(iv) The Peninsula of Kamtchatka is traversed in its entire length by a double chain of lofty mountains, fourteen of which are active volcances. This igneous system "forms merely a link in the endless chains of volcances which stretches from Alaska to the Philippines and the Eastern Archipelago." The Kurile Islands contain ten active volcances.

23. Rivers and Lakes.—The great rivers of Siberia are the Obi, Yenisei, Lena, and the lower course of the Amur. The first three run along meridians, and nearly parallel with one another to the Arctic Ocean. But the large tributaries flow north-west and north-east, and thus afford an almost uninterrupted water highway from the Urals to the Pacific Ocean. Indeed the whole country is interwoven with a network of rivers, which contain altogether about 30,000

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miles of navigable waters. The largest lake is Lake Baikal, which is also the largest body of fresh water in Asia.

(i) "From the river Ural to Yakutak—a distance of 6000 miles, this magnificent water-way is broken only by two short portages between the Obi and the Yenisei, and between the Yenisei and Lena respectively. Unfortunately all these rivers are icebound for the greater part of the year." 2.

(ii) The Obi is 2600 miles long, and navigable for most of this length. With its tributaries, it has a total navigable highway of over 9000 miles. It has the largest basin of all the Siberian rivers, and is also the richest in fish. Its chief tributaries are the Irtisch, the Tobol, and the Tom.

(iii) The Yenisei is a river which is of great use to commerce. Its head-waters —the largest are the Angara and Selenga—collect in Lake Baikal. There is upon it a large local trade. Its chief tributaries are the Upper and Lower Tungusta. Captain Wiggins has penetrated through the Kara Sea, to the mouth of the Yenisel, and 2000 miles up that river, to Yeniseisk—a town not far from the Chinese frontier. He has thus opened to commerce a new and vast region which is extremely rich in minerals and also in vegetable products. This is the most noteworthy feat in the development of commerce that has been performed this century. The Russian Government have granted free passages and freedom from taxation for five years.

(iv) The Lena is the great artery of trade for Eastern Siberia. It is navigable through most of its course; but at Yakutsk it is frozen over for more than 200 days in the year.

(v) The Amur (="Great River") is partly a Chinese and partly a Siberian river. It is navigable for 2000 miles of its course. Though it drains the smallest part of Siberia, it is certainly destined to become much the most important water highway for the Russian Empire. It is equal in volume to the three other great rivers of Siberia taken together; and it traverses countries which have a much richer soil and a more temperate climate. "The lower course of the Amur completes the natural highway by road and river, which begins some 6000 miles further west, at the mouth of the Neva."

(vi) The annual rainfall in Siberia scarcely exceeds eight inches, and yet there are very large rivers. Why is this? It is because the ground in the north is frozen, all the year through, within a few inches of the surface, and so no drop is lost in the ground, but goes into the tributaries, then into the rivers, and on to the ocean.

(vii) Lake Balkal (or Dalai-Nor=the "Holy Sea") is about half the size of Scotland. In some places it is 4500 ft. deep—that is, its bed is 3000 ft. below the sea-level. Its waters are remarkable for their great transparency. They are frozen for six months to the thickness of 5 ft. Sledges ply on it in the winter; and steamers in summer.

24. Climate.—Siberia has, on the whole, the most essentially continental climate of any country on the globe. For this there are

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two reasons: (i) the Great Plain slopes away from the sun, and towards a Frozen Ocean from which the coldest winds blow; (ii) the vast plateau of Central Asia shuts out all influences from the warm waters of the southern oceans. Siberia contains the "Pole of Maximum Cold." It is at Verkhoyansk (north of Yakutsk, and within the Arctic Circle). The thermometer there sinks to 117° below freezing point; while in summer it sometimes rises to 102°. On the other hand, some places in the far south have a genial Italian climate.

(i) "It would seem to be at once colder than the North Pole, and hotter than many uplands under the Equator; and thus we have the most typical continental climate."

(ii) The intense heat lasts only a few weeks; the intense cold for many months. Deep silence broods over the land; the trees are frozen to the heart; the axe, which becomes as fragile as glass, makes no impression on them. Rivers are frozen to the bottom; the mercury freezes; but, in summer, the baked surface of the Tundras becomes so hot one cannot walk on it.

25. Vegetation.—There are three well-marked divisions in the flora of Siberia : that of the grassy Steppes : of the Forest Belt : and of the Tundras.

(i) The Steppes in the south, which consist mostly of "rolling country," contain also a great breadth of fertile corn-land. "The belt of rich black earth in the region immediately north of the Altai lets for 8¹/₃d. an acre; and from it wheat may be purchased for about one-twentieth its cost in England."

(ii) The Forest Belt contains all the trees which are found in Europe. Conifers are the prevailing trees. The northern limit of trees is marked by the larch.

(iii) In the Tundras the only vegetation is herbage, mosses, and lichens.

26. Industries.—Hunting, fishing, and mining are the main industries; and, in the south, agriculture and pastoral pursuits. A brisk commerce is carried on, through Siberia, between Russia and China.

(i) About fifty different kinds of animals are trapped for their furs; and they die by the million every year. About 15,000,000 of squirrels have been killed in one year. The sable and the fur of the black fox are most highly prized.

(ii) The rivers and lakes are enormously rich in fish. In the Anadyr river, the shoals of salmon ascending the stream drive the water before them like a moving wall. "The rivers are so full of fish that one of the ordinary difficulties of the natives is to avoid breaking their nets with the weight of the draught." The fish are frozen and sent more than 2000 miles to St. Petersburg. "In the tropics man gathers his food from the trees; in the temperate zone from the soil; in the polar regions from the water."

(iii) Gold is the metal chiefly mined; next silver and copper.

(iv) The chief highway of communication is called the Trakt. It is the great trunk highway from Perm, in the Urals, to Kiakhta, in Transbaikalia, on the borders of China. The various halting-stations have grown into larger or smaller centres of population.—Timmen (the "Manchester of Siberia"), on a tributary of the Tobol, is the chief depot of the steamers that ply upon the Obi, and the beginning of the great water highway of Siberia.

27. Peoples.—Most of the inhabitants of Siberia are Russians—to the extent of at least four-fifths. As the "land of exile," much of it has been peopled by Russian political prisoners. The native peoples belong to the Mongolian, Finnic, and Tartar races. The noblest and most intelligent native race is the **Tunguses**.

Shamanism (or "Nature-worship")—the worship of good and evil powers and spirits—seems to be the religion of most of the native tribes. The Samciedes, who roam the Tundras, are idol-worshippers. "Their gods are carnivorous, and fond of raw flesh, which is thrust between their teeth at stated times."

28. Divisions and Towns.—The Russians have divided this vast country into eight "Governments." These are, for the most part, called after the chief town in each; and the chief town is generally named after the river on which it stands. There are only four towns which have more than 20,000 inhabitants. These are: Tomsk; Irkutsk: Omsk; Tobolsk.

Tomsk-town on the Tom ; Irkutsk-town on the Irkut ; Omsk, on the Om ; Tobolsk, on the Tobol.

(i) Tomsk (40) is the centre of trade in Western Siberia. Here begin the extensive gold-fields discovered in 1880. The city is the seat of a University.

(ii) Intutek (45), the capital of East Siberia, does not now stand on the Irkut, though it takes its name from that river. It stands on the Angara, and on the great trade and military route to China, not far from Lake Baikal, and is one of the chief centres of the fur trade. Every week a post leaves for Pekin, via Kiachta.

(iii) Omsk (32) is the capital of West Siberia. It stands on the Om, a tributary of the Irtish. It stands within the zone of Russian colonisation—between the Kirghiz on the south, and the Tartars on the north.

(iv) Tobolak (21) was formerly the capital of all Asiatic Russia. It stands at the configuence of the Irtish and the Tobol, in the very centre of the river-navigation of Western Siberia. Its fish-market is one of the best in the world.

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(v) Yakutsk and Yeniseisk are the capitals of two governments of the same name. With the exception of Verkhoyansk, Yakutsk is the coldest town in the world. Its average temperature is lower than that of the top of Mont Blanc.

(vi) The strong naval station of Petropaalovski (=harbour of Peter and Paul) stands on the east coast of Kamtchatka and commands the North Pacific.

(vii) Viadivostok (="Ruler of the East"), on the south coast, is intended to be the chief naval station on the Pacific.

(vili) "The Imperial Russian Post is now perhaps the most extensive and perfectly organised horse-express service in the world. From the southern end of the peninsula of Kamtchatka to the most remote village in Finland, from the frozen wind-swept shores of the Arctic Ocean to the hot sandy deserts of Central Asis, the whole empire is one vast net-work of post-routes. You may pack your portmanteau in Nishni Novgorod, get an 'order for horses' from the postal department, and start for Petropaulovski in Kamtchatka, seven thousand miles away, with the full assurance that throughout the whole of that enormous distance, there will be horses, reindeer, or dogs, ready and waiting, to carry you on, night and day, to your destination."

ASIATIC TURKEY.

1. Introductory.—The Sultan of Turkey, in addition to the territory he holds in Europe and the coast-lands which he rules in Arabia, possesses vast territories in Western Asia. These territories, though forming a continuous region between the Persian Gulf and the Mediterranean, divide easily into three parts : Asia Minor ; Syria ; and the Euphrates-Tigris Valley

(i) The boundaries of Asiatic Turkey are as follows:

- 1. M. -The Black Sea.
- 2. E. --- Persia and Trans-Caucasia.
- 3. 5. The Arabian Desert and the Mediterranean.
- 4. W .--- The Archipelago.

(ii.) The area of these territories amounts to nearly 730,000 square miles,—or more than three times the size of the Austrian Empire.

I. ASIA MINOR OR ANADOLI.

1. Position.—Asia Minor, the "Bridge of Civilisation between Asia and Europe," lies between the Black Sea, the Archipelago, and the Levant. Hence, for thousands of years, it has been the scene of exchanges of ideas and products,— of culture and of commerce. It is a large peninsula thrust out towards the west—thrust out almost into the middle of Southern Europe. It is the western extension of the Armenian and Kurdistán Highlands. The splendid harbours with which its three coasts are so richly furnished, have fostered and encouraged the exchange of wealth and learning.

The modern name is Anadolii (=Anatolia), from the Greek Anatolé-the Sun-rising or East. This hand was in the East to the Greeks. The word Legant has the same meaning. Milton has the phrase "I towant and Ponent winds" for East and West.

2. The **Coasts.**—The articulation (or development) of the coasts of Asia Minor is the richest in the whole of Asia; and this wealth of articulation is shown not only in the numerous bays and harbours round the coast, but in the numerous islands (especially in the west) which are again themselves rich in inlets and havens.

(i) The chief guits on the west coast are those of Adramayti (sheltered by Mitylene), Smyrna, Scala Nova (sheltered by Samos), and Kos; on the south coast, at the eastern angle of the Mediterranean, the Guif of Scanderoon, and the Guif of Adalia, to the west.

(ii) The chief capes are Cape Indjah on the Black Ses; Cape Anamour, in the south, on the Mediterranean; and Cape Baba, in the west.

(iii) The largest of the islands in the Archipelago which belong to Turkey are Mitylene, Ohio, Samos, Kes, and Rhodes-mostly peopled by Greeks. Off the Levant is Oypeus, which is now under British administration.

- (a) Mitylene is a mountainous island, "bristling with peaks." It is shaped like a fan. Its lower plains are very fertile.
- (b) Chio (or Scio, one of the places mentioned as the birthplace of Homer, "the blind old man of Scio's rocky isle") is a small island, "the Paradise of the Archipelago," but much subject to earthquakes. In 1881, the capital, Chio, was almost entirely destroyed, and nearly 6000 persons perished. In the war of 1822, the Turks slaughtered 25,000 Chiots, and carried off 65,000 as slaves to Constantingple.—Millions of oranges and lemons are grown every year.
- (c) Sames is a semi-independent principality, under the suzerainty of the Sultan. It has an ancient renown as the birthplace of Pythagenes, who, among much else, discovered the 47th propertion of the First Book of Euclid.
- (d) Kos is a small island at the mouth of the Gulf of Kos. It supplies the markets of Alexandria with fruits of all kinds. A little south of it is Nisyros, which contains the only still active volcano in Asia Minor.
- (s) Bhodes, the "Pearl of the Levant," the "Land of Pomegranates," the "Bride of the Sun," is a land "free alike from sunless days and leafless trees," It stands at the converging point of all the water-ways in the Levant, at the entrance to the Archipelago, and was once one of the great commercial centres of the world. The "Knights of St. John" held its capital, Rhodes, for more than 300 years (1305 to 1522) against the Turks.
- (f) Cyprus is the third largest island in the Mediterranean (Bardinia and Bicily ranking before it). It is about twice the size of Lancashire. It is a mountainous island, with a "Mount Olympus" in the centre. The capital is Levkosia (or Nikosia); and the only harbour of value is Lernaka. In 1878 the Sultan assigned Cyprus to Great Britain; but he still keeps the "over-lordship" and receives an annual tribute.

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3. Build.—Asia Minor is a plateau, between 2000 ft. and 3000 ft. above the sea-level, edged by mountain-ranges and falling by successive terraces to the Black Sea and the Mediterranean. It has some points of resemblance to "the Peninsula." The whole plateau slopes towards the Black Sea. The border mountain-ranges are the **Taurus**, the **Anti-Taurus**, and the **Pontic Coast-Range**. Much of the interior is occupied by a salt desert. Towards the west, numerous valleys open out upon the sea.

(i) The Taurus lies on the south of Asis Minor; the Anti-Taurus runs north-east from it. The most famous pass is the Cilician Gates. The highest point of the peninsula, however, is an isolated volcanic mountain with two craters, Mount Argaeus (13,000 ft.). In the north-west, is the "Bithynian Olympus" (9000 ft.); and, further west, Mount Ids., which rises above the "Plain of Troy" to the height of 5700 ft.

(ii) The Funtic Coast-Range runs along the coast of the Black Sea, and ends at the Archipelago, and is also continued in several islands.

(iii) The largest river in Asia Minor is the Kimil-Irmak (="Red River.") It flows into the Black Sea.—The most famous of the streams that flow west is the Macander, which "meanders" through the "Plain of Troy."

(iv) The largest lake is Lake Van, on the interior plateau. Having no outlet to the sea, it is very salt.

4. Climate.—The climate of Asia Minor is colder than that of the peninsulas of Europe in the same latitude, and also more continental. This is due chiefly to the fact that it is swept by cold winds from the Russian Steppes and the Black Sea.—The climate is also very dry.

(i) Spain is protected by the Pyrenees; Italy by the Alps; and Greece by the Balkans;—but Asia Minor is not protected against the north by any high mountainrange. The south coast, protected by the Taurus, has mild winters and scorching summers. The Ægean coast has a warm climate and a magnificent vegetation.

(ii) Although Asia Minor is as large as France, the volume of all its rivers is only one-third of that of the French streams.

(iii) The lowlands are infested by malaria; the inland plateaus have but a scanty vegetation. The southern face of the Taurus is covered by magnificent cedar-groves.

5. Industries.—Where property and industry are safe, agriculture is the most important industry. Cotton, optum, fine fruits, wine, and silk are cultivated. Commerce is growing more and more active in

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the cities of the sea-board. Trade will develop more rapidly as the railways grow. At present there are only 400 miles of railway in all Asiatic Turkey.

(i) Modern industries in Smyrna on the lowland coast; the pursuits of nomad tribes on the highland just above—this is one of many contrasts in Asia Minor.

(ii) Three of the railways-about 300 miles in all-start from Smyrna.

(iii) The district of Angora is noted for its silky, long-haired animals—cats, dogs, rabbits, and goats. The goats' hair forms the staple of the trade of the town of Angora, which stands right in the middle of the peninsula.

6. Inhabitants.—The population of the peninsula amounts to nearly 7,000,000. The inhabitants consist of the most various races; and every town has four or five different "nations." The Osmanli Turks are the ruling race; but the Greeks and Armenians carry on the commerce and professional work of the country.

(i) Though the country is as large as France, it has less than one-fifth of its population.

(ii) Asia Minor is at present the true home of the Turks. It is one of the mainstays of the Ottoman Empire.

(iii) "The doctor, lawyer, teacher, banker, are everywhere of Greek descent."

7. Divisions and Towns.—Asia Minor is divided into nine Turkish vilayets or pashalics. The best known of these are Archipelago and Trebisond.—By far the largest town is Smyrna; after it, but at a great distance, come the towns of Trebisond and Adama.

(i) Rhodes is the capital of the vilayet Archipelago; and Trebizond of Trebizond.

(ii) Smyras (200) is by far the largest city in Asia Minor; and it is the commercial centre of the Levant. "Here everything bears the stamp of western enterprise. The quays paved with lava-blocks from Vesuvius, the English trams, Austrian carriages, houses built in the French taste; bricks, marbles, tiles, timber, and other materials have all been imported from beyond the seas." The Greeks and Armenians have most of the trade in their hands.

(iii) Trebisond (45) is a famous city and port, "the outlet of Persia and Armenia on the Black Sea." Sinöpe lies west of it. "Here the Greeks under Xenophon, on their memorable retreat to the north from Cunaxa first struck the coast and hailed the blue waters of the Euxine with shouts of *Thelatia* ! The Isea ! The Sea ! ") (iv) Adama (45), in the south-east corner of Asia Minor. It stands at the meetingpoint of several caravan-routes. Tarsus, not far from Adama, is famous as the birthplace of the Apostle Paul.

(v) Broussa, in the extreme north-west, was the capital of Turkey before the Ottomans made their way into Europe. Scutari, on the Bosphorus, is a suburb of Constantinople.

8. Historic Bemains.—The name of ASIA MINOR conjures up the memory of a varied and glorious past. There is no region of the globe in which so much history has been condensed within a narrower area. Nearly every part of the country exhibits the most splendid remains of ancient civilisations; and its towns show numerous traces of a vanished splendour. Ionia was the earliest seat of Greek civilisation. Ionian and Dorian Greeks held the chief seaports and built the most magnificent cities; and the greatest Greek writers and thinkers —such as Homer, Thales, Pythagoras, and Herodotus—were born in Asia Minor. Near the western shores rose in unequalled grandeur the ancient cities of Troy, Smyrna, Ephesus, and Miletus; on the plains and table-lands of the interior, stood Sardis (the capital of Asia), Philadelphia, Laodicea, and many other famous places.

II. SYRIA.

9. Introductory.—Syria is a long strip of high mountain country which stretches in an almost straight line from the Peninsula of Sinai to the Gulf of Scanderoon. Its coast is called the Levant. A small district in the south is called **Palestine** or the Holy Land—a district about twice as large as Yorkshire.

(i) The only inlet is the small Bay of Acre.

(ii) The chief cape is Cape Carmel, south of the Bay of Acre.

10. Extent and Population.—Syria is a little larger than Italy; and Palestine a little larger than Belgium. The population is small.

11. Build.—To understand the build of Syria, let us take our stand at the ruins of Baalbek—a city which stood half way between Antioch and the Dead Sea. Round Baalbek rise the four main streams—Jordan, Orontes, Leontes, and Abana, which flow in four opposite directions. North of Baalbek stretch the parallel chains of the Lebanon and Anti-Lebanon, with the elevated valley of El-Bekás (formerly called Coele-Syria or "Hollow Syria") between them; while south of it stretch the mountain-ranges of Judea and Samaria, girding on both sides the deeply depressed valley of the Jordan—which is called El Ghor. Two mountain-ranges in the north, enclosing a high valley; two in the south, enclosing a low valley; a short slope to the Mediterranean, a long slope to the desert—such is the simple build of Syria.

(i) The Lebanon and Anti-Lebanon are limestone ranges. The valley of El-Bekia (="Mulberry Valley") is 2000 ft. above the level of the sea; and more than 3000 ft. above the level of the Jordan Valley.

(ii) The valley of the Jordan, or El Ghor, is the deepest depression on the surface of the earth. The surface of the Dead Sea, which occupies the lowest part of the valley, is about 1300 ft. below the level of the Mediterranean.

(iii) The Mountains of Judea and Samaria are really the steep escarpment of a high plateau, which fills the south of the country; and the El Ghor is a deep cleft or ravine intersecting this plateau.

(iv) The highest point in the country is Mount Hermon (now called Jebel-el-Sheikh or The Old Man's Mountain), which is 11,000 ft. high. It is the most densely wooded mountain in the whole of Syria.

12. Bivers and Lakes.—The four chief rivers of Syria are the Orontes and Jordan; the Leontes and Abana. The principal lakes are Tiberias and the Dead Sea.

(i) The Orontes rises on the western slopes of the Anti-Lebanon, and falls into the Mediterranean.

(ii) The Jordan (="the River") rises between Baalbek and Mount Hermon. It flows south, through Lakes Merom and Tiberias, and falls into the Dead Sea. Between Merom and Tiberias is a distance of only 10 miles; and in this short distance the Jordan falls 700 ft.

(iii) The Leontes flows to the west, into the Mediterranean ; while the Abana pierces through the deep gorges of the Anti-Lebanon and finds its way down to "the smiling plains of Damascus."

(iv) Lake Tiberias (called also the "Sea of Galilee," "Sea of Chinnereth," and "Sea of Gennesareth") is a sheet of clear water, nearly as large as Berkshire. Now, as of old, it abounds in fish; and it is encircled on all sides by lofty mountain-walls.

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(v) The Dead Sea(called also Bahr Lút or "Sea of Lot," "Sea of Salt," 'Asphaltites Lake ") probably received its name from the fact that cities lie engulfed in its depths. It is a little larger than Huntingdonshire. It lies in a basin formed by naked limestone cliffs; and its water is as clear and blue as that of the Mediterranean, "but salt, slimy, and fetid beyond description, tasting like a mixture of brine and rancid oil." "The human body will not sink in it, strive as the bather may." The steplike terraces round it are old beaches, which contain the shells of species still living in the Mediterranean. No fish live in the Dead Sea.

13. Divisions and Towns.—Modern Syria is divided by the Turks into three governments : Aleppo, Lebanon, and Syria. The capitals of these districts are Aleppo, Deir-el-Kamar, and Damascus. The other important towns are Scanderoon, Beyrout, and Jerusalem.

(i) Aleppe (130), in Northern Syria, is the chief caravan station between the Euphrates and the Gulf of Scanderoon or Alexandretta. It stands at the meetingpoint of several trade-routes. Before the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope and the sea-route to India, it was one of the greatest trading cities in the world. The opening of the Suez Canal also injured its commerce. (It was anciently called Bereea.)

(ii) Deir-el-Eamar lies in the heart of the mountains on a lofty terrace.

(iii) Damascus (220) is the first and largest city in Syria, and a great centre of the caravan trade. It was called "the Eye of the East." It commands the sea-board and the Plains of Mesopotamia. Here Paul was converted to Christianity. Seen from the neighbouring hills, the city looks a mass of white and rose-tinted buildings among dense seas of verdure. (Damascus gives its name to a kind of clothdamask.) Its port is Beyrout, the largest and most commercial city on the Syrian coast. It exports the fruits, the wools, raw silks, etc., of the rural population of the Lebanon, as well as the goods brought down to it by caravans.

(iv) Seandercon (or Alexandretta="Little Alexandria") is one of the safest ports on the Syrian coast. It is the best point for the terminus of the projected railway between the Mediterranean and the Persian Gulf. Caravans of 10,000 camels are constantly on the road between Aleppo and Scandercon.

(v) Jerusalem (= the "Heir of Peace"), called also the "City of David," the "Holy City," etc., stands on a rocky plateau, which has three steep sides falling into deep ravines. It commands the water-parting of the Mediterranean and Dead Sea basins. It has a more wonderful history than any other city on the face of the globe,— Bethlehem, where Christ was born, is a village a few miles south of Jerusalem.—Jaffa (formerly Joppa) is the port of Jerusalem. Its gardens produce about 30,000,000 oranges a year.—Meareth, at the foot of Mount Tabor, is the chief city of Galilee.— Tiberias is a small place on the Lake of Tiberias or "Sea of Galilee."—Gana is one of the oldest cities in the world: it is at least 4000 years old. It is still a place of some importance, as it stands on the highroad between Egypt and Palestine—that is, between Africa and Asia.

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III. THE EUPHRATES-TIGRIS VALLEY.

14. The Euphrates-Tigris Basin.—This great basin contains an elevated highland—the Flateau of Armenia, and an immense lowland plain. The northern and mountainous part comprises Turkish Armenia and Kurdistán ; the southern region contains Mesopotamia (called by the Arabs El Jezireh="The Island"), and Irak-Arabi, —the region where the two rivers are one.

(i) The word Mesopotamia comes from two Greek words, mesos, middle; and potamos, a river. The idea is the same as that in *docab*, the country between two rivers. Hence the Arabs call this country "the Island."

(ii) For an account of the Euphrates and Tigris, see p.231. The two streams units at a point about 100 miles above the Persian Gulf; and the river is known as the Shatt-el-Arab or "River of the Arabs." The plain of Irak-Arabi is the Babylonia of the ancients.

(iii) Lake Van stands on the Turkish part of the Armenian Plateau. This part of the plateau has an elevation of more than a mile. The water is saline, and cannot be drunk by either man or beast.

15. Divisions and Towns. — The Turks have divided this great basin into five vilayets or governments : Erzeroum, Van, Diarbekir (these three on the table-land), Bagdad, and Bassorah. The capitals of these governments have the same names.

(i) Erseroum (65) stands near the source of one of the two arms of the Euphrates, at the height of 6500 ft. above the sea-level. "It is the most advanced bulwark of Turkey towards Russia."

(ii) Van (35), the second largest town in the Kurdistan Highlands, is inhabited mostly by Armenians. It is celebrated for its pure air and beautiful gardens; and the local proverb is: "Van in this, Paradise in the next world!"

(iii) Diarbekir (42), the largest town in the Kurdistan Highlands, stands at the northern extremity of Mesopotamia, at the meeting-point of the chief routes between the basins of the Tigris and Euphrates, and the north. It has a large and busy bazaar.

(iv) Bagdad (185), the "Abode of Peace," once the most brilliant city in the Moslem world, stands on the Tigris, at a point where the two rivers approach so near to each other that they are connected by canals. It is one of the most prosperous cities in Turkey, a great emporium and station for the transit trade; and a small fleet of commercial steamers connect it with Bassorah.

(v) Bassorah is the principal port on the Shatt-el-Arab. "When Bagdad was one of the great cities of the world, Bassorah was the busiest port in the East." "Hundreds of millions of date-palms, noted for their exquisite flavour, flourish in the moist district of Bassorah."

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ARABIA

ARABIA.

1. Introductory.—Arabia is the largest peninsula in the world. It is also the largest and most westerly of the three great peninsulas of Asia. It is, moreover, the least articulated and most solid of them all. Though most of it is desert, it has produced one of the greatest and most vigorous races that ever appeared on the face of the globe a race that at one time spread its dominion from Spain and Morocco on the Atlantic to the Eastern Archipelago in the Pacific. It has always been an isolated region—a land apart. Its hot climate and its barren soil have attracted no settlers, and its waterless deserts have repelled invaders ; while it has poured out horde after horde of warriors who carried the religion of Islam with fire and sword into the richest countries of Asia, Africa, and Europe. The Arab Empire was at one time larger than that of Rome at its greatest extent.

(1) In the Middle Ages, the Arabs had empires in three quarters of the world :—in Palestine, Mesopotamia, and Persia; in Egypt and the north of Africa; and in Spain. They were finally expelled from Spain in 1492—the year of the discovery of America.

(ii) Even now, by their religion (the Mahometan) and their institutions, the Arabs give law and custom to one-eighth of the human race.

2. Position.—Arabia stands exactly in the centre of the Old World; and, before the way round the Cape of Good Hope was discovered, it possessed a large and magnificent trade.

Its boundaries are as follows :

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- 1. M. -Turkey in Asia (the Syrian Desert).
- 2. E. The Persian Gulf and the Gulf of Oman.
- 8. S. -The Gulf of Aden and the Arabian Sea.
- 4. W .- The Red Sea and the Suez Canal.

3. Shape and Size.—Arabia is an irregular parallelogram, with a short coast-line and a simple form. The area of the Peninsula is abcut 1,260,000 square miles, a little more than six times the size of France, or about one-third of the whole of Europe.

(i) The coast measures about 4000 miles in length, is uniform and monotonous in aspect, and has very few islands. In the Red Sea the coast is fringed by extensive coral reefs—groups of sunken rocks and islets, which make navigation very dangerous. In the Persian Gulf there is the small Bahrein Archipelago, which is the centre of an important pearl-fishery.

4. Build.—The relief of Arabia is scarcely less regular than its outline. A central plateau, a desert ring, coast-ranges on the west, south, and south-east edges of the Peninsula—such is the build of Arabia. Each feature occupies about one-third of the whole surface. The central plateau rises from 2500 ft. in the north to 7000 ft. in the south-west. Some ranges of mountains cross the plateau from west to east.

(i) The central plateau is called Weid. It has undulating slopes rich in pasturage and valleys filled with gardens.

(ii) The desert ring is usually divided into three parts: The Nefad Desert in the north; the Dahna Desert in the middle; and the Great Arabian Desert in the south. The northern desert is partly stony and gravelly, partly an expanse of burning red sand crimson after heavy rain, with here and there oases with wells and grass, which serve as halting-places for caravans. The southern deserts are sandy.

(iii) In the small peninsula of Sinai the highest peak reaches to 9300 ft. The mountains are generally barren on their sea side.

(iv) The low and narrow plain to the west of the mountain-range which looks over the Red Sea is called the **Tehama**—a word which means "lowland."

(v) There is not a river nor a lake in all Arabia. There are many wddies, which are foaming torrents in the rainy season, but are dry for nine or ten months in the year. (The word wady appears as Guadi in Spain—as in Guadiana, Guadalquivir, etc.)

5. Climate.—The climate of Arabia is very hot and very dry. In fact, Arabia has an African climate. Much of the country lies in the "Rainless Region."

(i) "The zone of maximum heat on the surface of the globe in July embraces the whole of the Persian Gulf, the greater part of the Red Sea, and of the Arabian Penin-) sula which lies between them."

(ii) In some parts of Arabia-especially in the Deserts-no rain may fall for three or four years.

(iii) "It is the vicinity of the African Sahara that prevents Arabia from enjoying, as India does, the full benefit of the moist winds from the Indian Ocean." The only part of Arabia that receives the tropical monsoon rains is Yemen in the south-west corner. Both the North-East Trades and the South-West Monsoons blow--not into the country--but parallel with the coast.

(iv) The Great Arabian Desert surpasses the Sahara itself in absolute barrenness.

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6. Arabia and the Deccan : a Contrast.—There are certain features of the two greatest Asiatic peninsulas which present a striking contrast; and it may be worth while to notice these.

ARABIA.

- 1. Arabia has its greatest breadth in the south.
- 2. One-third of Arabia is desert.
- 8. Arabia has narrow seas on both sides of it.
- 4. Arabia is separated from the north by the Syrian Desert.
- 5. The coast of Arabia has few harbours.
- 6. The landscape, flora, and fauna of Arabia are African in character.
- 7. Arabia has very few islands; and these are small.
- 8. Arabia is one of the most thinly peopled lands in the world.

THE DECCAN.

- 1. The Deccan grows narrower as it goes to the south, and ends in a point.
- There is no desert in the Deccan; but a great deal of the richest land (the "Black Lands") in the world.
- 3. The Deccan has vast breadths of sea on both sides.
- The Deccan is separated from the north by the rich Plain of the Ganges.
- 5. The coast of the Deccan has many good harbours.
- 6. The landscape, flora, and fauna of the Deccan are Asiatic.
- 8. The Deccan has one of the densest populations on the globe.

7. Vegetation.—The flora of Arabia resembles that of the Soudan. The most valuable plants are the **date-paim**, **coffee**, and aromatic and medical plants such as produce **frankincense**, **myrrh**, **gum-arabic**, **senna**, etc. The terraces which slope down to the sea produce wheat, **barley**, **millet**, and excellent fruits.

(i) There are 130 different kinds of date-palm in all the cases. The date is the staple article of food. "Honour the date-tree," says Mahomet, "for it is your mother."

(ii) The best coffee is Mocha coffee, grown in Yemen.

(iii) Arabia possesses no forests, but has—especially in the Neid—vast stretches of desert grass fragrant with aromatic herbs, and furnishing admirable pasturage for the Neid breed of Arab horses.

(iv) The date-palm belt-between Medinah and lat. 23"-stretches across the Peninsula. "Nejd is the favoured land of date-palms; every valley that intersects its vast plateau waves with them. Eaten fresh, or stewed with butter, they form the staff of Arab food."

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8. Animals.—There is in Arabia no forest and little cover; and hence there are few wild animals. Panthers, lynxes, jackals, and large hyænas are found in the mountains; while ostriches and gazelles haunt the oases of the deserts. The domestic animals are the horse and camel; and sheep and goats form also an important item of Arab wealth.

(i) "For proportion of form, symmetry of limb, cleanness of muscle, beauty of appearance—for endurance of fatigue, for docility, and for speed maintained to distances so long as to appear incredible, the Nejdee horse acknowledges no equal."

(ii) The Arabian camel or dromedary has only one hump. It is rightly as well as poetically called "the ship of the desert." The camel and the date, says the Arab legend, were created by Allah out of the same earth as man. No animal puts its owner to less expense for its keep; the thorns of the desert, dry grass—nothing comes amiss.

(iii) The locust abounds in Arabia; but it is devoured rather than devouring. Locusts boiled, and slightly salted, are a staple article of food in every Arabian market.

9. The People.—The Arabs form a branch of the Semitic family. The Arab is a noble-looking man—tall, spare, muscular, and with brown complexion, dark-eyed, dark-haired. "Independence looks out of his glowing eyes;" he is quick, sharp-witted, imaginative, and very fond of poetry. "Courage, temperance, hospitality, and good faith, are his leading virtues."

(i) "The Arabs (essentially one in origin, physique, speech, and religion) have never submitted to a foreign yoke, and for many thousand years their forefathers have roamed freely over the boundless solitudes of the interior."—"The Arab is satisfied with little; but all that he owns must be of the choicest quality. His dates, his perfumes, his coffee, are the best in the world."

(ii) The dwellers in the towns are called "Ahl Hadr"; in the country, "Ahl Bedoo" (= Dwellers in the Open); hence the name *Bedowins*.

(iii) The Bedouin is accustomed from infancy to lie on the hard ground, to endure the rays of an almost vertical sun, to go without sleep or food for days, to taste no strong drinks; and hence he enjoys uniform good health. He is the very soul of hospitality; "the guest is sacred in his camping-ground, and the foe himself is welcome once he has touched the tent-rope."

(iv) The population of Arabia is variously estimated at from 7,000,000 to 12,000,000. Of these, at least one-fifth are nomad Bedouins.

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10. Industry.—Industry in Arabia reaches its minimum—its lowest level; and Arabia has been called "the anti-industrial centre of the world."

(i) In Yemen there is some weaving, some gold and silk thread embroidery, and a little silver and steel work.

(ii) "There is not a single building, public or private, built by the Arabs themselves, of any merit, within the whole of Arabia."

(iii) There are no minerals-with the exception of a little lead.

11. Commerce.—There is a good deal of internal trade, and the Arab is a born trader; but of foreign commerce there is very little. The small exports there are consist of camels and sheep, hair and wool; a little coffee : dates; and horses. A little cotton cloth, Indian prints, sugar, hardware, arms, form the very slight imports.

"No Arab undertakes a journey, were it only from one village to another, without taking with him some object for exchange or sale; and he will sooner chaffer away the handkerchief on his head or the camel on which he rides, than return without having effected something in the way of business."

12. Divisions.—Arabia is divided into eight territories, some independent, and some under foreign powers. "The bulk of the inhabitants are in a tribal state."

(i) On the East coast we find El Hassa and Omaa; the former subject to Turkey, the latter to the Sultan or Imaum of Muscat.

(ii) On the South coast is **Hadraman**, held by independent Bedouin tribes, but much under the influence and power of Britain—which is exerted from Aden.

(iii) On the West coast are Yemen ("Arabia Felix") and El Hejaz-subject to Turkey. Yemen is so rich that one-fifth of the whole population of Arabia is concentrated in this corner. El Hejaz is the Holy Land of the Mahometans, because it contains the cities of Mecca and Medina. The possession of El Hejaz by the Turks gives to the Suitan his best title to the Caliphate of Islam—to his name of "Commander of the Faithful."

(iv) In the interior are Nejd and the Sultanate of Jebel Shemer, both native states. The Nejd is the stronghold of the vigorous Arab nationality.

(v) At the head of the Red Sea is the **Simal Region**, which is under the Egyptian Government. This region is a rocky limestone plateau—a wilderness of rocks and mountains, arid plains and dry beds of torrents. It was the scene of the 40 years' wanderings of the Israelites. The highest point is Jebel Katharais (8650 ft.).

Sheikh means "Elder"; Emir, "Ruler"; Imaum, "Preceder."

13. Towns.—"In a land of which probably not more than one-tenth is arable, towns cannot be numerous." There are not two towns in the whole vast Peninsula which have a settled population of more than 50,000. The two largest towns are **Sana** and **Muscat**; the two most famous are **Mecca** and **Medina**. Aden, **Mocha**, **Riad**, and **Hail**, are also well-known cities.

(i) Sans (40), the capital of Yemen, "the finest and best-built city in the whole of Arabia," lies in the heart of the coffee district. It has 50 large mosques.

(ii) Musess (60), the capital of Oman, lies in a crescent of bare red igneous rocks. It is one of the hottest places on the globe. It has a large trade. The Sultan is a pensioner of the Anglo-Indian Government, which is the true ruler of Muscat.

(iii) Meeca is the birthplace of Mahomet, "the 'Holy City' for perhaps two hundred millions of human beings, towards which Mahometans of all sects and nations turn in the hour of prayer." It is the true capital of Arabia and the metropolis of Islam, thanks to the "black stone" (a meteorite), supposed to have been given by God to Abraham, which existed and was venerated long before the appearance of the Prophet. This holy stone is kept in the **Easba**, which is a square building about 40 ft. high in the Holy Mosque, and with a silver door. To touch it brings forgiveness of sins and opens the gates of Paradise. During the season of pilgrimage, Mecca becomes one vast bazaar. The pilgrimage is called the "Haj"; and a pilgrim a "Hajee." Jedah, on the Red Sea, is the port of Mecca.

(iv) Medina (="The City") contains the tomb of the Prophet. His cofin is encased in silver and covered with a heavy marble slab. The tomb is a shrine second only in sanctity to the Kaaba itself; a "prayer made here is worth a thousand elsewhere." But a pilgrim to Medina does not gain the title of "Hajee."—It was to Medina that Mahomet fied from his fellow-citizens of Mecca on July 15, 622. This is called the "Hegira" (Flight); and from this date the Mahometan era commences. Yambe, on the Red Sea, is the port of Medina.

(v) Aden, a British coaling and military station, is the most populous town in the whole of Arabia. The island of Perim is an "advanced port" of this "Gibraltar of the Indian Ocean." The old town of Aden lies in the very crater of a dormant volcano; and the sides of the crater bristle with cannon. Aden forms "a vital link in the vast chain of British strongholds which encircle the globe."

(vi) Mocha, on the Red Sea, gives its name to the finest coffee. But its coffee trade has departed to Aden.

(vii) Riad (30) is the capital of the state called Nejd,—a state which contains more large towns than any other part of Arabia.

14. Highways of Communication.-Arabia has no roads, no railways,

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no rivers, no canals, no lakes. The Peninsula is, however, crossed everywhere by well-marked caravan routes, the direction of which is determined by the number of wells and reservoirs along their course. All trade-routes converge on Mecca and Medina.

(i) The Arab and other Mahometans combine commerce with religious pilgrimages.

(ii) The pilgrims from Africa and other countries now go by sea as much as possible.

PERSIA.

1. The Country.—Persia is the western and larger half of the great Plateau of Iran, which stretches from the Tigris to the Indus, from the Mountains of Armenia to the Hindu-Koosh. The Persian part of the plateau is in average height about 5000 ft. above the level of the sea—that is, nearly a mile. It is of importance to Great Britain as lying on the flank of Afghanistan—which has always been a troublesome neighbour to India; it is of importance to Russia, as lying on her southern borders. Hence the rule and the destinies of Persia lie practically in the hands of Russia and Britain.

(1) The Plateau of Iran is the connecting link between the great Eastern and Western Table-lands.

(ii) The native name of Persia is Farsistan, or Stan (country) of the Farsees, or Parsees (= Persians).

So Kurdistan-Country of the Kurds; Turkestán, Country of the Turks; Afghanistán, of the Afghans, etc.

2. Boundaries.—Persia lies between the Caspian and the Persian Gulf; between Armenia on the west and Afghanistan and Beluchistan on the east. Mount Ararat is the corner-stone at which the Turkish, Russian, and Persian dominions meet.

(i) The political boundaries are as follows-

- 1. N. -- Trans-Caucasia, Caspian Sea, and Turkestan.
- 2. E. -- Afghanistan and Beluchistan.
- 3. S. -The Persian Gulf, and the Gulf of Oman.
- 4. W .--- Turkey-in-Asia.

(ii) If the Caspian is a Russian, the Persian Gulf has become an "English Lake."

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3. Size and Population.—The area of Persia is estimated at 628,000 square miles—or rather more than three times the size of France. But the population is considerably under 8,000,000—or about 12 persons to the square mile.

The population belongs chiefly to the Aryan race; but in the north and east there are many Mongol Tartars, who are nomads.

4. Build.—Persia is a table-land shaped like an inverted basin, the edge of which drops on the north to the Caspian, and, on the south, comes down by a series of terraces to the Persian Gulf. It is traversed by lofty ranges of mountains running, generally, from north-west to south-east. In the north-east is the Great Salt Desert of Khorassan, in the south-east the Desert of Lot. About two-thirds of the surface has an inland drainage (where it has any water at all), and sends no rivers to the ocean. The country is encircled on all sides by high mountain-ranges.

(i) Eleven of these mountain-ranges are almost perfectly parallel; and hence they control the direction of the winds. The highest range in the south is Kuh Dinár; in the north, Elburs, the culminating point of which is Mount Demávend, a volcanic peak, "whose fires are still slumbering," 18,570 ft. high.

(ii) "In the south-eastern deserts the prevailing element is sand, lifted by the winds into ever-shifting dunes, by which caravan routes are effaced, arable tracts covered, the very villages and towns themselves threatened with destruction."

(iii) There is only one navigable stream in all Persia—the Karán, which is united by a canal with the Shatt-el-Arab.

(iv) The largest lake is Uramiyah, which lies 4570 ft. above the sea-level. It is rather larger than Somersetshire, is extremely salt and very shallow. The water is salter than that of the Dead Sea, and swimmers cannot dive in it. The average depth is about 6 ft. But "it lies in a district of almost unrivalled fertility, covered with vineyards, orchards, gardens, and thickly studded with towns and villages."

5. Climate and Vegetation.—The climate of Persia is continental: great dryness, excessive heat; and intense cold in the upland country. The annual rain-fall is less than 10 inches. As regards vegetation, Persia is a land of contrasts--leafy forests on the outer slopes of the coast-ranges and scanty brushwood on the dreary saline plateaus.

(i) On the northern slopes of the Elburz grow magnificent forests of cedar, elm, oak, walnut, beech, and box. Wheat and barley are grown at a height of several thousand feet; and the lowlands yield cotton, sugar, grapes, and European fruits.

(ii) Irrigation is managed by a system of wells connected by underground channels.

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6. The People.—The Persian is the "Parisian of the East." He has a ready wit and a persuasive style. Both the urban and the rural classes of Persia are polite, courteous, and refined in their manners. In Ancient Persia, education was summed up in the power "to speak the truth and to draw the bow," but this cannot be said of Modern Persia at all. The prevalent religion is Mahometanism.

The Persian presents a striking contrast, in character and manners, to the Turk. The Turk (or Ottoman) is a stock-breeder, a husbandman, and a soldier; the Persian . is a trader and, by temperament, an artist. The Turk is a man of few words and of serious speech; the Persian is a fluent talker and a brilliant logician.

7. Industries.—The chief industry is agriculture, and nearly twothirds of the population are tillers of the ground. But there are valuable manufactures of porcelain, of carpets and shawls, and of articles of luxury.

(i) Less than one-fifth of all the land in Persia is under cultivation, and about two-thirds is desert.

(ii) The chief cereals are wheat and rice. Cotton, tobacco, and opium, are also grown. Apples and pears, filberts and walnuts, grapes and peaches, plums and nectarines are all so cheap as to be within reach of the poorest inhabitant.

(iii) The best carpets are made in Kurdistan. Many of the most beautiful carpets are woven in the tents of the Turkomans—a wild nomadic race.

8. Commerce.—The export trade of Persia is very small; and the total foreign commerce does not amount annually to much more than $\pounds 1$ a head. The direct trade of Persia with the United Kingdom is most insignificant—it amounts, including both imports and exports, to little more than $\pounds 400,000$ per annum.

(i) The imports are mostly of cotton and woollen goods, glass, sugar, tes, and coffee.

(ii) The exports consist of opium, dried fruits, silk, carpets, pearls, turquoises, etc.

(iii) Since the opening of the Trans-Caucasian Railway, the Russians have commanded most of the Persian markets.

(iv) There are only two carriage roads in the whole of this vast empire; and the whole trade of the country is carried on by caravans, which radiate from the cities of the interior to Erzeroum, Bagdad, and other places. The so-called highroad from the capital to Rescht on the Caspian, though only 180 miles long, takes seven days to travel.

(v) There are no railways. There are about 4000 miles of telegraph line.

(vi) The chief centres of commerce are Tabris, Teheran, and Ispahan. The chief port is Bushire on the Persian Gulf.

9. Towns.—There are in Persia thirteen towns with more than 25,000 inhabitunts. Of these, five have more than 50,000; and of these again, two have over 100,000. The five largest are Teheran, the capital, Tabris, Ispahan, Meshed, and BArfurûsh.

(i) Teheran (210) or "the Pure" is the capital, and stands at the southern foot of the Elburz Range. Its only respectable building is the palace of the King, with a few shops and houses of western fashion beside it. Elsewhere, most of the town is a labyrinth of narrow and crooked streets, obstructed by heaps of rubbish, and full of ruts and pitfalls. The only scavengers are dogs and jackals. In the fashionable quarter there are streets lighted with gas.

(ii) **Tabris** (180) is the most populous city and the chief commercial emporium of Persia. Standing near the Russian and the Turkish frontiers, it has become a great international entrepot. "The city is surrounded by thousands of well-watered gardens."

(iii) Ispahaa (60) was the old capital. It was once called "Half of the World." The old walls are 22 miles in circumference; but "the fox and jackal have their dens amid the ruins of its fluest palaces, mosques, and bazaars." Its greatest glory now is a noble bridge (across the Zendeh-rud or "River of Life") of 34 arches surmounted by an open gallery. Ispahan is the centre of Mahometan learning. It stands in a fertile plain, in the very heart of the kingdom.

(iv) Meshed (60), the capital of Khorassan, lies near the north-eastern frontier, not far from the Afghan town of Herat. It is the religious and trading centre of Eastern Persia.

(v) Bârtarâsh (60), near the southern shore of the Caspian, has the best stocked bazaar in the East. Its port, Meshed-i-Ser, is the busiest port on the whole coast. The passes across the Elburs from Bârfurûsh to Teherân are easy of travel.

(vi) Shiras (30) is the capital of Farsistan (the province which gives its name to the whole of Persia—as the province of Holland does to the Netherlands). Nestling among rose gardens, vineyards, and cypress groves, it owes its tropical luxuriance to an abundance of water, and its fame to its rose-water and attar of roses.

10. The Government.—The Government of Persia is a pure despotism. The sovereign is called **Shah-en-Shah** or "King of Kings." The basis of law is the precepts in the Korán. The Shah is assisted by a council and a prime-minister called the "Grand Vizir."



(i) There is a standing army of about 50,000 men.

(ii) The navy consists of two small vessels.

(iii) There is no national debt.

(iv) The Shah has little or no power over the nomad tribes, who form one-third of the whole people.

AFGHANISTAN AND BELUCHISTAN.

1. Introductory.—These two countries form the eastern section of the great Plateau of Iran. Both are elevated table-lands; but Afghanistan is the more mountainous.

Afghanistán means the stan or land of the Afghans; Beluchistán, the land of the Beluchia.

2. Afghanistan.—This country is a great quadrilateral plateau and vast arid mountain mass, which consists of high and almost inaccessible valleys, rugged highlands, and immense mountain-ranges. More than four-fifths of the surface is covered by rugged mountains.

(i) It has been briefly described as a "country of mountain-ranges, long narrow passes, and elevated valleys."

(ii) Its boundaries are as follows

- 1. M .-- Turkestan and the river Amu.
- 2. E .- The Chinese Empire and British India.
- 3. S.-Beluchistan.
- 4. W.-Persia.

(iii) Its size, if we include Afghan Turkestan, has been estimated at 273,000 square miles, or more than three times the size of Great Britain.

3. Build.—We shall grasp the relief of Afghanistan more readily if we look at it as divided into four great river-basins: (i) the northern belonging to the Amu (or Oxus) basin; (ii) the eastern, or Valley of the Kabul, belonging to the basin of the Indus; (iii) the middle, consisting of the basin of the Herl-Rud (="River of Herat"); and (iv) the southern, consisting of most of the basin of the Helmund.

(i) The northern slopes of the Hindu-Koosh drain into the Amu (or Oxus).

(ii) The southern slopes of the Hindu-Koosh drain into the river Kabul, which is an affluent of the Indus. (iii) The Heri-Rud, which drains Middle Afghanistan, is gradually lost in the sands of the desert.

(iv) The Helmund drains South-western Afghanistan, and falls into the swamp called Lake Seistan.

(v) The only lakes of any importance are Seistan a swamp partly in Persia and partly in Afghanistan ; and Abistada, a very salt lake, which drains into the Helmund.

4. Mountains.—The most important ranges are the Hindu-Koosh (with its westerly continuations—the Koh-i-Baba, Safed-Koh and Siah-Koh); and the Suliman Mountains, which form the eastern edge of the Iranian Plateau, and divide Afghanistan from the low plains in the valley of the Indus.

Kok is = mountain. Thus "Kohincor" (the famous diamond) means "Mountain of Light,"

(i) The **Eindu-Kok** (or "Mountains of the Hindus") afterwards called **Eindu-Koeck** (or "Hindu-killer") contains a number of peaks which rise to the height of 23,000 ft. above the level of the sea. Some of the passes are easy and might be crossed in a wheeled wagon.

(ii) The highest point in the Sulimans is the Takht-i-Suliman (=Throne of Solomon), which is 11,298 ft., or 2½ miles high.

(iii) The latest authorities give the Amrán Range as the "scientific frontier" of India towards Afghanistan.

5. Passes.—The importance of Afghanistan to Great Britain lies in the fact that it commands the plains of British India; for the passes between Central Asia and India lie in the Afghan Mountains. There are at least a score of practicable routes from the Iranian Plateau to the Plains of the Indus. The most famous are : the Khyber Pass; the Kurum Pass; and the Bolan Pass.

(i) The **Expose** Pass leads from Peshawur to Jellalabad; and thence, by the **Ehard-Kabul Pass**, on to Kabul. The overhanging cliffs on either side are crowned with forts. In the winter of 1841-42, the British army was cut to pieces in the Kabul Pass; and only three natives and one European—Dr. Brydone—reached Jellalabad.

(ii) The Kurum Pass goes up the valley of the river Kurum, and, by means of other passes, connects Kabul with Ghuzni, the chief place on the military road between Kabul and Kandahar.

(iii) The Bolan Pass lies between Quetta (in Beluchistan) and Kandahar.

6. Climate.—The climate is a climate of extremes and contrasts; and it of course varies with the varying altitudes. An intensely hot



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summer, a winter of extreme rigour ; suffocating heat in the valleys, bitter cold on the table-lands—such are some of the contrasts of climate in Afghanistan.

(1) At Ghuzni (7800 ft.) the winter is so severe that the people are snowed up in their houses for several months.

(ii) At Kabul (5600 ft.) the cold is severe for three months—the people seldom leave their houses, and sleep close to the stoves; the streams are frozen so hard that they can bear loaded camels. The summers are temperate.

(iii) At Kandahar the winters are mild; but the summer is extremely hot,-110° in the shade.

(iv) In the Herat district, 18,000 men of Ahmed Shah's army died of cold in a single night.

7. Flora and Fauna.—"Bare, treeless mountains, sandy and barren plains, fertile valleys and riverain tracts, producing enormous quantities of magnificent fruits and vegetables, besides cereals of various kinds, are the prevailing features of Afghanistan." Assafestida and the castor-oil plant are everywhere common. Wheat, maize, and rice are the food-staples; while the apples, grapes, and pomegranates of the country are celebrated throughout India.

(i) Contradictions: Rugged rocks, desolate plains, awful defiles, steep cliffs, bare black crags; abounding orchards, green swards, charming dells, purling streams. Both aspects are true; both are also characteristic.

(ii) "At Herat are grown seventeen varieties of the vine, many species of melons, apricots, and other fruits, all renowned throughout Irania for their exquisite flavour. In the gardens of Herat the public help themselves, and pay the reckoning according to the difference of their weight on entering and leaving."

(iii) "Lions and leopards of a small type haunt the upper valleys of the Hindu-Kush, where also are met the wolf and two species of bear. The one-humped camel is the chief beast of burden."

8. The People.—The population is estimated at about 5,000,000. The Afghans proper, or Pathans—as they are called in India number about 3,000,000. Most of the tribes belong to the Aryan race; some are mixed; and some, Mongols. There are altogether about 400 tribes or clans.

(i) The Afghans claim descent from King Saul, and call themselves Beni Israel (or "Sons of Israel"). They are Mahometans of the Sunnite sect.

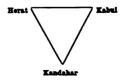
(ii) "Compared with the Persians, the Afghans are rude, almost coarse, and careless of outward show. But they are skilful artisans, hospitable, generous, and even truthful—at least in peace; but, when their evil passions are stirred up by war, they are cruel, revengeful, treacherous, and greedy. 'God shield you from the vengeance of the elephant, the cobra, and the Afghan,' is a saying current among the Mahometan Hindus." When any specially atrocious act is done, the Afghans themselves speak of it as "an Afghan job !" "Nothing is finer than their physique, or worse than their morale." They are extremely independent; all are equal; and no clan will obey any one but its chief. \angle

9. Trade and Government.—The Afghans are mostly given to pastoral occupations. Silk goods and carpets are the chief products of industry. All goods are transported on camel or pony back. Afghanistan stands between India and Persia and Turkestan, and ought to have an excellent transit trade; but wars and bad government have injured commerce. The Ameer of Cabul is acknowledged as ruler of Afghanistan by the British Government.

(i) There is one Afghan *people*—one in blood, speech, and religion; but there is no Afghan *nation*. The different tribes, septs, or clans, form so many states within the State; and many of these tribes refuse to receive the Ameer's magistrates or tax-gatherers, but send him a little tribute every year. "The Ameer is a dictator for life, over a military aristocracy." The present Ameer was once a guest of the Russians, is now a British pensioner; and these two powers settle for him the boundaries of what are called his dominions.

(ii) Since the year 1884, Russian Turkestan and Afghanistan march together, the Oxus being the boundary line between the two countries.

10. Towns.—The Afghans do not as a rule inhabit towns; and there are in the whole country only three towns of any importance: Kábul, Herát, and Kandahár. They are the most important strategical points in the country; and hence they have grown to be the chief centres of power and population.



They stand at the three angles of a triangle, the base of which lies

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along the northern scarp of the plateau, and the apex nearly in the centre of the country. The other best-known towns are Ghusni and Jellalabad.

(i) **Exist** (50) is the present capital of the State. The Afghans say it is "the oldest of all cities," and point to the "Tomb of Cain" to confirm their assertion. It stands at the junction of routes from Central Asia to the Punjab, in the midst of plains, fertile though high, and offering every resource to caravans after their cold and toilsome journey across the snowy range of the Hindu-Koosh. Here, in 1842, the British Ambassedor was treacherously murdered ; and, in 1879, the British Resident along with his suite.

(ii) Harát (50) has, from its military position, been called the "Gate of India," from its vast agricultural resources, the "Pearl of Khorassan." It is the future terminus of the Russian Trans-Caspian Railway, and of the English railway from the Punjab, to connect with the railway through the Tigris valley. The waters of the Heri-Rud are "clear as a pearl." Countless irrigation canals are drawn from the stream; and thus Herat has become the "City of a hundred thousand gardens."

(iii) Kandahár, the chief city of the South, is the "key of India," if Herat is the "gate." For, standing at the apex of the triangle, it commands the military road between Herat and Kabul.

(iv) Ghusani is the chief point on the military route between Kandahar and Kabul. In the 11th century it was capital of an empire which stretched from the plains of Delhi to the shores of the Black Sea. It stands at the height of 7800 ft., and is very hot in summer and extremely cold in winter.

(v) Jellalabad is the chief station between Kabul and Peshawur: it stands on the edge of the Iranian Plateau.

11. Afghan Turkestan.—The country between the Hindu-Koosh and the Amu-Daria (or Oxus) is called Afghan Turkestan. It was not conquered by the Afghans, but was placed under the Ameer by the joint will of Russia and England. This country is inhabited by Turkomans (mostly Usbegs), and is divided into a number of small states, the best known of which is **Balkh**, the ancient Bactria.

(i) In the Alpine territory of Wakhan, the most easterly of these little states, the lowest hamlet is 8000 ft. above the sea, the highest is 11,000 ft.—the same elevation as some of the loftiest peaks of the Pyrenees.

(ii) Balkh, the capital of Balkh, is a mere village, though it was once called the "Mother of Cities." It was the birthplace of Zoroaster, the founder of the Parsee "religion of fire."

ASIA

12. Beluchistán.—The "Land of the Beluchis" is a thinly-peopled desert plateau, occupying the south-eastern portion of the Iran Table-land; and the edge of the plateau runs along the low lands of Scinde. It is practically a province of the Indian Empire; and its ruler, the Khan of Kelat, is a vassal of the Kaisar-i-Hind (or Empress of India). It is a little more than half the size of France.

13. The People.—The population is estimated at 200,000. The people belong to two races: the Beluchis, who are of Aryan origin, and live in the west and east; the Brahuis, of Mongolian descent, in the middle.

(i) The Brahuis are the more powerful race. Both peoples are Mahometans in religion.

(ii) The Beluchis are robber nomads, who make raids upon caravans of camels.

14. Towns.—There are only two towns of any importance—**Khelat**, the capital, and Quetta. The latter is the military key of the country, commands both Khelat and Kandahar, and is held by a British garrison.

(i) Khelat (="'The Castle') stands on the central watershed of the whole country. Its position at the highest point of the plateau (8400 ft.), gives it the command of all the roads to India, Afghanistan, and Persia. The Khan or "Mir' of Khelat is the ruler of the whole country.

(ii) Questa is in the north of the country. Besides being a British stronghold, it has become a health-resort, owing to its temperate climate.

THE MALAY OR EAST INDIAN ARCHIPELAGO.

1. Introductory.—The East Indian Archipelago lies to the southeast of Asia, on both sides of the Equator, and forms a kind of insular isthmus between the two continents of Asia and Australia.

 It is the greatest and richest island-world on the face of the globe. It stretches over about

30° of latitude and of longitude. It is traversed throughout its whole extent by one of the most extensive and continuous belts of volcanic action in the world.



MALAY ABCHIPELAGO.

(i) The western half of this Archipelago was originally

a part of Asia; the eastern half of Anstralia. The dividing line runs through the Straits of Macassar and between the two small islands of Bali and Lombok, to the east of Java. West of this line, the flors and fauna—even the birds, are Asiatic; east of it, Australian—even to the inclusion of marsupials.

(ii) The Archipelago is not only the richest in volcances and volcanic activity, it is also the most fertile region in the world.

2. Divisions.—This mighty archipelago consists of four distinct regions: The Great Sunda Islands; the Lesser Sundas; the Moluccas; and the Philippines. It is the richest colonial empire in the world; and each group, and almost each island, has its own peculiar source of wealth.

(i) Sumatra is noted for its colossal animal forms—the elephant, the rhinoceros, the tapir, the orang-outang. It is also famous for its pepper, and its possession of the largest flower in the world—the Rafflesia.

(ii) Java produces the best indigo ; the bread-fruit tree ; and also immense quantities of coffee, sugar, rice, and tes.

(iii) Bornee is distinguished for its gold, diamonds, and other precious stones.

(iv) Bases, cast of Sumatra, is the richest tin-land in the world.

(v) Amboyna is the home of spices; Geram, of sago ; and the Philippines, of the best tobacco.

(vi) The Straits of Malacca separate the Malay Peninsula from Sumatra; the Sanda Straits divide Sumatra and Java; the Macassar Strait, the islands of Borneo and Celebea. British ships generally use the Straits of Malacca; Dutch vessels, the Sunda Straits. 3. Climate and Vegetation.—The intense heat of the tropical region is here mitigated by the ocean-winds; and the climate is favourable to health, except in the marshy districts. Almost every wind brings rain; and, as these islands lie within the region of the equatorial down-pour, the vegetation is of the richest and most luxuriant kind. The high lands are clothed with the densest forest; the low plains are enormously fertile. Cocca-nuts, bananas, bamboos, and sagopalms are the best-known trees; spices, sugar, coffee, and rice are the chief products of human cultivation.

(i) Aromatic plants and spices—especially the clove and nutmeg—are the special products of the Moluccas or Spice Islands, as they were once called.

(ii) The gutta-percha tree grows largely in Borneo.

(iii) Ten days' labour at a sago-palm will produce food enough to last for a year; while the bamboo supplies all the material necessary for building cottages, for bridges, boxes, baskets, mats, paper, masts for boats, etc.

4. Inhabitants.—The most populous and important race in this Archipelago are the Malays—a people with brown skin, smooth straight hair, and very reserved manners. The population of all the islands probably amounts to nearly 40,000,000.

(i) The Malays are clever sailors and active traders. At the same time, most of . the trade of the Archipelago is in the hands of the English, Dutch, Chinese, and Americans. Piracy was at one time very prevalent among the islands.

(ii) The language spoken is called the Low Malay-a soft, musical, and liquid speech, not unlike Italian in sound.

5 Commerce.—A commerce of the greatest briskness and activity goes on all the year round between these islands and Asia, Europe, and America. Among Europeans, the Dutch and English are the chief traders; Americans have also stations on many of the islands; while the trade with Asia is mostly in the hands of the Chinese.

(i) The chief exports to Europe and America are spices, tobacco, coffee, indigo, rice, sugar, tortoise-shell, sago, and Manilla hemp.

(ii) The chief exports to China are edible birds' nests and trepang.

6. Political Divisions.—The Dutch and Speciate are the widest

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rulers in the East Indian Archipelago; while the British have a footing chiefly in Borneo. A great deal of territory is also in the hands of native states.

(iii) Great Britain holds Singapore, Labuan; and two large parts of Borneo are under its protection.

7. The Dutch Possessions.—The most important of the Dutch possessions in the Malay Archipelago are Java, the Moluccas, Sumatra, Borneo, and Celebes.

(i) Java is a long narrow island, with an area nearly as large as England (without Walee), and a population of 25,000,000. One long range of mountains runs through the milddle. This range contains 46 lofty volcanic peaks, of which 20 are in a state of greater or less activity. Of the 46 mountains, eight exceed 10,000 ft. in height. The soil (which is almost wholly the property of the Dutch officials. The capital is Batavia (150); but the largest town is Surabaya. The chief articles of export are sugar, coffee, tes, rice, indigo, cinchona, tobacco, and tin; and four-fifths of these go to Holland. The only export to Great Britain is unrefined sugar; and we send them cotton and machinery. Railways, tramways, and telegraphs, exist in the island.

(ii) The Molucces are those islands which lie between Celebes and New Guinea. The <u>largest island is Gilolo</u>, which very oddly repeats the K shape of Celebes. The vegetation is extremely rich and varied; and here is the native country of "the most precious of spices, the clove." The most important island is Amboyna, which contains the city of Amboyna (20), the seat of a very active commerce.

(iii) Sumatra is a long island nearly three times as large as England (without Wales). In the mighty range which runs through the island, there are five active and many dormant volcances, the highest being Talang (10,250 ft.). Sumatra is very rich in minerals; coal, sulphur, fine iron, and gold have been discovared. More than half the island is in the hands of the Dutch. It has a population of only 2,000,000. The largest town, and the Dutch official capital, is Padang.

(iv) Borneo is the second largest island in the world. It is larger than the Austrian Empire by 80,000 square miles. It is very mountainous and hilly; but it has wide plains and low marshy shores. The highest point is Kini-Balou (over 13,000 ft.). It differs from its neighbouring islands in not possessing a single volcano, either active or extinct. It is rich in coal, antimony, mercury, gold, and diamonds. The Dutch hold most of the island; but Barawak (an independent principality ruled by Rajah Brooke) and the territories of the North Borneo Company are under the protection of Britain. The island of <u>Labuan</u>, which contains much excellent coal is a British possession.—The chief trade is in sago, beeswax, edible birds' nests, camphor, trepang, and tortoise-shell. In exchange, Britain sends cotton goods, hardware, and oplum._ The largest city is the native town of Bruni, a "Venice of hovels."

(v) Gelebes is the most oddly shaped island in the world. A small central mass, from which radiate four enormous arms, with three far-withdrawn gulfs, make the island look like a huge grasshopper, or the letter K. It is a good deal larger than England (without Wales). Each of its peningulas is traversed by a mountain-chain ; and there are many dormant, and several extinct volcances. There is much gold. The northern half of the island is in the hands of the Dutch ; the southern part is divided among nine native Mahometan States. The town of Macassar forms the centre of trade.

U.S.A. U.S.A8. The Specific Possessions.—The Specific possessions consist of a group of islands called the Philippines. The largest of the group is Luzon, which is about one-half larger than Ireland. Mindanao is the next largest. The capital of Luzon is Manilla (280), a busy port, which ships large quantities of sugar, rice, hemp, and tobacco.

(i) The Philippines are celebrated above all other Eastern countries for the beauty and variety of their land-shells.

(iii) The Chinese are the chief merchants and shopkeepers.

(iv) The northern part of the islands is much visited by storms. A terrific typhoon destroyed, in 1856, ten thousand houses in Manilla.

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1. Introductory (i).—Africa has been called the "Dark Continent." And this for two reasons: first, because it is the least known and most inaccessible of all the continents; and, secondly, because it is inhabited by dark races. Much has been done to bring the geography of this continent to the light of day; but the inhospitable regions of the Sahara and the dense forests on both sides of the Equator still present to the explorer difficulties that are almost insurmountable that make these regions still *terræ incognitæ* to the civilised world.

2. Introductory (ii).—Africa is distinguished in many ways from other continents. It is the **Tropical Continent**. It is the **Highest Continent**—that is, its average height is greater than that of any other. It is the best defined division of the Old World. It is the least known; and yet it is the continent of which there is the earliest mention in history. It is the most simply shaped externally. It forms, in almost every respect—shape, build, climate and peoples —a striking contrast to the other continents of the Old World.

(i) The oldest civilisation of which Europeans have any historical record existed in the north-east of Africa—in the Valley of the Nile; and the earliest history that is read in Europe is the history of Egypt.

3. The Northern and the Southern Continents : a Contrast—If we divide the whole mass of land upon the globe into three Northern and three Southern Continents, we shall find between the two sets very broadly marked differences. The three in the north touch, or almost touch each other; the three in the south are separated by the widest possible tracts of ocean. The three in the north have the most highly developed coast-lines—are cut into by deep bays and

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[&]quot;Cover the coast belt with rank yellow grass, dot here and there a paim; scatter through it a few demoralised villages; and stock it with the leopard, the hyena, the crocodile, and the hippopotamus. Clobb the mountainous plateau rate ..., with forests of low tress, whose half-grown trunks and zeanty leaves offer no shade from the tropical sun.... Once in a weak you will see a paim; once in three months a monkey will cross your path; the flowers, on the whole, are far; the trees are poor; and, to be honest, though the endless forest-clad mountains have a sublimity of their own, and though there are tropical buts along some of the mountain-streams of exquirite leasity, nowhere is there any thing in grace, and sweetness, and strength to compare with a Highland gien.... Thousands and thousands of miles then, of vast thin forest, shadless, trackless, voiceless-forest in mountain and forest in plain-this is fast Cautral Africa."-Dawnword.

gulfs, and send out long land-arms into the ocean, while they are rich in islands and archipelagoes; the three in the south have short and monotonous lines of coast, are not penetrated by the ocean, and are extremely poor in islands.

(i) In the Mediterranean, only Jerba and a few islets belong physically to the mainland of Africa.

(ii) On the east coast, we have Scootra—"the spear-head " of the Somali Peninsula; Pemba; Zanzibar; and Mafa.

(iii) Perim and a few others in the Red Ses, are more coral reefs, with volcanic crests on the top of them.

(iv) Madagasoar, St. Thomas, Frince, Fernando Po (in the Gulf of Guines); the Madeira, Canary and Cape Verde Archipelagoes are all "oceanic islands" of volcanic formation; and the last-named is separated from the mainland by abysees 3000 ft. deep. St. Helena and Ascension are mere rocks—the tops of mountain ridges in the bed of the Atlantic.

4. Africa and Europe: a Contrast.—Between these two continents, which stand opposite each other, there are many striking contrasts; and they are so easily observed, that they may conveniently be set down in a tabular form.

AFRICA.

- 1. Africa lies mostly within the Torrid Zone.
- 2. The shape of Africa is compact, simple and regular.
- 3. Africa is a trunk without limbs.
- 4. Africa has the shortest coast-line, relatively, of all the continents.
- 5. Africa has very few islands.
- 6. Africa has many rivers; but few are navigable throughout.
- 7. Africa has two large deserts.
- 8. Africa has two continental basins.
- 9. The mountain-ranges of Africa run round the coast. (Compare British India and the Ghats.)
- 10. The climate of Africa is the hottest in the world. It is continental.

EUROPE.

- 1. Europe lies mostly within the Temperate Zone.
- 2. The shape of Europe is very much broken up, irregular and indented.
- Europe-in its western or most truly European half-is more limbs than trunk. (The limbs form twothirds of the whole.)
- 4. Europe has, relatively, the longest coast-line of all the continents.
- 5. Europe is rich in islands.
- 6. Europe has many rivers ; and almost all are navigable throughout.
- 7. Europe has no deserts.
- 8. Europe has no continental basins.
- 9. The mountain-ranges of Europe run through the heart of the continent.
- 10. The climate of Europe is very mild. It is maritime or oceanic.



5. Africa and South America: a Comparison.—Both these continents lie along the Equator; and they possess many points of contrast and of comparison.

AFRICA.

1. Africa is little indented.

- 2. Where Africa tends inwards
- Africa is one large and in many respects inaccessible mass of land.
- 4. Africa has many lakes; and they are immensely large.
- Africa is the continent of unnavigable rivers, and of shut-in riverbasins.
- 6. The Congo flows on both sides of and along the Equator.
- 7. The Congo and Nile and Zambesi do not together give to the ocean
- 8. Africa has land to windward of its northern half.
- Africa has a broad and impenetrable forest on both sides of the Equator.
- 10. Africa produces the largest and strongest forms of animal life.

SOUTH AMERICA.

- 1. South America is only a little more indented than Africa.
- 2. South America bulges out.
- In South America the land-masses are everywhere permeated by rivers which make up for the want of gulfs, bays, and inland seas.
- South America has very few lakes; and they are small.
- South America is the continent of navigable rivers, and of almost continuous river-basins.
- 6. The Amazon flows along the Equator.
- 7. so much water as the Amazon alone.
- South America has a broad ocean to windward of both its halves.
- South America has the largest, broadest, and most impenetrable forest in the world on both sides of its portion of the Equator.
- 10. In South America, vegetable life is more vigorous than animal.

6. Size and Coast Line.—The total area of Africa is said to amount to 12,000,000 square miles. From Cape Blance on the Mediterranean to Cape Agulhas in the south, it measures 5000 miles; and its breadth, from Cape Verde to Cape Guardafui, is nearly the same. The coast line is very short in comparison with the size; it amounts to 16,000 miles. The chief indentation is the Gulf of Guinea, with its Bight of Benin and Bight of Biafra. On the north coast we find the Gulfs of Sidra and Kabes; and in the east, the Gulf of Aden. (i) Cape Biance (=white) receives its name from the white rocks that compose its headland.

(ii) Agulhas is the Spanish word for "Needles."

7. Build.—The monotonous shape of the continent is paralleled by the monotonous character of the interior. There is no backbone; no great central range; no mighty water-sheds. But there are immense table-lands; and, indeed, Africa is a Continent of Plateaux. By far the larger part of it consists of plateaux of from 2000 to 9000 ft. in height, with a mighty frame of mountain-ranges round the edge and parallel with the coast. The middle of the plateau is lower than the edges. The low plain outside this edge and next the sea is very narrow. The whole country may be fitly divided into Upper Africa and Lower Africa—Upper Africa in the south, and Lower Africa in the north. The division between the two may be said to exist at 5° North lat. The average height of South Africa is nearly treble that of North Africa.

(i) The southern table-land has a mean altitude of over 8500 ft.

(ii) The northern elevated plain has a mean altitude of about 1300 ft.

(iii) Hence Southern Africa is, on an average, nearly three times higher than Northern Africa.

8. South Africa.—South Africa consists of several plateaux, which are separated from each other by ranges of mountains, and are buttressed by lofty sierras running round the edges, not far from the coast.

(i) The largest and highest plateau is the East African Table-land, which stretches from the lower Zambesi to the northern boundary of Abyssinia. From this table-land rise, in the neighbourhood of the Equator, the two highest mountain summits on the whole continent—Kilima-Bjaro, and Kenia, each of them about 18,000 ft. above the level of the sea. The northern part of this plateau is filled by the alpine heights of Abyssinia, the highest point of which is Eas Dashan (15,160 ft.)

"The higher the table-land, the higher the mountains that rise from it."



(ii) The Central Plateau almost coincides with the enormous basin of the Congo, which falls from terrace to terrace, and is obliged to rush through more than thirty Rapids before it reaches the sea. To the north-western edge of this plateau the Cameroon Mountains join on.

(iii) The Southern Flateen, which is as extensive as the Central, stretches from the water-shed of the Congo Basin to the South Atlantic. It contains the basin of the Zambesi, which breaks through its eastern, and of the Orange, which breaks through its western mountain-edge. The southern part of this plateau descends to the sea by three terraces : the highest containing the Kalahari Desert; the middle one, the Great Karroe; and the lowest, the coast-land of the Cape of Good Hope.

9. North Africa.—North or Lower Africa is also a plateau, though not nearly so high as that in the southern half. It may be divided into three parts : the **Sahara**; the **Soudan**; and the **Berber Highlands**, which include the **Atlas** range.

(i) The Sahara (= Sea of Sand) extends right across the continent, from the Atlantic to the Red Sea. It is sometimes, however, said to cease at the Valley of the Nile.

(ii) On the southern rim of the Sahara, and along its whole extent, lies the Soudan. The western part is mountainous, and is called Upper Soudan. The Middle Soudan is a land of rich vegetation and tropical forest; the Eastern or Egyptian Soudan descends to the sea in a series of steppes.

(iii) On the northern rim of the Sahara rises the Berber Flateeu with the Atlas range —a distinct and separate table-land. The Little Atlas runs along the coast; the Great Atlas inland and further south.

10. Mountain-Banges.—The chief ranges are the Atlas on the north; the Kong Mountains on the west; the Cameroons on the Bight of Biafra; the Ulegga Range, between the Congo and the Nile Basins; the Lokinga Mountains, between the basins of the Congo and Zambesi; the Drakenberg (or Kwathlamba Mountains) in the southeast; and the Mountains of Abyssinia. The culminating points of the whole continent are Kilima-Njaro (18,881) and Kenia (18,000 ft.).

(i) The Great Atlas attains, in Mount Miltsin, the height of 11,400 ft. Behind this range are the Shotts, a series of brackish lakes, on the shores of which grow large crops of esparto grass, which is now used in the making of paper. The whole Atlas System stretches from Cape Nun to Cape Bon. This system belongs physically rather to Europe than to Africa; and it is here almost alone that earthquakes are found in Africa.

(ii) The Kong Mountains run from the delta of the Niger to the neighbourhood of Cape Verde. They are really the "outer scarps" of the inner table-land.

(iii) The Cameroons, which face the head of the Bight of Biafra, are a volcanic range, which rise to an elevation of 13,210 ft. They rise like a gigantic pyramid from a seabase of 30 miles; and the solitary peak towers up from the land, and alters in aspect and colour with each change of position of the sun.

(iv) The Drakenberg looks out like a mighty perpendicular wall on the Indian Ocean. It separates Natal from the Orange Republic. The range is about 6500 ft. high; and is, properly speaking, the high edge of the interior table-land. Natal goes down from it to the sea by a series of terraces. The Nieuwersld (= New Fell) runs through the south of Cape Colony; and the land from it also goes down in a set of terraces (called Karroce), which are baked clay in the dry season, but flowery and grassy meads in the rainy season.

(v) The Mountains of Abyssinia rise from a plateau which has an average height of 7000 to 8000 ft.—a plateau which contains a number of alpine knots. The highest alpine knot of all not only contains **Bas Dashan**, but Mount Abbs Jared (14,700 ft.). Other knots contain mountains which rise to nearly the height of 14,000 ft.

(vi) The Kilima-Njaro (= "Mountain-greatness") is double peaked. But the whole mass is really a gigantic alpine knot. It consists of "two peaks covered with eternal ice,—on the west a sublime cupola clothed with a dazzling mantle of white, on the east a mass of rugged and colossal pillars." It is probably an extinct volcano.

(vii) The East Coast Range is the border-chain of the great continental highland system of Africa; and it stretches up even to the Red Sea.

11. Plains and Deserts.—Between the Greater Syrtis (or Gulf of Sidra) and Cairo lies the lowest plain in the whole of Africa—a plain much of which is below the level of the Mediterranean. In one place it is 167 ft. below the level of the sea. Inland from the Gulf of Cabes, again, is found another depressed country which lies below the water level of the Mediterranean. The chief plains, however, of Africa, are elevated plains or plateaux; and the two most striking are the deserts of Sahara in North Africa, and of Kalahari in South Africa.

(i) The Sahara is the largest desert in the world. It has an area of 24 millions of square miles—that is to say, it is three times the size of the Mediterranean. It extends from the Atlas to 15° North lat.—about 1000 miles. Its length is about 3000. It is a "waterless ocean" which was at one time covered with water. It is a set of table-lands of sand-stone (higher than the Soudan), with depressions which are covered with a clay soil, and mountain-ranges, some of which reach the height of 7900 ft. There is not a complete absence of rain. Long temporary streams (or words) are found; and where these are, or where there is underground molsture, then there are inhabited cases, some of them thousands of square miles in extent. Hot suffocating winds, called Simeoms, blow over its surface. In Egypt, such a wind is called Ehamada;

In Italy, Sirocce; in Switzerland, whither it comes from Italy, the Föhn. In the daytime, the rocks become heated to 200°; at night, the radiation is so rapid that the thermometer falls to four degrees below freezing-point.

(ii) The Kalahari Desert is the dry region of Bushman Land, from the Orange River to about 20° South lat. It is a dry and sandy tract without running water.

12. Continental Basins.—There are in Africa two large areas of Continental Drainage, one in the north (covering upwards of four millions of square miles), the other in the south, from which no water escapes directly to the ocean. These correspond almost exactly with the deserts of Sahara and Kalahari. The Sahara has its Lake Chad, with numerous feeders, of which the Shari is the best known; near the Kalahari is Lake Ngami, with the Tioge to bring water to it.

(i) Lake Chad (="Great Body of Water") is rather "a permanent inundation than a lake in the true sense of the torm." In the deepest parts it is only 20 ft. deep. The Shari—its chief tributary, is one of the great rivers of Africa. This would seem to be the most considerable stream in Central Africa that does not reach the sea.

(ii) Ngami (="Giraffe Lake") is one of those large water-basins the margins of which are always changing—like the Shotts of Algeria. No two travellers trace its outlines in the same way. After the rains, its waters are sweet and drinkable; in the dry season, they become saline.—The Tiogé flows into it only "after the rains."

13. **Rivers** (i).—The rivers, as well as the lakes, of Africa are most unequally distributed over the continent. Most of them have rapids and cataracts in their middle course, a very short and ill-developed lower course, and dangerous sand-banks at their mouths. All this helps to make Africa the "Inaccessible Continent." The four "great arteries" of Africa are the Congo, the Nile, the Niger, and the Zambesi. The Congo has the largest volume and falls into the Atlantic; the Nile, which falls into the Mediterranean, is the longest; the Niger, which falls into the Gulf of Guinea, is the third in volume and size of basin; while the Zambesi, which falls into the Indian Ocean, comes fourth in point of size and area of drainage.

(i) The Nile (which is about 3400 miles long) drains the largest area of all the rivers of Africa; it drains about a million and a half square miles. It is formed by two streams, one—the White Nile—flowing out of the Albert Syams, the other, the Victoria Sile, flowing out of the Victoria Nyama; but its highest head-stream is the Shimiya,

which rises in 5° South lat. At Khartoum, the Bahr-al-Abiad (or White Nile) is joined by the Bahr-al-Asrek (or Blue River); and, at lat. 18°, it is joined by the Atbara (or Black River). Below this point, it does not receive a single affluent; but, owing to the great evaporation among the burning sand-wastes of Nubia, grows smaller and smaller as it nears the sea. The Blue River and the Black River both come from the highlands of Abyssinia—the former from Lake Tasna (or Dembea); and it is they that bring down the black mud to which Egypt owes its inexhaustible fertility. Between the Blue and the Black Rivers occurs the Sixth Cataract; between the junction of the latter and the sea, there are five cataracts. From Assuan to the mouth the river is navigable. The delta of the Nile occupies an area of about 9000 square miles. The annual rise and overflow of the river takes place with the greatest regularity in time and equality in amount. It begins at the end of June, subsides before the end of November; and leaves over the country a layer of rich fertilising slime. (See p. 353.)

Asrek means turbid ; and Abiad, while or clear.

(ii) The Compo (about 3000 miles long) is the second river of Africa in point of area of drainage (over 14 million of square miles), but the first in point of volume. It discharges as much vater as all the other African rivers put together. It was first fully discovered and surveyed by Stanley in 1877. It rises in the uplands, north of Lake Nyassa, and is called the Chambese, the Lualaba, etc., in the upper parts of its course. Above the cataracts which it forms in breaking through the coast range, it has a breadth of from 2 to 4 miles; and its waters can be recognised 40 miles out at sea. It is the only large African river which has a true estuary, and this estuary is 6 miles wide. In volume of water it stands second only to the Amazon and the Mekong.

(iii) The Miger (which is about 2500 miles long) rises in Mount Loma in the Kong Mountains, strikes north-east to Timbuctoo, then flows south into the Gulf of Guinea. In its upper course, it is called the Jolita; in its middle and lower, the Quarra. It forms a natural highway into the heart of the continent, and is regularly navigated. Six or seven steamers of light draught trade from the Atlantic ports for nine months in the year as far as its confluence with the Benue ("which affords a clear navigable highway into the very heart of the Soudan"); and, when the river is flooded, even higher. "The flat, smiling, level country abounds in forests, bounded by far-away hills; quiet villages, consisting of round mud huts, cluster picturesquely over the landscape." At 100 miles from the sea, its delta begins—a delta which encloses 14,000 sq. miles of low alluvial plain covered with forest and jungle. The months of the outermost branches of the delta are 200 miles apart. The main channel through the centre of the delta is called the Mun River.

(iv) The Zambesi is the great river of the pastoral belt of South Africa. Its basin contains more than 600,000 square miles—that is, it is three times larger than France. Three head-streams form its upper waters—the Langebung, the Leeba, and the Leebaby. At the most southerly point in its course occur the famous Victoria Palls, which are inferior in grandeur to those of Niagara alone. The falls occur at a rent in the basaltic rock; and a river 2000 yards broad contracts to 60 or 80 ft., leaps down a

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zigzag gorge more than 400 ft., and then becomes suddenly compressed into a space of 15 yards. It forms a delta with many mouths, the outmost of which are 100 miles apart. It falls into the Indian Ocean opposite the middle of Madagascar.

(v) The basins of the great African rivers are :

Hile .		•	1,500,000 square miles.			
Congo .		•	1,850,000	"	,,	. 2
Miger .			1,150,000	,,	,,	ゴ
Zambeel			600,000	,,	,,	Ċ
the Mile i	 . .	-+	 a size of the	14	-	1.1

The basin of the Nile is about half the size of Australia.

14. Rivers (ii).—The other important rivers of Africa are the Senegal, Gambia, Ogowai, Coanza, and Orange, which flow into the Atlantic; the Limpopo and Juba, which flow into the Indian Ocean.

(i) The Senegal is navigable, during the rainy season, for 500 miles.

(ii) The Gambia, a parallel stream, which rises near the Senegal, is navigable for 400 miles.

(iii) The Geenna is the most important river of Angola, and the most southerly river of the central fertile zone of Africa on its western side. It is navigated by the Coanza Steamship Company.

(iv) The Orange rises in the highlands of the east; but, as its lower course is through an arid belt, it is seldom navigable. Like the Congo, the Nile, and the Zambesi, it is broken by falls—by "the Hundred Falls." It is formed by the union of the Vaal and the Nu Gariep.

(v) The Limpope (or Crocodile) River is the second largest of the East African streams. Its chief tributary is the Olifant (=Elephant). It is very shallow, and has a double bar at its mouth.

(vi) The Jaba is the largest river on the eastern side of Africa north of the Equator. It has been explored for 180 miles from its mouth; but there is no traffic on its waters.

(vii) The basin of the Orange is 400,000 square miles in area ; of the Limpope, half that, or about the size of all France.

15. Lakes. There is no continent in the world, except North America, which has so many and so large lakes as Africa. These are found chiefly in South Africa; but the Equatorial Lake System is one of the grandest in the world. Some of them are great seas of fresh water, second only to Lake Superior. All are grouped on the east side of the continent; and all lie on the southern table-land.

The five largest lakes are: Victoria Nyanza; Albert Nyanza; Tanganyika; Nyassa; and Bangweolo (or Bemba). The two continental lakes (those without an outlet) are Chad and Ngami.

(i) The two Nyanzas belong to the basin of the Nile. The Victoria Hyanza lies at an elevation of 3800 ft. above the level of the sea. It was discovered by Captain Speke in 1858; and the long hidden secret of the sources of the Nile was revealed. The lake is larger than Bavaria or Scotland, and was circumnavigated in 30 days by Stanley in 1875. The Albert Myanza was discovered by Sir Samuel Baker in 1864. It lies at an elevation of 2500 ft. It is 150 miles long by 40 wide.—Lake Tmana (or Dembes), 60 miles in length, and at an elevation of 6000 ft., is the chief feeder of the Nile on the Abyssinian plateau.

(ii) Lake Tanganyika was discovered in 1858 by Captain Burton. It lies—at an elevation of 2700 ft.—in an enormous trough which stretches through seven degrees of latitude—or about the distance from Dover to Aberdeen. Stanley went round the whole lake in 1876, but could discover no outlet. Its waters are not perfectly fresh; and hence it is probable that it is a continental lake. Its area is 10,000 square miles.

(iii) Lake Nyassa, along with Lake Shirwa, is the greatest feeder of the Zambesi. It lies at an elevation of 1500 ft. It was discovered by Livingstone in 1859. It is 360 miles long by 40 broad; with an average depth of 600 ft.; and it teems with fish. It is walled in on the north-east by the Livingstone Mountains, which have an average height of 10,000 ft.,

(iv) Lake Bangweele (or Bemba) is the highest feeder of the Chambeze (and therefore of the Congo). It is an oval-shaped sheet of water, 150 miles long and half of that wide. It is a little larger than Wales. It lies at an elevation of 8690 ft. Lake Moero, a little to the north, is another feeder of the Congo. It is about half the size of Lake Bemba; and is extraordinarily full of fish—not fewer than thirty-nine different sorts being known. Its banks are girt by a dense belt of tropical vegetation —the haunt of buffaloes, zobras, and elephants.

(v) Lake Chad is a great fresh-water lake, 10,000 square miles in extent in the dry season (larger than Wales), and five times larger in the rainy season (expands to the size of EL_gland). It is the haunt of hippopotamuses, —which go about in herds of a hundred or more, —of crocodiles, rhinoceroses, and elephants. Waterfowl of all sorts are more abundant here than in any part of the world; and the lake swarms with fish. It is only 1150 ft. above the level of the sea.

(vi) Lake Mgami is a shallow sheet of water, about 50 miles long; but larger in the rainy season. It is very rich in fish. The shores of the lake swarm with antelopes, elephants, hippopotamuses, rhinoceroses, giraffes, buffaloes; and the waters teem with enormous crocodiles. Its chief feeder is the Tiogs.

(vii) "These lakes are the crowning glory of modern African research; and all were revealed to science by English-speaking explorer-Livingstone, Speks, Grant, Burton, Baker, Stanley-since the middle of this century."



16. Climate.-Uniform and monotonous in its shape and build, Africa is also very uniform and regular in the distribution of its climates; but, on the whole, it is the "Continent of Dry Heat." It is the Tropical Continent: for seven-tenths of it lie within the It alone possesses nearly half of all the tropical lands in Torrid Zone. the world. Hence it is a "Winterless Continent." There are three chief factors in the production of this climate : (i) the North-East Trade Winds come from the continent of Asia (not from an ocean) and contain little or no moisture. (ii) There are no deep gulfs and no long peninsulas. (iii) The mountain-ranges on the outer rim rob the rain-bearing winds of their moisture and, in many cases, they appear in the interior as dry winds. Hence a climate of a continental character. This character is visible in sharp contrasts of burning heat in the day and severe cold at night; of periods of drought and periods of flood : of dead calms and furious storms of wind.-The greatest heat is not found on the Equator, as the central belt of the continent is protected by a dense covering of forest vegetation, but in the dry, bare, and exposed desert belts which lie on the margins of the tropics. Hence the hottest regions lie north and south of the Zone of Tropical Rains-which stretches from 18° North lat. to 20° South lat. The southern half of Africa, being more elevated and therefore more subjected to sea-influences, has a cooler climate. The rainy seasons follow the sun, and hence occur twice at every place that lies within the Torrid Zone. Winter exists only on the highest table-lands and on the tops of the mountains. The high table-lands in the interior have a healthy climate; the narrow sea-board is pestiferous, partly from the rank and rotting vegetation, partly from the combination of heat and moisture-both in the highest degree.

- (i) The highest temperature is found in the Sahara, particularly in the East. The heat is often 113° in the shade. In Upper Egypt and Nubia eggs may be baked in the hot sands; "in Nubia," say the Arabs, "the soil is fire, and the wind a flame."
 - (ii) The country to the west of Lake Nyassa consists of "dripping forests."

(iii) Perpetual snow is seen only on the Atlas, the highest peaks of Abyssinia, the loftiest summits of Cape Colony, and on Kenia and Kilima-Njaro.

(iv) The northern half of Africa is very dry, because the heat is so great that the air can contain enormous quantities of moisture uncondensed and invisible. In Egypt rain hardly ever falls.

(v) Africa is the winter retreat of our birds of passage-the swallow, and cuckoo.

17. North Africa and South Africa.—The climate alters in Africa with a wonderful regularity and a steady graduation almost according to latitude. This arises partly from the simplicity of shape and partly from the uniformity of build. We have thus a set of striking correspondences of climate and of land-characteristics between

and

NORTH AFRICA

- 1. Has a small sub-tropical area-north of the Tropic of Cancer.
- 2. Humid forests alternating with sandy desert—green with grey belts.
- 3. Dense forest for 600-700 miles north of the Equator.
- 4. Nile and Niger correspond to the Senegal and Dras correspond to the
- 5. Pastoral region with park-like scenery in the Soudan.
- 6. Sahara on the Tropical Line. Dry winds from the Sahara.
- A Continental Basin, with a depression and a lake (Chad) in the north.
- 8. Barren coast in north-east on the Red Sea.
- 9. General high temperature with lower land.
- 10. Second belt of pastoral land on plateaus of Barbary, Morocco, etc.
- 11. Date-palms.

- SOUTH AFRICA 1. Has a small sub-tropical area, south of the Tropic of Capricorn.
- 2. Humid forests alternating with desert — intensely green with brown belts.
- 8. Dense forest for 600-700 miles south of the Equator.
- 4. Congo and Zambesi; Orange and Limpopo.
- 5. Pastoral region—grass-lands from the Zambesi to Southern Angola.
- 6. Kalahari on the Tropical Line. Dry electrical winds from the Kalahari.
- A Continental Basin, with a depression and a lake (Ngami) in the south.
- 8. Barren coast in south-west on the Atlantic.
- 9. Lower temperature with high land and breezes from the sea.
- 10. Second belt of cultivated land on sea-ward terraces of Cape Colony.
- 11. Large heaths.

18. Vegetation.—The vegetation of Northern Africa resembles that of the opposite shores of the Mediterranean. In these sub-tropical regions, groves of oranges and olives, and rows of date-palms, form

the characteristic features of the landscape. But the fruit of the date-palm cannot ripen here. It is on the plains that skirt the southern base of the Atlas, and in the oases of the Sahara, that the date-tree comes to perfection.—Leaving the southern edge of the Sahara, we find the **baobab** or monkey-bread tree to be characteristic of the fertile regions of the Soudan. Instead of waving fields of corn, we have the **cassava**, the **yam**, and the **ground-nut**.—In Southern Africa, on the inland plains, we meet the fleshy leaves and contorted shapes of prickly **euphorbias**, of **aloes**, and other curious plants. Towards the Cape, endless species of tall heaths of great beauty—some 15 ft. high—are to be seen.

(i) In the extreme north, wheat and barley, evergreen oaks and cork-trees, intermixed with cypresses, myrtles, and fragrant tree-heaths, are found.

(ii) The date-palm loves a dry sandy soil; but, having long roots, it can suck up moisture from a great depth.

(iii) Besides the gigantic baobab (the trunk of which is sometimes 30 ft. in diameter), the Soudan grows huge cotton-trees, oil-palms, and sago-palms. The tamarind and the Senegal custard-apple replace the vine and the fig. Some plants (trumpet-flowers) have fruits 2 ft. long. The cotton-plant, the sugar-cane, and the indigo-plant grow wild : and so does the coffee-plant in the south of Abyssinia.

(iv) The date-palm furnishes "the bread of the desert;" and it supplies food not only to man, but to the camel and horse. The stones, which are said to be more nourishing than the fruit itself, are eaten by horses when ground.

(v) The forests of the centre are distinguished by giant lianas, ebony-trees, teak and other hard woods. "Into these primeval forests," says Livingstone, "the sun, though vertical, cannot penetrate, except by sending down at mid-day thin pencils of rays into the gloom. The climbing plants, from the size of a whipcord to that of a man-of-war's hawser, are so numerous, that the ancient path is the only passage."

(vi) The Central Forest, which is about 1200 miles broad, and through which the Congo flows, may be compared with the Selvas, through which the Amazon finds its way. The two forests are the largest and densest in the world; both are on the Equator, and both in the region of perpetual rain-fall and a vertical sun.

19. Animals.—Africa is the home of the largest living quadrupeds; and it excels not only in the number of its species and the size of its specimens, but also in the number of individuals. The most characteristic animals are the fleet-footed herbivora, and pachyderms. Among the pachyderms the most important are the elephant, the hippo-

potamus, the rhinoceros, and of these the hippopotamus, is peculiar to Africa. Antelopes are numerous in South Africa-of which they are highly characteristic; and troops of giraffes may be seen galloping across the open country from clump to clump, while the swift ostrich scours the plains. The one-humped camel is used in the north.-The largest kinds of quadrumana are found in Tropical and Western Africa, such as the gorilla and the chimpanzee. Baboons and mandrils are peculiar to this continent.-Among the carnivora, the jackal is characteristic, and roams the whole of Africa ; and both the striped and the spotted hyena can be everywhere seen. Africa is the true home of the lion : while the leopard, caracal, and civet-cat are the other chief representatives of the cat tribe. The tiger and the bear are not found at all.-Besides the ostrich, Africa possesses the large secretary-bird ; the ibis and flamingo haunt the fresh-water lakes, and numerous species remarkable for the brilliance of their plumage are seen everywhere, such as sun-birds, bee-eaters, parrots, and kingfishers. In South and Central Africa, the tsetse,-a fly, whose bite is fatal to horses, camels, oxen, and dogs, is one of the greatest obstacles to the civilisation of Africa.-Among reptiles, the crocodile is much larger and stronger than the American cayman ; but serpents are less common in Africa than in America or Asia.

(i) The inland plains swarm with animal life. Livingstone mentions that he has sometimes had to force his way through the countless herds and dense troops of antelopes. About 70 species belong to Africa; and they vary in height from the size of a hare to that of the eland, which is larger than an ox.

(ii) The sebre and the quagge cannot be tamed. The hippopotamus is found from the Upper Nile down to the Orange River. The elephant and rhincouros are native to the plains of Central and Southern Africa.

(iii) The African elephant is larger, stronger, and more difficult to tame than his Asiatic brother.

(iv) The gorilla is the largest of the apes. His true home is in Lower Guinea.

(v) The est-tah—the most powerful of all running birds—which has been called "the feathered camel," or "the giraffe among birds," is seen in almost every part of Africa. The valuable white feathers are found in the tail of the male bird only. $\$

20. Minerals.-Little is known about the minerals of Africa. Salt

is widely distributed. Metals are nowhere abundant; but gold seems to be the metal most widely spread over the continent. Iron and copper are the most characteristic metals. Iron, copper, and lead are obtained in the Atlas Mountains. Copper is found in Namaqualand and the Congo Basin; and it exists in large quantities in the central mountains of South Africa, but it has not yet been mined. Diamonds are found in Griqualand West, on the Vaal.

(i) Salt is used as money in Abyssinia; everywhere in Africa it is regarded as a "sweetmeat"; and the salt districts in the native kingdoms of South Central Africa are royal possessions which are jealously guarded.

(ii) Gold-dust is still obtained in small quantities from the beds of rivers; and the "Gold Coast" got its name from the presence of gold, while *Guinea* gave its name to our gold coin of the value of 21s. Gold is now mined in the Transvaal and other parts of South Africa.

(iii) The Diamond-Selds in Griqualand West, on the Vaal, near the Kalahari, were discovered in 1867. Kimberley is the capital of this region of the "dry diggings." A large diamond—" Star of South Africa"—was sold, before cutting, for £11,200.

21. Inhabitants.—The inhabitants of Africa may be divided into original natives; old immigrants; and new immigrants. The original natives are: (1) the Hottentots and Bushmen, who live in the south and south-west; (2) the Bantus (Kaffirs and Bechuanas), who live between the Hottentot country and the Equator; (3) Negroes proper, who inhabit the Soudan; and these three races are native to the continent.—The old immigrants comprise two races: (1) the Ancient Egyptians (of whom the Kopts are the modern representatives), and the races related to them, such as the Berbers in the north, the Somali and Nubians in the east; (2) the Arabs (a family of whom are Bedouins) and the Abyssinians, both of Semitic stock. —The new immigrants are Dutch, English, French, etc.

(i) The Estimates have a yellowish complexion, low stature, and weak muscles. The Bushmen belong to the pigmy peoples that are said to be descended from the old aborigines who were deprived of their lands by more powerful races. "If Africa is the continent of the great anthropoid apes (gorilla, etc.), it is also the home of the most ape-like human beings."

(ii) The Bantus, though woolly-haired, are not Negroes. The Kaffirs are a pastoral people, with large herds of cattle, living in well-built houses in large towns, and cultivating the ground carefully. (The word Kaffir is Arabic, and means infidel.)

(iii) "The principal Negro nations are the Mandingoes, who are numerous, powerful, and not uncivilised, in Senegambia, and further inland, around the head-waters of the Quorra, where they have established a great number of kingdoms and smaller sovereignties." The purest Negroes are found in Western Africa.

(iv) The Atlas Mountains are inhabited by more than twenty different tribes of Berbers, who are perpetually warring on each other. The Somali were originally Arabs. They live in the furthest east, on the lands next Cape Guardafui, and lead a wandering and pastoral life.

(v) The Arabs came originally from Arabia and conquered the north of Africa.

(vi) The Abyasimians are of Ethiopian stock mixed with Arab. They are a handsome race, with straight noses, and strong bright eyes.

22. Population and Populousness.—Africa is said to possess a population of about 200,000,000. The Western Soudan, from the Senegal to the Lower Niger, is the most densely peopled part of the continent—with 50 persons to the square mile; and Tunis comes next. The most thinly peopled parts are the Sahara, the Transvaal Republic, and the Portuguese Territories on the East coast.

- (i) Tunis has 45 persons to the square mile.
- (ii) The Sahara (of course this means the Oases) has 1.6; and the Transvaal only 1.

23. Religions.—The northern half of Africa, down to the south of Lake Chad, and along the East Coast as far as the mouth of the Zambesi, is Mahometan. The inhabitants of the Southern half and of the south-west coast are Nature-worshippers, given up to "superstitions of infinite number and character." In Cape Colony and the Dutch Settlements, the people are Protestants; and, in Abyssinia, a kind of Christianity is found.

(i) "In the Dark Continent the Mahometans occupy a compact domain as large as all Europe, stretching uninterruptedly from the Red Sea to the Atlantic; and their common belief tends everywhere to diffuse the social ideas, the habits, usages, and speech of the dominant Arab race."—RécLus.

(ii) When Islam (Mahometanism) is in danger, a Mahdi ("spiritual leader") rises up to lead his followers against the "infidels." When the French invaded Egypt, a Mahdi arose; in the British war against Upper Egypt in 1886, a Mahdi led on his followers to battle. The pilgrims from Africa to Mecca have a most important influence on commerce and the intercourse that arises from commerce.

24. Languages.—Most of the languages spoken by the Negro nations and tribes have never been committed to writing—much less to type; and many of them are born, live, and die out with each generation. "Arabic is the language for the whole of the sea-coast from the Delta of the Nile to the Straits of Gibraltar, and from the Straits of Gibraltar to the mouth of the Senegal." In the Sahara, Berber languages are spoken; in most of the South, Bantu languages. The language of the Hottentots is rich in "click" sounds, of the Bushmen, in "cluck" sounds; but they are quite distinct from each other.

25. Discovery.—Though the Nile Valley was the earliest seat of science and of human culture, and though there still exist there monuments of history which were built 4000 years before Christ, Africa is still the least-known division of the globe on which we live. The blank spaces on the map are very numerous ; and about one-quarter of the whole continent is still completely unknown. Africa has been frequently crossed from east to west, or from west to east ; but never along a meridian from north to south. The following are the chief dates in the slow uncovering of the great mystery of this continent :

1. Mariners from Dieppe found "Little Dieppe" on the coast of Guinea in 1364.

2. Bartholomew Dias discovers "the Cape" in 1487; and calls it Cabo Tormentoso=Cape of Storms.

8. Vacco de Gama doubles the Cape and skirts the East Coast up to 2° North lat. in 1497-98. King John of Portugal now rechristens the Cape the "Cape of Good Hope," because he thought he saw in it the way to the Indies.

4. James Bruce discovers the source of the Blue Nile in 1770.

5. African Association founded in 1788. They send out Ledyard, Mungo Park, and others to explore the basin of the Niger.

6. Moffat, the great missionary, begins to explore South Africa in 1840.

7. David Livingstone reaches Lake Ngami in 1849; crosses the continent from the mouth of the Zambesi to Loanda in 1853; from 1859-63 explores Lake Nyassa and the neighbouring regions; in 1871, along with Stanley, reaches Lake Tanganyika; dies at Hala, near Lake Bemba, in 1873.

8. Burton and Speke discover Lake Tanganyika in 1858.

9. Baker discovers the Albert Nyanza in 1864.

10. Cameron in 1874-75 walks across Tropical Africa from east to west.

11. Stanley reaches the mouth of the Congo from the interior in 1877; and proves that the Lualaba and the Congo are one stream.

12. Joseph Thempson penetrates the Masai Land to the Victoria Nyanza in 1884.

26. Colonisation .- Africa is at present in the peculiar position of being ardently coveted by the most enterprising states of Europe. Eight European Powers hold portions of this continent. Great Britain holds Cape Colony in the south; many settlements on the west; "protects" a long part of the coast in the east; and holds Egypt in her own hand. France holds Algeria; the Senegal Basin; "French Congo ;" and some smaller settlements. Germany has lands both on the west and the east coasts ; and is always eager for more. Portugal has her old possessions of Angola and Benguela, and a good deal on the east coast. Spain has a narrow foot-hold at Ceuta only. Italy holds the Red Sea coast from Massowah to Assab in Abyssinia; and looks with longing eyes towards Tripoli. Turkey is suzerain of Egypt ; and also holds the Pashalik of Tripoli with Fezzan; but her power is dying. The little enterprising country of Belgium has also an eye upon Africa; and the King of the Belgians is the "Sovereign" of the Free Congo State.

The parts of Africa held by European Powers are as follows :

(i) Great Britain: (a) Settlements at Gambia and Sierra Leone; and the Guinea Coast from the Assinie River to the Niger Delta and on to the Cameroons. (b) A Protectorate over the Lower Niger and the Benue. (c) Cape Colony, Natal, Griqualand West; Protectorates over Basutoland, Kaffirland, Pondoland, Bechuanaland, and part of Zululand. (d) A Protectorate over the Masai Land.

(ii) France: Algeria, Tunis, the Senegal Basin; the Gaboon and Ogowai Basins; and Obok, on the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb.

(iii) Portagal: Angola and Benguela, on the west coast, with a small tract just north of the Congo mouth; Mozambique and Sofala on the east.

(iv) Spain: Ceuta, opposite Gibraltar.

(v) Germany: Coast-lands from Orange River to Cape Frio (excepting the British settlement at Walvisch Bay); the Cameroons, at the head of the Gulf of Guinea, etc.

(vi) Italy: Coast of Red Sea from Massowah to Assab.

(vii) Turkey: Suzerainty of Egypt; Pashaliks of Tripolitana and Fezzan.

(viii) Belgium : The "sovereignty" over the Congo Free State (which is also "protected" by the European Powers).

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THE BARBARY STATES.

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Introductory.—Barbary is the general name for four states which lie, in the north of Africa, upon the Mediterranean. These are Morocco, Algeria, Tunis, and Tripoli. The chief physical feature of Morocco is the Greater Atlas; while the Lesser Atlas runs not only through Morocco, but also through Algeria and Tunis. The rivers are short and of little importance. They sink down to a small thread of water in summer; and even the Draa, in Morocco, has many of the characteristics of a mere Wady. The climate is temperate and bracing on the uplands and the northern slopes; but very hot on the south, where the country looks out upon the desert.

A Wady is a desert stream which is a raging torrent in the rainy season, and waterless, or nearly waterless, in the dry season. (The word, which is Moorish, appears in Spain in the form of *Guadi*—as in *Guadiana*, *Guadalquivir*, etc.)

MOROCCO.

1. The Country.—Morocoo is the most westerly of the Mediterranean States. It is a "Sultanate" or Empire, ruled over by a despotic sovereign who has the title of "Emir-al-Mumenim" or "Prince of the Faithful." It has an area of 220,000 square miles—that is, nearly four times that of England and Wales. The population is not known; but the most trustworthy estimate seems to be 5,000,000. There are in the country three distinct regions : (i) The Tell, which is a breadth of fertile land rising from the coast to the uplands; (ii) The Highlands, embracing the mountain-country; and (iii) the desert region of the Sahara, where the lion and panther are found. The fertile coastregion is inhabited chiefly by Moors; the highland regions by Berbers, many of whose tribes are practically independent.

2. Products and Trade.—The area of the Tell is nearly as large as that of Great Britain ; and all kinds of crops grow in it. Maise, dates, almonds, olives, beans, and peas are largely cultivated. The three largest exports are oxen, maise, and beans; and Great Britain is the largest buyer of the two last.

3. Towns.—There are three large towns—all inland ; and two considerable ports. The large towns are Morocco; Fez; and Mequines. The two ports are Mogador and Tangier.

(i) Morecee (50) is the capital. Seen from without, it is a superb and imposing city; within, it is half ruins. When the Emperor goes through the city, his approach is heralded by the despatch of a number of human heads, which are then fixed on the front of the palace, as a warning to the unruly.

(ii) Fes (150) is the largest city in the Empire. It is a "Holy City," almost as much reverenced by the Faithful as Mecca and Medina. The Mussulman inhabitants dress in yellow; the Jews in black; the women in red. It is a place of great trade. It manufactures leather, carthenware, and the kind of cap called *fes*.

(iii) Mequines (86) is the centre of the agricultural district. Its broad streets are interspersed with gardens, which supply the people with fruits and vegetables.

(iv) Mogador is the chief port on the Atlantic.

(v) Tangier, on the Straits, has the largest foreign commerce, and also a large trade with Gibraltar (Ceuta belongs to Spain).

Algeria.

1. The Country.—Algeria is the largest and most important of the colonies that belong to France. It is bounded on the west by Morocco; on the east, by Tunis and Tripoli; on the south, its boundaries have not been clearly defined. Like Morocco, it consists of three parts: (i) the fertile Tell; (ii) the Atlas Highlands; and (iii) the Sahara. In the last region the only habitable parts are in the artificial oases which have grown round the artesian wells sunk by the French. At the southern foot of the Atlas runs the "Plain of the Shotts," or marshy lakes, on the banks of which alfa grows in abundance. This plain lies beneath the level of the Mediterranean. The area of the country amounts to about 184,000 square miles, or very nearly the size of the whole of France. The population is under 4,000,000; and there are only quarter of a million of Frenchmen.

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2. Products, Trade, and Communications.—The soil of the Tell is extremely fertile, is well-watered, and grows excellent crops of all kinds of cereals—and chiefly wheat, olives, tobacco, cotton and rice. More than 45 millions of acres are under cultivation; and of these about 18ths are held by Europeans. About two-thirds of the total commerce of the country is carried on with France. Spain and Great Britain come next as customers. The most important article of export is alfa (a kind of esparto grass used for making paper), which grows in a broad belt running through the middle of the country. There are nearly 2000 miles of railway in the country.

(i) Alfa is one of the chief sources of wealth in Algeria. There are 15,000,000 acres undar it; and, as it grows wild, its culture costs nothing.

3. Towns.—Algeria possesses four towns with a population of more than 20,000. These are : Algiers ; Oran ; Constantine ; and Bône.

(i) Algiers (75) is the capital of "African France." It is the foremost city in Africa, as "a centre for the diffusion of European civilisation throughout the Continent." Seen from the sea, it is one of the grandest, noblest, and most striking cities in the world. It is called the "silver city" from the glistening white appearance of its buildings. It was once the capital of piracy; but Lord Exmouth, in 1816, bombarded the town, destroyed the fleet in the harbour, and forced the Dey to set free his Christian captives.

(ii) Oran (70) is the busiest trading port in Algeria. It exports esparto grass.

(iii) Constantine (50) is the most important inland city. It stands on a rocky plateau. Its staple industry is in leather; and whole streets are filled with the workshops of tanners, saddlers, and shoemakers. It is the Northampton of Algeria.

(iv) Bone (30) is a port with an excellent roadstead.

TUNIS.

4. The small state of **Tunis** is under the protection of France. It is a little larger than Portugal, with a population a little over 2,000,000. The state receives its name from its capital, which is one of the largest cities in Africa. It is a well-cultivated country; and its chief exports are olive-oil, wheat, and esparto. Great Britain buys esparto, and sends back cotton goods. There are nearly 300 miles of railway in the country.

(i) Tunis (145) stands on the Lake of Tunis, ten miles south-east of the site of ancient Carthage. It manufactures silks and woollen stuffs. The city walls measure five miles in circumference. It was called by the Mussulmans "the white, the odorous, the flowery, the bride of the west;" and even now the North African Mahometans regard it as the city of good taste, of literature, of fashion, —as a kind of "African Paris." Its port is called Golstta.

(ii) Kairwan, south of Tunis, is the religious capital of the country. It is a "Holy City;" Jews are forbidden to reside within its walls; it is "one of the Four Gates of Paradise;" and "seven days' stay at Kairwan are equivalent to one day at Mecca."

TRIPOLI.

TRIPOLI with FEZZAN.—This country is not an independent state, but a mere province or *vilayet* of Turkey. Though it is four times larger than Great Britain, the amount of cultivated land is not larger than an average English county. The population of Tripoli and Fezzan numbers about 1,000,000. Its chief exports are ostrich feathers, esparto grass, and wheat. The greater portion of Fezzan is a silent and barren desert, with oases here and there. The capital of Tripoli is Tripoli ; of Fezzan, Mursuk.

(i) Tripoli (30) is the only seaport of consequence on the 800 miles of coast which the country possesses. From this city are despatched every year about eight large caravans, comprising from 1000 to 3000 camels, and escorted by hundreds of armed Arabs. They go through Murzuk on to Wadai, Bornu, Houssa and Timbuctoo, where they exchange cotton goods and other European manufactures for ostrich feathers, ivory, gold dust, and slaves.

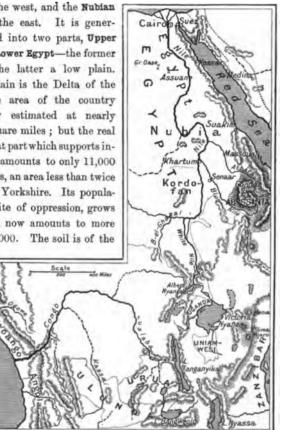
(ii) Marsak is a centre of internal trade, and caravans connect it with Cairo, Bornu, and even Ashanti. Man-hunting raids are made by the princes of the fertile lands in the Soudan; and the captives are sold to Arab merchants. They are marched over the desert under a burning sun for about 800 mlles, to Murzuk. One great annual caravan brings about 4000 slaves; and "on both sides of the routs are seen the blanched bones of deed slaves, many of the skeletons still wrapped in the blue negro garment. Any one who did not know the way would only have to follow the bones which lie right and left of the track."

EGYPT.

1. Country.—Egypt is a country which lies in the delta and lower valley of the Nile. "An arid desert and a verdant plain between two high ramparts of rocks: that is Egypt." Its southern limit is

Wady Halfa, at the Second Cataract on the Nile : its northern, the Mediterranean; while the desert lies on both sides of it, the Libyan

Desert on the west, and the Nubian Desert on the east. It is generally divided into two parts, Upper Egypt and Lower Egypt-the former a valley, the latter a low plain. This low plain is the Delta of the Nile. The area of the country is officially estimated at nearly 400,000 square miles ; but the real Egypt-that part which supports inhabitants-amounts to only 11,000 square miles, an area less than twice the size of Yorkshire. Its population, in spite of oppression, grows rapidly and now amounts to more than 7,000,000. The soil is of the



THE NILE AND CONGO BASINS.

richest kind. It is on an average about 32 ft. deep ; and is renewed every year by the large contributions of fertilising mud brought down by the river. "Egypt is the gift of the Nile." Should it rise too high, it destroys much property; should it fall short, it causes famine.

(i) Egypt includes, busides the Delta and the Nile Valley, the territory of **El Arish** (Sinai), in Asia; and the Red Sea coast from Suez to Kosseir.

(ii) Wady-Halfa is 800 miles from Cairo. Prior to 1884, the Khedive of Egypt claimed rule over territory which extended almost to the Equator. But the people of the Soudan rebelled ; and the valley above Wady-Halfa had to be given up.

(iii) The Delta (which begins 120 miles from the sea) is a level plain richly cultivated, varied only by the lofty dark-brown mounds on which ancient cities stood, and other mounds on which are perched villages among groves of palm-trees. Otherwise, there are no trees anywhere to be seen. It is everywhere permeated by irrigation canals and channels, both natural and artificial.—In Upper Egypt the valley is very narrow—a green strip ten to fifteen miles in breadth—and bounded by mountains of no great height. These hills are really the edges of the desert table-land, through which the river has saved its way. (The whole country has been compared to "a triangular kite with a long sinuous tail.")

(iv) "The bright green of the fields, the reddish-brown of the great river (dull-green when in flood), the tender tints of the bare yellow rocks, the intense blue of the sky, all go to make a series of beautiful views, which vary little in form, though to some extent in colour." At the time of "High Nile," Egypt presents the appearance of an inland sea, with a number of villages rising above the flood, and rafts floating about, on which many of the inhabitants live for a time.

(v) West of the Nile Valley are several cases, which support some thousands of inhabitants. The most famous is the Siwah Casis in which stood the oracle of Jupiter Ammon, which Alexander the Great consulted. Date-groves, olive-trees, apricot, pomegranate, and plum-trees make the spot look beautiful. It lies in a depression 96 ft. below the level of the Mediterranean. "Siwah is a little paradise; round the dark blue mirrors of its lakes stand clumps of palms, orange-trees, and olives."

(vi) In the year 1800 the population numbered only 2,000,000; but in ancient times it must have been the seat of one of the densest populations on the globe.

(vii) The present population gives an average of 640 persons to the square mile, which is higher than that of Belgium, Saxony, or England. The people include Arab-Egyptians (who are Mahometans), Copts (who are Christians), Turks, Greeks, Armenians, etc. The Turks, who only number 30,000, are the masters, and fill all the high offices of state. The people are ground down by taxation; they are like the grain of sesame, which is ground so long as it yields oil.

2. Its Commercial Position.—Egypt stands at the crossing of the two great commercial diagonals of the world—the overland route between Asia and Africa, and the ocean-highway between the Atlantic, the Mediterranean, and the Indian Ocean. And the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869 has placed Egypt midway between the furthest western and the furthest eastern continent—between America

EGYPT

and Australia. All the great international commercial routes of the world now converge upon the Suez Canal.

3. The Flooding of the Nile.—The annual overflow of the Nile is one of the greatest marvels in physical geography. For countless ages, it has risen to within a few inches of the same height, and to within a few hours of the same time, year after year. At Cairo, the rise is from 25 to 27 ft. The alluvium spread over the adjacent country is a contribution of new soil and creates a new Egypt, though it amounts to only 6 inches in the course of each hundred years. "The brown or blackish mud is the only manure required for the crops."

(i) In Lower Egypt, the inundation begins about the 10th of June, and attains its greatest height in three months. During the three months of flood, the Nile contributes to the Mediterranean as much water as during the remaining nine months.

(ii) "The day when the Nile reaches the proper level for cutting the dykes which separate it from the irrigation canals is a day of rejoicing for all the riverside populations. In former times, a young maiden was on this occasion borne with great pomp and cast into the seething waters. Now her place is taken by a dressed-up doll, which is still offered by the public executioner—a curious reminiscence of former human sacrifice."

(iii) In 1874, all the summer crops were threatened with complete destruction; but the population rose and battled with the rising waters. For more than a month 700,000 men were engaged in repairing, strengthening, and raising the embankments.

4. Products, Trade, and Communication.—Though rain seldom falls even in the Delta, and sometimes not for years in Upper Egypt, the Nile, which gives the fertile soil, gives also plenty of water for irrigation. Hence, from the very earliest times, the principal occupation of the Egyptians has been agriculture. The chief products are cotton, cereals, and sugar. The principal exports are cotton, cottonseed, sugar, and beans. Great Britain takes about half of all the exports, and sends back cotton goods, clothing, and coal. The commerce of Egypt is always growing ; and, relatively to the population, it is half as large as that of France. There are about 1300 miles of railway (single line) in the country ; but the Nile itself and about 600 miles of carals furnish water-ways for the traffic and travel of the

people. The **Sues Canal** belongs to the commerce of the world; and its freedom is guaranteed by the Great Powers.

(i) Besides the products above mentioned, dates, fax, hemp, rice, tobacce, coffse, indige, are grown; and excellent figs, melons, bananas, and other kinds of fruit, in the gardens. The ordinary food of the people is durra, a kind of millet. There are three harvests in the year, and there has always been a surplus of grain in Egypt.

(ii) The peasantry are called Fellahs (or Fellaheen=Ploughmen); and the normad tribes of the Desert are called Bedouins.

(iii) Besides the ordinary articles of trade, Egypt exports gum-arabie, estrich feathers, ivory, senna, and gold.

(iv) The two main branches (there were once seven) of the Nile—the Resetta and the Damietta branches, form high ways into the interior; but these are supplemented by numerous canals. The most important of these is the Mahmediah Canal, joining Alexandria and Rosetta.

(v) The Sues Canal was begun by the great French engineer M. De Lesseps, in 1859, and finished in 1869. It is one of the wonders of the world. It goes from Part Said, through Lake Menzaleh, Lake Timseh and the Bitter Lakes, to the port of Sues, and is 100 miles long. Ismailis, founded by the late ruler of Egypt, stands on the north side of Lake Timseh, and has an excellent position as an entrepôt. Very large steamers can pass through the canal. About 3000 British vessels pass through every year (for this canal is now the highway to India); and that is three times as many as all the vessels of all the other countries of the world put together. The tolls paid by the vessels using the canal amount to over £8,000,000 a year.

(vi) Telegraphs accompany the railways, and also the high roads. A few years ago a telegraph line stretched from Alexandria almost to the Equator.

5. Towns.—There are only two large towns in Egypt—Cairo and Alexandria. But there are also a few of which it may be well to know something, such as : Damietta, Zagazig, Rosetta, Port Said, and Suez.

(i) GAIRO (875), the capital, stands on the right bank of the Nile, a little above the branching, at the apex of the triangle of alluvial land. It is the "diamond clasp" which closes "the fan of the delta." It is the largest town in Africa. It is surrounded by walls; is commanded by a strong and noble-looking citadel; and contains 400 mosques. People of all races and languages are seen in its streets; and the bazaars are splendid emporiums of all kinds of goods. It is also a great seat of Mahometan learning. On the opposite bank of the river is the town of Ghima, near which stand three of the largest pyramids. The largest of all is that of Gaeps, which covers an area of over 12 acres, and is 480 ft. high. (All up the Nile Valley are countless runs of former greatness—such as temples, pyramids, tombs, palaces, colossal statues, sphinxes, obeliaks, and other works of art.)

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(ii) Alexandris (280) is the chief port of Egypt. It is one of the great historic cities of the world, and was founded by Alexander the Great (who had an eye for a situation favourable to commerce) in 332 B.C. It was at one time the chief seat of Greek learning; it had the finest libraries in the world; it was "the brain of mankind;" and formed the intellectual Exchange between the Eastern and Western Worlds. Now its glories are departed; though it is still a fine city. It was bombarded by the British fleet in 1882; and many of its fine streets laid in ruins.

(iii) Damistta (36) stands on an eastern limb of the Nile; and is the centre of a large trade in rice, sait, and fish. It is the third largest city in Egypt.

(iv) Zaganig (23) is a great entrepost for the cotton and cereals grown in this part of the Delta. East of it stands Tel-el-Kebir (=" Great Mound "), where the Egyptians were defeated by Lord Wolseley in the war of 1882.

v) Recetta (18), near the mouth of the left branch of the Nile, exports rice.

(vi) Pert Sald (18) at the entrance of the Suez Canal, stands on the narrow strip of land which separates Lake Menzaleh from the Mediterranean. Planted on a surfbeaten strand, twenty-four miles from fresh water, from arable lands, and from trees, the creation of this town is almost as great a marvel as the construction of the Suez Canal. Its central position makes its commercial prospects very hopeful.

(vii) Sues (12) bids fair to rank with Alexandria and Port Saïd as a commercial port.

NUBIA AND THE EASTERN SOUDAN.

1. Nuble.—This is the name given to the country which lies south of the Wady Halfa, up to 10° N. lat., and which contains the valley of the Upper Nile and the country between the Libyan Desert and the Red Sea—with the exception of Abyssinia. The part between 10° and the Albert Nyanza had the general name of the Egyptian Soudan; but Egypt, since the successful revolt of the Mahdi, has given up the government of that part of the country. The native states of Darfur, Wadai, and Kordofan all lie in the neighbourhood of this region. The whole of this country, which has the character of a vast steppe, crossed by mountain ranges, is thinly peopled by a mixed race of Arab-Negroes.

Prior to 1884, the dominions of the Khedive almost reached the Equator; and their area was estimated at a million square miles.

2. The Upper Nile.—The Blue Nile (from Abyssinia) and the White Nile (from the Albert Nyanza) join in this region, nearly at the point where **Khartoum** stands. The country between these two Niles is

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called Senaar. Further down, the Atbara or Black River (also from Abyssinia), joins the Nile near Berber, but only in the rainy season. In the dry season, its bed, a quarter of a mile broad, is completely dry; it is "a desert within a desert." Below this, the Nile receives not a single tributary; and, what with the demands for irrigation and the rapid evaporation, becomes smaller and smaller as it nears the sea. The lands watered by the Upper Nile and its tributaries are elevated park-like plains—with forests and savannahs in different parts. In the south-east are large forests in which ebony and other hard woods grow.

3. Produce, Trade, and Communications — Dhurra, the date-paim, cotton, indigo, tobacco, and many kinds of gums, are grown in Nubia and the Eastern Soudan. But the most valuable export is ivory, which is obtained from the vast herds of elephants that roam over the immense "parks" of this wonderful country. Caravans carry ivory and other goods to Cairo and to Suakim on the Red Sea.

4. Towns.—The towns are in many cases merely collections of villages. The most important are Khartoum, Sensar, Suakim, Massowah, Berber, and El Obeid.

(i) Khartoum (40) is the largest town and centre of traffic in the country, and the converging point of all the caravan routes. Ivory, ebony, and ostrich feathers are sent on from here across the desert to Korosko and thence down the Nile to Cairo. Here the great General Gordon, with his Egyptian garrison, was murdered by the Mahdi on Jan. 26, 1885.

(ii) Sensar, on the Blue Nile, which gives its name to the whole region, was once a large and prosperous town. It is a meeting-place for caravans.

(iii) Suskim is the only port on the Red Sea coast between Kosseir and Massowah, and the starting-point of the caravan route to Berber and Khartoum. It was the chief port for landing troops and stores during the Egyptian war. It is the port from which African pilgrims embark for Mecca.

(iv) Massowah (5), further south, stands on a coral island. It is an important harbour for the Abyssinians; but Italy holds it at present.

(v) Berber is the starting-point of the most frequented caravan route from the Middle Nile to the Red Ses. In 1885 a railway from Suskim to Berber was begun; a few miles were constructed; it has for the present been given up; but, when it is completed, Berber will become the chief port of Upper Soudan.

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ABYSSINIA

(vi) El Obeid (80) is the capital of Kordofan, and the point from which the Mahdi led his troops against Khartoum. It is a great central emporium of the slave-trade.

ABYSSINIA.

1. The Country-Abyssinia is a mountainous country-a land of lakes, mountains, and mountain-torrents-which lies to the south-east of Nubia. It is an immense pear-shaped mountain-clump ; and is often called the "African Switzerland." It is an enormous table-land with an average elevation of 7000 ft. The main mass has been cut into island-like sections, which are separated by gorges and ravines, some of which are 4000 ft, deep. From the table-land rise various mountain-chains, and also isolated mountains, with naked perpendicular sides, which look like domes, or pyramids, or pillars, or obelisks. The long slope of the country is to the west : the short slope, to the east, falls very abruptly into the low plain which fringes the Red Sea. The whole country rises out of the Torrid Zone into the region of perpetual snow. It is said to be nearly as large as France; though its population is not more than 3,000,000. The people are of South-Arabian blood : but the chief race at present is that of the Gallas, a people who came from a land south of Abyssinia.

(i) Three regions or zones are distinguished in the Plateau of Abyssinia. These are: (a) the Kollas (="Hot Lands") from 8000 to 4800 ft. above the sea-level, which produce cotton, indigo, sugar-cane, coffee, bananas, and dates, and where black lions, elephants, panthers, and huge snakes exist. (b) The second zone, up to 9000 ft., with a climate like that of Italy, where the vine, peach, and apricot flourish. It is in this zone that the largest population is found. (c) The third or highest belt, up to 12,000 ft., where coats and barley grow, and large herds of cattle and sheep are pastured.

(ii) The whole country looks somewhat like the "chess-board" formed in a stiff clay soil when it is cracked by the heat.

(iii) The largest lake is Lake Dembea.

(iv) The chief rivers are the Blue Nile, which flows through Lake Dembea, and the Atbara. But the rivers, in general, are useless for traffic; they divide provinces instead of uniting them.

(v) The highest mountain in Abyssinia is Ras Dashan (15,160 ft.)—or a little lower than Mont Blanc. The snow-line is at 13,000 ft.

2. Produce and Trade.—Abyssinia is a fruitful land; and in some parts three crops can be raised in a year. Cotton, sugar, and coffee, are produced; but there is no foreign trade.

(i) The people are coarse and barbarous. They cat raw fiesh at their banquets, and cut beefsteaks out of the loins of living oxen.

(ii) The Abyssinians profess a kind of Coptic Christianity. The Gallas are Pagans.

3. Towns.—There are few towns; and the largest are very small. The best known are Gondar, Samara, and Magdala.

(i) Gondar (6) was once the "capital of Ethiopia," and is still the ecclesiastical capital of Abyssinia.

(ii) Samara is now the military capital. It is here that the present Emperor, called the Negus, or "King of Kings," resides.

(iii) Magdala is the strong fortress taken by Lord Napier of Magdala in the war of 1868. This "little war," against a blood-thirsty petty tyrant called King Theodore, cost us £9,000,000. A soldier in that campaign climbing, with his company, a very steep and almost perpendicular rock, said, "If this country is a table-land, I suppose this is one of the legs of the table."

(iv) East of Abyssinia Tajurah and Obek have been occupied by France; Assab by Italy; and Berber by England. These ports will, in time, become useful to commerce.

THE SOUDAN.

1. Soudan.—The part of North Africa which lies to the south of the Sahara, and which stretches across the continent from the Atlantic to Abyssinia is called Soudan or "The Land of the Blacks." The population is composed partly of Negroes, and partly of a mixed race called Foulans, or Fellatans, who are the most energetic of all tropical races, are Moorish by descent, and Mahometans by religion. The Negroes are Pagans, and worship different kinds of fetiches. The chief obstacle in the way of peace and civilisation is the slave-trade, and the man-hunting expeditions into quiet agricultural districts. The states in this vast region are governed by despots ; and the people devote themselves to agriculture and the raising of cattle. The Soudan is divided into two parts, Upper Soudan and Lower Soudan.

(i) Upper Soudan is a country of table-lands and wide terraces. On its western slope lies Sensgambia, the country which occupies the basins of the Senegal and the Gambia, where dwell the Mandingees, a Negro race given to exchange and barter, and some

Fellataha, all under the suscrainty of France. St. Louis is the French capital. Upper Guinea lies on the southern slope of Upper Soudan. The coast is low; the climate is very hot and very moist; and the swamps and luxuriant vegetation make fevers common. Most of the coast is in the hands of the English. Sterra Leene is an English settlement; next comes the Grain or Pepper Coast, where the Americans have founded a state for freed slaves, called Liberia (capital Monrovia—after President Monro); then **Ivery Coast**; Gold Coast; Slave Coast. The trade in slaves in the last division has been driven out by that in palm-oil, the centre of which is Lages (60)—a large and thriving, but unhealthy, commercial town. The Negro kingdoms in the interior are Ashanti, with its capital Coomassie, once a large city of 100,000 inhabitants, but burnt down by British troops in the year 1874; and Dahomey, with its capital Abomey (30);—both kingdoms given up to the most sanguinary rites and the sacrifice of men and women. East of these kingdoms is the country of Yemba, with the large town of Abbeckute (80), well known in the records of British missions.

(ii) Lower Soudan is a country with the richest soil, a tropical climate, magnificent forests, and rich plains carefully cultivated. The Negroes are here in large degree subject to the Foulahs; and the chief Foulah States are : Massina; Gande; Sokote; and Adamawa. (a) The capital of Massina is Timbuctoe (20), which occupies an excellent position for commerce—as it stands at the centre of five caravan-routes which lead to all parts of Northern Africa. (b) Gande is the capital of the Empire of Gando. It stands on the Sokoto, a tributary of the Niger, and is a place of some trade. (c) Sokoto—also an Empire—is the most powerful of the Soudanese States. The capital is Sokoto, on the river Sokoto; but the largest town is Yakuba (150), with a splendid trade in cotton, tobacco, and indigo. (d) Adamawa is one of the finest and healthiest regions in Africa—with lofty highlands, fertile valleys, and grassy plains covered here and there with forests of benanas, baobabs and plantains, and in other places yielding abundant harvests of cereals, cotton, and indigo. The capital is Yoia, a place of great trade. The chief Negro kingdoms are Boraou and Wadai.

(iii) The Egyptian Soudan has been already described (p. 855).

WESTERN AFRICA.

1. Western Africa.—This is the name given to the region which lies between the southern edge of the Sahara and Cape Frio, in 18° South lat. It includes Senegambia, Upper Guinea, and Lower Guinea. It consists of a succession of low plains, with high grounds some distance inland, through which the rivers force their way. The English, French, Portuguese, Germans, and Belgians, have established all along this coast trading stations; and, as they hold the coast, the tendency is to extend their influence and their suzerainty as

far inland as they can. The trade of the coast consists in tvory, golddust, ostrich feathers, palm-oil, and gums. The following are the chief trading-stations:

(i) FRENCH : St. Louis, near the mouth of the Senegal ; and Goree, near Cape Verde.

(ii) BRITISH GAMBIA: Bathurst, the capital, at the mouth of the Gambia; and George Town, well inland.

(iii) BRITISH : Sierra Leone-capital, Freetown.

(iv) AMERICAN : Liberia (before described, p. 859).

(v) BRITISH: The Gold Coast, with Cape Coast Castle, a very unhealthy place, as its chief town. Elmina, once the capital of the Dutch possessions, now belongs to us. Acces, the chief port, is also the capital. Lagos, the most populous town on the west coast (see p. 859). From Lagos to the Cameroons, the coast—now formally under British protection—is the chief seat of the trade in palm-oil and kernels; and the British African Company has nearly 100 factories up the Niger and Benne, as far as Toia, the capital of Adamawa.

(vi) GERMAN: The Cameroon Coast.—The low-lying delta branches of the Niger, the estuaries of the Old Calabar River and the Cameroons River, separated from each other by mangrove-covered swamps, have been termed the "Oil Rivers" of West Africa. The European traders dare not reside in the towns on the beach—on account of the malaria; they live in hulks "like large Noah's arks," which are moored in the currents of the rivers, and here they exchange goods of every kind for palm-oil.

(vii) SPANISH: the island of Fernando Fo. It is used by the Spaniards as a place of exile for political offenders. It has a peak 10,190 ft. high, a perfect cone, and wooded to the top.

(viii) FRENCH: The Gaboon and the Ogowal Protectorate, which extends to Brazzaville on the Congo. The Gaboon is properly only a great estuary for a number of small rivers. The territory here which France protects is not much smaller than Spain.

(ix) INTERNATIONAL: The Goage Free State, under the International African Association, the head of which is the King of the Belgians, who is also "Suzerain" of the new state. This territory is nine times the size of Great Britain, and it includes the whole course, and almost the whole basin of the "mighty Congo." Between Stanley Falls almost on the Equator, and Stanley Fool—about three hundred miles from the river's mouth, there is 1000 miles of river navigation, uninterrupted by cataracts or by rapids. The International Association has five stations on the Lower Congo, the chief of which at present is Bona—once a great slave-mart. There are 27 stations in all. The whole basin is said to be very fertile, to be thickly peopled (the population is estimated at 27,000,000), and to offer large opportunities for new markets. A road has been made to evade the rapids; and railways will soon penetrate into the interior. The roads to and from the Congo Basin and all navigable water in its re to be and to remain for ever free to the commerce of all nations. The exports at present are palmoil, rubber, ivory, gum, ground-nuts; and the imports, cotton cloth, gung, gunpowder,



spirits, and tobacco. The present Governor-General (the first) is the great African explorer, Mr. H. M. Stanley.

(x) PORTUGUESE: Compo. Angola, Loanda, Benguela, etc., between Ambriz and Cape Frio. The Portuguese territory called Congo is south of the river-mouth.

(xi) GERMAN: The coast from Cape Frio to the mouth of the Orange,—with the exception of Wallsh (=Whale) Bay, which is British.

EASTERN AFRICA.

1. The East Coast.—The Eastern Coast of Africa, like the Western, consists of a succession of low plains, backed by high table-lands, through which the rivers cut their way. The broadest part of these low plains is the north, which is called Somali Land. Numerous rivers find their way to the sea; but they are much shorter than those on the west. The climate of the plains is hot and unhealthy; that of the uplands is better fitted for Europeans. From west of Cape Guardafui to Cape Delgado German influence prevails; from Cape Delgado to Delagoa Bay, the influence of the Portuguese. The trade is the usual African trade in gold-dust, ivory, gums, and ostrich feathers. The following are the chief divisions :

(i) GERMAN PROTECTORATE: (a) The Ajan Coast, from Cape Guardafui to the mouth of the Juba River and Usagara.

(ii) ZANZIEAR, an Arab Sultanate, consisting of a long strip of coast which extends only ten miles inland, and is much under the influence of the Germans. The capital is Zansibar (30), on the island of the same name, with a rising trade. The chief exports are ivory and india-rubber. (The trade of the East African coast is almost entirely in the hands of East Indian merchants; the Arabs take to agriculture.)

(iii) PORTCOURSE: More than 1000 miles of coast, with an average of 80 miles inland, from Cape Delgado to Delagoa Bay. There are nine districts, the best known of which are Sofala and Mozambique. Sofala is a small port at the mouth of the Great Sofala River. From its ancient wealth in gold and ivory, the country of Sofala is supposed to be the Ophir to which King Solomon sent a fleet of ships every three years. Mozambique stands on a low coral islet, in front of a fine bay. The Portuguese in the town are chiefly convicts. The trade is in ivory, gun, and skins. The influence of the Portuguese is a blighting and paralysing influence. Nothing has been done by them to open up the country; and they have long encouraged the curse of the country—the trade in slaves. The chief efforts at civilisation have been made by Scotch and English missionaries. They have launched steamers on Lakes Nyassa and Tanganyika; connected the two lakes by a road; and introduced steam communica-

tion between Nyassa, the Zambesi, and the sea, by means of the Shiré (the Murchison Falls being the only interruption). The African Lakes Company of Glasgow are busy opening up this fertile region to commerce and European civilisation.

SOUTHERN AFRICA.

1. Southern Africa.—This part of Africa, which lies between 22° and 35° South lat., is in the hands of the British and the native Dutch. There are two important British colonies—Cape Colony and Natai; and two independent Dutch Republics—the South African Republic, (formerly called the Transvaal) and the Orange Free State.

Transvaal means "the country beyond the Vaal"-which is one of the two large rivers that make up the Orange. The New Republic is now part of the Transvaal.

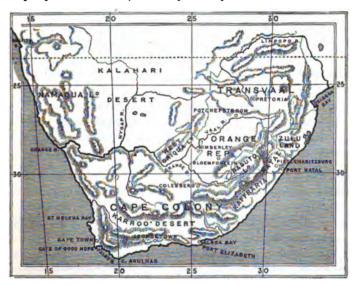
CAPE COLONY.

2. The Country.—This colony is bounded on the north by the Orange River; on the north-east by the colony of Natal; and on its other sides by the Atlantic, the Southern and the Indian Oceans. Its area amounts to nearly 232,000 square miles—that is, a little less than the area of the Austrian Empire. The population is only about 11 millions.

(i) Austria has a population of nearly 40 millions.

(ii) Cape Colony now includes Griqua Land West, which lies north of the Orange.

3. Physical Features.—The country consists of the southern half of the basin of the Orange River ; and of the whole of the basins of a large number of rivers which fall into the Atlantic, the Southern, and the Indian Oceans,—the largest of which is the Olifant (= Elephant). It has therefore two slopes—a long slope to the north, and a somewhat shorter slope to the south. The highest points are found in the culminating range of the Nieuweveld Berge (= New Fell Mountains), which rise in the Snee Berg (=Snow Mountain) to the height of 8500 ft. From this range the land descends to the Southern Ocean in threc terraces—one between the Nieuweveld and the Zwarte Berge (=Black Mountains); another between the Zwarte Berge and the Lange Berge (-Long Mountains); and the third between the Lange Berge and the coast. The farthest back of these three terraces contains the desert of the Great Karroo. The air is clear and buoyant; the climate very dry hot in summer, but always healthy.



CAPE COLONY.

(i) The mountains are in many cases simply the sea-ward edges or supporting walls of the table-lands. The general direction of the mountain-ranges is always that of the coast; and they are cut across at intervals by deep ravines or gorges (called "Kloofs") through which the rivers find their way to the sea.

(ii) A Karroe is a large barren tract of clayey table-land. It is not really a desert as, when rain does fall, it quickly clothes itself with grass and all kinds of flowers.

(iii) The Great Earroe is about two-thirds the size of Scotland—is covered with an ochre-coloured soil, which consists of clay and sand tinged with iron, and in summer is as hard as a brick. But the soil is full of the roots of bulbous plants; and, a few days after a rainfall, is like a smilling flower-garden.

(iv) Nearly two-thirds of Cape Colony consists of vast arid plains, covered, however, with shallow beds of very rich soil. They only require water; and hence the first thing for the settler to do is to make a "dam" to save up a supply of water.

(v) The characteristic vegetation consists of bulbous plants and heaths; of the 2 D

latter there are several hundred varieties. Hooks, thorns, and prickles also abound; and these are the natural provisions for dispersing the seeds. One plant is called by the Dutch "Wait a bit !"

4. The Coast.—The coast is of the regular character peculiar to Africa; it is upwards of 1300 miles in length. The west coast is low and sandy; the southern coast generally bold and rocky. The chief capes are the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Agulhas (=Needles), which is the most southerly point in Africa. The chief inlets are St. Helena, Saldanha, and Table Bays on the west; False Bay and Algoa Bay on the south.

(i) Saldanha Bay is one of the finest natural harbours in the world.

(ii) Table Bay lies at the foot of Table Mountain, and is the port of Cape Town.

(iii) False Bay has, in its interior part, St. Simon's Bay, which is the principal South African station of the British fleet.

5. The Inhabitants.—Most of the inhabitants are of African race— Kaffirs and Hottentots; and only about thirty per cent. are whites, of Dutch, English, French, or German origin. The Kaffirs are increasing rapidly under British rule; but there are now few Hottentots within the colony.

(i) The Eaffirs are a dark-brown, powerful, handsome race, given mostly to a pastoral life. Many of them have adopted European clothes and customs. (The word Kaffir means unbeliever, and is an Arabic name given to all non-Mahometans.)

(ii) The Ectientets are a small, yellow-brown people, indolent, light-hearted, and incepable of civilisation.

6. Produce, Trade, and Communications.— The wide open plains of the interior are admirably fitted for pastoral life; and sheep-rearing is the most important industry of the colony. With the exception of diamonds, wool is by far the most valuable article of trade; and its value is as great as that of all the other exports put together. Next to wool, the chief exports are ostrich feathers, hides, copper ore, and goat's hair. The roads are good in the settled districts; up the country they are only tracks. There are about 2300 miles of railway; and 5000 miles of telegraph line.

(i) In 20 years, diamonds to the value of £35,000,000 have been found; and about 31 millions worth are now exported every year.

(ii) There are in the colony about 12 millions of sheep and 4 millions of goats.

(iii) Ostrich fasthers are not now got from wild ostriches, which have to be hunted. Ostriches are now bred and reared like domestic fowls. "Cape farmers buy and sell ostriches as they do sheep; fence their flocks in, stable them, grow crops for them, study their habits, and cut their feathers, as matters of business."

(iv) Copper ore is found in Little Namaqua Land and shipped at Port Molloth.

(v) There are three systems of railway :- the Western System, which starts from Cape Town ; the Midland, from Port Elizabeth ; and the Eastern, from East London.

7. The Towns.—There are no very large towns in the Colony ; but there are a good many small towns. There are only three with a population of more than 20,000. These are : Cape Town ; Kimberley ; and Port Elizabeth. The only others of any importance are Graham's Town ; East London ; and King William's Town. The chief ports are Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, and East London.

(i) Cape Town (80) is the capital of Cape Colony. It is very much like a thriving English provincial town. It stands at the foot of a remarkable hill with a flat top—as if half the summit had been cut off—called Table Mountain (8500 ft. high). When a south-east wind blows, it rises against the sides of the mountain into colder regions; the moisture it bears is condensed into mist; and the flat top of the mountain is covered with its "tablecloth." Sometimes this mist is driven down the slopes in a perfect "Niagara of vapour."

(ii) Emberiey (30- but, indeed, with a varying population), in Griqua Land West, is the capital of the Diamond Diggings. The best diamonds now come from here. They are found in an igneous black clay; and the "mines" are simply large hollows dug in the earth.

(iii) Port Elisabeth (25) on Algos Bay, is the busiest trading-place in the colony. The chief exports are wool, skins, and ostrich feathers.

(iv) Graham's Town (10) lies north-east of Port Elizabeth, and is the official capital of the Eastern Provinces.

(v) King William's Town (8) stands in the heart of the rich territory once called British Kaffraria—a rolling pastoral country of great beauty. Its seaport is East London, 28 miles away, which is the outlet for much of the produce of the Orange Free State, Grique Land West, etc.

8. Protected States.—There are several enormous territories under British protection, and no doubt destined soon to come completely under British control. These are—Bechuana Land, nearly as large as Spain; Pondo Land; Basuto Land; and part of Zulu Land.

(i) The Bochuanas are an African race of cattle-rearers and maize-growers. The Kalahari Desert is in the west of their country.

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(ii) Pendo Land, the eastern part of the Transkei, is now annexed to Cape Colony.

(iii) Baseto Land is a country nearly as large as Belgium, on a fertile and healthy plateau. It is the best grain-growing country in South Africa. It grows a great deal of maize (commonly called "mealies").

9. NATAL.---Natal is a colony bounded on the south by the river Umtamfuna, on the north by the Tugela, which separates it from Zululand, on the west by the Drakenberg Mountains, and on the east by the Indian Ocean. It is a little larger than Denmark; but has a population of only 550,000, of whom about 40,000 are whites. The land rises by terraces to an elevation of 4000 ft. above the sea-level. The soil is very fertile; and even in the kloofs there are dense clumps of forest. The chief crop is "mealies;" and its grain forms the principal food of seven-eighths of the population. The chief industry is sheep-rearing; and the chief export wool. But the climate being hotter than that of the Cape, sugar is also largely grown and exported. Natal, however, not only sends away its own produce; but is the carrier of the wool, hides, feathers, and ivory sent down from the inland provinces of the South African Republic and the Orange Free State. The capital is Pietermaritzburg (16); and the port, Durban (25).

(i) Natal received its name from Vasco da Gama, who sighted the headland at the entrance to the port of Durban on Christmas Day 1497. From the *Dies Natalis* he named it the *Terra Natalis*, now *Natal*.

(ii) Ostrich feathers fetch from £10 to £20 per lb.

10. The Orange Free State.—The Orange State is a small country —a little larger than Portugal—which lies between the Vaal, the Orange, and the Caledon. There are only about 207,000 people in the whole state, of whom some 60,000 are Dutch Boers (=Farmers). Their ancestors left Natal when it was declared a British colony, and set up a government for themselves in 1854. The chief industry is sheep-farming; and the principal export, wool. Ostrichfarming is also a lucrative pursuit. The exports are wool, hides, diamonds, and ostrich feathers; and most of them are sent down to Port Elizabeth to be shipped. There are rich coal-beds in the country; and gold has also been found. The capital is Bloemfontein

(=Flowery Fountain), a small place with a population of about 3000. It is connected, by telegraph, with Cape Colony and Natal, and, by rail, with **Cape Town** and **Johapnesburg**.

(i) The Vaal separates the Free State from the Transvaal (or South African Republic); the Orange from Cape Colony; the Caledon from Basutoland; and the Drakensberg Mountains from Natal.

(ii) Despite the railway that now traverses the State, there is still a brisk transport trade carried on by ox-wagon.

11. The South African Republic.—This is the name of a large state between the Limpopo and the Vaal. It is a little larger than Italy. Though it is an independent state, Queen Victoria has been acknowledged as suzerain, and can control the foreign policy of the Republic. The population numbers about half a million, of whom 200,000 are whites; and about 30,000 of these are Dutch Boers or farmers. Though both soil and climate are favourable for agriculture as well as for stock-raising, yet the country population—most of them slowmoving and unenterprising Dutchmen—stick obstinately to stockfarming and leave agriculture nearly alone. But the chief wealth of the country lies in its gold, and the Transvaal is now the largest gold-producing region in the world. The most famous "field" is the Witwatersrandt (White-water Ridge), on which stands the largest town, Johannesburg (100). The seat of government is Pretoria (5). Potchefstrom (2) is the centre of a tobacco-growing district.

(i) The eastern boundary of the State is only 40 miles from Delagoa Bay, and a railway joins a port on that fine harbour with Pretoria. Pretoria has also railway communication with Durban in Natal, and through Johannesburg, southwards, with the Free State and Cape Colony.

(ii) In 1886 Johannesburg was little more than a small collection of corrugated-iron shantles. It is now a modern town.

(iii) Swariland and the New Republic (once part of Zululand) are now incorporated in the Transvaal.

(iv) A railway is building North of Pretoria to Pietersburg. This will tap the mineral and agricultural resources of the North.

(v) Besides gold, the Transvaal possesses excellent coal, abundant iron, tin, and silver. With these, and with her fertile soll and temperate climate, she has a great future before her.

12. **Zululand** lies between the Tugela River, which separates it from Natal, and St. Lucia Bay. It is a little larger than Belgium. The Zulus are a brave military people; and, under Cetywayo, were attacked by the English in 1879. A large Zulu force surrounded and

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cut to pieces a British regiment at **Isandula**; a brave and determined stand was made at **Borke's Drift** by another British regiment; and at length the Zulu army was completely routed at **Ulundi**. The country was parcelled out among Zulu chiefs, and the Zulus have returned to agriculture and stock-rearing.

Zululand is a British possession.

ISLANDS CONNECTED WITH AFRICA.

1. Introductory.—The islands which lie round the coast of Africa have little or no physical connection with the continent; and they have nearly as little commercial intercourse. Except in the Mediterranean, they are not parts of the mainland: and the largest island, Madagascar, is cut off from communication with the continent by the violent currents which sweep through the Mozambique Channel. Most of them now belong to European Powers; and all in the Atlantic are of volcanic origin.

(i)	TO SPAIN :	The Canaries ;	Fernando Po and	Annabon in	the Gulf of Guinea.
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(ii) TO PORTUGAL: The Amores; Madeira; and the Cape Verdes; Prince's Isle and St. Thomas, in the Gulf of Guinea.

(iii) To BRITAIN: Assession ; St. Helens ; Tristan d'Acunha ; Mauritius ; Bodriguez ; the Scychelles ; the Amirante Islands ; and Scootra.

(iv) To FRANCE: Isle de Bourbon (or Réunion); and some stations on the coast of Madagascar.

(v) INDEPENDENT : Medagasoar) the Comoros.

2. The Canary Islands lie in 28° North lat., not far from Africa, but separated from it by an abyss 3000 ft. deep. They were the "Fortunate Isles" of the ancients. The largest is **Teneriffe**; the second largest, the **Grand Canary**. The most westerly is **Ferro**.

(i) All of these islands are mountainous, volcanic, and fertile.

(ii) The Peak of Teneriffe rises (above the clouds) to the height of 12,180 ft. The chief town is Santa Cruz.

(iii) The chief town of the Grand Canary is Las Palmas (= The Palms), which is the seat of the Spanish Government. It is also a health-resort.

(iv) The Meridian of Ferro is used by the Germans and other nations as the initial meridian from which to measure longitude; because this island was regarded as the most westerly land in the Old World.

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3. The Azores.—The volcanic group of the Azores is regarded as the extreme westerly advanced post of Africa; though they lie in the same latitude as Lisbon. Of the nine islands in the group, the best known are St. Michael's and Fayal.

All the islands are covered with orange groves; and the best oranges grown any where are those of St. Michael.

4. **Madeira.**—This lovely and fertile island is about twice the size of the Isle of Wight. It has long been a winter-refuge for those who have weak chests; as the air is always warm, and the temperature varies very little throughout the year. The whole island is a mass of mountains, of volcanic formation throughout. In the lower grounds, the palm and banana grow; higher up, the fruits and evergreens of Southern Europe. Since the destruction of the vines by disease, the sugar-cane has been largely grown. Cochineal is also an export. The chief town is **Funchal**, a port where Atlantic steamers call.

5. The Cape Verde Islands.—These islands lie to the west of Cape Verde. The largest and most fertile is **Santiago**. St. Vincent, which has an excellent harbour, is the most frequented of all the islands in the group.

These islands, and the neighbouring cape, obtained their name from the vast quantities of green sea-weed found floating in the sea, which gives it the appearance of a green meadow.

6. Ascension; St. Helena, etc.—Ascension is a mass of volcanic rock, which rises right out of the sea to the height of nearly 3000 ft. Georgetown is the only town; and it holds a British garrison. St. Helena lies 800 miles south-east of Ascension, and is, like it, a huge dark mass of volcanic rock rising abruptly out of the sea. The capital is Jamestown.

(i) When Napoleon Buonaparte was banished to St. Helena, Ascension was made a British port for men-of-war. Ships still call there for provisions.

(ii) Napoleon was banished to St. Helena in 1815, and died there, of vexation and cancer in the stomach, in 1821. His body was brought to Paris in 1840, and obtained from the French nation a reception of the most magnificent kind.

(iii) Tristan d'Acunha is the largest of a group of three islands, which lies 2000 miles to the west of the Cape. It is a barren volcanic rock, very thinly inhabited.

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7. Mauritius.—The Mauritius or "Ile de France," is a tropical island which is famous for the wondrous beauty of its landscape. It is about 2½ times the size of Middlesex. The population consists of Negroes, Half-bloods, Chinese, and Indian Coolies; and the whites are chiefly of French origin, as the French held the island till 1810. Sugar is the staple product. The capital is Port Louis; and the only other large town is Mahébourg (or Grand Port).

(i) The Soychelles are granite islands which rest on a coral bank. Maké, which is overgrown with date and palm trees, is the largest. The others are famous for the double or sea coccoa-nuts—the largest fruit in the world.

(ii) The Amirantes are all small coral islands, only a few feet above the sea-level.

(iii) Sectra is an island off Cape Guardaful, about as large as the county of Cornwall. Like the mainland, it rises by a series of terraces to its greatest elevation in the interior, which is a pastoral table-land. It produces aloes, and the dragon's blood-tree (the gum of which is used for varnishes). It commands the Gulf of Aden; and, as Great Britain has to guard all the water-ways of the world, she has bought it.

8. Bourbon.—Réunion or the lle de Bourbon, contains two lofty volcanic mountains, one of them often active. The capital is St. Denis. The chief exports are coffee, sugar, and spices.

9. Madagascar.-This, the largest of all the African islands, is a long island (about 1000 miles in length) nearly as large as the whole Austrian Empire. It is almost entirely filled by an enormous mountain-mass, which rises from the sea in three broad terraces. Most of the island is of volcanic origin. Five great ranges (some of the peaks being 9000 ft. in height) run through the island in the direction of its length. Round the coast runs a narrow belt of low land, extremely fertile, but very unhealthy. The eastern side is the rainiest side-for it faces the Indian Ocean and stands in the path of the South-East Trades; and hence it is also the most fertile. The inhabitants are called Malagasys; and they do not belong to any African race, but to the Malay Family of human beings. The least numerous, but the most intelligent of the three tribes which inhabithe island, are the Hovas, who rule the others. The population is said to number 3,500,000. The government is a despotic monarchy. The chief industries are cattle-rearing and agriculture. The chief food of the people is rice and manice. The forests abound with valuable woods. The chief exports are cattle, india-rubber, hides, coffee, sugar, vanilla, etc. The capital is Antananarivo (100), in the heart of the island. The principal port on the east coast is Tama-tavé (10), now in the possession of the French.

(i) Within a radius of 90 miles in the heart of the island, 100 extinct craters have been counted.

(ii) One of the most remarkable plants in the island is the "Traveller's Tree." It is of the family of the plantains; it sends leaves out only on two opposite sides, like a large open fan; the stalks of each leaf are 6 ft to 8 ft long, and always contain pure water. Even in the driest weather the traveller can get a quart of water by piercing their base. Hence the name.

(iii) The fauna of Madagascar is peculiar; it consists chiefly of lemurs, insectivora, etc.; but there are none of the larger animals—antelopes, giraffes, elephantz—such as we find on the African continent.

THE RACE FOR AFRICA.

1. Before 1890.—For some time past the greater powers of Europe have been engaged in seizing as much of Africa as they could safely lay hands on without embroiling themselves with each other. Germany has been, on the whole, the most active aggressor; but England has always been the most daring and persevering explorer. Portugal has been in nominal possession of very large parts of Africa, and of several valuable stations; and hence it was necessary to reckon with her. France, again, has long held large territories on the west and the north coasts.

2. In 1890.—The conflicting claims of England, Germany, Portugal, and France, fell to be arranged by Lord Salisbury; and he made in 1890 three agreements, which are known as the Anglo-French, the Anglo-German, and the Anglo-Portuguese Agreement.

3. The Anglo-French Agreement.—By this agreement it has been arranged that England consents to recognise the protectorate of France over all Madagascar. In addition to this, France is to hold the whole of the Sahara between Algeria and Timbuctoo; and thus the French "sphere of influence" extends from the Mediterranean to the shores

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of Lake Tchad. Part of the territory of the Niger Company has also been ceded to the French, whose borders now extend to the town of Say, on the Niger. The French Congo is also secured to France.

The French are already proposing to construct a railway from Algeria to Lake Tchad. This railway would require ten years and about $\pounds 8,000,000$ to make.

4. The Anglo-German Agreement.—The Germans have obtained an enormous stretch of country lying between the Great Lakes and the Indian Ocean. Their coast upon that ocean stretches from Cape Delgado to Wanga. Their southern boundary is the Rovuma River; their northern, Lake Victoria Nyanza, half of the coast of which immense inland sea they hold. They possess also the entire eastern shore of Lake Tanganyika, and the north-eastern shore of Lake Nyassa. Their northern boundary deflects to the north and describes a large curve, to enclose the wealthy floral region of the lofty Kilima-Njaro.

5. The Anglo-Portuguese Agreement.—The Portuguese hold a long strip of territory from Cape Delgado to a point south of the mouth of the river Zamberi. In the west they hold an immense territory which stretches from the mouth of the Congo to the river Kunene, and which includes Loanda, Benguela, and other countries.

The important stipulations in the Anglo-Portuguese Agreement are: (a) Portugal is not to charge more than 3 per cent. as duties on goods going through her lands; (b) The Zambezi is to be free to all nations.

6. What Britain holds.—In addition to Cape Colony and other regions of South Africa, Great Britain has secured for herself three vast territories :—one to the north of the Victoria Nyanza; one between the Zambezi and Lakes Tanganyika and Nyassa; and a third between the Zambezi and Cape Colony.

(i) The Northern Region is held chiefly by the Imperial British East Africa Company. It includes the northern coast of Victoria Myanza, the north shore of Albert Edward Myanza, the whole of Albert Myanza and Lake Eudolph, and the country that was formerly Emin Pasha's Province.

(ii) The Middle Region includes the southern shore of Lake Tanganyika, the western shore of Lake Myama, the east coast of Lake Moero, the whole of Lake Bangweolo in the west, and the whole of Lake Shirwa in the east. This region is administered partly by a royal commissioner, and is partly under the British South Africa Company.

(iii) The vast Southern Region between the Zambesi and Cape Colony is managed by the British South Africa Company. It includes the "Matabele Country" and other fertile districts.

THE TWO AMERICAS

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THE NEW WORLD.

1. AMERICA, or the NEW WORLD, lies between the two largest oceans on the globe—the Pacific and the Atlantic, and stretches from north to south a distance of more than 9000 miles. Compared with its length, it is extremely narrow. There are certain distinctly marked contrasts between the New World and the Old; and it may be well to take notice of these first of all. Let us compare them.

America	and Eurasia
⁻ 1. Has its greatest length from north to south.	1. Has its greatest length from west to east.
2. Its greatest mountain-chains run from north to south.	2. Its chief mountain-ranges run from west to east.
3. Is a continent of great plains.	8. Is a continent of immense and elevated plateaus.
4. The American Plains are open to the sea and the sea-winds.	4. The Eurasian Plateaus are shut of from sea influences.
5. America has no vast deserts.	5. Eurasia has the largest deserts on the globe (with the exception of Africa).
6. America decreases in breadth as it goes south.	6. Eurasia remains nearly of the same breadth in all longitudes.
7. America lies in both hemispheres- northern and southern.	7. Eurasis is confined to the northern hemisphere.
8. America runs through four zones	8. Eurasia lies mostly in the North Temperate Zone.
9. The heart of each of the two Americas is connected with the sea by rivers.	9. The middle of Asia is a closed basin, which sends no rivers to the sea.
10. America is the "land of promise" and of the future.	10. Eurasia is the land of accompliahed fact and of the past.
2. Size.—America has an area o	of 164 millions of square miles, and

2. also.—America has an area of 164 millions of square miles, and is larger than Europe and Africa taken together. The northern continent contains about 9 millions ; and the southern about 7.

(i) The four extreme points of the American continent are :--

(a) Murchison Peninsula, in the north ;

- (b) Cape Froward, in the south ;
- (c) Cape Branco, on the east ;
- (d) Cape Prince of Wales, on the west.

(ii) The most remarkable breadths are :--

- (a) In 45° North lat., 3100 miles across;
- (b) In 5° South lat., 3200 miles across :
- (c) At Panama, 28 miles across.

(iii) America is 4 times as large as Europe ; 5 times Australia ; and $1\frac{1}{5}$ times Africa. But it is a good deal smaller than Asia.

NORTH AMERICA.

1. Introductory.—North America is the northern division of the New World. It is connected with South America by the Isthmus of Panamá. In shape and character it is not unlike South America; and the following points of resemblance between the two ought to be noted :—

North America

and

South America.

- 1. North America is an irregular triangle.
- 2. On its west coast, there is a high range of volcanic mountains.
- Parallel with the east coast, runs a lower range.
- 4. The middle of the continent is occupied by a vast plain from the Arctic Ocean to the Gulf of Mexico.
- The St. Lawrence flows from west to east; the Mississippi from north to south.

- 1. South America is a regular triangle.
- 2. On its west coast, there is a high range which contains many volcances.
- 3. Parallel with the east coast, runs a secondary range.
- 4. The middle of the continent is occupied by a vast plain from the Caribbean Sea to the La Plata.
- 5. The Amazon flows from west to east; the La Plata from north to south.

2. Shape and Size.—North America has a roughly triangular shape, with its base near its northern line, and its acutest angle stretching to the south. It contains about 8,600,000 square miles—less than half the extent of Asia.

- (i) Its greatest length is 4500 miles.
- (ii) Its greatest breadth on 45° North lat., is \$100 miles.

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3. Build.—The build of North America is extremely simple. On the west, there is a lofty table-land with high ranges of mountains; on the east, a lower range parallel with the coast; and between the two, an immense plain which stretches from the Arctic Ocean to the Gulf of Mexico.

4. Coast Line.—The length of the coast line of North America is estimated at 24,500 miles. The eastern coast is much and deeply indented; the west coast is comparatively regular.

(i) This gives 1 mile of coast line to each 850 square miles of surface.

(ii) Europe has a coast line twice as richly developed ; Africa has, comparatively, less than half the coast line of North America.

5. Bays and Inlets.—The East Coast contains the mighty reentrances of Bafin Bay; Hudson Bay; Gulf of St. Lawrence; Bay of Fundy; the Gulf of Mexico; and the Caribbean Sea.—The chief opening in the west coast is the Gulf of California; in the north, the Gulf of Boothia.

(i) Basin Bay was first explored in 1615 by William Basin, a pilot on board the ship 'Discovery" in search of the North-West Passage. There is a great deal of whaleand seal-fishing in this immense bay, which is open only four months in summer.

(ii) Hudson Bay was discovered in 1610 by Henry Hudson, a famous sailor. His men mutinied; put him and his son in an open boat; sent them adrift on this great inland sea; and they were never heard of more.

(iii) The Gulf of St. Lawrence is the estuary of the mighty river St. Lawrence, which carries off the surplus water of the Five Great Lakes. It is much infested by fogs in summer, and by ice in winter.

(iv) The Bay of Fundy is a narrow arm of the Atlantic, between Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. It is famous for its strong and rapid tides, which sometimes rise and fall fully 70 ft.

(v) The Gulf of Mexico is the true "Mediterranean of America." It is a vast caldron, in which the waters from the Caribbean Sea are heated to over 90° and then discharged through the Florida Pass, to spread themselves as the "Gulf Stream" over the North Atlantic, and give to the western shores of Europe their warm climate.

(vi) The Caribbean Sea is the great inland sea which lies between the Great Antilles and the continent of South America. It is entered either by the "Windward Passage" to the west of Hayti, or by the "Mona Passage" to the east.

(vii) The Guif of California is a long and very narrow gulf on the west coast. It is 700 miles long and in some parts only 40 miles broad. (vili) The Galf of Boothia is an immense opening between the Boothia Peninsula and Cockburn Island. It was discovered by the "amous navigator Sir John Ross, and named by him after his friend Sir Felix Booth.

6. Straits.—The chief Straits in North America are: Hudson Strait; Davis Strait; Barrow Strait; and Behring Strait.

(i) Endson Strait connects Hudson Bay with the Atlantic.

(ii) Davis Strait connects Baffin Bay with the Atlantic. It is thickly beset with icebergs, which come down from the west coast of Greenland.

(iii) Barrow Strait connects Baffin Bay with the Arctic Ocean.

(iv) Behring Strait connects the Arctic Ocean with the Pacific, and divides the continents of North America and Asia. It is about 50 miles wide.

7. Peninsulas and Capes.—There are, on the east coast, four great peninsulas :—Labrador; Nova Scotia; Florida; and Yucatan; on the west coast, two :—Alaska, and Lower California. The most important Capes are on the east coast :—Cape Race (in Newfoundland); Cape Sable (in Nova Scotia); Cape Cod (in Massachusetts); Cape Hatteras (in North Carolina); and Cape Sable (in Florida).

(i) Labrador is a triangular peninsula which lies in the same latitude as the British Isles—between 50° and 60°; and yet it has a nine months' winter. This is due, on the one hand, to the absence of the Gulf Stream, and, on the other, to the presence of a cold current, crowded with icebergs, from Davis Strait.

(ii) Tucatan is one of the few peninsulas in the world which run to the north. The others are Jutland in Europe and Cape York Peninsula in Australia.

(iii) Other capes of secondary importance are:--(a) On the East: Farewall; Charles;
 Breton; Catoche; Gracias-à-Dios. (b) In the North: Barrow and Bathurst. (c) On the
 West: Prince of Wales (in Alaska); and St. Lucas (in California).

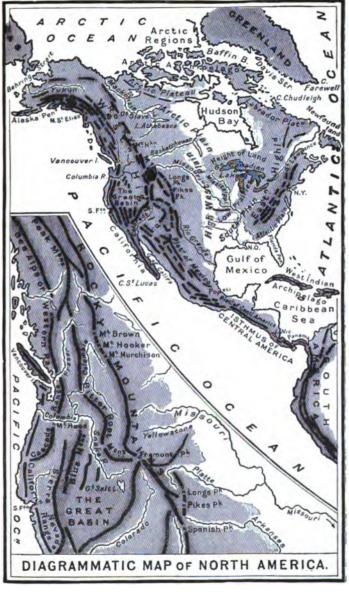
(iv) Cape Bace is the land first sighted in sailing from Britain to America.

(v) Cape Sable is so called from its sandy beach (Fr. sable, sand).

8. Isthmus.—The only Isthmus of first importance in North America is the Isthmus of Panamá, which joins South and Central America.

(i) Its narrowest breadth is about 30 miles. The great French engineer, M. de Lesseps, is now engaged in cutting a canal through it, and thus saving the voyage round the whole of South America. This will revolutionise the commerce of the Western World. Lesseps has already cut through the Isthmus of Suez and shortened the voyage to India by saving the circuitous course round the African continent.

(ii) Another isthmus of some importance is the Isthmus of Tehnantepeo between the Gulf of the same name and the Bay of Campeachy. It is 140 miles across.



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9. Islands.—The islands on the east coast of North America are much the most important. They are : Anticosti ; Prince Edward Island ; Newfoundland ; the Bermudas ; and the West Indies.—On the north, lies a vast archipelago, the largest island of which is Greenland.—On the west, the most important island is Vancouver.

(i) The largest island in the West Indies is Oubs; the second, Hayti; and the third, Jamaica.

(ii) Besides Vancouver, there are, on the west coast, the Queen Charlotte Islands, the Sitks Archipelago, and Prince of Wales Island.

10. Table-lands.—The western part of the North American continent is one vast plateau. The well-marked mountain-range which runs through Central America branches into two ranges at the Isthmus of Tehuantepec; and these two ranges, under different names, run up almost to the Arctic Ocean, supporting between them a long and immense table-land. The highest table-land in the whole system is the **Plateau of Mexico**, which is about 9000 ft. above the level of the sea. The best-known is the continental basin which is called the **Plateau of Utah**.

11. Mountains.—North America has two great systems of uplift: the Appalachian System and the Western or Cordillera System. In the Appalachian System, the most important range is that of the Alleghanies; in the Western System, the chief range is the Rocky Mountains.

(i) The Appalachian Mountains begin in the table-lands of Alabama, stretch northeast to the St. Lawrence, and reappear in the Plateau of Labrador. Their best-known ranges are the Alleghanies and the Bius Mountains. They are also connected with the Catabilis of New York, and the Green Mountains of Vermont.

(ii) The Western or Cordillers System consists of two plateaus and a number of mountain-ranges. The two plateaus are the Mexican Flateau; and the Western Plateau. The Mexican Plateau has the Sierra Madre as its western buttress. The Western Plateau has the Rocky Mountains, which are the backbone of North America, as its eastern buttress; while, on its western edges, it has the Sierra Mevada and the Caccede Meuntains. West of the Sierra Nevada range and parallel to it runs the Coast Range; and the two support between them a river-valley. The most famous part of the Western Plateau is the Great Bash—an elevated plateau which lies between the Websatch Mountains on the east, and the Sierra Nevada and Cascade Range on the west. This Great Basin is a continental basin and contains rivers and lakes whose waters never reach the sea. The largest lake is the Great Sait Lake.—The vast table-land which is called the Western System covers one-third of the area of the United States.

NORTH AMERICA

(iii) The highest mountain in North America is Mount St. Elise (19,500 ft.) in Alaska. It stands in a continuation of the Cascade Range.—The highest summits in the "Rockies" are Mount Brown (16,000 ft.) and Mount Hocker (15,700 ft.).—The highest peak in the Alleghanies is Mount Mitchell, which is only 6088 ft. high.—In Mexico, at the south end of the Mexican Plateau, Popocatepeu (the highest mountain in Central America) rises to the height of 17,884 ft. ; and Orizaba is only a little lower.

(iv) The volcances of North America are found at the two extremities of the system —in Central America and Alaska.

12. Plains.—The most remarkable feature in the build of North America is the Great Central Plain, which stretches from the Arctic Ocean to the Gulf of Mexico, and lies between the Rocky Mountains and the Appalachian System. One half of this plain slopes to Hudson Bay and the Arctic Ocean; the other half to the Gulf of Mexico; and the watershed between them is called the Height of Land.

(i) The Great Central Plain merges gradually into the sloping table-land which lies to the east of the Rocky Mountains.

(ii) The general name for the vast grassy plains of North America, is prairie. Most prairies are treeless; but there are timbered as well as "bald" prairies. The surface is not perfectly level, but in general consists of a succession of low wave-like swells. These are called "rolling country." The terraces which rise gradually from the banks of rivers are called "benches." In the south, grassy plains are called "Savannahs"; and along the lower Mississippi are found "prairies tremblantes" or quaking plains. The prairies are covered with high waving grasses, interspersed with scattered belts of timber. These prairies fill the larger part of the Mississippi Valley.

13. Rivers.—As North America possesses immense plains, it is also provided with a magnificent system of rivers. The main axis of the continent, being nearest the Pacific, sends the longest streams into the Atlantic and the Arctic Oceans. The position of the two great systems of uplift—the Cordillera and the Appalachian, with the Great Plain between them, throws much the larger part of the flowing waters into this plain; and the Height of Land sends them down the north slope and the south slope respectively.—The four largest rivers of North America are the Mississippi, the Mackenzie, the St. Lawrence, and the Saskatchewan; and all four belong to the Great Central Plain. The Mississippi flows south, the Mackenzie,

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north, and the St. Lawrence, east. The two largest rivers into the Pacific are the Yukon and the Columbia.

(a) In addition to the Mississippi, the Rio Grande del Norte (-Great River of the North) flows into the GuiL. (b) The largest rivers fulling into the Hudson Bay are the Saskatobwan or Nelson, and the Churchill. (c) A large number of streams flow down the short Atlantic slope. The best known are the Connecticut, Hudson, Susquehanna, Potomac, and James. (d) The Fraser, Sacramento, and Colorado, also flow into the Pacific. (e) In addition to the Mackenis, the Corporarine and the Back for Great Fish River, flow rinto the Arctio Ocean.

(i) The Mississippi or "Father of Waters," has a basin which consists mainly of three long slopes : one from the Rockies eastward ; one from the Appalachians westward ; and one from the Height of Land southward. Down these three slopes roll its three largest tributaries :--the Missouri, the longest ; the Ohio, the largest ; and the Upper Mississippi. The Missouri-Mississippi is, measuring from the source of the Missouri, the longest river in the world. It is 4200 miles long; and, with its tributaries, provides 85,000 miles of navigable water-ways. The Mississippi itself rises in the small lake of Itasca, in the State of Minnesota. Its upper course ends at the Falls of St. Anthony. In its middle course, it receives, from the west, the Missouri, Arkansas, and Red Rivers ; from the east, the Ohio. The Missouri is itself 2000 miles long; and the others are nearly as large as the Danube. The Mississippi, the river becomes a dense yellow torrent. The Missouri itself receives mighty tributaries, the largest of which are the Yallowstone and the Fatte.

"This great river-system penetrates to the very heart of the continent; and, with its numerous tributaries, affords an inland navigation of unsurpassed magnificence."-Forms.

(ii) The St. Lawrence is the overflow of the Five Great Lakes. It is 2000 miles long; and the area of its catchment-basin is 480,000 square miles—or twice the size of that of the Rio Grande. Though the third in length, it is the largest in volume. In the first part of its course it is called the St. Louis, and flows into Lake Superior. It receives all the rivers which flow from the long ranges of mountains and highlands, which separate the slopes to Hudson Bay from those to the south. Its largest tributary is the Ottaws; its grandest, the Sagasnay. It receives also a large number of afficients from the south. It has a large number of different names; (a) above Lake Superior, it is called St. Louis; (b) between Superior and Lake Huron, the Marrows, or "Sault Sta. Marie"; (c) between Huron and Lake St. Clair, the St. Clair; (d) between St. Clair and Lake Erie, the Detroit; (e) between Erie and Ontario, the Misgara; and (f) between Ontario and the Ocean, the St. Lawrence.

On the river Niagara are the "Falls of Niagara," the largest in the world. The Horse-Shos, or Canadian Fall, is 2640 ft, wide and 100 ft, high. The American Fall is only ens-third of the Canadian Fall in width, but is a little bigher.

(iii) The Mackenzie is 2500 miles in length. It is fed by mighty streams, both from the east and from the west. The largest is the Athabasca.

(iv) The Sakatchewan or Nelson is 1900 miles long, and has a catchment-basin nearly as large as that of the St. Lawrence. It rises near Mount Hooker, and flows through a country called the "Fertile Belt." 14. Lakes.—If North America is remarkable for its splendid and highly-developed river-systems, it is still more remarkable for its lakes. It has the largest number of the largest lakes of any continent on the face of the globe. It may be called the Lake Continent. These lakes lie in the form of an immense semicircle, parallel and almost concentric with Hudson Bay They lie in three great depressed basins, and belong to three river-systems—the Mackenzie, the Saskatchewan, and the St. Lawrence. They may be counted by hundreds; but the most important are : the Great Bear Lake; Great Slave Lake ; Athabasca ; Winnipeg; Superior ; Michigan ; Huron ; Erie; and Ontario. The five last are called the Five Great Lakes, and form part of the St. Lawrence Basin. The Great Salt Lake belongs to the Continental Basin.

(i) The St. Lawrence, with its lakes and rivers, contains more than one-half of all the fresh water on the globe.

(ii) Lake Superior has an area of nearly 32,000 square miles, and is therefore about

the size of Ireland. It is the largest body of freah water in the world; and, in some parts, it is about 600 ft. deep. Its greatest length, measured on its own curve, is 420 miles, or longer than the journey from London to Edinburgh. Its water is remarkably transparent, and comes from more than 200



rivers. Its shores abound in silver, copper, and iron.

(iii) The Five Great Lakes have together an area of over 90,000 square miles—or more than the area of Great Britain.

(iv) Of the Five Great Lakes, the only one which lies wholly within the United States is Michigan; the others lie between the United States and Canada.

15. Climate. —North America stretches from 80° to about 10° North lat.; and hence it possesses every gradation of climate from arctic, —through sub-arctic, temperate, sub-tropical,—to tropical. There are certain established facts relating to the North American climate :

(i) Latitude for latitude, it is colder than the climate of Europe.

(a) Labrador is in the latitude of Great Britain. But Labrador is colder than Siberia. (b) Quebec is in the latitude of Paris; but it has a very much colder and longer winter. (c) Washington is in the latitude of Sicily; but at Washington the Potomac is frozen over, and sleight gilds about the streets in winter.

 $\langle (i) \rangle$ In most parts of North America, the climate is more continental than in the corresponding latitudes of Europe.

This is mainly due to the absence of inland seas; and also to the fact that the south-west winds from the Facillo are kept off by the mountain ranges from the eastern plains, which are extremely cold in winter and intensely hot in summer.

(iii) The changes of temperature are very abrupt.

This is due to the fact that there is no range of mountains between the northern and the southern alope; and the Great Central Flain extends without a break from the Arctic Ocean to the Guif of Mexico. The 'Height of Land ''s very low; and hence an icy wind from the north may suddenly spring up; and the thermometer has been known to fall 40° in less than an hour. Under such a wind, ice has been known to form at the mouth of the Mississippi; and 9° of front have been found in the south of Texas.

(iv) In the Temperate Zone, the west coast is warmer and moister than the east.

This is due to the fact that the warm rain-laden south-west winds from the Pacific blow on the west coast. But, in the east, a west wind is a dry wind; and the east wind is cold as well as moist. "In California, it is never too hot, nor too coid, to work."

(v) The rain-fall is greatest in the south, decreases as we go north; and also decreases from west to east.

The drisst parts are the Western Plateau, especially the Utah Basin, which is drying up. The elevated plains east of the Ecckies are always dry.

16. Vegetation.—The flora of North America is very rich and enormously varied. In the Arctic Regions we find, as usual, mosses, lichens, and stunted trees; in the tropical districts of Central America, palms and bamboos; and in the Temperate regions between them a greater variety of forest-trees than is to be found in the forest-regions of Europe or Asia.—Of cultivated plants, the North grows barley, oats, and excellent spring-wheat; maize grows in the warmer parts of Canada and in nearly all the southern parts of the continent; the sugar-cane, tobacco, and cotton, are cultivated in the southern districts of the United States. Rice is grown very far south; and sub-tropical fruits (the orange, fig, and lemon) flourish in the warm southern regions.

(i) The forests of the northern part of the United States are "mixed forests." The forest regions occur chiefly on the western and the eastern coasts. On the east it extends from west of the mouth of the Mississippi to Massachusetts, and is of various breadths. Most of the trees are deciduous.

(ii) In Canada, pines, caks, maples, and poplars, are the commonest trees.

(iii) In Mexico the most striking plants are the cactures, some of which are nearly 60 ft. high, and with their stiff forms and odd arms, look like gigantic candelabra scattered over what looks like a barren country. Amleas and Magnelias come to us from tropical America.

(iv) Maine is the only cultivated cereal that is indigenous to North America; and it is to the presence of this plant that the colonisation of the continent is chiefly due.

(v) The manice (from which cases and taploca are made) and arrow-root are among the native food-plants of Tropical America. Both are tubers.

17. Animals.—The fauna of North America is rich and varied. But, while North America is as rich as the Old World in birds, insects, and plants, it is much poorer in mammals. In the North we find the **bison** (which is rapidly becoming extinct), the **cariboo** (corresponding to the reindeer of Europe), the **moose-deer** (=elk), five kinds of **bear**, **seals**, **beavers**, **raccons**, and many other furclothed animals. There is only one marsupial—the **opossum**. Monkeys are found only within the tropics. The continent is rich in birds. The **humming-bird** is peculiar to America; and there are also many species noted either for their song or for their plumage. The **rattlesmake** is the most dangerous reptile.

(i) (a) Among estaces, we find the Greenland whale. (b) Among ruminasts, there are four large deer; the Rocky Mountain sheep called the "big-horn"; the musk-ox; and two antelopes. (c) Among redents, there are beavers, hares, squirrels, and the prairie-dog (which is allied to the marmot and squirrel. Prairie-dogs live in villages).
(d) Of Garnivers, there are foxes, wolves, jaguars, pumas, sables and skunks (of the weasel kind), otters and gluttons, bears (the grisly bear of the Rockies), and racoons.

- (ii) Of the cat tribe, the puma is the most widely diffused.
- (iii) The common turkey is native to America.

18. Minerals.—North America is unequalled by any continent in the richness and variety of its mineral products. The largest stock of coal known in the world is in the United States; iron is enormously abundant; while the so-called precious metals—gold, and silver, are mined in very large quantities. The purest copper is found in great abundance on the north and east shores of Lake Superior. Load and quicksilver are found in many parts of the continent; both Canada and Mexico produce tin.

(i) The area of all the coal-fields of the United States is estimated at 190,000 square miles—or twenty times as large as all the coal-fields of Europe. The Appalachian coal-field, on the west side of the Alleghanies, has an area of 70,000 square miles—or more than twice the size of Ireland. The Missouri Basin or "Great Western coalfield," the largest in the United States, covers nearly 85,000 square miles.—There is also a great deal of coal in the Dominion of Canada.

(ii) "The iron and copper, more especially of the Canadian Dominion, will employ and enrich, in all probability, at some future period, a nation that may become greater in material resources than the most powerful kingdom of Europe." (iii) The mountain-region west of the Rockies is one of the chief gold-producing districts in the world. California, Nevada, and Montana produce most gold.

19. Peoples.—There are at present in North America probably about 80,000,000 inhabitants. Of these about 60 millions are whites —and of European blood; the rest are Negroes, American-Indians, and half-castes.

(!) The white population speak English; though German is spoken in some large cities by the German immigrants.

(ii) The Negroes are said to number over 11,000,000, and are rapidly increasing.

(iii) The Red Indians (or Americans) are rapidly decreasing, and are said not to number half-a-million. Within the vast territory of the United States there are somewhat less than a quarter of a million. (When America was first discovered, Columbus believed that he had reached the eastern shores of India; and hence these coppercoloured races were called *Indians*. Their proper name is Americans.

(iv) The Mixed Races, or Métis or Mestizos (from Lat. miztus), are found in the remoter parts of Canada; and in Mexico and Central America. In the latter parts they speak Spanish.

(v) The Eskimoes in Greenland and the north are akin to the Lapps of Europe.

20. History.—North America was discovered by Christopher Colon ("Columbus") in the year 1492; but the mainland he saw only in 1498.—The Spaniards were the first people to think of conquering the country; and they seized Mexico and some of the West India Islands.—The French appeared in 1534; and began to build forts and plant colonies.—Next came the English, who gradually expelled the French, and who declared themselves independent of the British Crown in 1776. The original colonies numbered thirteen; and they formed a federation which they called the United States.—Mexico threw off the Spanish yoke in 1830.—The whole continent is now divided chiefly between English- and Spanish- speaking peoples.

(i) Cortez conquered the Mexican Empire in 1521 with 950 Spaniards.

(ii) The first permanent settlement of the English was made in 1607 in Virginia.

(iii) The English drove out the French in the war of 1756-60; and Wolfe took Quebec-which was the strongest fortress of the French-in 1759. With the fall of Quebec, all Canada fell into the hands of the English.

(iv) The Negro slaves in the United States were set free in 1863, during the great American Civil War, by a proclamation of President Lincoln.

(v) There are many French-speaking people in Canada; and Quebec is the centre of the French Canadians, who are increasing in numbers and in wealth.

21. Divisions.—The political divisions of North America are: Danish America; British North America; the United States; Mexico; the Central American Republics; British Honduras; the West Indian Republics; the Spanish West Indies; the British West Indies; the Dutch West Indies; and the French West Indies.

(i) Danish America includes Greenland and three small islands in the West Indies.

(ii) The United States include the detached territory of Alaska.

(iii) The West Indian Republics consist of one island, the western part of which is Hayti; the eastern San Dominge.

GREENLAND.

1. The Country.—Greenland is probably an archipelago of elevated islands which are almost completely buried under ice, and are joined together by ice. Immense glaciers creep slowly to the fiords and push into the sea; then their ends break off and float slowly away as icebergs. There are only a few settlements on the west coast.

On the south coast, the summer heat thaws the snow for a short time; and a little green appears for a few months. Hence the name.

2. The People.—The inhabitants are chiefly Eskimoes, who live under Danish rule. They live by seal and whale fishing, and also grow a little barley and potatoes.

West of Greenland lies Nares Sea. Captain Nares reached, in 1876, the latitude of 83° 20′. Lieutenant Greeley, of the United States Navy, reached 83° 24′, in 1883; and this is the point nearest the North Pole that man has been able to attain.

BRITISH AMERICA.

1. Introductory.—The popular idea about British North America is that it is a wilderness of ice and snow, with a few wheat-bearing tracts of land here and there, and immense dreary forests on its northern boundaries. But this is a most imperfect and erroneous conception. The Dominion of Canada is a world, which contains all kinds of climates, all sorts of productions, every variety of mineral wealth, and almost limitless means of communication between its parts. It is a great social community that is advancing in wealth and in civilisation by leaps and bounds, and which has before it a future that even the strongest imagination can only very feebly picture.

"Picture to yourselves a domain nearly as large as Europe, stretching from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean, with its southern extremity in the same latitude as the south of France, and its northern boundary along the shores of the Arctic Ocean. Possessing the finest forests in the world, widely-spread coal-fields, most extensive and productive fisheries, watered by the most remarkable natural distribution of lakes and rivers, enriched with all varieties of minerals, and now known to possess an enormous area of fertile prairie-lands destined to become the future granary of England,—this vast country reaches, as the crow files, from ocean to ocean, 4000 miles, with an area south of the latitude of St. Petersburg of at least 2,000,000 of square miles capable of cultivation, and of which fully one-half produces every crop that is grown in Great Britain."—LORD DUFFERIN.

2. Countries.—British North America contains more than onethird of the whole continent, and comprises within itself the whole of the Dominion of Canada; and Newfoundland. The Dominion of Canada, again, consists of the following provinces :—Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotla, New Brunswick, Manitoba, British Columbia, Prince Edward Island, and the North-West Territories.

Newfoundland is the only part of British North America that has refused to join the Dominion.

- 3. Boundaries. British North America is bounded -
 - N. —By the Arctic Ocean.
 E. —By the Atlantic.
 S. —By the United States.
 W.—By the Pacific and Alaska.

(i) The line of latitude which forms the boundary between Canada and the States is 49° North lat. This line strikes the Lake of the Woods; there the boundary is formed by a chain of lakes and rivers to Lake Superior. The line then goes right through the middle of four of the Five Great Lakes, passing north of Lake Michigan, which is entirely within the United States.

(ii) The Dominion lies between 42° and 70° North lat.

(iii) The boundary line is 8000 miles from ocean to ocean ; 1400 miles being a waterline, by river, lake, and sea ; 1600 miles a land-line. 4. Size.—The Dominion of Canada occupies an area of more than 33 millions of square miles. It is therefore nearly as large as Europe. Europe contains 3,700,000 square miles; Canada 3,510,000.

5. Build.—The high table-land between the Cordilleras and the Rocky Mountains; a lower table-land on the eastern slope of the Rockies; the long and lake-filled valley of the Mackenzie; a vast breadth of low-land round Hudson Bay; the Laurentist Highlands, which form the watershed between the Hudson Bay streams and those which flow into the St. Lawrence; most of the valley of the St. Lawrence—these are the chief component parts which go to make up the vast Dominion of Canada.

The old Canada, which was divided into Upper and Lower (now Ontario and Quebec) consisted simply of part of the valley of the St. Lawrence. The St. Lawrence is indeed to Canada what the Nile is to Egypt. But the towns have now crept west of the river, and along the lakes, and the vast breadths of land west of Lake Superior are now filling rapidly up.

6. Mountains, Rivers, and Lakes.—The chief mountain-range is the Rocky Mountains, which are very high in British Columbia.—The chief rivers are the St. Lawrence; the Mackenzie; the Fraser; the Rod Biver and the Saskatchewan. The great lakes are: Superior, Huron, Erie, Ontario; Winnipeg, Manitoba, and Great Bear.

(i) The average height of the Rocky Mountains in British America is about 10,000 ft.; but there are several low passes or "saddles" in the range—not above 4000 ft. above the sea-level, over one of which the Canadian Pacific Railway goes. Mount Brown (16,000 ft.) and Mount Hocker (15,700 ft.) are the highest summits.

(ii) The Fraser (650 m.) is the chief river of British Columbia, and is noted for its enormous wealth in salmon. It drains a district nearly as large as Italy.

(iii) The Rod River is 600 miles long, and flows into the south end of Lake Winnipeg. "Red River Settlement" was the former name of Manitoba. It rises in the United States, and flows through a nearly level prairie of the richest alluvial soil.

(iv) The Saskatehewan is said to be 1900 miles long, and to drain a country more than twice as large as the Austrian Empire. Part of its course flows through a district which possesses a soil of black mould, deep and uniformly rich—with almost inexhaustible powers of growing wheat. The Saskatchewan falls into Lake Winnipeg; and the Nelson flows out of that lake; and sometimes both rivers are called by the same name.

(v) Lake Winnipeg has an area of 8900 square miles—that is, not so large as Erie (which has 10,000). Its drainage area is twice as large as France. (vi) Lake Manitoba is less than half the size of Winnipeg. For a circuit of 50 miles round the south end of the lake, the soil is of the richest description of prairie land.

(vii) The area of Great Bear Lake is nearly as large as that of Wales.

7. The Climate.—The Dominion of Canada contains all the climates of Europe, from that of Archangel to that of the south of France—with this difference, that the summers are hotter, the winters much colder, and all seasons drier than in the European continent. It is easiest to form a practical and applicable idea of the different climates from observing the different kinds of vegetation; and, from this point of view, it may be said that Canada possesses nine wellmarked varieties of climate.

(i) The North Shore of the St. Lawrence produces barley and oats, strawberries and currants; but no wheat.

(ii) The South Shore grows wheat.

(iii) The Ottawa Basin and the Upper St. Lawrence Valley grow Indian corn or maize. This cereal requires a mean temperature of 67°, for July, which is reached throughout this district. Here, too, we find the grape-vine, the melon, the tomato, and the apple. This is the most populous and most wealthy part of the whole Dominion.

(iv) South-West Ontario has the best climate in Canada. Peaches and grapes ripen as standards ; and the finest kinds of pears and apples are grown.

(v) The North Shore of Lake Superior is cold and grows only barley and oats.

(vi) The Western Prairie produces excellent wheat.

(vii) Nova Scotia has a damp and insular climate, cannot grow wheat or oats; and all bread-stuffs have to be imported. But, round the Bay of Fundy, into which, as into a funnel, the warm winds from the mild waters of the Gulf Stream blow, the best plums, pears, and apples come to perfection.

(viii) The Peace River district (in Athabasca) and the country stretching to the Saskatchewan (in Alberta) is the hottest in Canada. The heaviest and hardest wheat is grown here.

(ix) British Columbia has an excessively moist climate. The moisture-bearing south-west winds from the Pacific are driven high into the colder air by the lofty mountains; and rain comes down in immense quantities. Hence the climate is not good for cereals.

The severity of the Canadian frosts kills off the orange, the olive, and the fig.—We must also remember that, even in the best parts of Canada, the winter lasts at least four montha. All spricultural labour is at a standaill; and akating, sleiching, dancing, and anusements take its place. The ice on the St. Lawrence does not disappear before the middle of May. But the winters are glorious : the air is dry, the sky a clear blue, the cold bracing and attengthening : and everybody is in high sprits.

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8. Productions.—Timber and Cereals are the chief products of Canada.—The mineral wealth of Canada is enormous; but it has been as yet very little worked. On the coasts, the fisheries of cod and salmon are of very great value.—In the North-West Territory, large quantities of furs are secured and shipped to Great Britain.

(i) The forests of the Dominion form one of the chief resources of the country. The sugar maple, white and red oaks, grey elm, white pine and red pine, black ash, white cedar, white birch, poplar, white spruce and black spruce are a few among the sixty different kinds of trees that make up Canadian forests. Gigantic oaks and elms grow to a thickness of 22 ft. round. In spite of the perpetual cutting down, the supply of timber can never give out ; as on Arbor Day, every schoolboy and schoolgirl plants a tree in some selected spot in the Dominion.

(ii) The amount of corn-growing land is practically inexhaustible. It is calculated by Professor Hind that, in the region drained by Lake Winnipeg, there are about 55,000,000 acres fit for cereals.

(iii) Gold, coal, iron, lead, copper and other metals and minerals are largely distributed all over the country. The provinces of British Columbia and Nova Scotia are the richest in minerals.

(iv) "Canada," says Professor Elwyn, "possesses thousands of miles of sea-coast swarming with fishes. Cod, mackerel, lobsters, and herrings are the most valuable fish. The prolific fishing-grounds of Hudson Bay and of the Arctic and Pacific coasts have hardly as yet been tested. The inland fisheries are also of very great value. All the lakes in Canadian territory—large and small—as well as innumerable rivers, abound in salmon. Canada is indeed the paradise of the angler."

(v) The bear, the beaver, the fox, the sable, the seal, and the ermine are the chief animals that are hunted for their furs.

9. Industries.—Agriculture and forestry are by far the most important of Canadian industries. But manufactures are still in their infancy. All the manufactures of older countries are at work; and they will no doubt grow and develop with the growing population and wealth of the country.

10. Commerce.—The commerce of the Dominion is a quantity that is steadily growing. The countries with which she deals most largely are Great Britain and the United States. The United States sends her most imports; Great Britain takes from her the largest quantity of exports. The chief imports are wool; manufactured iron and steel; coal and coke, bread-stuffs; cotton and cotton cloth; tea and coffee

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and other colonial wares. By far the most important export is timber. After it come cheese, wheat, cattle, and fish.

(i) Great Britain buys timber to the annual value of over £3,000,000; and grain to something less than that amount.

(ii) The United States sell goods to Canada to the annual amount of over £10,000,000.

N 11. Population and Populousness.—The population of the Dominion amounts at present to 5,000,000 souls. This is only about $1\frac{1}{2}$ persons to the square mile. The most densely peopled part of the country is the small water-edged triangular peninsula between Lake Huron and Georgia Bay on the west, and Lakes Erie and Ontario on the east. This small peninsula contains about two-sevenths of the whole population of Canada; and yet it is less densely peopled than the agricultural county of Lincolnshire.

(i) About four-fifths of the inhabitants live in the valley of the St. Lawrence.

(ii) Most of the inhabitants are English-speaking descendants of Englishmen and Scotchmen. But, in the Province of Quebec, there are many people of French descent—all of whom speak French. They are descended from-the French who settled in Canada before it was ceded to the English in 1763. Nearly 1,300,000 persons are of French origin; and they are increasing rapidly.

12. Communications.—In no country or continent on the face of the globe has Nature provided so vast a network of water-communication. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that, by means of its deep rivers and vast lakes, it is possible to go almost entirely by water from the mouth of the St. Lawrence to the mouth of the Mackenzie, right through the heart of the continent.—Canada has also more than 13,000 miles of railway. The longest is the **Canadian Pactific**, which unites the two oceans, and has shortened the distance from London to Japan and the East by 925 miles.

(i) On all the larger lakes there are lines of steamers. On most of them it is quite easy to get out of sight of land, and to be as sick as on the billows of the Atlantic. Steamers of 4500 tons burden can enter the harbour of Montreal by one of the grandest canals in the world. A canal with locks has been built to avoid the Falls of Niagars; and one can travel by steamer from the Strait of Belle Isle, at the mouth of the St. Lawrence, through Lakes Ontario, Brie, St. Clair, and Huron to Duluth at the head of Lake Superior—a distance of 2384 miles.

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(ii) The Canadian Pacific Railway was opened for general traffic in 1886. The length of the main line from Montrenl to Vancouver, is 2906; and 1908 miles of this were constructed in less than five years.

(iii) There are more than 25,000 miles of telegraph line in the Dominion. The number of letters and post-cards carried every year is about 100 millions.

13. Government.—The Dominion Parliament meets at Ottawa, the federal capital of the country. Each province has a local parliament of its own. The Governor-General of the Dominion is the viceroy or representative of the Queen.—The education of the country is specially cared for, and notably in the Province of Ontario. Each Province has a Minister of Education.

All the provinces of the Dominion, with the exception of British Columbia, have one or more Universities. The University of Toronto is the most famous. More than £2,000,000 a year is spent on education; and, when it is considered that the whole population is about that of Scotland, this is an enormous sum. (Scotland does not spend half a million on her schools, colleges, and universities.)

14. Divisions.—The following is a list of the Canadian provinces, with their chief towns :

- 1. Quebec-Quebec, Montreal.
- 2. Ontario-Ottawa, Toronto, Kingston.
- 3. New Branswick Fredericton, St. John.
- 4. Nova Scotia-Halifax, Sydney.
- 5. Prince Edward Island-Charlottetown.
- 6. British Columbia-Victoria.

- 7. Manitoba-Winnipeg.
- 8. Keewatin-Churchill, Fort York.
- 9. Aminiboia-Regina, Fort Pelly.
- 10. Saskatchewan-Carlton.
- 11. Alberta-Calgarry.
- 12. Athabasca-Dunvegan.

(i) Quebec (formerly called Lower Canada) consists of that part of the St. Lawrence Valley which lies east of the Ottawa, and a slip of land on the south side of the river which is bounded by the States of New York and Maine and by New Brunswick. This southern strip is level, fertile, and well cultivated. The province is twice as large as Great Britain. There are seven French to one English inhabitant.

(ii) Ontario (formerly called Upper Canada) lies between Quebec and Manitoba, and has four of the Five Great Lakes on its southern border. It is considerably larger than Great Britain. It is by far the most important province—the richest in population, in intelligence, in manufactures, and in mineral wealth. Its city Ottawa is now the capital of the Dominion. It stands on the river Ottawa about 90 miles above its junction with the St. Lawrence. The river Ottawa is connected with Lake Ontario by the Rideau Canal and river. Kingston stands at the outlet of the St. Lawrence from Lake Ontario. Below Kingston the river is studded with about 2000 islands, which, however, are generally called "The Thousand Islands." (iii) New Brunswick (which is nearly as large as Scotland) lies between the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the State of Maine ; while it has Quebec on the north, and Nova Scotia on the south. Much of the wealth of the province consists in timber and minerals ; and fishing and shipbuilding are important industries. The people are chiefly of British descent ; but there are many persons of French origin, for New Brunswick formed part of the French colony of Acadia, which has been so beautifully described by Longfellow in his *Brangeline*. Fredericton is the political, St. John the commercial capital. St. John rivals Halifax in its fisheries and in its West India trade.

(iv) Nova Scotia is a province which consists of a peninsula and an island—the latter being called **Cape Breton**. The two (which together=jds of Scotland) are separated by the Gut of Canso. The province is rich in timber, and also in coal, iron, and gold. The chief industries are lumbering, mining, and fishing. Halifax is the capital. Sydney in Cape Breton has some trade in coal.

(v) Primes Edward Island (which is a little larger than Northumberland) lies within the great bay formed by the shores of New Brunswick, Nova Scotis, and Cape Breton. The industries are agriculture, lumbering, and fishing. The climate is too cold and moist for wheat. The capital and sea-port is Charlottetown.

(vi) British Columbia lies between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean, and runs north of the United States to the parallel of 60° N. lat.—which is only two degrees north of the line of wheat. It is about 800 miles long, and has an area more than four times as large as Great Britain. Only part of the river Columbia fows through this province; and its most important river is the **Fraser**, which drains a district nearly as large as the whole of Italy. Salmon, sturgeon of fabulous size, trout, and other fash, exist in immense numbers in this river. The province is rich in timber and in minerals. The forests on the Coast Range are among the finest in the world. The capital is **victoria**, at the south-east end of Vancouver Island—an island which is larger than Holland. Vancouver has a great deal of good coal. The climate is like that of the North of England. **New Westminster**, on the Fraser, is the terminus of the Coadian-Pacific Railway.—At one time Nova Scotia was said to be "east of sunrise," British Columbia "west of sunset," and each to lie in a different world ; but they are now joined together by the great continental railway called the Canadian Pacific.

(vii) Maniteba (formerly called the "Red River Settlement") is a province which is larger by 2000 square miles than the whole of Great Britain and Ireland. From its geographical position, and also from its intrinsic wealth and splendid possibilities, it may be regarded as "the keystone of that mighty arch of sister provinces which spans the continent from the Atlantic to the Pacific." Manitoba is perhaps the colony of the world that has made the most rapid progress—a progress of marvellous speed—in agricultural wealth. The basin of Lake Winnipeg consists of alluvial plains of the richest description ; these plains grow crop after crop of wheat without manure ; and this wheat is of the heaviest and hardest kind. The capital and seat of government is Winnipeg (formerly Fort Garry), on the left bank of the Red River, where it is joined by the Assimbolne. Winnipeg (30) is, in the words of Lord Dufferin, "the half way house of the continent, the capital of the Prairie Province, and I trust the

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future commercial centre of the whole Dominion." Its population is increasing rapidly every month. "What gold was to California and Australia, wheat is to Manitoba; only the harvests of wheat yield more certain and satisfactory returns." It stands on the Pacific Railway; and new lines also radiate from it in every direction.

(viii) **Ecowatin** is a new province which has been cut out of the North-West Territory. It lies between Manitoba and Hudson Bay. It is very fertile.

(ix) Assimibota is a new province, also cut out of the North-West Territory, which lies between the province of Saskatchewan and the United States. The capital is Regias, on the Pacific Railway.

(x) Saskatchewan, a province also cut out of the North-West Territory, lies north of Assiniboia, and is nearly as large as Manitoba.

(xi) Alberta lies on the eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains. Much of the soil is very fertile; and there are many large forests. It is nearly as large as Italy.

(xii) Athabases, yet another province cut out of the North-West Territory, lies north of Alberta. It is watered by the Peace and Athabases rivers.

15. Large Towns.—The cities of the Dominion are not, in general, very large; because the chief industry as yet is agriculture, and this requires the population to be spread over the whole country. There are only four towns with a population of over 50,000; and, of these, only two have more than 100,000 inhabitants. These are Montreal and Toronto. Next come Quebec, Hamilton, and Halifax. In the third rank stand Ottawa, St. John, London, and Winnipeg.

(i) Montreal (250) is much the largest city in Canada. It stands on an island at the head of the ocean navigation of the St. Lawrence, and is the commercial and financial centre of the Dominion. It stands at the east end of the canal, which avoids the Rapids of the St. Lawrence. It is a well-built city, with several very noble edifices —cathedrals, churches, and public buildings.

It is sometimes said that the name is a corruption of the words Mount Royal. This is a mistake. Real is the Norman-French form of the word royal; and is found in English in the word real-m. It received its name in 1535 from Jacques Cartier, the discoverer of Canada, who was a Frenchman of Normandy.

(ii) Toronto (200), on Lake Ontario, is the capital of the Province of Ontario, and the leading commercial city of "Upper Canada." It is the most intelligent and best educated city in the Dominion. The University of Toronto is one of the finest buildings on the continent of America.

(iii) Quebee (65) is the most historic city in Canada. Its citadel, on the head of Cape Diamond—a precipitous cliff 333 ft. in height—guards the entrance to the St. Lawrence. The aspect of the city is Norman-French:—its architecture, scenery, fortifications, the look of the people, the language, all remind one of Normandy.

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It is not the seaport of the St. Lawrence; and hence makes little progress in commerce and wealth. But it is the capital of "French Canada."

It is said to have received its name from the French sailors, who exclaimed when they first saw the face of Cape Diamond, *Quel Beol* ("What a Cape !")

(iv) Hamilton (50), at the south end of Lake Ontario, is a fiourishing town in a fertile district. Between it and Clifton lies a very rich fruit-growing district.

(v) Halifar (44) is the capital of Nova Scotia, and the Atlantic scaport of the Dominion. It is also the great North American naval station of Great Britain ; and, most important of all, the Atlantic terminus of the Canadian Pacific Railway.

(vi) Ottawa (40), on the right bank of the Ottawa, is the federal capital of the whole Dominion, and the seat of the Dominion Parliament. The Houses of Parliament are the most magnificent buildings in the place. Fifty years ago Ottawa was a lumberman's shanty; it is now a beautiful city.—Kingston, on the N.E. shore of Lake Ontario, is a thriving town, which is connected with Ottawa by the Rideau Canal.

(vii) St. John (30) is the largest city and seaport in New Brunswick. It is the chief ship-building and ship-owning city of the province.

(vili) London (30) is a prosperous town, in the middle of a fertile and smiling country, near the southern end of the peninsula of Ontario.

NEWFOUNDLAND.—This "outpost of the continent of North America" is an island about one-third larger than Ireland. The coast line is very deeply indented; and the south-east part of the island is almost cut off from the main body. It is the nearest American land to Europe, Cape Race being only 1650 miles from Cape Clear in Ireland. There is much good land in the island; some very fine timber; and a good deal of coal, copper, and other minerals. Fishing is, however, the chief occupation of the people. The chief town is **St. John's** (35), on the east coast. Newfoundland is a separate colony, and does not form part of the Dominion of Canada.

(i) The Icelanders landed on the shores of Newfoundland in the year 1000.

(ii) The rivers abound with excellent salmon. The largest river in the island is only 150 miles long—the "River of Exploits." The lakes are almost innumerable. The surface covered with fresh water forms one-third of the whole island.

(iii) The climate is good, the heat of summer being never very great, nor the cold of winter unbearable. The fogs on the Grand Banks of Newfoundland do not approach the island, unless a south-east wind blows. Barley and oats grow everywhere—but not wheat; the even and moist temperature encourages the regular growth of grasses.

(iv) The harbour of St. John's is one of the very best on the Atlantic coast. In foggy weather a 82-pounder is fired every half-hour; and a compressed air-trumpet blows for 7 seconds in every minute.

(v) The Grand Banks of Newfoundiand are one of the wonders of the world. They form the largest submarine plateau on the face of the globe. The sea over them is richer in fish—especially cod—than any other part of the ocean. The cod and seal fisheries are the largest in the world. The Banks are 600 miles long, 200 broad, and larger than the whole of Italy. These "preserves" have been left to fishermen from other countries; and it is the shore-fishery that the Newfoundlanders cultivate most. The cod-fishing opens in June, and lasts till the middle of November.—The fogs are caused by the condensation of the warm moist air over the Gulf Stream where it meets the cold icy air over the currents from Baffin's Bay.

(vi) All the Atlantic Telegraph Cables from Europe terminate in Trinity Bay.

(vii) The Labrador Geast forms part of the government of Newfoundland. Labrador is inhabited—if it can be said to be inhabited at all—by a few Eskimoes.

THE UNITED STATES.

1. Introductory.—The United States of America are the most remarkable instance of commercial and scientific development and progress on the face of the globe. The development of wealth—agricultural, mineral, and manufacturing—since the year of Independence 1776, has been unequalled. The development of population has been no less remarkable. A hundred years ago, the United States had a population of about 3,000,000; to-day the population is 70,000,000; at the end of the present century it will number 100,000,000.

2. Boundaries.—The United States lie between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, and between the Dominion of Canada and Mexico. They are bounded :

- 1. W. --By the Dominion of Ganada, the Great Lakes, part of the St. Lawrence, and the Dominion again.
- 2. E. -By the Atlantic.
- 8. S. -By the Mexican Gulf and Mexico.
- 4. W .- By the Pacific.

3. Size.—The total area of the United States amounts to 3,557,000 square miles—an area nearly as large as that of Europe.

(i) The area of Europe is 3,700,000 square miles.

(ii) The length of the country from east to west is 2800 miles; and the greatest breadth, from north to south, is 1700 miles.

4. Coast Line. — The coast line of the United States is, on the whole, regular; and neither coast possesses deep indentations.

(i) The Atlantic Coast is the most deeply indented ; and the State of Maine possesses a "ford coast."

(ii) The Pacific Coast has only one important bay-the Bay of San Francisco.

(iii) The chief Capes on the east coast are Cod, Hatteras, and Sable; on the west, Prince of Wales (in Alaska), Flattery, and Concepcion.

(iv) The chief Inlets are : Delaware and Chesapeake Bays on the east ; Guif of Marico, on the south ; Bay of San Francisco and Guif of California on the west.

(v) The chief Straits are: Long Island Sound (between Long Island and New York State), Juan de Faca Strait (between Vancouver Island and the mainland).

(vi) The chief Islands are : Rhode and Long Islands on the east ; San Juan on the west.

5. Build.—The United States consist of four great regions :—the Atlantic Highland and Slope in the east; the Central Valley; the Western Plateau; and the Pacific Slope.

(i) The Atlantic Section includes the ridges and highlands of the Appalachian system, and the slopes and plains along the Atlantic, which are the oldest settled portions of the United States. The most prominent ranges are the White Mountains, the Green Mountains, the Blue Mountains, and the Alleghanies. The Atlantic section is the great manufacturing region of the country.

(ii) The Central Valley is the immense valley of the Mississippi, a lowland plain of great fertility, which slopes very gently towards the Gulf of Mexico. It is the great agricultural region of the country. This plain is so level that at Cairo, where the Ohio joins the Mississippi—a distance of 1100 miles from the Gulf—the elevation is only 300 ft. above the sea-level. This gives an average ascent and descent of only 4 inches to the mile. This valley includes the immense region of the **Pratries**, which form the great grazing region of the country.

(iii) The Western Flateau (with an average elevation of 5000 ft.) lies between the Rocky Mountains and the Sierra Nevada and Cascade chains. This plateau contains three basins: the basin of the Columbia on the north; the basin of the Colorado on the south; and the "Great Basin of Utah," which has the Great Salt Lake for its centre. This basin has no outlet to the ocean. All this highland plateau suffers from drought, and is hence not fertile; but it is rich in mines of gold and silver. The Rocky Mountains, which form its eastern buttress, have an average elevation of about 7500 ft. In the State of Colorado alone there are 25 peaks over 14,600 ft. high. Long's Peak and Pike's Peak are the best known.—This is the metalliterous region of the country.

(iv) The Facilic Slope goes down to the ocean from the crests of the Sierra Nevada and Cascade ranges. But further west rises the Coast Range; and between this range and the Sierra Nevada lies the rich Sacramento Valley.

6. Rivers.-The great artery of the United States is the Missis-

sippi, with its very numerous and very large tributaries. The Mississippi is navigable nearly to its source; and the Missouri, which is longer than the central stream, is navigable to the point where it leaves the Rocky Mountains. The rivers of the Atlantic Slope are useful both for navigation and for water-power. The great rivers of the western slope are the Columbia and Colorado.

The chief Atlantic rivers are: the Hudson, Delaware, Susquehanna, Potomac, James, and Savannah.

7. Lakes.—The two largest lakes in the United States are Michigan and the Great Salt Lake.

The Great Salt Lake is the centre of the Continental Basin of North America. As this lake has no outlet except through evaporation, it is extremely salt. While the ocean-water contains only 3 per cent. of salt, the water of the Great Salt Lake contains 32 per cent. The human body cannot sink in it. The plateau in which it lies is 4200 ft. above the sea; and the lake itself is about half the size of Yorkshire.

8. Climate.—The United States lie wholly within the Temperate Zone ; and yet they may be said to contain all kinds of climate, from sub-arctic to sub-tropical, and from very cold and wet to extremely hot and dry. On the whole, the climate is much more continental than that of Europe.-Each of the great natural divisions of the country has its own special climate. (i) The Eastern Slope has a climate which is modified by its nearness to the Atlantic, but which) is marked by hot summers and cold winters. (ii) The climate of the Mississippi Valley varies with considerable regularity according to the latitude. (iii) The climate of the Western Plateau is hot and dry. (iv) The Pacific Slope has a warm climate which is tempered by breezes and showers from the Ocean. The rainiest parts of the States are, those which border on the Mexican Gulf and the Pacific Ocean. The Pacific Coast is, on the whole, both warmer and moister than the Atlantic Coast.-The most remarkable characteristic of the climate is its liability to sudden changes from great heat to intense cold.

(i) Nain (in Labrador) and Aberdeen (in Scotland) are both in the same latitude; but the coldest month in Nain has a temperature of 33°, while, at Aberdeen, the temperature is 37°.

(ii) At Denver, in the State of Colorado, the thermometer fell, on the 15th of January 1875, 48° in one hour; and a trustworthy observer at the same place reported

a fall of 36° in five minutes.—The present writer has seen the thermometer at Washington fall 30° in one hour. It was hot summer when he left the house; it was near freezing-point when he returned within the hour. This is due to the fact that there is no transverse range of mountains between the Mississippi Valley and the long slope to the Arctic Ocean. When, therefore, the wind changes from south or east to north, a cold current of air sweeps down from the arctic regions on the warm plains of the south, and chills man, beast, and plant.

9. Vegetation.—The vegetation of the States ranges from the subarctic to the sub-tropical species of plants. In the North, the white pine, birch, ash, oak, elm, walnut, and maple; in the South, the acacia, palmetto, and magnolia grow in luxuriance. In the North, oats, rye, and barley; in the Middle, maize, tobacco, and hard wheat; in the South, cotton, sugar, and rice are cultivated, while the orange, pomegranate, and fig flourish in the low coast-lands.

10. Minerals.—The mineral wealth of the United States is almost incalculable. There are in the Atlantic and Central States coal-fields as large as the whole of England; there are high mountains which are almost one mass of iron ore. In the Rocky Mountain States and the Pacific States, enormous quantities of gold and silver are mined every year.

(i) The Appalachian coal-field covers 70,000 square miles-which is larger than England and Wales; the Western coal-field 85,000.

(ii) Iron Mountain and Pilot Knob, in the State of Missouri, are mountain-masses composed almost entirely of iron ore.

(iii) California is the chief gold-producing State, though Colorado, Montana, and Nevada contribute large quantities. Colorado and Montana are the chief silverproducing regions.

11. Industries.—Agriculture is much the most important occupation in the country. Graxing is also an important industry. Mining is an industry which is growing and developing more and more every year. Manufacturing on a very large scale engages the attention of the States which lie north of the Ohio and the Potomac. Fishing is also a growing industry, and is destined to be a source of great wealth to the sea-board States.

(i) North of the parallel of 36° the most common crops are wheat, cats, maize, flax, and tobacco. South of this line, cotton, sugar, and rice.

(ii) Grazing is the chief industry in Texas and the States of the Great Plains.

(iii) The chief manufactures are of cotton and woollen goods, machinery, woodwork, etc. The cotton-growing States are also becoming cotton-manufacturers.

12. Commerce.—(i) The Domestic Commerce of the United States with each other is enormous and is rapidly growing. It consists in the interchange of the products of the different States ; and as these vary greatly in climate, in vegetation, and in industries, the opportunities for interchange are very great. (ii) The Foreign Commerce of the United States is very large ; and the exports and imports go on increasing rapidly from year to year. Their largest customer is Great Britain ; and next to her come Germany and France.

(i) The leading Experis are cotton, grain (with breadstuffs), petroleum, gold, silver, and tobacco. Great Britain takes most of the cotton and grain. Germany buys most of the petroleum. The West Indies and South America are great purchasers of flour, timber, and manufactured goods.

(ii) The leading Imports are iron wrought and unwrought, "dry goods"; wines, silks, and "colonial wares." Great Britain sends the first two imports; France sends wines and silks; China, teas, raw silk, and porcelain; Java and Brazil, coffee; and the West Indies, cane-sugar and fruits.

(iii) Great Britain buys from the United States to the annual amount of about $\pounds 100,000,000$; but sells to them only about $\pounds 27,000,000$.

13. Highways.—The United States is distinguished for its wealth of railways and waterways; but it is singularly deficient in good high-roads. There are ¹ now about 180,000 miles of railway open for traffic; and new railways are building every year.—There are three great water-ways in the country—the most splendid system of internal water-communication in the world.—The high-roads in the West, and even in some parts of the East, are sometimes "corduroy" roads or plank-roads, but oftenest mere tracks made by the wheels of carts through the fields.

(i) Nearly 6000 miles of new railway are now constructed every year.

(ii) The three great water-ways are : the Minimippi; the Eris Canal; and the Great Lake Route. (a) The Mississippi has 33 navigable tributaries; and these connect the States in the Mississippi Valley with the Gulf of Mexico at New Orleans. (b) The Erie Canal crosses the State of New York, and connects the Great Lakes with the Hudson River. (c) The Great Lakes, with the Welland and other canals, and the St. Lawrence, form the water highway of the north and east.

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(iii) The value of the Mississippi as a commercial river lies in the fact that it flows from north to south, exchanges the products of cold climates for those of warm regions.

14. Telegraphs and Letters.—There are in the United States more than 210,000 miles of telegraph line, with about 550,000 miles of wire. —The 350,000 telephones which are at work in the country require about 150,000 miles of wire for their own use.—About 8000 millions of letters and packages go yearly through the post.

15. Inhabitants.—The population of the United States in the year 1889 has been estimated at about 70,000,000. The average density is 25 persons per square mile. Most of the people are of British and German descent; and are an English-speaking people. About 8,000,000 belong to the Negro race, which is increasing; and only about 300,000 to the native American-Indian race, which is decreasing.

(i) In the year 1789 there were only about 8,000,000 of whites.

(ii) Germany sends the largest number of immigrants; Ireland comes next.

16. Government.—The United States form a Federal Republic of 44 States. The Legislature is called Congress, and consists of two Houses :—the Upper, which is called the Senate, and the Lower, which is called the House of Representatives. The Head of the Government is called the President, who is also Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy.

(i) The Senate is made up by each State parliament sending two men to represent it.

(ii) The Members of the House of Representatives are elected by all citizens above the age of twenty-one. The number depends on the density of the population. Thus New York sends up 34 members; Colorado, though more than twice as large, only two. There is one Representative to every 170,000 inhabitants.

(iii) The Army is small—only 25,000 men, of whom about 2400 are officers. But, if the country were in danger, millions of young men would take the field.

(iv) The Navy consists of 66 vessels, many of which are built of steel. One of these has a steel-belt 17 inches thick. There are 10 navy-yards, the largest of which are Brooklyn, Charlestown (near Boston), and Portsmonth in New Hampshire.

17. Beligion and Education.—The United States grant perfect equality to all religious bodies. There are about 30,000,000 of Protestants; and about 10,000,000 Roman Catholics.—Education, especially in the Northern and New England States, is fostered by the people by every means in their power. Much of the best land in the country is set apart for Universities, Technical Colleges, Women's Colleges, High Schools, and Elementary Schools.

In the Northern States, there are very few illiterates; in the Southern States, these range from 15 to 50 per cent.—and the more the farther south you go.—Among the Negroes, 70 per cent. cannot write.

18. Large Towns.—Although four-fifths of the inhabitants of the United States live in the country, there are very many large towns, especially in those districts which combine manufactures with commerce. There are 22 towns which have a population of over 100,000. Of these 16 have more than 200,000. Of these, again, 7 have over 500,000; and 4 have over a million inhabitants. The ten largest towns are New York, Philadelphia, Brooklyn, Chicago, Boston, St. Louis, Baltimore, Cincinnati, San Francisco, and New Orleans.

(i) New York (1700, or, with Brooklyn and Jersey City, which may be regarded as suburbs, over 2½ millions) is the commercial capital of the United States, the greatest manufacturing centre, and the largest and richest city in the New World. It stands at the mouth of the Hudson River, on the long island of Manhattan. It is now larger than Paris; and of all the cities on the globe, second only to London in population.

(ii) Philadelphia (1000) is the third city in the Union in population and manufactures, and the third in commerce. It is also the largest coal-depot in the States. It stands it the confluence of the Delaware and Schuylkill. It is a well-built city—the streets are lined with trees, the houses of brick faced with marble, with a certain quaker trimness and primness. It has been called the "City of Homes."

(iii) Brooklym (1000), on Long Island, is the fourth city in the Union. But, as it owes its large population to its proximity to New York, with which it is joined by the largest suspension bridge in the world, it is really a suburb of that great metropolis.

(iv) Chicage (1400) is the most marvellous instance of rapid growth on record. In 1832 it was a frontier log fort. It stands on the south-western shore of Lake Michigan, in the State of Illinois. After London, it is the greatest grain-market in the world, because it has at the back of it the great wheat-growing prairies of the West. It is the commercial metropolis of the St. Lawrence Basin. Railways and waterways connect it with every part of the country; and vessels now sail direct from Chicago to Liverpool. Over 1000 trains enter and leave it every day.

(v) Boston (500) is the capital of Massachusetts, and the commercial emporium of New England. Its people are highly educated and very thoughtful; and the city is sometimes called the "Athens of America." It stands on Massachusetts Bay.

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(vi) St. Louis (500), on the Mississippi-where the Missouri joins it, and in the State of Missouri, is one of the great giant-cities of the West. It is the commercial centre of the Mississippi Valley, and lies midway between the Atlantic and the Pacific. The Mississippi is here crossed by the highest bridge in the world. Flour, iron, and machinery are the staples of its trade.

(vii) Baltimore (550), on Chesapeake Bay, is a flourishing commercial city and a great manufacturing centre. Its chief exports are grain, flour, and tobacco.

(vili) Omeinanti (300), on the Ohio, is the largest city and the chief commercial and manufacturing centre of the Ohio Valley. It is the greatest pork-market in the world.

(ix) San Francisco (S50), the largest city on the Pacific Coast, stands on San Francisco Bay, —one of the loveliest bays in all the world. Lines of steamers connect it with China, Japan, Australia, and the Sandwich Islands; and, when the Panama Canal has been finished, it will be connected with New York and Europe. Two Pacific Railroads start from it to cross the continent to the Atlantic.

(x) New Orleans (250) is the centre of trade for all those States that lie on or near the Gulf of Mexico. It stands on the Mississippi, about 100 miles from its mouth. It is the greatest cotton port in the world, and the greatest sugar-market in the Union. It is connected by the Mississippi with all the great cities of the Central Valley, and by railways with all parts of the States—both east and west, and also with Mexico.

19. Divisions.—There are in the Union forty-five States and five Territories. They are generally divided into five groups: the New England States; the Middle Atlantic States; the Southern States; the Central States; and the Rocky Mountain and Pacific States.

20. The New England States.—These are six : Maine ; New Hampshire ; Vermont ; Massachusetts ; Rhode Island ; and Connecticut. The six taken together are a little larger than England and Wales.

(i) Maine, a little larger than Ireland, is the most easterly state in the Union. It excels in shipbuilding, fishing, "harvesting," and exporting ice. Its chief port is **Fortland**.

(ii) New Mampahire, the "Granite State," is the "Switzerland of America,"—so lovely and picturesque is its lake and mountain scenery. Its largest city is Manchester.

(iii) Vermont (="Green Mountain") is a little larger than New Hampshire. It grows wool, raises stock, and produces the best maple sugar in the States.

(iv) Massachusetts (an Indian name), called the "Bay State" from its numerous inlets, is the wealthiest and most populous of the New England States. It is the greatest fishing State in the Union. Boston is its largest city.

(v) Rhode Island, which is a little larger than Cheshire, is the smallest but most densely peopled State in America. Its largest town is **Providence**, which is the second city in New England, and a great centre of manufactures and commerce.

(vi) Connections, which is nearly twice as large as Devonshire, is a State which makes hardware, clocks, and "Yankee notions." The largest town is Hartford.

21. The Middle Atlantic States.—These are seven in number : New York ; New Jersey ; Pennsylvania ; Delaware ; Maryland ; Virginia ; and West Virginia. With them is usually associated the District of Columbia, in which WASHINGTON, the capital, stands. All of these States are on the Atlantic Slope, with the exception of Western Virginia ; and all have an Atlantic sea-board except West Virginia and Pennsylvania. They have a milder climate and a much greater variety of vegetation than the States of New England.

(i) New York is a fertile and picturesque State, nearly as large as England (without Wales). It is often called the "Empire State," because it holds the first place in population, wealth, manufactures, and commerce. It produces more butter and hay than any other State. It has a great number of towns. The largest are New York, Brooklyn, and Buffalo (a great grain centre, on Lake Erie).

(ii) New Jersey (a little larger than Yorkshire) is a fertile State in the "alluvial country" of the Atlantic sea-board. It is famous for all kinds of fruit.

(iii) **Pennsylvania** (=the "Wooded State of William Penn"), the "Keystone State," is the greatest mining State in the Union. It supplies half the iron, more than half the coal, and nearly all the petroleum produced in the country. In manufactures, it is the second State in the Union. The largest city is **Fhiladelphia**; the second largest, **Pitzburg**, the greatest petroleum and coal market in the Union.

(iv) Delaware, a small State not so large as Devonshire, lies in the alluvial country, and is noted for its peaches.

(v) Maryland, a State one-half larger than Yorkshire, is famous for its tobacco and grain; and also for its coal and iron. Baltimore is the largest town.

(vi) Virginia is a State larger than Scotland by 10,000 square miles. It is the oldest of the "Original Thirteen," and is sometimes called the "Old Dominion." It is rich in coal and iron; and its soil is fertile. It is famous also for its excellent oysters. The largest city is Richmond, which has large flour-mills. Its chief seaport is Worfelk.

(vii) West Virginia is nearly as large as Scotland, and is a great mining region on the western slopes of the Appalachian system. It is very rich in iron and coal. The largest city is Wheeling, on the Ohio.

(vili) Columbia (called after Columbus) is a "District" of about 70 square miles. It is governed by Congress itself. Its only city is WASHINOTON, the capital of the Union, with large and noble buildings—many of them in marble.

22. The Southern States.—These are ten in number : North Carolina ; South Carolina ; Georgia ; Florida ; Alabama ; Mississippi ; Louisiana; Texas; Arkansas; and Tennessee. West of Arkansas lies the "Indian Territory." These States, especially those in the farthest south, have a very warm and almost sub-tropical climate, and, in general, a very fertile soil.

(1) North Carolina is a State larger than England (without Wales), and it grows much grain, tobacco, cotton, flax, and hemp. It is also rich in gold, iron, tin, and coal; and in forests of pitch-pine. Wilmington is the largest town.

(ii) South Carolina is a State a little larger than Scotland. It is called the "Palmetto State." It grows more rice than any other State in the Union. It is also famous for "Sea Island Cotton"—the best in the world, with a long silky fibre, which makes it useful for laces and fine fabrics. This cotton is grown on islands along the coast. Charleston, an important cotton port, is the largest city.

(iii) Georgia, a State a little larger than England and Wales, is the leading Southern State in manufactures. Excellent hard wheat in the hills, rice in the irrigated lowlands, cotton in the land between, form the staple products. Atlanta, a great manufacturing and railway centre, is the largest city. Savamah is the chief seaport.

(iv) Florida, a State as large as England and Wales, has, owing to its two sea-fronts, a warm climate tempered by sea-breezes. It is noted for its orange-groves.

(v) Alabama, a State a little larger than England, is a great cotton-growing country. It is rich in coal, iron, and marble. The largest city is the port of Mobile.

(vi) Mississippi, a State more than one-half larger than Scotland, is rich in cotton and timber. In cotton it is the richest in the Union. For 350 miles in this State, the river is kept in by high embankments called *levess*. Before these were constructed, about 34,000,000 acres—an area larger than the whole State of New York—were subject to devastation. The largest city is Vicksburg—a town on a Mississippi "bluff."

(vii) Louisiana (called after Louis XIV. of France) is a State nearly as large as England. It occupies the lowest part of the Great Plain. From the mouth of the Red River to the Gulf of Mexico, the level of the Mississippi is higher than that of the adjacent country; and people talk of going "up to the river," not "down" to it. Louisiana produces almost all the cane-sugar grown in North America. New Oriseans, the greatest cotton-port in the world, is the largest city.

(viii) Texas, the largest State in the Union, is three times as large as Great Britain. It is famous for its beautiful prairies, and its vast area of fertile lands. It produces much cotton and more cattle than any other State. The cotton lands alone are as large as the whole of Scotland. The wheat region is 10,000 square miles larger. The State is also rich in coal, iron, lead, and copper. Gaiveston is the chief port.

(ix) Arkanese is a State rather larger than England. Its chief products are cotton and corn. It is also rich in metals. The capital and the largest city is Little Rock.

(x) Transmoo (an Indian word which means "River of the Great Bend,") is a State one-third larger than Ireland. East Tennessee is mountainous, and rich in coal, iron, and copper. Middle Tennessee is a rolling country which grows wheat, corn, and

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tobacco. West Tennessee is a low-level region which grows cotton. Mashville, the capital, is the largest city. Memphis, on the Mississippi, is the chief cotton port.

(xi) The Indian Territory is a country twice as large as Ireland, set apart by Congress for the "Red Men," to be by them occupied and governed for ever. The Cherokee, Chickasaw, Choctaw, and Creek Indians are the most noted of the tribes in this country. They till the soil; have a government, newspapers, schools, and churches.

23. The Central States.—These are eleven in number : Kentucky; Ohio; Indiana; Illinois; Michigan; Wisconsin; Missouri; Iowa; Minnesota; Kansas; Nebraska. North of Nebraska lie the Dakota States. These States are all inland, and occupy nearly the whole of the Upper Mississippi Valley. Their most striking feature is the vast treeless prairies. In the northern section, the winters are long and severe, the summers short and hot; in the southern section, the winters are milder, the summers longer. They form, taken all together, the "Granary of the United States."

(a) So vast is the area of these States, and so fartile the soil, that there is room in them for a population of 300 millions. At present, there are about 30 millions. (b) The Prairies are covered with grass, gay with flowers, and alive with herds of cattle. Not a stone is to be found in the soil.

(i) Kentucky is a State one-third larger than Scotland. It surpasses all the other States in tobacco and hemp. Its "blue-grass region" is one of the finest grazing districts in the Union. It is also very rich in coal and iron. It is famous for the Mammoth Cave. This cavern extends underground for miles, and has never been fully explored. It contains a navigable lake of fresh water The largest town is Louisville (150).

(ii) Onlie is a little larger than Kentucky. It is the third State in the Union in point of population; the third in coal; and the first in wool. Its "wool-clip" is the largest in America; but mining and manufacturing are the chief industries. The largest city is **Cincinnati.** "Pork-packing" is its most noted industry.

(iii) Indiana—a State larger than Ireland—lies entirely in the Prairie Region, and has no hills or mountains. With Illinois, it is the greatest wheat-growing State in the Union. Indianapolis is the largest town.

(iv) Illinois—a State nearly as large as England and Wales—ranks as the first State in the Union for wheat and oats; the second for coal; and the fourth for population. It possesses one of the largest coal-fields in the world: it is nearly as large as the whole of England. The largest town is Chicago.

(v) Michigan—a State which consists of two vast peninsulas—is larger than Illinois. It is nearly surrounded by three of the Great Lakes. The northern peninsula abounds in iron; the southern has, on the shores of Lake Superior, the richest copper-mines in the world. Michigan has also a rich soil and immense forests. The lake shore-line is over 1000 miles in length; and hence its commerce is very large. The largest city is Detroit (250), a great manufacturing, as well as commercial centre. (vi) Wiscoman lies between Lakes Superior and Michigan, and is nearly as large as England and Wales. The land consists chiefly of rolling prairies; and grain and timber are the leading products. Milwankee (300) is the largest town; and it is the second largest grain-market in the States. It is also one of the five great lake-ports. The commerce on the Great Lakes is enormous; 5000 vessels are engaged in it; and its value is greater than that of the whole foreign commerce of the United States.

(vii) Missouri, which lies west of Illinois, is a State more than twice the size of Ireland. It is the most populous State west of the Mississippi. It has enormous mineral resources; and its coal-fields are among the richest in the world. The coal-field in this and neighbouring States is nearly as large as Great Britain. It is also rich in grain, hemp, and tobacco. The largest town is St. Louis—the commercial centre of the Missouri Valley.

(viii) lows, north of Missouri, consists chiefly of rolling prairies. It has large coalbeds and rich veins of lead. Grazing is its chief industry. The largest city is Dea Moines.

(ix) Minnesota, which lies north of Iowa, is a State nearly as large as Great Britain. It is crossed by the "Height of Land" which separates the waters flowing into the Gulf from those which run into the Arctic Ocean. Both the Mississippi and the Red River take their rise on this elevation. The Falls of St. Anthony and of Minnehaha, on the Upper Mississippi, are noted for their beautiful scenery and immense water-power. Minnesota is a great wheat and timber State. Minnespolis, with a trade in "lumber" and flour, on the St. Anthony Falls, is the largest city.

(x) Kansas, the "Central State," which lies west of Missouri, is nearly as large as Minnesota. Bolling prairies and grassy plains make up the country. The soil is extremely fertile. No other State has a smaller proportion of useless land. The climate is an dry that the grass dries into hay without being cut, and feeds wast hordes of cattle and flocks of sheep without winter housing. Coal abounds. The largest city is Leavenwerth, on a tributary of the Kansas river.

(xi) Nebraska, north of Kansas, is a State about one-half larger than England. The eastern part of the State is a rich agricultural region, and grows much grain, hemp, flax, and tobacco. The largest town is Omaha, which stands on the Union Pacific Railway, about midway between the two oceans.

(xii) Dakota, a Territory nearly three times as large as England, is a vast prairie —a fine wheat country, which is in course of being rapidly "settled," and which will, therefore, soon be a State. ¹ It lies on two watersheds—that of the Upper Missouri and that of the Red River of the North. Bismarch is the capital.

24. Rocky Mountain States.—These are two in number: Colorado and Nevada. The latter stands on the high plateau called the "Great Basin." With them go six territories: New Mexico; Wyoming²; Montana²; Arizona; Utah²; and Idaho.² The three latter are in the Plateau Region. These states and territories lie on both sides of the

It is now (1891) two States—N. and S. Dakota.
 Now all States.

Rocky Mountains; and their general elevation is about 6500 ft. The watershed which separates the Atlantic and the Pacific Basin runs through them. The climate is remarkably dry and bracing. The "Great Plains" stretch along the eastern base of the Rocky Mountains; and, in winter, are covered with "self-made hay." The mineral wealth of this vast highland region is beyond calculation.

(i) Colorado—a State twice as large as England, on both alopes of the Rocky Mountains—contains their highest peaks. It is rich in gold, silver, lead, coal, and iron. It is the second State in the Union for the production of silver, and also one of the finest grazing regions in the country. Denver (50), a mining place, is the capital and the largest city.

(ii) Nevada, a State nearly twice as large as England and Wales, in the western part of the Great Basin, is extremely rich in silver. It possesses also an enormous mine of rock-salt, two square miles in area. Virginia City is the largest town.

(iii) New Maxico, south of Colorado, is a Territory about four times the size of Ireland. It was once a part of Maxico; and Spanish is still the usual language. Wherever there is water, the soil is exceedingly fertile. Santa Fé, the capital, is the oldest city in the United States.

(iv) Wyoming is an elevated region more than three times the size of Ireland. The population is settled along the line of the Union Pacific Railway. This State contains the "Yellowstone National Park," a park more than twice the size of Kent, set apart by Congress as a national pleasure-ground for ever. Its deep caffons, lofty falls, immense geysers, deep lakes, and picturesque rocks, make it the greatest natural wonder in the world. The Great Geyser throws up a column of water 800 ft. high.

(v) Montana, a State north of Wyoming, is nearly five times as large as Scotland. It abounds in gold and silver mines of surpassing wealth.

(vi) Arisona, west of New Maxico, is a Territory nearly four times as large as Scotland. It is rich in mines of gold, silver, and copper. Mining and wool-growing are the chief industries. Two trans-continental railways cross the territory. Here is the driest climate on the continent; the annual rainfall is only 3 inches. The Cañon of the Colorado is the longest and deepest gorge in the world. For 300 miles the river has sawed its way through rock; and the nearly perpendicular walls are from 3000 to 6000 ft. high, from the bed of the river to the level of the plateau.

(vii) Utah, west of Colorado, is traversed by the Wahsatch Range, at the foot of which lies the Great Salt Lake. It is nearly three times as large as Scotland. There are numerous mines of silver, copper, and coal. The Mormons constitute four-fifths of the population; and, by their excellent system of irrigation, they have turned a dry plateau into one vast smilling garden. The capital is Salt Lake City (80).

(viii) Idaho has very productive mines of gold and silver.

25. Pacific States.—Of these there are two : California and Oregon. There are also two Territories : Washington¹ and Alaska. The climate

1 It is now (1891) a State.

of the Pacific States, which are played on by westerly winds from the ocean, is very warm and moist. The climate of Alaska is cold.

(i) California is a State nearly three times as large as England and Wales. It is the first State in the Union for the production of gold and quicksilver; but agriculture is by far the greatest industry, and the wheat crop is twice as valuable as the yield of gold. It is the second State for wool-growing, Ohio being the first. The orange, lemon, olive, and grape flourish in the splendid soil and perfect climate.—The Yosemité Valley is the most wonderful gorge in the world. Its rocky walls are several thousand feet in height. The Merced River flows through the gorge, and takes a series of leaps, the total height of which is half a mile. The highest trees in the world are found on the slopes of the Sierra Nevada. Some of them are 40 ft. in diameter, and 800 ft. high. The largest town is San Francisco. Lines of steamers connect it with China, Japan, and Australis; lines of railways—the Central, Union, and Southern Pacific—with the Atlantic States. The capital is Sacramento.

(ii) Oregon, north of California, is a State exactly three times the size of Ireland. Though in the latitude of New England, its climate is very much warmer; and the cattle spend the winter in the open fields. It is a fine grain and fruit country. There is also a great deal of gold and silver, and of coal and iron. The rivers swarm with salmon. The largest city is Portland.

(iii) Washington, north of Oregon, is a State twice the size of Ireland. It is a fine wheat and grazing country. There are large forests of pines and cedars in the west.

(iv) Alaska, which lies between British North America and Behring Strait, occupying the north-western angle of the continent, is a mountainous Territory more than six times the size of Great Britain. The warm Japan current tempers the rigours of its northern climate, as the Gulf Stream tempers that of Norway. The rainfall at Sitka amounts to 90 inches. Large quantities of timber, ice, cranberries, canned salmon, are exported to San Francisco. The seal-fishery is the most valuable in the world. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians and Eskimos, who live by hunting and fishing.

MEXICO.

1. Introductory.—Mexico is the northern and larger portion of the vast isthmus which connects the two continents of North and South America. It was once a great empire—the Empire of the Aztecs; after it was seized by the Spaniards, it received the name of "New Spain"; the rule of the Spaniards was overthrown, and the country became a republic. It was once more an empire under Maximilian

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of Austria; he was defeated and put to death; and Mexico at the present time is a Federal Republic, like the United States.

2. Boundaries.—Mexico (which is three times as large as Austria) lies between the two great oceans of the world, and is bounded

N. —By the United States.
 E. —By the Gulf of Maxica.
 S. —By Central America.
 W. —By the Pacific Ocean.

3. Build of the Country.—The build of Mexico is extremely simple. The country is an immense and very high table-land, buttressed on both sides by lofty ranges of mountains, and edged by low plains on both seas. The table-land goes down to the low coast-plains by a series of terraces. The south end of it is crossed by a zigzag line of thirteen volcances, which are among the loftiest in the world.

(i) The chief plateau is the Plateau of Anahuac, with a mean elevation of 7500 ft.

(ii) The most important range is the Sierra Madre (=Mother Range); and the chief cross ridge is the Cordillers de Anabuac, which culminates in the volcano of Popocatepetl (17,884 ft.). The most stately of the volcanoes is the Peak of Orizabs, which can be seen 200 miles away in clear weather.

(iii) The low land varies in breadth : the broadest is that on the Gulf of Mexico.

(iv) There are no navigable rivers in Mexico.

4. Climate.—There are three well-marked climates in Mexico, just as there are three well-marked regions :—the climate of the hot and moist lowlands; the mild and dry climate of the temperate tablelands; and the cold climate of the lofty mountain-lands. There are two seasons—the dry and the rainy. The latter begins in June, and lasts till November.

(1) The Low Plains are called **Tierras Calientes** (the *Cal* is the same syllable as in *caloric*); the Table-lands, **Tierras Templadas** (=*Temperatas*); and the mountain lands **Tierras Frias** (a short form of the Lat. *frigidas*). Yellow fever rages in the low plains; in the table-land, the houses are built without chimneys—as fires are not needed, violets bloom, strawberries are ripe, and green peas in season all the year round.

(ii) The Tropic of Cancer runs through the middle of the country; but there are no tropical heats in the elevated lands.

(iii) The Mexican oak begins to grow at the height of 2750 ft.; and at this point yellow fever ceases.

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5. Vegetation.—The lowland forests abound in mahogany and other woods employed in cabinet work. Sugar, bananas, vanilla, coccoa, etc., are grown in large quantities. A highly characteristic plant is the cactus, the most valuable kind of which is the cochineal-cactus, on which the cochineal insect (it furnishes a red dye) lives and thrives. The table-land produces cotton, coffee, tobacco, and grain.—Wheat and barley grow in the Tierra Fria, though at the height of 8000 ft. above the level of the sea.

(i) The chief food plant is maize; and in some districts three or even four crops of maize are produced in the year.

(ii) The people of the lowland plain live chiefly on the banana and the plantain.

6. Minerals.—Mexico contains the richest known argentiferous region in the whole world. Besides silver, there is a good deal of gold, and a little copper.

(i) More than half the silver-yield of the world was produced in Mexico. In 1882 nearly $\pounds 6,000,000$ worth was obtained.

(ii) Of the 569 mines in the country, 541 are silver mines.

7. Industries and Trade.—<u>The chief industries are mining and</u> agriculture. There are no manufactures worth mentioning. The chief exports are silver, hemp, coffee, hides, mahograny, and cochineal. The chief buyers are the United States and England. The largest seller is France. England sells to Mexico cotton goods and machinery.

8. Railways.—There are now more than 5000 miles of railway in Mexico—a very small proportion for so large a country. The capital is connected with Vera Cruz, New Orleans, and San Francisco.

9. Inhabitants.—The population of Mexico amounts to nearly 12,000,000. Most of the people are of Spanish descent or of mixed race; and Spanish is the language of the country. The Mexican Indians are diminishing in number.

(i) Of the total population, 20 per cent. are whites; 48 per cent. of mixed race; and the rest are Indiana.

(ii) The prevalent religion is Roman Catholicism.-Education is in a backward state.

(iii) The Constitution is that of a Federal Republic, which consists of twenty-eight States and one Territory—that of Lower California.

10. Cities.—There are in Mexico six towns with more than 50,000 inhabitants. Of these, two have more than 100,000. The two largest cities are Mexico and Guadalajara.

(i) Mexico (320)—nearly as large as Leeds—is the most brilliant city in Spanish America. It stands at the height of about 7500 ft. above the sea-level, in the centre of the Plateau of Anahuac, and in a sone of perennial spring. Into the broad streets, flanked by noble buildings, look down two lofty anow-capped volcances; and round the city stand broad shining lakes, dark cypress and pine groves, and waving fields of golden corn. From the middle of the central Plaza (or square) rises the Cathedral— "overladen with gold, silver, and precious stones, the most sumptuous house of worship in the New World."

(ii) Guadalajara (105) is the chief seat of the cotton and woollen manufactures.

(iii) The chief manufacturing town is Pasble (80); the largest mining town is Guanajusto (60).—The chief ports on the Atlantic are Vers Crus, a nest of yellow fever; Tampico, which exports silver; and Matameros, at the mouth of the border-river Rio Grande del Norte. On the Pacific, the chief ports are Acapaleo and Magatian.

11. Yucatan.—Yucatan is one of the States in the Republic of Mexico; but it now and then asserts its independence. It has a good climate; and a soil which, when watered, is fertile. The capital is Merida (38)—a well-built Spanish city. The chief port is Campeachy, on the Gulf of the same name.

The south of Mexico is full of the ruins of ancient cities-the remains of decayed civilisations. Temples, palaces, pyramids, and monuments are found, overgrown with the rankest vegetation.

CENTRAL AMERICA.

1. Position, etc.—The little Republics of Central America lie between Mexico on the north, and the South American State of Panamá on the south. They form a kind of land-bridge between the two isthmuses of Tehuantepec and Panama. The whole country is a fertile plateau, which descends to the oceans on either side by a series of terraces. All kinds of tropical plants flourish in this region.—Part of the belt of volcanoes which encircles the Pacific Ocean lies in this country; and the most devastating earthquakes are very frequent.

(i) The area of the whole of Central America is about 186,000 square miles, or nearly six times the size of Ireland.

(ii) The population is estimated at \$,000,000-16 persons to the square mile.

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2. Climate, etc.—The climate is like that of Mexico; the soil is fertile; and harvests of one kind or another go on through the livelong year. The chief productions are coffee, coccos, sugar, indigo, tobacco, and vanilla.

The forests abound in mahogany, rosewood, and dye-woods.

3. Trade.—The chief exports are indigo, cochineal, coffee, and mahogany; but the trade of the whole region is very small.

4. Divisions.—There are in Central America five Republics, one British Colony, and one small monarchy. Their names are Guatemala; San Salvador; British Honduras; Honduras; Nicaragua; Mosquitia; and Costa Rica. British Honduras is the British Colony; and Mosquitia the monarchy. Nicaragua is the largest state.

(i) Guatemals is about four-fifths the size of England without Wales. It is the most populous of the five republics. The Pacific coast is its coffee region. Hew Guatemals is the capital. The old capital became intolerable from the frequency of earthquakes.

(ii) San Salvador is a small republic not much larger than Yorkshire. Seen from the Pacific, the plateau looks like a mighty wall rising from the sea. The capital is San Salvador. The old capital was entirely destroyed by an earthquake in 1854; and the present capital partially destroyed in 1878. It exports the finest indigo.

(iii) British Honduras or Beline is a country very little larger than San Salvador. The chief export is mahogany. The mahogany-tree grows best between 10° North lat, and the Tropic of Cancer. The inhabitants are mostly Negroes. The capital is Beline (6).

(iv) Honduras is a little smaller than Guatemala, the capital is Tegecigalpa; and its chief port Truxille, on the Gulf of Honduras.

(v) Micaragua is not only the largest, it is also the richest State. The high tablelands produce indis-rubber and mahogany; the middle table-lands are excellent for grazing; the lowlands grow coffee, sugar, cocce, etc., in profusion. There is a good deal of gold in the country. The present capital is Managua. Lake Nicaragua is a noble lake on the top of the low table-land, with volcanic islands in the middle. In one part of the country six volcances may be seen in a line of 60 miles.

(vi) Mosquita, or the "Mosquito Reserve," is a narrow strip of level country governed by the King of the Mosquito Tribe. A white line of surf, a low level coast, an impenetrable forest in the background—this is Mosquitia. The seaport is Greytown, at the mouth of the San Juan.

(vii) Costs Eles (="Rich Coast": there are no beggars in the country) is a little smaller than Scotland, but has not one-twentieth of the population. It is a narrow table-land, crowded with volcances. It exports a good deal of coffee. The capital is San José; the chief port Panta Arenas (Sandy Point) on the Pacific.

5. Inhabitants, etc.—The dominant race is of Spanish aescent; and the prevalent language is Spanish. But the large majority are either settled Indians or Mestizoes (Half-breeds). The religion professed is the Roman Catholic.

THE WEST INDIES.

1. Introductory.—The large and beautiful archipelago of islands which lies between the two Americas, is called the **West Indies**. The islands extend in a vast curve between Cape Sable (in Florida) and the delta of the Orinoco. They occupy the same position with regard to the New World that the Eastern Archipelago occupies to



the Old World. Both archipelagoes lie in warm and sunlit seas; each has a large number of splendid harbours; each has many deep and navigable passages between the islands; and both are rich and fertile in the extreme.

(i) The West India Islands have been compared to "stepping-stones from Florida to the Orinoco." They are in sight from each other almost all the way.—They have also been compared to the pillars of a fallen bridge, standing alone in the middle of the ocean.—They are really the summits of mighty mountain-ranges which are partly under the sea, and which run parallel to the great ranges of North America.

(ii) The West India Islands keep out the tidal wave of the Atlantic, and thus make the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf of Mexico nearly tideless.

2. Area and Divisions.—The total area of the West Indies has been estimated at 95,000 square miles—or a little larger than the whole of Great Britain. They are usually divided into the Greater Antilles; Lesser Antilles; and the Bahamas.

The Greater Antilles are Cuba, Hayti, Jamaica, and Porto Rico.

The Lesser Antilies are again divided into

- (a) The Leeward Isles-from the Virgin Islands down to Dominics;
- (b) The Windward Isles-from Martinique to Trinidad;
- (c) The Venezueian Islands—along the coast of South America. These islands are also sometimes spoken of as the Leeward Islands, because they are "to the lee" of the prevailing North-East Trade Winds.

(iii) The Bahamas are a group of low flat coral islands, surrounded by dangerous coral reefs and banks.

3. Character.—All are mountainous, with the exception of the eastern chain of the Lesser Antilles and the Bahamas. The mountainranges and peaks are in general forest-clad; and there are several volcances in the Lesser Antilles.

4. Climate.—All the West India Islands, with the exception of the Bahamas, lie in the Torrid Zone. But the intense heat is modified by the sea-breezes and the Trade Winds. There are, speaking broadly, only two seasons—the **dry** and the **rainy**. The latter lasts from May to November.

(i) The West Indies (including the Bahamas) lie between 10° and 28° North lat.

(ii) Hurricanes, called (from the circular form in which they blow) Cyclones, are the chief drawbacks to an otherwise very fine climate. Houses have been lifted up bodily; 24-pound guns flung headlong into the sea; and even strong forts demolished.

5. Vegetation.—All the vegetable productions of the Tropics flourish here. In most of the West India Islands grow sugar and coffee of excellent quality; and also the cotton-tree, the cacao plant (from which coccoa and chocolate are made), and tobacco. The islands are also rich in fruits—such as the guava, pine-apple, pomegranate, orange, lemon, and bread-fruit. The chief wealth of the Bahamas consists in timber—especially mahogany.

(i) Spices are also largely grown, such as pimento (or all-spice), ginger, pepper, etc.

(ii) The plantain, banana, yam, and bread-fruit tree furnish the inhabitants with a large part of their food.

6. Animals.—There are very few wild animals in the West Indies. The agouti is the largest native mammal. There are also bats, and a few rodents. Among birds, there are humming-birds, parrots, gorgeously coloured trogons, and chatterers.

(i) The animals found in South and Central America are almost entirely absent. There are no monkeys, no jaguars, pumas, tiger-cats, foxes, or edentata (such as sloths, ant-eaters, etc.).

(ii) There are large numbers and many varieties of lizards.—The vampire-bat is dangerous to animals and even to man: it sucks their blood when they are asleep.

7. Trade.—The chief exports are the products of the sugar-cane, tobacco, coffee, cocoa, cotton, and spices.

(i) The sugar-cane produces sugar, rum, and molasses.

8. **People.**—The population is very small, compared with the extent of the land and the richness of the soil. There are only about 3,000,000 inhabitants in all the islands. They are mostly Negroes or the descendants of Spanish settlers. The language most generally spoken is Spanish.

(i) About 56 per cent. of the people are negroes; 27 per cent. half-castes, mulattoes, etc.; and 17 p. c. whites. The whites (or "creoles") are most numerous in Cuba.

(ii) Most of the people are Roman Catholics—except in the British West Indies; but many of the negroes still practise heathen rites.

9. Political Divisions.—Most of the West India Islands belong to the Powers of Europe. Spain, Great Britain, France, Holland, and Denmark possess all the islands, with the exception of Hayti, which is divided between two independent Republics.

(i) Spain holds Cubs and Porto Rico.

(ii) Great Britain possesses, in the Greater Antilles, Jamaica; in the Lesser, Trinidad, Tobago, Barbadoes, St. Vincent, Dominica, St. Kitts, Nevis, etc.; and the whole of the Bahamas.—The Bermudas are also sometimes classed with the West Indies.

(iii) France possesses Martinique, Guadaloupe, and a few others.

(iv) The most important possession of Holland is Curacao, with a few others. It also shares St. Martin with France.

(v) Denmark possesses Santa Oruz-the largest of the Virgin Islands; and also St. Thomas and St. John.

10. The Spanish West Indies.—Two islands in the Greater Antilles —Cuba and Porto Bico—make up the Spanish possessions in the West Indies.

(i) Gabs, the "Queen of the Antilles," the "Pearl of the Antilles," is an island about one-third larger than Ireland. A range of mountains runs through the length of it; and the Turquino Peak—visible far out at sea, reaches the height of 8400 ft. Some of the hilly districts are marvellously beautiful. There are splendid forests of mahogany and ebony. There are no roads—except bad ones, and these only in the large towns; but there are 1000 miles of railway. The population of the island is 11 millions, of whom one million are whites. The export of sugar varies from the value of £12,000,000 to £16,000,000, of which 75 per cent. goes to the United States. The capital is Havanna (200), a fine city on the Strait of Florids. Its gaily furnished houses and oddly-shaped church-towers give it a very foreign aspect to an English eye. In its Cathedral lie the remains of Columbus.—The second city in the island is Matanasa.—The export of sugar to Great Britain fell from £2,250,000 in 1879, to £15,000 in 1886. The amount of tobacco sent to us has also fallen off.

(ii) Forto Rice is the healthiest of the Antilles, and almost the only island which produces food sufficient for its inhabitants. The free negroes do as little as they can. The loveliest flowers everywhere abound.

11. The British West Indies.—The possessions of Great Britain in the West Indies consist of Jamaica; the Bahamas; and most of the Lesser Antilles.

(i) Jamaica is an island about three-fourths the size of Yorkshire. It is next in size to Guba and Hayti. (The word means the "Island of Springs.") The north coast is very beautiful: "bold bluffs, charming inlets, rushing and roaring rivers of clearest water, green lawns as soft as velvet, dark groves, songsters and butterflies, all come together to make this coast a veritable Garden of Eden." There is scenery in Jamaica which almost equals that of Switzerland and the Tyrol—the Blue Mountains are especially fine. Among the mountains there is a healthy climate. There are about 200 rivers, all teeming with fish and alligators. But Black River is the only one navigable.—Sugar, coffee, and spices, are the chief exports. The population is only half a million.—The commercial capital is Kingston (40) s the official capital, Spania Towa.

(ii) The Bahamas consist of about 20 inhabited islands, and several thousand rocks. They are of coral formation. The trade in sponges is large; coral, green turtles, and salt are also exported.—Nassan, the capital, is a great resort for invalids.—Watting Island was the first land discovered in the New World by Columbus in 1492.

(iii) Trinidad, the largest of the Windward Islands, very close to South America, is famous for a Lake of Pitch or Asphalt, from which immense quantities are annually taken. There is, however, no perceptible diminution; as new supplies continually

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rise from below. "The very ship anchors in pitch; the passengers disembark on a pitch wharf; pitch lies heaped up everywhere; in whatever direction the eyes are turned they light on nothing but pitch; pitch, and the current market price of pitch, are the one burden of conversation." The lake is so solid that people can walk on it; and yet it is in a state of perpetual "boil." Barbadoes is the most densely peopled of the Windward Islands. Of the Leeward Islands, Antigua is the most productive: it exports sugar, rum, etc. St. Kitts (or St. Christopher) contains an extinct volcano called "Mount Misery."

(iv) The Bermudas ("the remote Bermudas" as Marvell calls them) lie in lat. 32°, and consist of nearly 400 coral islands, of which five are inhabited. The chief town is Hamilton. They grow a very fine arrow-root. The houses are built of coral blocks, which are quite soft when cut, but harden when exposed to the air. A single frost would crumble them all up.

12. Hayti.—This island is second in size to Cuba, from which it is separated by the "Windward Passage." It is a little larger than the mainland of Scotland; but the population is under a million mostly negroes and mulattoes. It is divided into two States—the negro **Bepublic of Hayti** and the mulatto **Dominican Republic**.

(i) The name Hayti means "Land of High Hills."

(ii) The **Republic of Hayti** is about one-third the size of Scotland. The capital is **Port-au-Primes** (45), with an excellent harbour. The people speak a debased French. The trade done is chiefly with the United States and Great Britain. The chief exports are coffee and cacao.

(iii) The Dominican Republic, or Republic of San Domingo, is more than one-third the size of England. The capital is San Domingo (15); and the chief exports are logwood mahogany, etc.

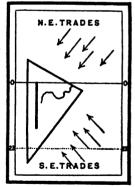
(iv) "Both states are sunk in the deepest barbarism. The fertile plains lie untilled; the rich mines are unworked. There is not a plough in the whole island."— In Hayti, no whites can own land, hold an official post, or vote at elections.

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SOUTH AMERICA.

1. Introductory. (i) South America is the model continent. There is no other continent so simple in its shape and construction, no continent where the operations of nature are on a scale so grand and so intelligible, no continent where the interplay of the forces of land and sea is so direct and so colossal. It lies almost wholly within the Tropics—and there is even more of it within the region of the trade-winds; and its shape enables it to benefit by the trade-winds more than any other land. Its shape is very simple; it is that of a right-angled triangle. To windward of the continent is a very large evaporating surface: and no other land has so large an evaporating sea-surface lying to windward of it. This surface is the North Atlantic and the South Atlantic within the limits of 30° of North and South lat. But 30° is almost exactly the outside limit of the two systems of trade-winds—the north-east and the south-

east. Now these two systems of trades blow day and night all the year round into the very heart of South America, carrying with them millions on millions of tons of moisture. At what angle do they impinge upon the coast? At the very largest angle at which a wind can strike a coast : that is, a right angle. These winds, crossing seas on some parts of which there is always a vertical sun, carry on their wings more moisture than any other winds that blow on any continent in the world.



2. Introductory. (ii)—As these warm rain-laden winds cross the continent of South America, there rise in their path ranges of mountains, which drive them high up into the air, and thus act as con-

densers which force from the winds a certain quantity of their moisture. At the foot of each range they drop moisture enough to make a great river .-- But these two mighty systems of winds meet and must meet in the very heart of the continent. They meet, as indeed the trade-winds do in all parts of the world, at or about the Equator. When they do meet, they drive each other high into the colder regions of the air, where the moisture they contain is condensed, and comes down in deluges of rain of which we can form no conception in this latitude. Hence it happens that here, where there is the largest downfall of rain, there is and must be the largest river in the world. -But, as these two mighty systems of rain-carrying winds are about to leave the continent of South America and to blow on the Pacific. there rises in their path the highest condenser they have yet met with. This condenser is placed as far back as it can possibly be. This high and powerful condenser is the Andes. In crossing the lofty chain of the Andes, the two sets of winds are driven higher into the air-into higher and colder air-than before, and are compelled to part with every drop of moisture that they bear upon their wings. Hence they appear on the western side of the Andes as perfectly dry winds ; there is no rain on the Pacific coast of South America ; and a very large part of it is a barren desert.

3. Introductory.—(iii) Here, then, where the two systems of tradewinds meet, we have the largest downfall, and hence the largest river, in the world—the Amason.—Now, the two chief conditions of vegetable life are heat and moisture. In this valley of the Amazon there is the maximum of moisture. Is there also the maximum of heat? There is; for always, over one part or another of this enormous valley, the sun is pouring down vertical rays. Now, where there is the maximum of heat and the maximum of moisture, we expect to find the maximum of vegetation. And we do find it; for there is here the largest and densest forest in the world. This forest is called the Selvas. Not only are there more trees than anywhere else; there are also more kinds—more numerous varieties —of trees and plants.—Again, insect life is always most prolific where vegetation is strongest; and hence we find here too, in the Amazon Valley, the largest number and the greatest varieties of insects. The hum of them is heard on board vessels lying several miles off the coast.

(i) The following are the steps: (i) South America lies almost entirely within the Tropics. (ii) It has to windward of it the largest and most strongly evaporating scasurfaces in the world—the North and South Atlantic. (iii) These surfaces are crossed by the steadiest winds. (iv) These winds strike on the coast at the largest angle—a right angle. (v) They meet, as they cross the continent, with ever higher and higher condensers. (vi) They drop showers, that is, rivers—as they go. (vii) They meet in the very heart of the continent, near the Equator, and drop the largest river in the world.

(ii) The steps for vegetation are as follows: (i) Maximum of moisture—brought by Trade Winds. (ii) Maximum of heat—given by vertical sun. (iii) These two together give maximum of vegetation. (iv) Luxuriant vegetation gives abundant insect life.

4. The Build of South America.—The build of the continent is very simple, and consists of a great mountain-chain in the west, one long plain (from the mouth of the Orinoco to the mouth of the Plate), and minor ranges in the east. A short, steep, sudden slope on the west to the Pacific; a very long and gradual slope on the east towards the Atlantic,—these are the two main slopes. The minor slopes consist of a short slope to the north (the basin of the Orinoco), and a very long slope to the south (the valleys of the Paraguay and Paraná).

(i) There are certain features which South America possesses in common with North America: (a) Both continents taper to the south. (b) Both continents have their greatest length from north to south. (c) The west coasts of both continents are very regular, and almost straight. (d) The highest ranges of mountains in both lie in the west—and very far to the west. (c) The subordinate ranges in both lie in the east. (f) Each has its short slope to the west, and its long slope to the east. (g) The largest river in each flows to the east—the Amazon and the St. Lawrence. (h) Both have vast plains and enormous river-basins.

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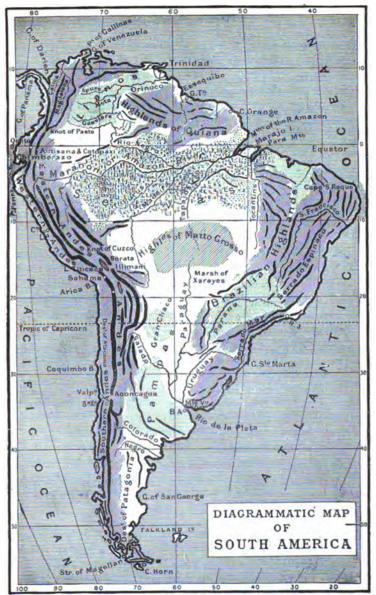
(ii) There are several striking points of contrast between

South America

Africa.

1. Africa bends in.

- 1. Where South America bulges out
- 2. Most of South America is open to the oceanwinds, up to the very foot of the Andes.
- 3. There are very few and small deserts in South America.
- 4. South America has to windward of it broad oceans.
- 5. South America is the continent of plains,
- South America is the continent of moist heat and the most luxuriant vegetation.
- Africa has ranges of mountains round most of the coast. Where it has not, the rainy winds blow away from or along the coast—and not into the continent.
- Africa has the largest desert in the world, and also one (the Kalahari) in the south-west.
- 4. Africa has to windward of most of it hot lands,
- 5. Africa is the continent of plateaus,
- Africa is the continent of dry heat and the most powerful animal life.



For Professor Meiklejohn's New Geography,

5. Size and Coast Line.—The coast line of South America is extremely short in comparison with the size of the continent. Its greatest length is 4550 miles; its greatest breadth, 3200 miles; and its surface amounts to 6,500,000 square miles. The coast line is only 15,000 miles in length; and this gives us only 1 mile to every 435 square miles of surface. But this very short coast line is, as we shall see, more than compensated by the enormous extent of its river-navigation.

(i) Two-thirds of the surface of South America lies within the Tropics, and hence has, at least twice in the year, a vertical sun.

(ii) Europe has 1 mile of coast line to every 190 square miles of area.—Africa has 1 mile of coast to 750 square miles of area. Hence South America has relatively a much longer coast line than Africa.

6. Bays and Straits.—There are few indentations—few gulfs or bays. It is the sea-openings of the rivers that are the most important; and the mighty mouths of the Amazon and the Plate are the greatest and most frequented gulfs in the continent. The other indentations are neither many in number nor great in size.—The only strait is the Strait of Magellan.

(i) The most noteworthy gulfs on the north coast are: the Gulf of Darien; the Gulf of Venemela, which communicates with the Lake of Maracaybo; the Gulf of Paria, between Trinidad and the mainland.

(ii) On the east coast, the Bay of Bahia affords a good harbour. The Bay of Rio Janeiro is celebrated for its loveliness. It is said to be the most beautiful, secure, and spacious anchorage in the world.

(iii) On the west coast, the chief openings are the Guins of Panama and Guayaquil.

(iv) The estuary of the Amason is about 200 miles wide.

(v) The estuary of the Plate (La Plata) is 130 miles wide.

(vi) The Strait of Magellan is a winding channel, with high cliffs and mountains on either side—like a Norwegian flord—400 miles long, between the mainland and the Archipelago of Tierra del Fuego.

7. Capes and Islands.—South America is as poor in juttings out as she is in re-entrant bays. The four most prominent capes are : Cape Gallinas in the north ; Cape St. Boque in the east ; Cape Horn in the south ; and Point Parina on the west coast.—The continent is also

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poor in islands. The chief group is that of **Tierra del Fuego**; but they are of no value for commerce. There are also numerous islands off the south-west coast. On the east coast, at the mouth of the Amazon, is **Marajo**, the largest island in South America.

(i) The Galapages Islands (="Turtle Islands"), on the Equator, and west of Ecuador (to which they belong), are a volcanic group of thirteen islands, with many species of birds and reptiles entirely unknown in other parts of the world. They are visited chiefly for their tortoises, which are of great size.

(ii) The Chinchs Islands, south of Lima, are noted for their rich deposits of guano.

(iii) The Falkland Islands, 240 miles east of Tierra del Fuego, belong to Great Britain. The population is under 1000.

(1v) Juan Fernandez is the island on which Alexander Selkirk (the original of Bobinson Crusce) lived alone for four years.

8. Mountains and Table-lands.-The most important range of mountains in South America is the Andes. This range stretches in one uninterrupted line from Cape Horn to the Isthmus of Panamaa distance of 4500 miles. It is the longest, most regular, and most clearly marked range of mountains in the world. Lying far back in the continent, it leaves no room for the development of rivers in the west, but abundance of room in the long eastern slope towards the Atlantic. The Andes are remarkable for (a) their continuity; (b) their great height—an average of about 12,000 ft.; (c) the parallelism of their chains, when they are double or triple; (d) their transverse ranges; (e) their mountain-knots; and (f) the enormous number of volcances in them.-The minor ranges in the east are the Parimé Mountains; the Guiana Mountains; and the Mountains of Brazil. The table-lands are not extensive, when compared with the height and length of the mountain-ranges. The broadest table-land is that of Bolivia, which requires several days' journey to cross; the highest, that of Titicaca, which is 12,760 ft. above the sea-level.

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(i) The proper name of the Andes is Las Cordilleras de los Andes. (Cordillera comes from the Latin word chorda, a string.)

(ii) There are said to be 180 active craters, and a large number dormant.—The Andes range is also the seat of frequent and terrible earthquakes. (The name Andes is said to come from an Indian word *anta*, which means silver.)

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9. The Andes.—This mountain-range is generally divided into three main sections; the Southern Andes; the Central Andes; and the Northern Andes.

(i) The Southern Andes consist of a single chain, which runs up to the Tropic of Capricorn. The highest peak—and it is the highest in all South America—is the volcano of Aconsegue (22,415 ft.). This range may also be called the Chillen Bange.

Many of the mountain-slopes are destitute of vegetation ; and the varied colours of the soilsblue, red, yellow, and white-stand out in strong contrast.

(ii) The Central Andes consist of two parallel chains, which run up to about lat. 10° South, where the Knot of Pasco is found. These two chains enclose high table-lands, which are again separated from each other by transverse ranges. The highest peaks are Illimani and Sorata. Another famous knot is the Knot of Casco, the most extensive in the whole Andean chain.

(iii) The Northern Andes begin at the Knot of Pasco, and form a triple range. In the Cordillers of Quito (or Andes of Ecuador), there are crowded together a large number of the loftiest peaks in America, most of them volcances. In this range, almost on the Equator, are assembled the three mighty volcances of Antiana, Cotopari, and the "silver bell" of Chimborase (20,700 ft.), which was long supposed to be the highest summit in the world.

(b) "Cotopaxi is the most symmetrical in shape; it looks as if it had been turned out with the lathe."

10. Plains and Deserts.—South America is pre-eminently the Continent of Plains; and, indeed, the whole continent from the mouth of the Orinoco to the mouth of the La Plata may be regarded as one great plain—with only one low and narrow watershed. But this single and almost unbroken plain may fairly be divided into three parts : the Orinoco Plain—the most level parts of which are called the Llanos; the Plain of the Amason (or the Selvas); and the La Plata Plain—the most level parts of which are called Pampas.—There is only one desert of any size in South America—the desert of Atacamá, on the Pacific coast.

(i) There is no watershed between the basin of the Orinoco and that of the Amazon; for the Cassiquiare—a stream as large as the Rhine—connects the Orinoco with the Rio Negro, which flows into the Amazon.

⁽g) "South of Quito is the city of Riobamba, the road leading to it forming an avenue flanked by fifty volcances on an average as high as Mount Eina, three of them emitting volumes of smoke, and all of them crowded into a space not much greater than the distance between London and Dover."-HELLWALD.

SOUTH AMERICA

(ii) The watershed between the basin of the Amazon and that of the Paraguay (which flows into the La Plata) is only a low narrow rising-ground about 4 miles in breadth. A boat could be carried from the head-waters of the Madeira (the chief southern tributary of the Amazon) to the head-waters of the Paraguay.

(iii) The Liance of the Orinoco are a region of vast plains twice as large as the British Iales. They are almost perfectly level. In the dry season, they are a desert; in the rainy season, they form a grassy meadow, on which troops of horses and countless herds of cattle feed. "The dull tawny surface of the parched savannah changes as if by magic into a carpet of the lovellest green, enamelled with thousands of flowers."

(iv) The Selvas (=Silvae, or Woods) is the name given by the Spaniards to the vast impenetrable forest of the Amazon Valley—the largest forest in the world. It is said to stretch 1900 miles from west to east, and 800 from north to south. It fills nearly the whole basin of the Amazon, from 7' North lat, to 18' South lat. All kinds of trees are found here; and especially palms in vast numbers. The chief peculiarity of the forest is the number of elimbers, creepers, and binders ("lianas"), which interlace with their woody ropes, their twisted cables and their fantastic ladders, the branches of the larger trees. This forest is impenetrable, as it can be explored only along the waterways afforded by the creeks, branches, small lakes, and tributaries of the Amazon. Millions of birds, monkeys, and other animals are born and live and die within this mighty world of trees, without ever having the experience of touching the ground.

(v) The Pampas are the wide grassy treeless plains which stretch from the lower Parana to the south of Buenos Ayres. In some directions they are nearly 1000 tilles long. They are nearly level, and look like a boundless ocean of grass and flowers. Near Buenos Ayres, they are covered, in the summer, by a dense forest of tall thistles, about 10 ft. high; then, when they are ripe, comes the strong pompero (the wind of the Pampas) and mows them down. These plains support enormous numbers of horses and wild cattle.

(vi) The Desert of Atacamá, on the coast of Northern Chili and Peru, has no rain whatever, owing to the fact that the winds which have crossed the Andes have lost all their moisture.

11. Rivers.—The river-system of South America is more simple and more magnificent than that of any other continent on the face of the globe. The Amazon, with its tributaries, affords at least 50,000 miles of river navigation in South America—navigation for even large vessels; and, in Brazil alone, there are 25,000 miles of navigable water. With the exception of the waterfalls on the Orinoco, and the short portage over the watershed between the Upper Madeira and a tributary of the Paraguay, one might go in a boat from the

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Delta of the Orinoco to Buenos Ayres on the Plate, right through the heart of the continent. The three chief rivers of South America are the Orinoco; the Amazon; and the La Plata (or Plate); and these three rivers are almost one. The drainage of nearly 33° of latitude, from 8° North lat. to 25° South lat., finds its way into these three enormous arteries. There are also numerous large streams of a secondary character.—Thus the enormous wealth of internal rivernavigation more than makes up to South America for the poverty and shortness of its coast line.

(i) The Orinoco rises somewhere in the Parimé Mountains; but its source has never yet been seen by human eye. It describes a semicircle; and its mouth is in the same longitude as its source. The North-East Trades blow right up the stream, and help boats to make way against the current for hundreds of miles; but, further up, cascades and cataracts interrupt navigation. It falls into the sea by a mighty delta, which has 50 channels, and the apex of which is 180 miles from the coast. It is about 1400 miles long; and its basin contains nearly 800,000 square miles.—Lying to the north of the Equator, its rainy season is our summer; and it is then in flood.—It is connected with the Bio Megro, the chief northern tributary of the Amazon, by the large natural canal called the Camiquiare. This phenomenon is called "bifurcation," and occurs, of course, only where there is no real watershed.

(ii) The Amazon is the largest river in the world. It rises in the small lake of Leartoochs, in the western chain of the Andes, and falls, after a course of more than 4000 miles, into the Atlantic Ocean. It breaks through the eastern chain, and traverses almost the entire breadth of the continent; as its source is only about 50 miles from the Pacific Ocean. It is the largest river; and it has the largest basin in the world. Its basin is nearly as large as the whole of Europe. It is always in flood; for, when the sun is north of the Equator, its northern tributaries are flooded.-when the sun is south of the Equator, its southern tributaries, swollen by the summer rains of their own latitude, bring down their contributions of water in millions of tons. It falls into the sea by a delta-each side of which measures 150 miles. The trade-winds blow up its broad surface; the tide ascends about 500 miles; and these two forces carry sailing vessels up against the current. The main stream is navigable for over 8000 miles, up to its junction with the Ucayals; and steamers go up to the foot of the Andes. The Upper Amazon is called by the natives the Solimouns ; and the part between Lauricocha and the Ucayalé is also called the Maranon. It has an immense number of tributaries, more than 20 of which are above a thousand miles in length. The longest and largest tributary from the south is the Madeirs (=River of Woods), 2000 miles long; from the north, the Rie Megro (=Black River), 1400 miles long,-The mouth of the Amazon is 200 miles wide; and its current is felt 150 miles out at sea-where fresh water can be procured from its mighty volume. It may with accuracy be said that the whole labyrinth of waters which we call the Amazon (containing numerous side-branches, and lakes scores of miles in circumference) is not

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so much a vast net-work of rivers as an inland fresh-water sea filled with islands the "Mediterranean of South America." The Brazilian Government has made its navigation free to all nations, and so there lies before it a future such as no other river-basin in the world has or can have, for the soil of its basin, with such suns and such supplies of rain, could feed all the populations on the face of the globe. Its waters contain 2000 different kinds of fish,—more than the Atlantic Ocean.

(iii) The La Plata (or "River Plate") is in fact only the mighty gulf-like estuary of the three great rivers Paraguay, Paraná, and Uruguay. Large deep-sea vessels can ascend the Paraná a distance of 1200 miles. The Plate is the widest river in the world; and it gives more water to the ocean than any other Great South American river with the single exception of the Amazon. The watershed between the Paraguay and the Madeira is said to be only 4 miles across; and, in times of flood there is communication between the two great river-basins. A short canal would therefore connect the two; and the Orincoo, the Amazon, and the Plate would afford the most magnificent system of river-navigation on the globe.

(iv) The San Francisco is the most important among the minor streams of South America. Unhappily, its navigation is interrupted by the Paulo-Affonso Falls, which have been not unjustly called the "Niagara of South America." On the banks of the San Francisco dwells one-sixth of the population of Brazil.

12. Lakes.—There is in South America a striking dearth of freshwater lakes. The Lake of Maracaybo, in Venezuela, is in reality only a lagoon. Lake Titicaca, on the lofty table-land of the same name, is a lake nearly as large as Ontario, at a height of more than 12,000 ft. (or $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles) above the level of the sea, studded with numerous rocky islands, whence first sprang the germs of the civilisation of Peru.

13. Climate.—(i) To understand, in a broad fashion, the climate of South America, we must remember two things : (i) that two-thirds of South America lie within the Tropics ; and (ii) that three-fourths of it lie within the region of the Trade-winds, which begin to blow at 30° of latitude. Its greatest breadth lies almost along the Equator the region where there is the maximum of heat and the maximum of rainfall. The tropical rainfalls on the Equator go on all the year through ; in other words, it is always the rainy season there.—Africa lies almost in the same latitude ; but its greatest breadth is not on the Equator. Africa lies within the region of the Trade-winds ; but part of these winds do not cross any ocean. Hence Africa is the Continent of Dry Heat ; South America the Continent of Moist

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Heat. But the climate of South America is a good deal cooler than that of South Africa. This is due to four reasons :---

(i) The two systems of Trade-winds bring coolness into it from the North and the South Atlantic.

(ii) The densest forests in the world shade a very large part of its soil from the direct action of the sun's rays.

(iii) There is a great deal of mountain-land. At 10,000 ft. above the sea-level the climate is said to be "perfect," and "better suited to the European constitution than that of any other tropical region in the world."

(iv) The west coast is watered by the icy Antarctic Drift Current, which—even off Lima, has a temperature 20° lower than that of the surrounding waters.

14. Climate.—(ii) The cooler parts of South America are to be found in the high lands and in the narrow triangular part which lies south of 30°. In the one case, differences of climate go on with differences of elevation. In the other, the land is so narrow, that it has practically an oceanic climate ; while the prevalent winds are from the northwest. Hence arises a striking difference in the climate and vegetation of the west coast south of 30° and north of it. North of 30° is a desert land ; south of it, the coast is watered by plenteous rains brought from tropical seas, and the western mountain slopes are clothed with forest. The eastern slopes are, on the contrary, bare of wood.

15. Vegetation.—South America is the "Continent of Luxuriant Vegetation." The Amazon Valley is a "great natural forcing-house." There is no region in the world that comes near it in variety of species, and in wealth and brilliance of colour. The most characteristic plants are palms, flowering trees, and lianas. The most valuable forest-trees are the green-heart and the mora—both excellent for shipbuilding. The cinchona-tree, the bark of which yields quinine, is found on the Andean slopes; and the largest lily in the world—the Victoria Regia, floats on the quiet lakes of the Amazonian labyrinth of waters. The sugar-cane, the coffee plant, the cacao-tree, the coca, the manioc, tobacco, bananas, and other tropical and sub-tropical fruits are produced in great abundance. The vegetable wealth of South America infinitely surpasses that of any other continent in the world.

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16. Animals.—Large reptiles, brilliantly coloured birds, and myriadshaped insects form the chief characteristics of animal life in South America. On the other hand, most of the larger mammalia are absent; and the thick-skinned animals-the rhinoceros and elephant of Africa and Asia-almost completely so. The large elephant is represented by the small pig-like tapir ; the camel and dromedary by the liama and alpaca; the lion by the weak and cowardly puma; and the tiger, by the jaguar. The impenetrable forests abound with monkeys, many of which are tree-climbers, and never come to the ground in the whole course of their lives. Some of these have a prehensile tail, which serves the purposes of a fifth hand. It has feeling, and is as mobile and flexible, and in its way as useful, as is its trunk to the elephant. But it is the insect-world that surpasses in numbers and in splendour all the other species of animal life. The toothless animals (edentata), such as the sloth, the ant-eater, the armadillo, are characteristic of this continent. Among birds, South America counts the largest and ugliest as well as the smallest and most graceful-the condor and the rhea; the brilliantly coloured toucan and the miniature humming-bird.

(i) Dry air is required to produce powerful animal life; and hence the animals of Africa stand out in striking contrast with those of this continent.

(ii) In the rainy season the rivers and swamps swarm with caymans, large lizards, and a countless number of snakes of every kind and size.

17. Minerals.—South America is very rich in minerals. All along the line of the Andes different kinds of metals are found—silver, gold, copper, tin, and others. Out of the silver mountains of Potosi, in Bolivia, silver has been extracted to the value of $\pounds 600,000,000$ since their discovery in 1545.—The continent is also rich in precious stones; diamonds are found in Brazil, emeralds in New Granada.

18. Peoples.—The natives of South America are commonly called Indians; and they number a little less than five millions. The Indians of the Amazon Valley occupy the lowest possible intellectual position; for "few of them can count beyond three or five." The aborigines of Peru, on the other hand, long ago rose to a high condition of civilisation.—The present population consists chiefly of Europeans, Indians, Negroes, and Mixed Whites; but the white population does not amount to more than one-third of the total number of inhabitants. The whites are generally Spaniards or of Spanish descent; in Brazil, the Portuguese element predominates.

19. Populousness and Civilisation.—The population of the whole of South America is hardly larger than that of Italy. Yet South America is nearly seventy times as large as that country. In fact, there is only a mere fringe of population round the coasts; and the interior is little known. All the Independent States of South America are now republics.

COLOMBIA.

1. The Country.—This, the most northerly State in South America, and once called "The United States of Colombia," is a country with an area of more than half a million square miles,—that is, more than $2\frac{1}{2}$ times the size of France. It is a Federal Republic, made up of nine smaller States. The population numbers about 4,000,000,—or only $\frac{1}{2}$ th that of France. The most populous parts of the country are to be found in the upper valleys of the Cauca and the Magdalena, where the high elevation enables the people to grow the grains of temperate climates. The western part of the State is covered by the Western, Central, and Eastern Cordilleras of the Andes, and the plateaus between them ; but the eastern embraces lowlands and llanos which are watered by tributaries of the Orinoco.

2. Products, Trade, and Communications.—The country contains all altitudes, and therefore all climates.—from tropical to arctic; and so we find all kinds of products. The forests are rich in mahogany, cedar, cinchona, and dye-woods. The chief exports are Peruvian bark (the bark of the cinchona, out of which quinine is made), coffee, cacao (from which chocolate and "cocoa" are made), raw cotton, and dyestuffs. Silver-ore is also exported. The foreign trade is chiefly with Great Britain and the United States.—The Republic has only 250 miles of railway; but one of its lines is amongst the most important

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in the world. This is the **Panama Line**, 47 miles long, which runs from **Colon** (or Aspinwall) on the Atlantic, to **Panama** on the Pacific. At this point of junction between the two Americas, there is a slight depression in the plateau formation; and the great canal-maker of the world, M. de Lesseps, did his best to construct a canal between the two oceans. When such a canal is open, the route round Cape Horn and South America will be abandoned; China, Japan, Australia, and the Isles of the Pacific will have been brought much nearer to us; and the commerce of the world will be revolutionised. The canal will be on neutral ground, and open to all nations.

3. Towns.—There are only two towns of any size in Colombia :— Bogotá and Panamá.

(i) Bogotá or Santa Fé de Bogotá (100) is the capital of the Confederation. It stands on the Bogotá, a tributary of the Magdalena, on a site which is 8600 ft. above the sea-level. Owing to this, though it is only 5° north of the Equator, it has a temperate and spring-like climate.

(ii) Fasamá (35) is a good port, and stands at the western end of the railway. The transit trade of the Isthmus is estimated at £15,000,000 a year.

VENEZUELA.

1. The Country.—The United States of Veneruela is a Federal Republic which consists of eight states and several territories. The country stretches from the Caribbean Sea to south of the Parimé Mountains, and contains within itself the remarkable natural canal called the Cassiquiare. The greater part of the country consists of llanos, within the Orinoco basin. Its area amounts to over 632,000 square miles,—that is, it is over three times as large as Spain. The population is only a little over 2,000,000—one-eight that of Spain. The people are of Indian, Spanish, and Negro descent.

When the Spanish sailors, sailing into the vast Lake of Maracaybo, saw the huts of the Indians built on platforms supported on pillars of iron-wood driven into the bed of the lake, they shouted "Little Venice! Little Venice!" (*Venewela*.)

2. Products, Trade, and Communications.—The staple products are coffee and sugar. Cotton, tobacco, and cacao are also grown. Gold and copper are the chief articles of export, the latter mostly to Great

Britain. The forests produce mahogany, iron-wood, ebony and many kinds of dye-woods. In the llanos large numbers of horses and cattle are reared. The country possesses about 400 miles of railway; and, in 1880, it joined the General Postal Union.

"The Venezuelan gold-fields are the richest, though not as yet the most productive in the world."--MARTIN.

3. Towns.—There are only four towns with a population of over 20,000 ; and the three largest are : Carácas, Valencia, and Maracaybo.

(i) Carácas (80) is the capital. It stands at the height of 8000 ft. above the level of the sea. In 1812 the town was destroyed by an earthquake.

(ii) Valencia (40), on the lake of the same name, is the largest town in the interior.

(iii) Maracaybe (35), on the lake, is a thriving town, with a growing trade.

GUIANA.

1. The Country.—Guiana is a splendid country of forest and mountain, which belongs to Britain, France, and Holland. The forests abound with valuable woods; the rivers teem with fish; the birds have the most brilliant plumage. The wild animals are numerous, and include the puma and jaguar, the tapir and peccary; and the alligator, which devours the manati or sea-cow.

2. British Guiana.—This division includes three settlements: Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice, which are so named after the principal rivers. The area of the whole country amounts to 109,000 square miles,—as large as the whole of Italy, without Sicily; but the population is only about a quarter of a million. The chief exports are sugar and rum. The labourers are negroes, mulattoes, and Chinese coolies. The capital is Georgetown, on the Demerara.

(i) Dutch Guiana is about two-thirds of the size of British Guiana. Sugar is the staple product. The capital is Faramaribe, near the mouth of the Surinam.

(ii) French Guiana is little more than one-third the size of Dutch Guiana, and has a population under 30,000, most of whom are negroes. The chief products are sugar and spices. Cayenne, the capital—a very unhealthy spot among swamps and luxuriant tropical vegetation—has been long used as a place of penal settlement by the French.

Brazil.

1. The Country .- The Republic of Brazil-formerly an Empire, ruled by a Portuguese Prince, is an immense country with an area of 3.220,000 square miles. It is larger than the United States (without Alaska), and nearly as large as the whole of the Canadian Dominion. The greater part of it is a triangular plateau : but it contains within itself lands of all kinds-grassy plains, elevated table-lands, lofty mountain-ranges; and also all diversities of climate. The population numbers a little over 14,000,000, or 4 inhabitants to the square mile. But the United States have 18 to the square mile. The country embraces almost the whole of the basin of the Amazon, the whole of the basin of the San Francisco, and other large rivers that flow to the east, part of the basin of the Paraguay, and a large part of the basins of the Parana and Uruguay.-The majority of the population live on the coast or on the banks of the great rivers ; and most of them are of negro descent, though there are also many of Indian and of Portuguese blood. There were more than 11 millions of slaves who are now emancipated.

(i) There are said to be 2 millions of negroes ; 4 millions of mulattoes ; 4 millions of whites ; and the rest Indians.

(ii) At the seaports the chief part of the population is of European descent.

2. Products.—The vegetable products of Brazil are perhaps the richest and most varied in the world. A country nearly as large as Europe, with every kind of soil and climate within itself, most of it lying under a vertical sun and watered by innumerable streams, cannot but be rich in vegetation of all kinds. The Selvas give many kinds of wood useful for dyeing, for the finest cabinet-work, and for shipbuilding—growths useful either as timber, resin, fibre, oil, or fruit. Coffee, cotton, india-rubber, gums, and tobacco are the chief agricultural products; and about half of all the coffee produced in the world is grown in Brazil.—The country is exceedingly rich in minerals—chiefly in diamonds and other precious stones, and gold. Quickstiver and copper are also found in large quantities.

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(i) The forests are frequented by birds of the most brilliant plumage—the macaw, with its blue and scarlet feathers; countless parrots, green, red, blue, yellow, and orange; innumerable humming-birds, toucans, chatterers, and others.

(ii) Besides coffee, Brazil also sends us cacao, sarasparilla, vanilla, cloves, cinnamon, tamarinda, etc.—The chief fruits are pine-apples, bananas, oranges, guavas, melons, etc.

(iii) The carnaba paim is the most useful tree in Brazil. It gives food; wine; vinegar; gum; wood for building; a substitute for cork; nuts which, when reasted and ground, make a kind of coffee; fibre for matting; straw for making hats, baskets, and brooms; and wax for making candles.

(iv) In about 150 years, Brazil has extracted £30,000,000 worth of diamonds.

3. Trade and Communications.—The trade of Brazil with foreign countries is steadily growing. Coffee is the chief export, and forms 68 per cent. of all the exports sent abroad. The United States and Great Britain are her two best customers; but Britain is the largest seller, as she sends about $\pounds 6,500,000$ worth of goods to Brazil every year.—There are nearly 6000 miles of railway.

4. Towns.—There are in Brazil 12 towns with more than 20,000 inhabitants; and, of these, three have more than 100,000. The three largest towns are Rio de Janeiro, Bahia, and Pernambuco. Most of the large towns stand on the coast.

(i) Rio de Janeiro (360)—often called simply Rio—is the capital of Brazil. It stands on the Bay of Rio, a little land-locked sea, guarded by granite cliffs at its entrance which look like fortresses, studded with numerous islands and rocky crags, girt by magnificent ranges of mountains, and backed by well-wooded and picturesque hills.

(ii) Bahis (150), the old capital of Brazil, is still one of the chief seaports.

(iii) Pernambace (140)—or Recife (=Recf), from the coral reef which forms a natural breakwater in front of the port, is the third city and third seaport in Brazil.

PARAGUAY.

1. The Country.—Paraguay, the second smallest state in South America, is a country which lies wholly in the interior, between the rivers Pilcomayo and Paraná. It is, like Bolivia, an inland state. Its area amounts to about 92,000 square miles, or somewhat less than half the size of Spain. The population is under 400,000. (i) This little state, mostly of half-breeds, carried on an obstinate war for five years (1865-70) with Brazil and the Argentine Republic; and the population was reduced from 11 millions to 221,000, of whom only 28,000 were men.

(ii) The Government now offer all kinds of inducements to immigrants.

2. Products, Trade, and Communications.—The chief product of the country is the "yerba maté," or Paraguay Tea, which is used in most parts of South America. The chief exports are maté and tobacco.— Rice, wheat, cotton, and sugar, are grown for home consumption. The river navigation is of the highest importance; but there are not 200 miles of railway in the country.

Maté is made of the leaves of the Paraguayan holly, which are dried and ground to powder.

3. Its Towns.—All the towns are small, not one rising to a population of 20,000. Asuncion (18), at the junction of the Pilcomayo and the Paraguay, is the capital.

URUGUAY.

1. The Country.—Uruguay is the smallest state in South America. It lies between the Atlantic and the river Uruguay; and its southern coast is on the estuary of the Plate. It covers an area of 74,000 square miles, and is therefore a little more than one-third the size of France. The population, however, is little over half-a-million. The people are mostly natives of mixed race; but about 30 per cent. are Europeans.

2. Products, Trade, and Communications.—The country is mainly pastoral; though agriculture is growing since the introduction of wire fences. With such vast breadths of grazing land, it is natural to expect that the rearing of cattle and sheep should be the chief industry, and that the chief products and exports should be hides, wool, preserved meat, extract of beef, tallow, and similar articles of commerce. Nearly a million head of cattle are slaughtered every year. Wheat and maize are the only cereals. There are nearly 500 miles of railway in this state, while there is also water-communication on three sides of the country. 3. Towns.—All the towns are small, except the capital, Monte Video, which has 140,000 inhabitants, and is also the chief seaport. The little town of Paysandu exports preserved meat.

ARGENTINA.

1. The Country.—Argentina or the Argentine Republic is a confederation of republican states which lie on the eastern slopes of the Andes and in the vast plain which stretches from them to the Atlantic Ocean. Five-sixths of the country consist of plains which are almost level. Excluding the "territories," the country has an area of over half-a-million square miles,—that is, more than $2\frac{1}{2}$ times the size of France. The population rises above 4,000,000, of whom about half a million are foreigners, the largest proportion of these being Italians. —Most of Patagonia also belongs to this state.

(i) The old name of Argentina was "The United Provinces of the Rio de la Plata."

(ii) The Fampas extend from 88° to the river Colorado. "Sublime appears, to the wanderer, the vast expanse of this seemingly interminable ocean of grass and flowers, the solemn stillness of which is broken only by the occasional cry of a bird or the roar of the jaguar." "Many men have been known, who, after realising a fortune, returned to Europe to settle, but who, after a few years, are taken with an irresistible yearning for these dreary wastes, and give up everything in the old land to begin life afreach in the Pampas."

2. Products, Trade, and Communications.—In these boundless grassy plains almost the only industry is the rearing of sheep and cattle. The mounted shepherds are a half-breed of Indians called Gauchos, who are extremely skilful in the use of the lasso. In the production of wool, Argentina is second only to Australia. The Confederation is said to possess 20,000,000 horned cattle, 90,000,000 sheep, and 6,000,000 horses. The chief exports are wool, skins, hides, sait beef, frozen mutton, and tallow. In three of the provinces, colonists from Europe have taken up the production of wheat. The largest customer is France ; then Belgium ; and next Great Britain. But Great Britain sells twice as much to the Argentine Republic as France does.—In addition to river communication, there are nearly 6000 miles of railway in the Confederation, and about 30,000 miles of telegraph wire. 3. Towns.—The whole Republic is growing in wealth and in population; and the increase is visible chiefly in the towns. There are five towns with more than 20,000 inhabitants, of which three have more than 50,000. The three largest towns are **Buenos Ayres**; Cordova; and Rosario.

(i) Basenes Ayres (500), on the Plate, is the capital. It has more than doubled its population within the last twenty years; and this is chiefly due to the immigration of Italians. The port has silted up; and vessels are obliged to anchor 12 miles off. Hence a new port, Emenada, has been founded nearer the mouth of the estuary.

(ii) Cordova (70), on a tributary of the Paraná, is the second city in the country.

(iii) Resarie (60), on the Paraná, about 210 miles above Buenos Ayres, is a rising port, which has several lines of steamers to Europe.

4. **Patagonia**.—This immense region is mostly a desert, bleak, barren—hundreds of miles mere beds of shingle, with tufts of coarse grass, and shallow lakes of brine. The Patagonian Indians, who are very tall, hunt the guanaco, the rhea (a three-toed ostrich), and the Patagonian hare.

CHILI.

1. The Country.—Chill is a long narrow strip of land (2200 miles long and only 100 broad), which stretches over 28° of latitude, from the Desert of Atacama to the Straits of Magellan. The cultivated portion consists of a long upland valley between two snow-clad crests of the Cordilleras of the Andes. Owing to the presence of the cold Humboldt Current from the Antartic Ocean, the country enjoys a cooler climate than other South American states. Hence the people are more industrious; and hence also they have been more free from those revolutions which have so often disturbed the progress of industry and commerce in the other republics.—The country has an area of about 297,000 square miles, and is $1\frac{1}{2}$ times as large as Spain. The population numbers about 3,000,000.

2. Products, Trade, and Communications.—Agriculture and mining are the chief industries. Wheat, barley, sugar, and cotton are grown. The staple article of export is nitre; next to it is copper, most of which is bought by Great Britain, and smelted at Swansea. Wheat is also largely exported. Chili is the most enterprising and prosperous of the South American Republics; and it was one of the first states to construct railways. It has now about 1700 miles of railway line. There are about 14,000 miles of telegraph.

(i) "The whole province of Atacama is one vast mine."

(ii) Great Britain carries in \$ths of the imports and takes out \$ths of the exports.

3. Towns.—The towns of Chili are busy, prosperous, and thriving. There are ten towns with more than 10,000 inhabitants; of these, four have over 20,000; and, of these, two over 100,000. The two largest towns are Santiago and Valparaiso.

(i) Santiago (220) is the capital. It stands on a fertile table-land. It is a handsome well-built town. Most of the houses are of one storey, "as a precaution against the frequent and at times terrific earthquakes by which the country is visited."

(ii) Valparaise (120), the chief port of the country, ships wheat, copper, hides, etc.

BOLIVIA.

1. The Country.—Bolivia is an immense country which occupies the table-lands between the Cordilleras, and the eastern slopes of the Andes. The mountain-slopes (or Montana) are drained by the Madeira—the largest tributary of the Amazon. The area of the country amounts to nearly 772,000 square miles—34 times the size of France; but the population is only 2,500,000. The Indians form half of this population; the mestizoes or mixed races, a quarter; and the whites the remaining quarter. The Eastern Cordillera, which is in Bolivia (the Western being in Peru), is one of the grandest ranges in the world, with a series of snowy peaks, some of which tower to the height of 20,000 ft. Bolivia also contains the table-land of Titicaca.

Bolivis received its name from General Bolivar, "the Liberator." It was formerly called Upper Peru.

The highest peaks in the Eastern Cordillera are Illimani (21,000 ft.) and Sorata (21,200 ft.).

2. Products, Trade, and Communications.— The two chief industries are mining and agriculture. All kinds of grain are grown—rice, barley, maize; and cotton, Peruvian bark, coca, coffee, and indigo are

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also raised. The chief metal that is mined is stiver; and two-thirds of all the exports consist of this metal. Great Britain receives mostly nitre and copper. As Bolivia has now no access to the Pacific, the port for the country is Buenos Ayres.—There are no railways.

(i) Gees is one of the most important products of Bolivia. It is the dried leaf of the coca plant, and is chewed along with powdered chalk. It is a "stimulating narcotic," enables one to perform long journeys without food, and to be free from breathlessness in climbing high mountains.

(ii) There is a line of telegraph on the Titicaca Plateau—probably the highest line in the world.

3. Towns.—All the towns of Bolivia are small. There are only four with a population of over 10,000; and only one with more than 20,000. The largest town is La Paz; the capital is Sucré; the most famous town, Potost.

(i) La Pas (56), an old Indian city in "a green depression" on the elevated plateau of Titicaca, is the largest town. "The place is glorified by the sight of the mighty Illimani, on whose eastern slopes all the noble plants of the Tropics, sugar-cane, coffee, oranges, pine-apples, are cultivated."

(ii) Sucré (13), the capital, stands on the water-parting between the basins of the Madeira and the Paraguay.

(iii) Potest (12) is now less productive of silver than it used to be; and the population has in consequence greatly dwindled. "The air here (18, 200 ft.) is so rarefied that the European cannot walk twenty steps without stopping to take breath."

PERU.

1. The Country.—Peru is a country occupying the whole breadth of the Andes, with their eastern slope and a large part of the upper basin of the Amazon. Its area extends over 480,000 square miles; and is therefore about twice that of the whole Austrian Empire. The population is somewhat below 3,000,000, one half of whom are pure Indians.—The country possesses all elevations and therefore all climates—from tropical heat up to polar cold. But there are three regions plainly marked out : (i) the rainless and barren strip of Pacific Coast; (ii) the Sierra or Table-land of the Andes; and (iii) the Montana, the elevated region which embraces the upper basin of the Amazon and the whole of the basin of the Ucayalé.

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(i) "In no part of the world does Nature assume grander, more imposing, or more varied forms than here. Deserts as bare and repulsive as those of the Sahara alternate with valleys as luxuriant as those of Italy."

(ii) "In the coast-plains and valleys there is a strong nightly dew, just enough to call forth a light bright vegetation, only too soon again burnt up by the sun."

2. Products, Trade, and Communications.—In the dense forests on the Andean slopes the cinchona is cultivated for its bark ; on the fertile lands the sugar-cane is grown ; but the most valuable products of Peru are silver, nitre, and guano. From the sheep and the alpaca, a large crop of wool is annually obtained.—The chief articles of export to Great Britain, which is the largest buyer, are guano, nitre, sugar, and wool.—There are more than 1700 miles of railway line in the State ; and one of the lines runs to near the summit of the Andes.

(i) The most important silver-mines are at Cerro de Pasco-the highest town in the world (14,000 ft. above the sea-level). The produce is about 14 million oz.

(ii) Guamo is the droppings of birds, found in deposits sometimes 60 ft. thick, and used in Peru as a manure since the time of the Incas. The chief deposits were on the Chincha Islands; about 8,000,000 tons have been taken from them; and they are now exhausted. There are said to be about 2,000,000 tons in Tarapaca.

3. Towns.—There are four towns with a population of more than 20,000. These are Lima, Callao, Arequips, and Cuzco.

(i) Lima (110), on the Pacific coast-strip, about eight miles from the sea, is the capital. It is one of the greatest seats of trade in South America; and the largest merchants are Germans. It was founded by Pizarro, the Spanish conqueror of the Incas, in 1585; and his bones lie in the Cathedral. The houses are of one storey, as a precaution against earthquakes. The port of Lima is Callao.

(ii) Callac (35) is considered the safest harbour on the west coast of South America.

(iii) Arequips (30) stands high up among the Andes, at the height of nearly 8000 ft. It was almost entirely destroyed by an earthquake in 1868.

(iv) Ounce (20) is the ancient capital of the Empire of the Incas, which once extended over a large part of South America. The Incas built splendid reads and noble aqueducts, and some of their extensive irrigation works are in use at this day. Near Cucco exist the ruins of a large fortress, some of the stones of which exceed 160 tons in weight. "The world has nothing to show, in the way of stone-cutting and fitting, to equal the skill and accuracy displayed in the Inca structures of Cucco. As workers in metals and as potters they displayed infinite variety of design; while, as cultivators and engineers, they in all respects excelled their European conquerors."

ECUADOR.

1. The Country.—Ecuador is a State on the Pacific, and lying under the Equator, with an area of nearly 120,000 square miles about half the size of the Austrian Empire. The population is little over a million, the greater part pure Indians. Most of the people live on the table-land which lies between the chains of the Andes. Ecuador also possesses eastern slopes which throw down streams into the Amazon. It contains the lofty peaks of Chimboraso ("the silver bell"), Cotopaxi, Antisana, etc.

The name is Spanish for Equator.

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(i) "Within a narrow space in the Cordillera of Quito (or the 'Andes of Ecuador') are crowded together a number of the loftlest peaks in America, most of which are burning mountains."

(ii) "Around the valley of Quito there are twenty noble volcanic summits, presenting a beautiful variety of form; here a perfect and there a truncated cone, there a jagged and blasted crest, and there again a smooth and snow-covered dome."

(iii) Sangai is perhaps the most restless volcano in the world. Since the Spanish conquest 300 years ago, it has been in uninterrupted activity. There are small outbursts every fifteen minutes, but "from time to time, especially during the rainy season, the symptoms become more violent, the gigantic jet of molten rock leaps up 2000 ft., the explosions are louder and more terrible than the cannonading of armies, and the noise of the thunders amidst the clouds is answered by still more awful explosions from the inferno below."

(iv) The crater of Pichincha (=Boiling Mountain), "the four-crested and glacierbearing," is believed to be the deepest in the world, 2500 ft. deep, 1500 ft. wide at bottom, and upwards of a mile wide at the mouth.

2. Products, Trade, and Communications.—The chief industry is agriculture; and cacao, india-rubber, coffee, and cinchona bark are produced. By far the largest export is cacao. The chief exports to Great Britain, which is the largest customer of the State, are **Peruvian bark** and cacao. There are about 100 miles of railway in the country.

3. Towns.—The only two towns of any importance are Quito and Guayaquil.

(1) Quite (807), the capital, stands at a height of 9500 ft. above the level of the sea. The houses, of sun-dried brick, are low and squat; and there is not a chimney to be seen. In 1797, 40,000 of its inhabitants perished in an earthquake. Here perpetual spring reigns; and "Evergreen Quito" is its usual name. Eight snow-clad peaks of the Andes look in upon the city; and, in the intensely clear air, and under a sky of a dark deep blue, they seem quite close at hand. "South of Quito is the city of Eiobamba, the road leading to it forming an avenue flanked by fifty volcances on an average as high as Mount Etna, three of them emitting volumes of smoke, and all of them crowded into a space not much greater than the distance from London to Dover."

(ii) Guayaquil (45) is the chief port of the country. Its chief export is cacao.

(iii) Ecuador also possesses the volcanic group of the Galapages Islands, which are so famous for turtle.



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OCEANIA is the name usually given to the countless groups of islands in the Pacific Ocean—including Australia. It is generally divided into three sections : Australasia, in the southern hemisphere ; **Malaysia**, or the East Indian Archipelago, in the west ; and **Polynesia**, in the north and east of the Pacific.

(i) The name Australiais is now generally restricted to Australia, New Zealand, and the neighbouring islands.

(ii) The islands of Malayzia are really continental islands—parts of Asia and of Australia.

(iii) Polynesis includes Melanesis, Micromesis, etc.—all of which consist of true oceanic islands. But the term *Polynesis* is often restricted to those islands which lie in the east of the Pacific.

AUSTRALIA.

1. Introductory.—Australia—a continent which lies entirely within the Southern Hemisphere—is in some respects the most remarkable continent in the world. It is the antipodes of Europe; and it is antipodean in character as well as in position. It is the smallest continent on the edge of the largest ocean. Though nearly as large as Europe, it has only one river of any size or importance; and that Merera, R river does not reach the sea, and sometimes does not flow at all. It is full of other oddities : mammals lay eggs; cherries have their stones outside; trees shed their bark, not their leaves; quadrupeds run on two feet; flowers have no scent; and many birds no song. When the first European settlers visited the country, they found no grain to eat, no domestic animal to give milk or to draw burdens, and not the smallest trace in the continent of what is called civilisation.

The name Australia means "Land of the South," from the Latin Auster, the. South wind.

3. Australia and Africa : a Comparison.—These two continents possess several striking features in common :—

(i) Both are compact in shape, simple in outline, and without limbs or peninsulas.

(ii) Both have their highest ranges of mountains on the eastern edge; and the highest peaks in the south-east.

(iii) Both have extensive deserts in the interior ; with cases in these deserts.

(iv) In both, the volume of water in their longest rivers-the Nile and the Murray -diminishes as they approach the sea.

(v) The east coasts of both are protected—the one by the Great Barrier Reef, the other by the Island of Madagascar.

(vi) Both have a strong current setting south on their east coasts.

4. Position and Boundaries.—Australia lies to the south-east of Asia, and between 10° and 39° South lat. It is bounded—

1. M. -By Torres Strait and the Arafura Sea. 3. S. -By the Southern Ocean.

4. W .- By the Indian Ocean.

2. E. —By the Pacific Ocean.

(i) The shortest line from Australia to England is 9990 miles long.

(ii) Ships go out by the Suez Canal, and return by Cape Horn.



AUSTRALIA

5. Size and Shape.—Australia contains an area of nearly 3,000,000 square miles (with Tasmania); and it is thus about one-fourth smaller than Europe. Its shape is very simple: it is that of an irregular parallelogram.

6. Coast Line.—The coast line of Australia is, like that of Africa, very simple and regular—with a contour wonderfully devoid of inlets. One long peninsula and one broad and deeply-entering gulf are the solitary features that strike us when we look at the map. Opposite the Gulf of Carpentaria in the north stands the fiord-like Spencer Gulf in the south; while York Peninsula is balanced by the island of Tasmania, which was once a part of the mainland. The rest of the coast consists of long stretches of an uniform character unbroken by bays or inlets of any kind. The Great Australian Bight, in the south, is only a shallow curve in the land, and is of no value for shipping.

(i) Gapes.—The chief capes are: Gape York, the most northerly point of York Peninsula and of the whole continent; Cape Byron, the most easterly point; Gape Howe, in the south-east; Wilson Promontory, the point farthest south; Cape Leeuwin (="Lioness"), in the south-west; Steep Point, the most westerly cape; and Cape North-West.

(ii) Bays.—The chief opening are: The Gulf of Carpentaria, on the north; Van Diemen Gulf and Cambridge Gulf, on the north-west; Shark Bay, and Geographe Bay, on the west; the Great Australian Bight, Spencer Gulf, St. Vincent Gulf, and Encounter Bay, on the south; Halifax, Hervey, and Moreton Bays, on the east.

(iii) Straits.—The principal straits are: Torres Strait, between Australia and New Guinea; Bass Strait, between Australia and Tasmania.

(iv) Islands.--The largest islands are: Groote Eylandt (= "Great Island") and Wellesley Island, in the Gulf of Carpentaria; Melville Island, which closes in Van Diemen Gulf; Dampier Archipelage and Dirk Hartog Island, in the west; Kangaroo Island, King Island, and Tasmania, on the south; and Great Sandy Island, on the east.

(v) The Great Barrier Reef, which lies off the coast of Queensland, is one of the most remarkable phenomena in the world. It is composed of a series of coral reefs which stretch for a distance of 1200 miles, from near Hervey Bay to Torres Strait, which it nearly closes. The reef is about 100 miles wide in the south, and grows narrower as it goes north. The channel between it and the shore is from 20 to 70 miles wide; and, being defended from the swell of the Pacific, is always calm. The Barrier is not continuous, but is broken by several deep channels—the largest opposite the mouth

of the Burdekin river. Fresh water is hostile to the formation of coral and hence these openings occur opposite the mouths of rivers.

"The long comm-swell, suddenly impeded by this barrier, lifts itself in one great continuous ridge of deep blue water, which, curling over, falls on the edge of the reef in an unbroken cataract of damiling white foam. Each line of breakers runs often one or two miles in length with not a perceptible gap in its continuity. The unbroken roar of the surf, with its regular pulsation of thunder, as each succeeding swell falls first on the outer edge of the reef, is almost deasfening, yet so deep-toned as not to interfere with the alightest nearer and sharper sound. — JUER.

7. Build.—About three-fourths of the interior of Australia is filled by a low plateau, which rises gradually from south to north, and from west to east. This interior low plateau or plain is a "vast concave table of sandstone," with an area of about 11 million square miles—



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or more than half that of the continent. The central depression is filled by Lake Amadeus. The edges of the plateau are in many parts bordered by terraced ramparts of mountains. Between these mountain-ranges and the sea runs a low plain which varies very much in breadth. About one-quarter of the continent is filled by the fertile basin of the Murray and

its tributaries—a basin which has the highest mountains in Australia on its eastern and south-eastern borders. A narrow continuous plain round the whole coast of the continent, one great interior river-basin, and one vast low plateau—mostly desert,—these are the chief component parts of Australia.

8. Mountains.—The most important mountain-range in Australia runs, with few breaks, between Wilson's Promontory on the south and Cape York on the north. It begins a little to the west of Melbourne, runs east, and then due north, until it ends in the York Peninsula. It goes under the generic name of The Dividing Range, because it divides the exterior plain on the coast from the immensely broad basin of the Murray. In the south-east, this range forms an almost

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continuous cordillera; in the north it is often rather the steep outer edge of the table-land. The whole range becomes lower as it goes north. The highest part is the Warragong Mountains or Australian Alps; and the continent reaches its highest elevation in the Kosciusko Group, the loftiest peak in which is Mount Townsend, 7350 ft. high,—or almost exactly half the height of Mont Blanc.

(i) Although the name Dividing Range is frequently used of the whole cordillers in the south-east and east, the different ranges, some of which are separated from each other by deep depressions, are known by various names. These are, in their order: The Grampians; the Great Dividing Range (north of Melbourne); the Australian Alps; the Blue Mountains; the Liverpool Eange; the New England Range; Darling Downs; etc. etc. Of these, the Australian Alps is the most distinctly marked range, and contains the highest summits.

(ii) The Australian Mountains are much older than most of the mountain-ranges in Europe. Hence they have been much more worn down by weathering, and do not present those sharp shapes and peaks which are called *horns, needles, and teeth*, in the Alps of Europe. These forms have, in Australia, been worn away to blunted shapes, table-lands, etc.; and, in this respect, they are like the Scandinavian Mountains.

(iii) There are no active volcances in Australia; but there are many craters only recently extinct; and much of the fertile soil is of volcanic origin.

9. Plains.—The Lowland Plains consist chiefly of the fertile basin of the Murray, which fills an area of about half a million square miles or more than twice that of the Austrian Empire—and much of which consists of a deep black soil of the richest description. The Upland Plains, which have an average elevation of about 500 ft., are mostly desert, and the arable land in them is found in isolated oases.

(i) In the west, between 20° South lat. and the Tropic of Capricorn, lies the Great Sandy Desert; and, a little north of 80° South lat., the Great Victoria Desert.

(ii) The larger part of the interior of Australia consists of "the most forbidding and desolate regions on the face of the globe." Flat plains, with a sandy or clayey soil of a red colour, more or less charged with salt, and covered with "salt-bush" or with "scrub" with hard or prickly leaves, form the main feature of the interior. The scrub consists of a bushy eucalyptus which grows to the height of eight or ten feet; and which is often so dense as to be quite impenetrable. "Australia, in this respect more African than Africa itself, is essentially the land of wastes and steppes."

10. **Rivers.**—The rivers of Australia are few and small compared with the size of the continent; and they are subject to two serious and opposite disadvantages—they are swollen to overflowing, or dried

up so as to be unnavigable; they are in a state either of drought or of flood. The only river in the continent that can be compared for size with those of the Old and New Worlds is the **Murray**; and even this belongs to a basin of inland drainage. It is 2345 miles long, from its mouth to the source of the **Darling**, its longest tributary; and much of it is a highway of trade for the colony.

(i) The Murray, like the Amazon, draws its waters from the most opposite quarters —from the neighbourhood of the Tropic of Capricorn, and from about 88° South lat. Its chief tributaries are the Murrambidgee, the Lachian, and the Darling. Sometimes the Murray is only a series of water-holes; at other times it is a raging torrent. Like the Amazon, again, it has numerous side-channels, lakes, and lagoons along its course.— The Darling sometimes entirely ceases to flow, and becomes a mere chain of pools. The rainfall soaks through the porous soil and goes into underground reservoirs.

(ii) Of the rivers which flow to the east, the two most important are the Fituroy and Burdekin in Queensland. The others to the east of the Eastern Highlands are short, rapid, and unfit for navigation. The best known of them is the Brisbane.

(iii) On the north coast, the largest rivers are the Flinders, which falls into the Gulf of Carpentaria, and the Victoria, which falls into the Queen's Channel.

(iv) On the west coast, the best-known rivers are the Ashburton and the Swan.

11. Lakes.—To the north of Spencer Gulf lies the "Lake District" of Australia. This region, which has an area of about 10,000 square miles, is "set with lakes," the largest being Lake Eyre. Lake Torrens lies to the south of it, and Lake Gairdner (an immense salt lake) to the west. Far to the north-west lies Lake Amadeus, which often dries up into a plain of saline mud. Lake Alexandrina is a large freshwater lake into which the Murray flows. The depth of the lakes varies very greatly with the dryness or the rainy character of the season.

(i) These "dead masses of salt water" are hardly what are called lakes in other parts of the world. Sometimes they are sheets of shallow water; sometimes saline marshes; sometimes grassy plains or plains of saline mud.

(ii) The remarkable changes and caprices of Australian drought and flood are well illustrated by the alteration that takes place in Lake George (the largest fresh-water lake in Australia), a lake south of Goulburn, in New South Wales. In 1824, it was 20 miles long and 8 miles wide. In 1837, it was a grassy plain. In 1865, its bed was again filled with water, 17 ft. deep.

12. Climate.—Dry heat is the characteristic of the climate of Australia; and this is found all over the continent. Within the tropics,

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summer (November to April) is the rainy season; outside the tropics, the rainy season is in winter (May to October). Sudden variations in temperature are another characteristic of the Australian climate, the thermometer sometimes falling 60° or 70° in a few hours. Hot winds from the interior, like the blast from a furnace, generally laden with fine dust, and called "bursters" or "brick-dusters," sometimes raise the temperature to 115° .

(i) The misfortune of Australia, as regards the supply of rain, is that the mountain-ranges which act as condensers, lie so near the coast. In South America, they are placed as far back as they can be, and the continent benefits by *all* the rain that can be squeezed out of the North-East and the South-East Trades; in Australia, the mountain-ranges are quite near the east coast. The result is that the narrow plain on the coast gets more rain than it needs; and when the rain-bearing winds have crossed the mountains and table-lands into the interior, the great heat there dissipates the clouds, and does not permit them to condense into rain.

(ii) Captain Sturt, in the desert interior, found the thermometer rise to 127°; and the mercury then burst the tube. For three months it was 161° in the shade. "Every screw came out of the boxes; the horn handles of instruments and the combs split up into fine laminæ; the lead dropped out of the pencils; the hair stopped growing; and the finger-nails became brittle as glass."

(iii) Rain sometimes falls in terrible floods; and this heavy rain is alternated with long periods of complete drought. The Hawkesbury river once rose 93 ft. above its ordinary level; and hundreds of persons only escaped by climbing high trees. In 1884 there was no rain; and 10,000,000 of sheep died of thirst. From time to time, there is no rain for periods of two or three years : every blade of grass dies; and the rivers shrink into straggling water-holes.

13. Vegetation.—The flora of Australia is quite unique—altogether different from that of other parts of the globe. It is very rich in species, which number about 10,000—much more than are to be found in all Europe. The most characteristic trees are the eucalypti and accetas; and the vegetable feature peculiar to Australia is "scrub." No grains, fruits, or edible roots are native to Australia; but those imported by the colonists—the vine, fig, orange, peach, etc., and grains such as wheat and maise—flourish and produce in a manner that far surpasses European fruits and grains.

(i) The excelyptus or gum-tree is a prominent feature in the Australian landscape. It often attains a height of more than 250 ft., with a girth of about 20 ft. One failen tree was discovered of the length of 480 ft. (much higher than St. Paul's); and this

was probably the grandest tree in the world. The different species—red gum, blue gum, stringy bark, iron bark, etc.—are greatly valued for their timber. Their leaves are thick and leathery; and, by a twist in the stalk, the edge of the leaf is vertical instead of being parallel to the ground. They shed—not their leaves—but their bark. There are also large-leaved fig-trees that rival the gum-trees in height.

(ii) The grass-trees form another peculiar feature in the landscape. From their rugged stems springs a tuft of drooping wiry foliage, from the centre of which rises a spike. When it flowers in winter, this spike becomes covered with white stars; and a heath covered with grass-trees has the most singular and beautiful appearance.

(iii) The acacias, or 'wattles," abound everywhere in the country, and are covered with yellow blossoms which are generally fragrant.

(iv) The Australian bush is fragrant all the year. The "Mallee scrub" is a low eucalyptus, which grows so close that it is often quite impenetrable. "The surface of the country seems like a heaving ocean of dark waves, out of which, here and there, a tree starts up above the brushwood, making a mournful and lonely landmark."

(v) One of the most striking plants of Australia is the "flame-tree." When it is covered with its large bunches of red flowers, "it renders the Illawarra mountains conspicuous for miles out at sea."

(vi) The imported "Scotch thistle" has multiplied so rapidly as to become a serious nulsance; and the different governments have to spend large sums in the endeavour to exterminate it.—Nettles often grow to the height of 50 ft.

14. Animals.—The fauna of Australia is even odder and more peculiar than its flora. The mammalia of other continents are completely absent; and the tiger, elephant, and rhinoceros of Java and Sumatra, are wholly wanting. The characteristic animals are marsupials or pouch-bearing mammalia. The largest marsupial is the kangaroo. Among the carnivora, the most formidable is the native dog or dingo. The oddest animal is the platypus or duck-bill. Like the plants of Australia, the native animals are of no service to man; but the imported animals,-horses, sheep, and oxen,-grow, increase, and exist in almost countless numbers.-The birds excel those of other temperate lands in beauty of plumage and elegance of form ; and there are more species than in Europe ; but they are songless. Birds that feed on flowers are very numerous. Large birds of the ostrich type, such as the emu and cassowary, are very characteristic of Australia.-The continent is also rich in insects, which are both beautiful and peculiar.-Most of the snakes are poisonous.

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(i) The smaller species of marsupials are the wallaby, the est-kangaree, and the hare-kangaree. The flying-meuse, a kind of small flying opessum, is "able to sleep in a good sized pill-box." The keels creeps slowly about at night on trees in search of fruit and seeds.

(ii) The platypus (or ornithorhynchus), duck-bill or duck-mole, is a mammal about 20 inches long, with broad webbed feet, flat horny bill (not fastened to the skeleton) like the bill of a duck; is amphibious, and lays eggs.—The echidma or "porcupine ant-eater," is also a mammal which lays eggs.

(iii) Of the imported animals, the rabbit and the sparrow have proved the most terrible and expensive nuisances. In New South Wales alone, 2000 men are permanently employed in trying to exterminate the rabbit, which desolates wide tracts of country by eating up the herbage. In Victoria, the damage done by the rabbit in ten years is estimated at £3,000,000.—The sparrow is also a great pest; and large sums have to be paid for the destruction of these birds and their eggs.

(iv) The regent-bird, the rife-bird, the fly-catcher, and the lyre-bird are remarkable for beauty.—The brush-birds do not sit on their eggs, but bury them under heaps of earth and vegetable matter, to be hatched by the heat of the sun. The bower-bird builds a bower-like structure of twigs and branches, and decorates it with feathers, bones, and shells.

15. Minerals.—Australia is very rich in minerals. Gold, copper, tin, iron, and coal are found in large quantities in all the colonies; and some silver is also produced in New South Wales.

(i) Gold is the most important metal found in Australia; and Victoria is the colony that has produced most. In the last forty years, about £200,000,000 worth has been mined. The total yield of Australia is nearly £300,000,000; but the supply has been rapidly decreasing for some time. Gold is also found in Queensland, where the chief miners are Chinese.

(ii) South Australia is the chief producer of copper.

- (iii) Tin-mines of great value have been opened up in Queensland.
- (iv) Iron is plentiful in most of the colonies.

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- (v) There are extensive coal-fields in New South Wales and in Queensland.
- (vi) Precious stones, such as the garnet, ruby, and sapphire, are found.

16. Inhabitants.—Like its flora and its fauna, the human natives of Australia are isolated, peculiar and unique. The Australian aborigines are said to belong to the Austral-Negro family. They are fast disappearing, and now number little over 30,000—which is only about one for every ten square miles.—Of settlers, there are now on the continent about 3,000-all speaking the English language, and almost all of British descent.

The native Australian is of the average European height, has a very lean body no calves (as is general with the dark races), nose broad and fleshy, complexion coffee-brown, much hair—curly but not woolly, and a long narrow head with low brow. He is one of the most degraded of savages—without house or domestic animals, with no weaving, no pottery, and no religion. His language can count up to *five*—and no further. He lives on shell-fish, lizards, snakes, frogs, worms, insects, grubs, etc. He sometimes eats his own children. The chief occupation of the men is hunting and war; of the women, getting food and cooking it.

17. Roads and Railways.—Like all "new" countries, Australia is better supplied with railways than with roads. All the large cities and towns have railways connecting them; and it is thus easier to go long distances than short ones. The cheap labour—easily found in old countries—necessary to construct roads, is almost totally wanting in Australia.

(i) "Railways may be said to have superseded roads before the latter were made."

(ii) "Most of the communication, even by mail-coaches, is carried on by mere tracks through the bush, without the vestige of anything that can be called a road."

18. Divisions.—Australia contains several divisions called colonies, which were "settled" at different periods, and all of which have separate governments and parliaments, with governors appointed by the Queen at home. They are : Victoria, New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia, and West Australia (which, however, has no parliament of its own). The smallest of these is Victoria, but it contains the largest population ; while West Australia is by far the largest, and yet has the smallest population.

(i) West Australia is governed by the Colonial Office,

(1) Victoria, Queensland, Tasmania, West Australia, and the Fiji, Islands have formed a Federation Commonwell with mith h. 3. Us S. australia under god appointed by Crown. 1901.

¹¹19. **VICTOBIA.**—This, the smallest but most wealthy, most manufacturing, and most populous of all the Australian Colonies, was once called Australia Felix from the beauty and fertility of the whole country. It is a little larger than Great Britain. It is bounded on the north by the Murray; on the west by South Australia; on its other sides by the sea. Through the south of Victoria run the

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Pyrenees, the Grampians, the Great Dividing Range; and, in the east, the Australian Alps. It has a population of more than a million-4/4630000. inhabitants. It has few navigable rivers.

(i) Victoria was cut out of New South Wales in 1850 and named after our Queen. The capital Melbourne was named after the then Prime Minister.

(ii) The boundary line on the west is the 141st meridian.

(iii) The density of population is about 13 per square mile. Much of the surface is mountainous or hilly; and there is a great sandy desert in the north-west. But west of Melbourne there are enormous numbers of extinct volcances; and, where these occur, the soil is extremely rich.

20. Industries and Commerce.—The chief industries are sheepfarming, agriculture, and mining. By far the largest export is wool; next, though at a distance, come gold, and breadstuffs. The largest imports are cotton, timber, iron, and coal. There are about 2000 miles of railway in the colony, with over 4000 miles of telegraph line.

(i) Wool is exported to the value of about £5,000,000.

(ii) The export of gold has fallen to less than £2,000,000; but, twenty years ago, it amounted to nearly £10,000,000.

(iii) The exports to the United Kingdom amount yearly to about £6,000,000; the imports from this country to nearly £6,000,000.

21. Towns.—There are in Victoria four towns with a population of more than 20,000 persons. These are Melbourne, Ballarat, Sandhurst, and Geelong. Melbourne is the capital, and also the largest commercial and manufacturing town.

(i) MELBOURNE (450), on the Yarra, has grown in the last forty years into a town nearly as large as Liverpool. It stands on seven hills which rise gradually from the Yarra, and is one of the best built and noblest cities in the world. Wide streets with high and beautiful buildings on each side, large public parks and luxuriant gardens, magnificent public edifices built of an almost imperishable stone distinguish Melbourne among other cities. It has also a noble University and a fine Free Library. Its two suburbs, St. Kilda and Brighton, stand on the lovely shores of Port Phillip.

(ii) Ballarat (40) is one of the most famous gold-mining towns in the world. The gold was at first found in great quantities in the alluvial soil; but this has been worked out, and gold is now got by crushing the quartz "reefs."

(iii) Sandhurst (37), another gold-mining town, about 100 miles from Melbourne.

(iv) Geelong (25) is a town on a branch of Port Phillip Bay which manufactures "tweeds."-Echuca is the rising inland-port of Victoria.

Others towns, Castlemain & Warran bool.

22. NEW SOUTH WALES.—This colony, the oldest in Australia, is about 900 miles long by 600 broad. It is about ten times the size of Ireland. It consists of mountain, table-land, and plain. The chief ranges running through it are the Blue Mountains, the Liverpool Range, and the New England Range. Its population is smaller than that of Victoria, though its area is four times as large.

(i) It is bounded on the north by Queensland; on the east by the Pacific; on the south by Victoria; and on the west by South Australia.

(ii) The population of the colony gives only about 8½ persons to the square mile. This is due to three causes: (a) its mineral treasures are more thinly distributed;
(b) the arable lands occur as cases dotted at wide intervals over the country; (c) the rainfall, at a distance of 150 miles inland, ceases to be sufficient for crops.

23. Industries and Commerce.—The chief industries are sheepfarming and agriculture; and there is also some mining. The chief exports are wool; silver,—at a great distance; coal, and tin. The largest imports are those of drapery and clothing. The largest trade is done with Great Britain, which takes about half the exports, and sends a third of the imports, amounting to about £7,000,000.—There are about 2000 miles of railway in the colony, with 22,000 miles of telegraph wire.

(i) There are more than 50 million sheep in the colony; and the annual export of weel amounts to over £10,000,000, of which Great Britain takes more than \$ths

(ii) New South Wales is richer in coal than any other Australian colony; about 3,000,000 tons are raised annually.

(iii) Since gold-mining began, the product of gold down to 1888 is about £40,000,000; of coal, about £20,000,000.

24. Towns.—There is only one large town in New South Wales— Sydney, the capital. There are only four other towns with a population of over 10,000—Maitland, Newcastle, Paramatta, and Bathurst.

(i) STDEET (400), the oldest city in Australia, is the capital of New South Wales. Its commanding situation on a splendid harbour, and its broad streets, with noble public buildings, have earned for it the title of "Queen of the South." Its natural situation makes it one of the finest cities in the world: the sea, with its coves, bays, and inlets, looks in upon it everywhere; its rugged promontories, beautiful gardens, its mingling of sea and land, hill and valley, rock and wood and grassy slopes, its combination of the most luxuiant vegetation both of tropical and temperate

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sones, startle and delight the visitor at every turn. Port Jackson may be compared with the harbour of Rio Janeiro.

"So inexpressibly lovely is Port Jackson that it makes a man ask himself whether it would not be worth his while to move his goods to the eastern coast of Australia, in order that he might look on it as long as be can look at anything."-TROLLOFE.

(ii) Maitland, on the Hunter, owes its wealth to the floods of that river, which annually bring down new soil to the surrounding country.

(iii) Newcastle is the principal shipping port on the east coast; it is second only to Sydney. It ships chiefly coal.

(iv) Paramatta, a little to the north of Sydney, is famous for its luscious fruits-its orchards and orangeries.

(v) Batherst is the principal town in the colony on the western slopes. It stands in the middle of the chief wheat-growing district of the colony, and also in the neighbourhood of gold mines.

25. QUEENSLAND.—This is the most northerly colony in Australia, the one which has most land within the tropics, and which has therefore the hottest climate. It is 1300 miles long, 800 broad; and its area is more than three times the size of France. Ranges of mountains run along the coast; and it has more table-land than any other colony. Half of its whole area is covered with forest. It has four slopes; and its rivers flow in four directions—north, south, east, and west. The Fituroy and the Burdekin are the most important, as they bring down large quantities of fertilising sediment. The population is half a million; the land could support hundreds of millions.

(i) There are about 10,000 Chinese, at work chiefly in the gold mines; and about 10,000 "Kanakas" (=men)—Polynesians imported from the neighbouring islands— chiefly engaged in growing sugar.

(ii) There are perhaps 12,000 aborigines-mostly in York Peninsula.

26. Industries and Commerce.—The chief industries are sheeprearing, mining, and agriculture. The leading grain-crop is maize; and the cultivation of sugar is a growing industry. The chief articles of export are wool, gold, and sugar. The principal imports are iron, clothes, and cottons.—There are about 2000 miles of railway in the colony, and 9000 miles of telegraph line.

There is in Queensland a coal-field as large as the whole of Scotland; but the coal is not yet worked, for want of easy access to the sea. 27. Towns.—The only town of any importance is Brisbane, the capital. The only other towns with a population of over 10,000 are Rockhampton and Maryborough.

(i) BRIEBANE (30) stands on the river Brisbane, about 500 miles north of Sydney. The botanical gardens are full of interesting tropical plants.

(ii) Rockhampton is a growing port for metallic ores on the Fitzroy.

(iii) Maryborough, on the Mary, is a rising centre of the sugar industry.

28. SOUTH AUSTRALIA.—This is the second largest colony on the continent; but only a very small portion of it is settled. It is about 2000 miles long by 800 wide; and its area contains nearly a million square miles. But it is only the southern part that is inhabited, and that by only about 350,000 persons. The chief mountain-range is Flinders Range; and the chief river in the interior is Finke Creek, which sometimes dries up before it can reach Lake Eyre. The lower part of the Murray flows through South Australia.

(i) South Australia proper begins at 20° South lat.; the northern part is called the Morthern Territory, which is mostly desert, with a few fertile spots.

(ii) The settled part of South Austr dia is not much larger than Scotland.

(iii) The Murray falls into Lake Alexandrina, a wide shallow sheet of fresh water; so that the whole of its basin may be regarded as a continental basin.

(iv) The Morthern Territory is mostly desert; but, in the hotter and more fertile parts, Chinese are engaged in growing tropical products. There are also rich goldfields. The chief town is Paimersten, on the magnificent harbour of Port Darwin.

29. Industries and Commerce.—South Australia is the chief wheatgrowing colony on the continent; and the wheat area is about half the size of Scotland. In addition to agriculture, the chief industries are mining, aheep-rearing, and wine-making. The chief exports are wool, wheat, and copper. The principal imports are iron, clothing, cottons, woollens, machinery, etc. Great Britain takes most of the exports, and sends most of the imports. There are about 1800 miles of railway; and 6000 miles of telegraph line.

(i) The most important agricultural products are wheat, wine, and olive-oil.

(ii) We buy from South Australia about £2,000,000 worth of wool a year.

(iii) Copper constitutes the chief mineral wealth of the colony. Barra Barra was once the great copper-mine ; but it has been eclipsed by Wallaree, on Spencer Gulf.

AUSTRALIA

(iv) The Overland Telegraph Line of South Australia is one of the greatest wonders of the world. A line, 1973 miles long, stretching across a whole continent, from Adelaide to Port Darwin, and crossing a series of deserts, most of them entirely waterless, with tracks to be cleared through almost impenetrable scrub, with drought to be fought by the engineers in one place and floods in another, with food and all materials to be carted hundreds of miles, and all this done by one of the poorest Australian colonies, must command our admiration and respect.

30. Towns.—There is only one town of any importance in South Australia; and that is Adelaide, the capital. The other towns are very small; for most of the inhabitants are engaged in agriculture.

(i) ADELAIDE (70; but, within a radius of ten miles, 150) stands on the little river Torrens. The city is backed by the Mount Lofty Range, in which reservoirs have been constructed capable of holding 1,000,000,000 gallons of water. The botanic gardens rank next to those of Sydney.

(ii) Port Adelaide stands about 7 miles from the city of Adelaide.

31. WEST AUSTRALIA.—This colony occupies nearly one-third of the whole continent; but most of it is desert, only three small portions on the coast are settled, and the total inhabitants amount to only 50,000—the number of a small English town. This is only one person to about 27 square miles. But the colony is growing. Its chief exports are wool and gold. The capital is Perth, on the Swan river. There are about 500 miles of railway and 3000 miles of telegraph line.

(i) In the last few years the colony has prospered greatly. The revenue has risen, and the population has increased. This is due to the greatly extended discovery of gold, notably at the now famous **Coolgardie** fields. In 1890 the gold export was £36,000; to-day it is considerably over a million.

(ii) The Ximberley District, in the north, seems now to be the rising portion of the colony. And this also for three reasons: (a) the discovery of a gold-field; (b) the discovery of rich grassy plains; and (c) the growth of the pearl-fisheries.

(iii) The two best things in West Australia are its timber and its fine climate. The gigantic Karri—one of the tallest trees in the world, and the jarrah, which grows a wood that resists the white ant on land and the ship-worm at sea, are two trees which yield large quantities of excellent timber.—The climate is one of the finest known—hot, dry, and also bracing. "It is a climate such as no other in the world can excel, and few equal, for health-giving attributes."

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onwealth of Lasmania included in Comm Australia. 1901. 460

32. TASMANIA.-The colony of Tasmania is an island which is as large as Scotland without its attendant islands. It has a long and irregular coast line, with many good harbours. It is perhaps the most thoroughly mountainous island on the globe, and has been called "the Switzerland of the South." A high table-land fills the middle of the island; and on and round this rise mountain-ranges and peaks, and from it run down four slopes. Mountain, table-land, valley, ravine, and glen are mingled in the most picturesque con-The two largest valleys-those of the Derwent and the Tamar fusion. -run south and north. There are many other smaller rivers, which never fail for want of water, which flow through picturesque scenery and magnificent forests, and are adorned with splendid waterfalls. There are numerous alpine lakes on the central table-land-the highest being Great Lake and Lake St. Clair. The climate is cooler and the air more refreshing than that of Australia; and hence the island has become a health-resort. The capital is Hobart ; and the chief port, Launceston. The chief exports are wool, tin, fruit, timber, and gold.—The population of the whole island is only about 12000 -half the population of Bristol.

(i) The highest mountains, which just exceed 5000 ft., are Oradle Mountain in the west, and Ben Lomond in the east. They are snow-capped for most of the year.

(ii) The most remarkable mammals are the "Tiger-wolf"-the largest of all carnivorous marsupials, and the "Tasmanian Devil."

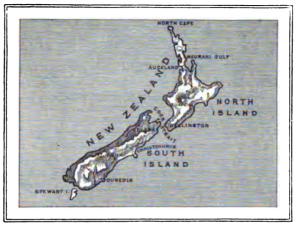
(iii) The aborigines are completely extinct.

(iv) There are about 400 miles of railway-the chief line being between Hobart and Launceston. There are about 2000 miles of telegraph line.

(v) HOBART (30), on the Derwent, at the end of the island furthest from Australia. stands at the foot of the noble Mount Wellington. It has a very good harbour. "It is surrounded by hills and mountains," says Mr. Trollope, "from which views can be had which would make the fortune of any district in Europe. And the air of Hobart is perfect air." It is famous for its excellent fruits. Launceston, on the Tamar, has a fair amount of trade and shipping, which its situation near Australia brings to it. Beaconsteld is the capital of the gold-mining district.

(vi) Tasmania receives most of its imports (clothing, iron, cottons, etc.) from Victoria ; and the next largest quantity from Great Britain.

33. NEW ZEALAND.—The group of islands which lie between 34° and 47° S. lat,-entirely in the Temperate Zone, about 1200 miles from Australia, is called New Zealand. This group consists of two large islands—North Island and South Island, and one very small one—



Stewart Island. The two larger islands are together a little more than twice the size of England without Wales. Their surface is highly mountainous; and one long cordillera runs through both islands from south to north. The islands are well watered; and there are numerous lakes and rivers. The coast line is long; and there are many good harbours. The South Island is remarkable for long narrow fiords called "Sounds," with high steep cliffs hemming them in.

(i) The North and South Islands are separated by Cook Strait; South Island is separated from Stewart Island by Foveaux (Fovö) Strait.

(ii) North Island has an area of 45,000 square miles ; South Island about 58,000.

(iii) Many parts of New Zealand remind one of the romantic scenery of Scotland. A New Zealander, after seeing Scotland, will say: "There is no place in the world like Scotland, except New Zealand." And a Scotchman says: "There is no place in the world like New Zealand, except Scotland."

34. Build.—Both islands are mountainous, and even rugged, with narrow plains on the west, and broader plains on the east side. The South Island is the more mountainous of the two; and the lofty range runs very near to the western coast. The mountain-range in this island is called the Southern Alps; and the highest point in it is

Mount Cook, which attains the height of 12,350 ft.—a little less than that of Mont Blanc.—The highest mountains in the North Island lie nearer to the eastern coast, and are all volcanic. The loftiest peak in that island is Mount Egmont (8270 ft.).—The largest lake in New Zealand is Lake Taupo (in North Island); and the largest river is Waikato, which is the outlet of Lake Taupo. The widest plain is that on the eastern side of the South Island,—and is called Canterbury Plains.—Evidences of volcanic action—past or present—abound almost everywhere in New Zealand, more especially in the centre of the North Island.

(i) The Southern Alps rise above the line of perpetual snow; and their higher valleys are filled with large glaciers, the lower with beautiful lakes.

(ii) Mount Egmont is a regularly shaped, snow-topped, volcanic cone which stands by itself in the south-west corner of the North Island, and rises "in solitary grandeur."

(iii) Lake Tampo is a "veritable inland sea," about six times the size of Loch Lomond; and of an unknown depth. It is said to be the old crater of an extinct volcano. It is surrounded by volcanic deposits which form a table-land rising 1000 ft. above its surface.

(iv) The Walkato, about 25 miles from its outlet, passes through a most striking group of hot springs. "Along its banks white clouds of steam ascend from hot cascades falling into the river, and from basins of boiling water shut in by white masses of stone. Steaming fountains rise at short intervals, sometimes two or more playing simultaneously."—The active volcano of Tongariro rises a few miles off. —Farther north is a zone of hot springs, solfataras, fumaroles, and mud volcanoes, more than a thousand in number. There is nothing like it anywhere else in the world.—The Molynexx or Gutaba is the largest river in the South Island.

(v) The Lake District, which lies north-east of Lake Taupo, is, in its own fashion, the most remarkable region in the world. It is famous for its wonderful collection of geysers, sulphurous springs, palatial terraces, lovely natural baths, edged with finity deposits which look like tinted marble-pink or white, and filled with hot transparent water of the clearest and strongest blue. The pure white of the finity deposits, the intense blue of the waters, the vivid green of the surrounding vegetation, the bright red of the bare earth, the whiling clouds of steam-all go to form a scene which is unequalled on the face of the globe. (The pink and white terraces were lately destroyed by the eruption of a neighbouring volcano.)

35. Climate, Vegetation, etc.—The climate of New Zealand is like that of England—only warmer and more equable. The sea-breezes temper the summer heat, and add warmth to the air in winter. The



prevalent winds are north-west, cross a great breadth of ocean, and are laden with moisture ; hence the west coasts are much more rainy than the east.—The timber belongs chiefly to the tribe of pines ; and the **Kauri pine** is the most valuable tree in the islands. There are no native grains or fruits ; and those now cultivated were introduced by the settlers.—The fauna of New Zealand is very peculiar : there are no marsupials at all ; and a quaint native bird is a wingless running bird called the **apteryx**.

(i) Forests covering about 12,000,000 acres are a characteristic feature in New Zealand. Kauri gum, a product of the Kauri pine, used for fine varnishes, is found in the soil on the sites of old Kauri forests, and at the foot of growing trees. The Kauri pine itself supplies excellent timber.

(ii) The only native mammals are two small kinds of bat.—There are no snakes.— There are four kinds of apteryx—without wings or tail-feathers, and a little larger than a hen. They have short legs, bills like a snipe's, and long brown hair-like feathers.

36. Industries and Commerce.—The chief industries are sheepfarming, agriculture, and mining. By far the largest export is wool; and after it, though at a great distance, come gold, grain, frozen meat, and Kauri gum. Much the largest trade is done with Great Britain (the exports and imports to and from England amount to about \pounds 11,000,000); and the Australian Colonies have also considerable commercial dealings with New Zealand.

(i) The colony owns about 20,000,000 sheep.

(ii) The total value of the gold raised in New Zealand since r857 amounts to £45,000,000.—There are also numerous coal-mines in the colony.

(iii) The chief ports are: (a) In the North Island: Auckland, Mapier, and Wellington;(b) in the South Island: Melson and Dansdin.

(iv) There are nearly 2000 miles of railway in both islands; and nearly 5000 miles of telegraph.

37. Towns.—There are only four towns in New Zealand with a population of over 20,000 inhabitants. These are Auckiand, the largest, and Wellington in North Island; Dunedin and Christchurch in the South Island.

(i) Auchiand (60) stands on an excellent harbour in the beautiful Gulf of Hauraki. It is the largest city in New Zealand, and was at one time the seat of government.

(ii) WELLINGTON (30) is the capital of New Zealand. It stands on Cook Strait, about 1200 miles from Sydney.

(iii) Dunsdin) (50), the capital of the old province of Otago, is the largest commercial eity in the colony. It is inhabited chiefly by Scotchmen.

(iv) Christchurch (46), the "City of the Plains," is the capital of the province of Canterbury. It has a beautiful situation on the river Avon. Its port is Lyttelton.

(v) The population of the whole of New Zealand is about 650,000 (less than the population of Glasgow), of whom about 40,000 are Maories. The Maories are not a native race; but came originally from some island in Polynesia.

POLYNESIA.

1. Introductory.—Polynesia is the name generally given to all the islands in the Pacific Ocean. But the Pacific Islands are more correctly divided into three groups : Melanesia, Micronesia, and Polynesia.

Polynesis means the "Region of Many Islands," from the Greek polys, many, and mesos, an island. Melenesis means the "Black-Island Region" (meles, black); and Micromesis, the "Region of Small Lands" (mikros, small).

(i) The countless islands of Polynesia are partly of volcanic, partly of coral formation; and sometimes a combination of both. The coral islands are by far the more numerous. These consist of atolls or low reefs, only a few feet above the sealevel, and enclosing a central lagoon. The volcanic islands, again, are often surrounded by reefs of coral, which the coral polype has built on the submarine slopes of the mountains whose roots go deep down into the sea.

(ii) The Sandwich, Society, and Friendly (or Tonga) Islands are all volcanic; the Carolines, Marshall Islands, and Low Archipelago are the work of the coral polype.

2. The **Two Chief Groups.**—The two most important island-groups in the Pacific Ocean are the **Sandwich Islands** in the north (lat. 20° N.), and the Fiji Islands in the south (lat. 20° S.) They are about 4000 miles from each other. Both are places of call for British and American steamers running between the three continents of Asia, America, and Australia; and both are destined to become great centres of oceanic trade.

(i) The Sandwich Islands lie a little south of the Tropic of Cancer. The group consists of seven inhabited volcanic islands—the largest of which is Hawaii, and the second largest Oahu. The total area of all is a little larger than Yorkshire. The group is "an earthly Paradise, washed by the soft blue and sunny waters of the Pacific, and breathed on by mild and balmy zephyrs." The people are gay and light-

POLYNESIA

hearted idlers. They gallop on their ponies over the white sands, and disport themselves on the white creats of the surging billows.—Hawaii is a naked and waterless iron-bound island—a mass of lava, full of volcances. There are four active volcances —three of them the highest mountains in Polynesia; and the two highest are Mama Kee (15,840 ft.), and Mama Lee (13,650 ft.). Near Mauna Lee is Kliaues, the most remarkable volcance in the world. Its crater is a fathomless oval abyas, filled with a glowing lake of boiling lava, which rises and falls at regular intervals.—The soil of the islands is extremely fartile; and the chief crops are sugar and rice. The capital is Monohak (on Oshu), a splendid land-locked harbour, with wate deep enough for the largest steamers. American influence is strongest in the islands.

(ii) The Fiji Islands (which belong to Great Britain) lie a little north of the Tropic of Capricorn. There are more than 200 islands; about 80 are inhabited. The largest is Viti Leva, a little more than 3ds the size of Yorkshire; the second largest is Vanua Leva. Both are mountainous (the highest peaks about 5000 ft.), of volcanic origin, well wooded, and extremely fertile. The eastern or "weather-side" of the islands is one dense mass of tropical vegetation, one unbroken green mantle of huge trees, countiess creepers, and other plants. The lee side is a grassy country dotted with screw-pines.—The Fijians are a dark-coloured, frizzly-haired, bearded race, tall, muscular, and well-formed. They were once cannibals. The principal products of the islands are sugar, copra, and bananas.—The capital is Sava (on Viti Levu); the only other town of any size is Levaka.—There is regular steam-communication to New Zealand, Australia, and Great Britain.

3. MELANESIA.—The groups of islands which go by the name of Melanesia lie between the Moluccas and the Fiji Islands. The inhabitants belong to the Papuan Race. By far the largest island is Papua or New Guinea. The important groups are the Bismarck Archipelago, the Salomon Islands, the New Hebrides, New Caledonia, and the Fiji Islands.

(i) New Geines is the largest island in the world. It has an area of 300,000 square miles —ten times the size of Scotland, or one-fourth larger than the whole Austrian Empire. It lies between the Equator and Torres Strait, and has the Moluccas on the west of it. The island is very mountainous; and the height of some of the mountains in the interior has been estimated at 18,000 ft.—by far the loftiest summits which rise within the space between the Himalayas and the Andes. The lofty well-marked range in the east of the island is called Owen Stanley. The soil is exceedingly fertile; and the country is overgrown with dense virgin forests. Gigantic trees, matted together with lianas, shut out the rays of the sun. Tree-ferns, palms, orchids, cinnamon-trees, and figs are very common. Animals are scarce; and the largest mammal is the wild pig. But the island is rich in birds-of-paradise, king-fishers, parrots, and pigeons. The Papuan race is of a deep sooty-brown or black complexion, with dry and woolly hair, which grows in one large firm mass of dense curis. (The word popus means "woolly-haird.")

The island is held by three European powers: the Dutch in the western half; the Germans in the north-east; and the English in the south-east.

(ii) Bismarck Archipelage is the new name for the group formerly called New Britain, which was seized by the Germans. The separate islands have been rechristened New Mecklenburg (formerly New Ireland), New Pomerania (New Britain before), etc. There is an active volcano on New Pomerania. The people are cannibals.

(iii) The Salemon Islands are a volcanic group (nowalso in German hands); and there is at least one active volcano. The forest trees are magnificent; and tree-ferms grow to the height of 40 ft. Sandal-wood, ebony, and lignum-vite grow in these islands.

(iv) The New Hebrides, to the south-east, are also a volcanic group, with some small outlying coral-reef islands. Some of the volcances are in constant activity.

(v) New Caledonia is the most southerly of the Melanesian Islands. The country is very mountainous. Some gold and much nickel are found. In the rocks. The island belongs to France and is used as a penal settlement.

(vi) The Piji Islands, which belong to Britain, are the last group in Melanesia.

4. MICRONESIA.—The groups of islands in the region known as Micronesia rise from three submarine plateaus, and are mostly of coral formation. From the most easterly plateau rise the Gilbert and Marshall Islands; from the middle plateau, the Carolines; and, from the north-westerly, the Marianne or Thieves Islands.

(i) The Gibert Archipelage consists of 16 islands, all coral reefs or atolls. Their greatest height above the sea-level is 20 ft. The soil is only a few inches in depth; and the chief crop is coccoa-nuts. In spite of this apparent poverty, these islands are the most densely peopled in the Pacific. Some of the islands form one great village; and the average for the whole is 330 persons to the square mile. Great numbers of fish are caught in the lagoons.

(ii) The Marshall Archipelage is also entirely of coral growth. Most of the group are lagoon-islands. There are 30 distinct atolls. The population is only 10,000.

(iii) The Carolines are a series of islands which stretch across 2000 miles of sea. With one exception, they are all lagoon formations. On the low islands, the breadfruit; on the others, the *taro*, is the principal food.

(1y) The Mariannes belong to them. They contain many extinct volcances, But gram helong to america a speil of spanish class in 1899. & Spain retain evalory stations in and group. 5. POILVWEETA _ BUT-

5. POLYNÉSIA.—Polynesia Proper lies between 20° S. and 20° N. lat. The most important groups are the Tonga or Friendly Islands; the Samoa Group; the Society Islands; the Paumotu or Low Archipelago; the Marquesas and the Sandwich Islands. The inhabitants belong mostly to the one race of Brown Polynesians.

POLYNESIA

(i) The Friendly Islands consist entirely of coral or of volcanic deposits, and are all low. The largest island is Tongataba; and steamers both from Australia and New Zealand call there on their way to the Sandwich Islands. There are several active volcances. The natives, who are "Fair Polynesians," are the cleverest of all the South Sea Islanders in making tools, weapons, dresses, etc.

(ii) The Samea Group are also volcanic, and are said to be among the loveliest islands in the Pacific. Coccos-nuts are largely grown for exportation.

(iii) The Society Islands are in the hands of the French, who also hold the Low and Marquesas Archipelagoes. The chief member of the group is Tahiti, one of the grandest, strangest, and most picturesque countries in the world. It is entirely composed of lava, and the mountains—which are everywhere—take the most extraordinary shapes. The island "rises like an amphithestre in a succession of bold circular terraces towards the central peaks;" and the roads into the interior are through the most romantic valleys and deep gorges. The highest point is nearly 8000 ft. high. "The wayfarer is soothed by the fragrance of sweet-smelling flowers, while his ears are ravished by the music of various songsters arrayed in the brilliant plumage of the tropics." This terrestrial Eden is peopled by one of the finest races in the world; but the natives are dying out. Oranges and cocos-nuts are the chief products. The capital is Papeets. The chief exports are cocos-nuts, mother-of-pearl, a.d cotton to England; oranges and trepang to China.

(iv) The Low Archipelage consists of about 80 islets encircled by coral atolls-very thinly peopled, very flat, and without rivers. They possess rich pearl-fisheries.

(v) The Marquesas are all of volcanic origin without coral reefs. The natives surpass even the Tahitians in physical beauty. They too are dying out.

(vi) The Sandwich Islands, which have been described on p. 464, are the most northerly group in Polynesis.

Samoan Islas, Brit: influence in these islands renowned Upolu 9 Savaii belong to germany, & Litich, with Pago pago a cooling tations goes to United States. as offset tatiit concession forwary has hand ad over Chaiseul & Isabel Islas in Solomons; this group is now all British, except Dorgannille Isla. Nowaii. become territory of U.S. A by treaty 1898. Sapiti now declared fort of trench Dominions. Sonto Guy Islas. now under Brit: protection 1897. Paleur, w. of Carolinis handed over to germany. most of trade is copra.



COMMERCIAL GEOGRAPHY AN OUTLINE

The figures given have been calculated on an average of the last five years, taken from the Statesman's Year Book and the Imperial Institute Year Book. Thus no figure represents an individual year, unless expressly so stated.

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COMMERCIAL GEOGRAPHY AN OUTLINE

1. Commerce is the exchange of goods or commodities.

(i) Different climates and countries yield different products.

(ii) No country in the world produces, or can produce, all that is necessary, convenient, useful, or ornamental, if the nation living in that country is at all civilised.

(iii) One country produces too much of one thing and too little of another. Hence commerce begins in the exchange of surplus products against other surplus products.

2. Commercial Geography describes this planet as the scene of the exchange of goods. It tries to set forth several things.

(i) What the chief articles of commerce are;

(ii) Where these are to be found in the largest quantity;

- (a) In the best condition ; and
- (b) At the lowest prices;

(iii) How the goods may be conveyed from one place to another;

(a) At the smallest expense ; and

(b) In the shortest time.

3. Commercial Geography also describes the conditions of exchange between country and country; and, to a more limited extent, the conditions which underlie the production of the articles of commerce.

4. The chief articles of commerce in the world may be classified into two kinds : Natural Products and Manufactured Goods.

(i) An agricultural country produces raw materials; and, in general, such a country lies on the banks of rivers, the richest parts consisting of alluvial soil.

(ii) A manufacturing country must be one which possesses large supplies of coal (force) and of iron. If the coal-fields are near the sea, the manufacturing country then becomes also a commercial country.

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5. Natural Products are again subdivided into :

- (i) Vegetable:
 - (a) For Food-as wheat, rice, tea, sugar, etc.
 - (b) For Glothing-as cotton, flax, jute, etc.
 - (c) For Housing-as timber of all kinds.

(ii) Mineral:

- (a) For Fuel-as coal, mineral oil, etc.
- (b) For Manufactures-as iron, lead, silver, salt, etc.
- The most valuable minerals are not the so-called "precious metals" (gold and silver), but coal and iron.

(iii) Animal:

- (a) For Food—as cattle, fish, etc.
- (b) For Clothing-as wool, silk, fur, feathers, etc.

6. The chief conditions of the production of articles of food and clothing are three : good soil, heat, and moisture. The two conditions of heat and moisture go under the general name of climate.

(i) Great heat and great moisture are required to produce rice, sugar, etc. These are called **tropical products**. The most important tropical regions are the **Monsoon Regions**, in which, during the summer or "rainy season," the winds, hot and laden with moisture, blow from the sea.

(ii) Less heat and much less moisture are needed for the production of tea, tobacco, and cotton. These are called sub-tropical products.

(iii) Still less of both is required to grow wheat, barley, and rye. These are the products of the Temperate Zone.

7. Soil is the ground in which plants and trees grow ; and it is on the natural wealth of the soil that much of the agricultural prosperity of a country depends. Soil consists chiefly of the fragments of rocks, mixed up with organic matter, which comes either from the rotting of vegetation or from the decay of animal substances. The best kinds of soil are vegetable-mould or "leaf-mould," alluvial soil, lava soil, "black earth," and loess.

(i) The breaking up or decomposition of the rocks is called "weathering." The small fragments of weathering rocks are carried off by streams or by wind.

(ii) Allavial soil is that which is washed down by rivers in their course through rocks or over land. Much of it consists of a fine sediment, mixed with organic matter. It is of alluvial soil that the Deltas of rivers are composed. The best-marked specimen of a delta is the Delta of the Nile; but the Rhine (Holland is built out of



AN OUTLINE

the refuse of the Alps carried down by the Rhine), the Ganges, the Mississippi, etc., are constantly building out deltas. The finer soils, which are generally alluvial, are the most fertile.

(iii) Lavas are decomposed into soils of the greatest richness. Such soils are found in Java and Japan, in Italy and Sicily, in Hungary and some of the western United States, where there has been no volcanic activity for thousands of years.

(iv) Black earth is composed largely of vegetable matter. It is found in Southern Russis, in the upper valley of the Sir Daria, and on the plateau of Southern India. Much of the soil of New Brunswick (in the Dominion of Canada) has been fertilised by fallen leaves, and grows excellent wheat. There is also a fine black soil in the province of Manitoba (Red River Valley), which is rich in organic matter and very fertile.

(v) Losss is a fine yellowish or brownish loam (it is called "Yellow Earth" in China), which is found in the valley of the Rhine, but chiefly in the most fertile parts of the Chinese Empire. This soil is light and easy to work; but it is so porous that the rain runs through it too fast.

(vi) New soil is regularly supplied by floods in several countries. Thus a new soil is given to Egypt every year; and much the same thing happens in the lower valleys of the Ganges and the Mississippi.

PRODUCTS OF THE TROPICS.

1. The Tropics supply the following articles of commerce : Rice, Coffee, Sugar, Cocoa, some Fruits and Farinaceous Foods ; Jute, Hemp, and Coir ; and also Indiarubber and Gutta-percha.

(i) The tropical fruits imported into this country are chiefly Bananas (from the West Indies and other parts of Tropical America) and Pine-apples (from the West Indies and Natal). The banana is the most fruitful of all food-plants. It produces per acre 44 times more by weight than the potato, and 138 times more than wheat.

(ii) The Farinaceous Foods are Sage (from the West Indies and the Eastern Archipelago), Tapices (from the East Indies and the West Indies), and Arrow-root (from the West Indies chiefly).

(iii) Indiarabber (or caoutchouc) is the solidified milky juice of certain tropical trees found chiefly in Brazil, but also in India, the Eastern Archipelago and the west coast of Africa. Gutta-percha is found chiefly in the peninsula of Malacca, and the Malayan Archipelago. Gutta-percha is used chiefly for insulating telegraph cables, and in the manufacture of golf-balls. Singapore is the port of issue.

(iv) Ceir is the coarse fibre of the case which enwraps the coccoa-nut. It is used to make coccoa-nut matting, etc.

2. Rice is grown chiefly in Burmah, British India (and Ceylon), Cochin China, Siam, China, Japan, and South Carolina (in the United States). Rice is the principal food of about one-third (430,000,000) of the human race.

(i) The best rice in the world is Carolina rice, from the United States.

(ii) Rice is also grown in Northern Italy, and in Valencia (in Spain).

(iii) In many parts of China and Bengal two crops are obtained in a year; and often two crops are taken from the same field. The rice-growing countries of Asia are the most densely peopled in the world.

(iv) Rice requires to be immersed in water for many days; hence it can be grown only where there is a large rainfall, or where plenty of water can be obtained for irrigation. When flooded, it has been known to grow nine inches in twenty-four hours. Hence it flourishes in the monsoon area of South-Eastern Asia, where there are heavy rains. The great river-deltas, where a rich alluvial soil is found, and the low tracts of land on the sea-coast, which are often flooded by the summer rains, are its favourite habitat. After rice, millet is the chief food of the masses of India and China.

(v) The chief ports from which rice is sent are Rangoon (in Lower Burmah), Yokohama (in Japan), Bangkok (in Siam), Calcutta, and Charleston (in South Carolina).

3. Coffee is grown chiefly in Brazil, Java, the West Indies, India, and Arabia.

(i) Brasil produces about half the coffee consumed by the world. The soil for coffee is the so-called "red soil," which owes its colour to the iron in it. The redder it is the better. Java comes next with about 20 per cent.

(ii) The finest coffee (the original "Mocha") is that grown near Yemen, in Arabia.

(iii) The chief exports of coffee are from Rio Janeiro (in Brazil) and Batavia (in Java).

(iv) The greatest consumers of coffee are the Dutch. The following are the averages per annum of each country :---

HOLLAND. BELGIUM. GERMANY, SWEDEN, SWITZERLAND. UNITED STATES. 20 lbs. 10 lbs. 8 lbs. 54 lbs.

4. Sugar is grown in the East and West Indies, the Southern United States, Central America, Brazil, and other tropical and subtropical countries.

(i) The chief sugar-growing state in North America is Louisiana ; though the cane is grown in all the Gulf States on both sides of the Mississippi.

(ii) Bestroot sugar is grown in France, Germany, and other European countries. An acre of ground under sugar-cane yields twice as much juice as one under sugarbest.

(iii) The principal sugar ports are Kingston (in Jamaica), Mavana (in Cuba), and Rio Janeiro.

5. **Cocca** is grown chiefly in Ecuador (in South America), Trinidad, Venezuela (in South America), the northern parts of Brazil, and some parts of Asia and Africa.

(i) Cocca is a brown substance obtained from the seeds of the cocca tree—a tree which must not be confounded with the cocca-nut palm.

(ii) The fruit is in shape like a cucumber, about eight inches long; and the seeds are not unlike almonds in shape.

(iii) Cocce is exported largely from Genyaguil (in Ecuador), Trinidad (in the West Indies).

(iv) The greatest consumers of cocca (and chocolate) are the Spanish. About six times as much is consumed in Spain and Pertugal as in any other country. France comes next.

6. Jute is grown chiefly in the north and east of Bengal; Hemp is grown in the Philippine Islands, in Kentucky (United States), and also in Russia and Poland.

(i) Jute is used chiefly in the manufacture of sacking; but its finer parts are also mixed with silk to make curtains, etc.

(ii) Manilla hemp is the best for making strong ropes and cordage; but Italian hemp is the finest, and Russian comes next to it. Manilla hemp is not a true hemp, but is the fibre of a plantain.

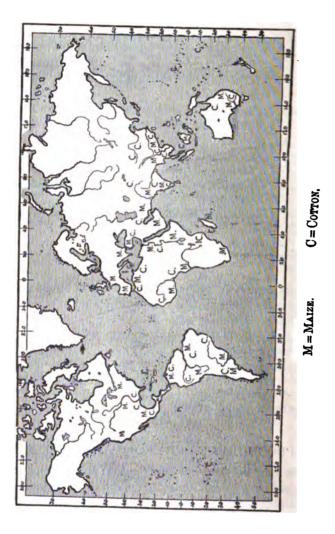
(iii) The great port for jute is Calcutta.

PRODUCTS OF SUB-TROPICAL REGIONS.

1. The chief **Sub-Tropical Products** are: Cotton, Tea, Tobacco, Opium, and many kinds of fruits, such as dates, oranges, lemons, and figs.

2. Cotton is largely grown in the southern parts of the United States, in India, China, Egypt, and Brazil.

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(i) The best cotton in the world is called "sea-island cotton," which sells from 10d. to 1s. 9d. per lb. It is grown on the coast islands and a small portion of the mainland of Georgia, South Carolina, and Florida (United States). It is to the saline elements in the air and in the soil that the length and fineness of the fibre of this cotton are due. The total area under cotton in the United States occupies about one-fifth of the whole arable area. The average yield is about 200 lbs. per acre about three times as much as is produced in India.

(ii) The second best cotton is the Egyptian, which sells at from 9d. to 1s. 6d. per lb. The rich soil of Egypt gives an annual yield of from 300 lbs. to 500 lbs. per acre. About one-seventh of the cultivated surface of the country is under cotton.

(iii) The third best are the cottons called New Orleans, Mobile, and Uplands—all places in the southern parts of the United States, near the Gulf of Mexico.

(iv) An inferior cotton is that called Surat (from a town on the Tapti, north of Bombay), and also the cottons of Madras and Bengal. Much of this is grown on what is called the "black cotton-soil"—a soil derived from the breaking-up of the basaltic rocks which cover a very large part of the peninsuls of India.

(v) During the Civil War of 1861-65, in the United States, the growing and exportation of cotton were stopped; and India, Egypt, Turkey, and South America set to work to raise cotton for the supply of Lancashire and the west of Scotland.

(vi) A great quantity of cotton is exported from New Orleans, Savannah, and Charleston—ports in the south of the United States.

(vii) The greatest cotton-importing port in the world is Liverpool.

3. Tea is grown in China, Assam (in India), Ceylon, and also in Japan, Java, Sumatra, and Natal.

(i) Tes is a very hardy sub-tropical plant; but it flourishes best in tropical and sub-tropical climates where the rainfall is over sixty inches, and is evenly distributed throughout the year.

(ii) The success of tea-growing depends very greatly on the price of labour. It takes the labour of one man a day to produce 1 lb. of tea. India, Java, Ceylon, and China are the countries which possess the cheapest labour, and hence it is difficult for other tea-growing countries to compete with them.

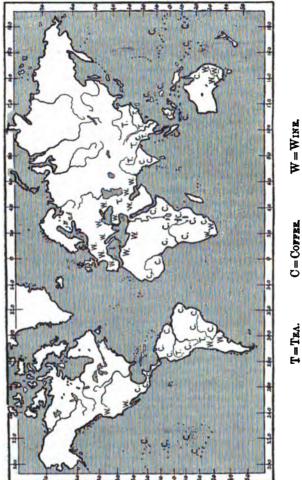
The highest wages are paid in "new countries," where there is a sparse population; the lowest wages in countries with the densest population. The densest populations are usually found in sub-tropical countries—such as China and India.

(iii) The United States and Canada buy nearly all the Japanese tea.

(iv) The ruined coffee plantations of Ceylon are now fertile, excellent tea-gardens. The soil and climate are so suitable for tea, that in some places the production has risen to 1000 lbs. an acre; and the quality is admirable.

(v) The imports of tea from India and Ceylon into Great Britain have been larger than those from China since the year 1888.

(vi) The chief tea ports are Hankow, Shanghai, Calcutta, and Colombo.



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PRODUCTS OF SUB-TROPICAL REGIONS

4. **Tobacco** is largely grown in the United States, Cuba, and the Philippine Islands. It is also grown in Mexico, Java and Sumatra, India, Cape Colony, and Ceylon; and likewise in Turkey, Austria-Hungary, and Germany, in Europe.

(i) Tobacco can be grown almost anywhere—even in Scotland; but the best varieties are those grown in the hotter climates, such as Cuba and Sumatra.

(ii) Two-thirds of the tobacco used in this country comes from the United States, and chiefly from Kentucky.

(iii) The best Havana cigars are made in Cubs, and the best cheroots come from the Philippine Islands.

(iv) The best quality of European tobacco is grown in Hungary.

(v) The trade in tobacco is a government-monopoly in France, Italy, Spain, and Austria-Hungary. In all countries a duty is imposed upon it, and hence it is an important source of revenue. In Great Britain the duty obtained from it constitutes nearly one-half of the whole revenue obtained from the customs; and it amounts to about £10,000,000 a year.

(vi) As the Dutch are the greatest coffee-drinkers in the world, so they are the greatest smokers. They consume 112 os. of tobacco per head per annum.

(vii) The chief tobacco ports are Fhiladelphia, Havana (in Cuba), Richmond (in Virginia), and Manilla (in the Philippines).

5. Opium is largely grown in India and Persia; and to a smaller extent in Asiatic Turkey and China.

(i) Most of the Indian opium is bought by the Chinese.

(ii) The chief district for the growth of Indian opium is a large tract of the Ganges, six hundred miles in length by two hundred in breadth, and the chief factories are Patna in Behar, and Ghazipore in Benares. It is also grown on the fertile table-land of Malwa.

(iii) Opium is the most largely sold drug in the world.

(iv) The chief opium ports are Calcutta, Bushire, and Canton.

6. The chief sub-tropical fruits that constitute articles of commerce are : dates, oranges, lemons, figs, etc.

(i) Dates come to us chiefly from Algeria and Northern Africa, and also from Egypt and Persia. They are the fruit of the date-palm; and a bunch of dates weighs from twenty to twenty-five lbs. The average year's crop of one tree may be reckoned

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at from 300 to 600 lbs. Thus the yield per acre is about twelve times that of corn. In Egypt, North Africa, Persia, and Arabia dates form the principal food, and datepalms the chief wealth of the people.

(ii) Oranges and lemons are sent to us from the south of Spain, Sicily, Madeira, and the south of Italy.

(iii) Figs come from southern Italy, Smyrna, and Greece.

PRODUCTS OF THE WARM-TEMPERATE ZONE.

1. The chief products of the Warm-Temperate Zone are : maize, the vine, the best hard wheat, silk, beet, olives ; and such fruits as currants, figs, oranges, lemons, and almonds.

2. Maize or Indian corn is grown in North and South America, South Africa, Mexico, and also in Roumania.

(i) Among the foods of the world, maize occupies the place next to rice. It is more nourishing than barley, buckwheat, or rye.

(ii) In the United States it constitutes about two-thirds of the grain grown.

(iii) The stalks of maize are used for thatch and fuel, and in basket-making. From the fibre of the stalk and leaves is made a durable kind of mattress. The husks are used to stuff saddles and chairs and mattresses; and good paper has also been made from them.

3. The Vine grows in almost all the warm-temperate parts of the world. It is most productive in the warm countries of Europe, Australia, South Africa, and California. The six chief vine-growing countries of Europe are : France, Italy, Spain, Austria-Hungary, Portugal, and Germany.

(i) The vine thrives best where wheat thrives. It can stand long droughts because it has large roots, which go deep below the surface.

(ii) There is now a great deal more wine imported into France than is exported out of it. Much of the grape-juice is brought into France for the purpose of being treated in the French method.

(iii) Of the six wine-growing countries of Europe, France produces most. Italy comes next.

(v) The chief wine ports are Bordeaux, Cadis, Operio, Melbourne, and San Francisco.

AVERAGE ANNUAL PRODUCTION OF WINE IN MILLION GALLONS.

France 950. Italy 600. Spain 490. Austria-Hungary 160. Portugal 90. Germany 80.

4. Wheat is largely grown in the United States, France, Canada, Russia, India, Hungary, Egypt, Australia, and Argentina.

(i) The cultivation of wheat has been declining rapidly in Western Europe owing to the fact that it can be more cheaply grown in South America, Russia, and India. In the year 1890, Great Britain produced about 73,000,000 bushels of wheat; in 1898, this had fallen to 49,000,000 bushels.

(ii) In the United States there are 38,000,000 acres under wheat; in Russia 29,000,000; in France 17,000,000; in the United Kingdom 2,000,000; and in Australia over 3,500,000 acres.

(iii) As regards the production of wheat to the acre, England stands at the head of all the countries in the world. It has an average yield per acre of 29 bushels ; that of New Zealand is 264 bushels; of Belgium 244 bushels; of Manitoba 20 bushels. At the foot of the list comes Russia with 8 bushels per acre, and South Australia with only 71 bushels.

(iv) "Light clays and heavy loams (mixtures of clay and sand) are the best soil for wheat." A sufficient rainfall is also necessary. It is to the want of this last requisite that the small production of wheat in South Australia is due. In Russia the deficiencies in crops are chiefly due to the want of deep ploughing. It is said that, if the plough went only six inches deeper, a new and rich soil would be discovered.

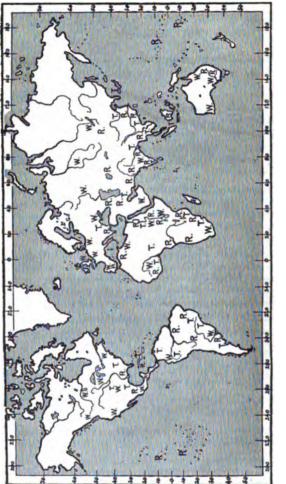
(v) Great Britain has the advantage of being able to get supplies of wheat from countries whose harvests are at very different seasons from her own. Thus the harvests of the following countries are :--

JANUARY:	Australia,	New	Zealand,	MAY : Morocco and the North of Africa,		
Argentina.				China, Japan, Texas.		
FEBRUARY: India.				November : Peru, South Africa.		
MARCH : India, Upper Egypt.				DECEMBER: Burmah, South Australia.		
APRIL: Mexico, Lower Egypt, Asia Minor.						

(vi) The only European countries that do not import wheat are Russia, Hungary. the Danubian States, and Turkey.

(vii) The chief wheat ports are Chicago, Melbourne, Sydney, and Odessa,

2. The Sugar-beet is largely grown in France, Austria, and Germany : and a variety called Mangold-wurzel is grown as food for cattle in the south-east of England.







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(i) There is now more beet-sugar used in Europe than cane-sugar.

(ii) In Germany the increase in the use of beet-sugar has been both rapid and astonishing. Four times as much was consumed in 1893 as in 1863.

(iii) The sugar trade in Great Britain has been much hurt by the enormous development of the beet-sugar trade.

(iv) In 1833 slavery and slave-labour were abolished in the West Indies; and from that date the making of cane-sugar declined.

6. Olive Oil is produced chiefly in the countries which border the Mediterranean; and also in South America, Mexico, and California.

(f) Olive oil is the cream and butter of Spain and Italy. In the warmer climates this vegetable oil is more wholesome and more easily digested than animal fats.

(ii) The finest olive oil is exported from Leghorn, and grown round Lucca (near Pisa); oil from the south of France comes next. France consumes more olive oil than she produces; hence she must import.

(iii) In Italy there are two and a half million acres under olives; and 44,000,000 gallons are produced.

(iv) Linesed (or Flaxseed) 011 is an oil greatly used in the manufacture of waxcloth and linoleum. It comes from British India, Argentina, and Russia.

7. The chief fruits of the Warm-Temperate Zone are : oranges, lemons, grapes, raisins, currants, figs, and prunes.

(i) Orangee are grown in the Asores (St. Michael's), Malta, Sicily, Jaffa, Spain and Portugal, and also in Florida, Louisiana, and California. One orange-tree in Florida produced ten thousand oranges in a single season.

(ii) Currants are a small kind of raisins or dried grapes of a vine which grows in the Ionian Islands and in Greece. The best are from the Island of Zante. Patras, on the Gulf of Patras, is the port for the sending off of currants.

(iii) Prenes, which are dried plums, come from France, Bosnia, and Servia.

PRODUCTS OF THE COLD-TEMPERATE ZONE.

1. The products of the Cold-Temperate Zone are : wheat, oats, barley, rye, peas and beans, potatoes; and such fruits as apples, pears, and berries (strawberries, gooseberries, etc.).

(i) Wheat can be grown up to 65° north latitude; because the long days in that part provide the necessary sunshine and heat for it to ripen. It requires a mean temperature of at least 55° F. for three or four months of the year. (a) The value of wheat depends on its flour-producing powers. The best wheat gives from 76 to 80 per cent.; the worst from 54 to 56. (b) More than twice as much wheat is imported into the United Kingdom as is grown here.

(ii) Oats are largely grown in Northern Europe, Canada, and New Zealand. The best oats are produced in Scotland; and more ground is given to oats than to any other grain. Oats is the chief erop in the South Island of New Zealand, which is in about the same latitude as the North of Italy.

(iii) Barley requires a moderately dry climate. Of all cereals it has the widest range of climate. It is grown in Russia and some Mediterranean countries; but the best is found in Scotland. It is chiefly used for the making of beer and whisky. In England there is almost as much barley now grown as wheat.

(iv) Eye grows in climates too cold for wheat, and on soils too poor for other grains. It is the chief food of the German and Russian peasants. In fact, it is the chief bread-plant grown on the Continent of Europe. It thrives on the poorest soils and in the most unkindly climates. Hence on the poorer soils of Holland, through the lands to the south of the Baltic and on into Central Russia, it is the most common grain.

(v) Of Fotatoes there are five hundred varieties cultivated. The potato is used chiefly for food, for the making of starch and sugar, and potato spirit, which is a kind of brandy. Early potatoes are imported from the Channel Islands, the Scilly Islands, and Malta into London, in the months of April and May.

(vi) Apples succeed best in the Cold-Temperate Zone. They are largely grown in Canada, the United States, Tasmania, and Great Britain.

The Tasmanian apples, growing ripe in our winter, have the London market to themselves.

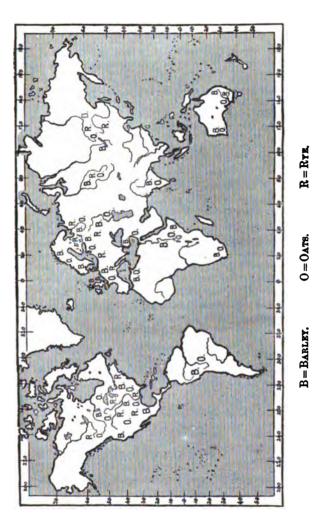
2. The **Timber** of Commerce is grown chiefly in Norway, Sweden, Russia, Canada, and the United States; while the harder and finer woods are cultivated in India and Burmah.

(i) The centre of the "Lumber Trade" of the Dominion of Canada is Ottawa. This city, which stands on the Canadian Pacific Railway, is connected with Montreal by canal as well as by river. The Chaudière Falls (200 yds. wide and 40 ft. high) supply the motive power for cutting the timber, and also for lighting up the city with electricity. The "lumber mills" are kept going day and night, when the river is not closed by ice.

(ii) More than 20 per cent. of the surface of Norway is covered with forest. There are about 350 saw-mills in the country, which give employment to over 10,060 men.

(iii) Two-fifths of the surface of Russia is under forest.

3. The most important kinds of timber are : Baltic Redwood and Whitewood ; American Yellow Pine, American Pitch Pine, and Douglas



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Pine; the **Kauri Pine** of New Zealand ; the **Oak**, **Eim**, and **Teak** ; and for furniture and decorative purposes—**Mahogany**, **Walnut**, **Resewood**, etc.

(i) Baltic Redwood is very much used for roofing, flooring, and all other internal and external wood-work of the better class of buildings. Whitewood is a distinctly inferior wood.

(ii) American Yellow Fine is largely imported for the *internal* joiner work of buildings. Pitch Fine (also from N. America) is much used for the fittings of churches, halls, etc. The Douglas (or Oregon) Fine, which sometimes grows to the height of 800 ft., yields a timber of great length quite free from knots, and is much used for masts, spars, etc.

(iii) The Kauri Pine is highly valued in its native country for all general purposes.

(iv) Oak is still largely used in shipbuilding. It is very durable, and little affected by alternation of wet and dry weather.

(v) Eins is a good deal employed for engineering purposes; and for keels in shipbuilding, etc. It must be kept either quite dry or constantly wet.

(vi) Teak is grown in Central and Southern India; but there are also extensive forests of it in Burma, Siam, and Java. Teak expands and contracts very little under changes of temperature. It is much used in all kinds of work which demand strength and durability—such as the building of houses, ships, bridges, and railway carriages. While oak rusts the iron that pierces it, teak contains an oil which protects metal from rust, and is hence much used as a backing for the armour-plating of ships.

(vii) Mahogany, Black Walnut (from Canada and the United States), and Rosewood (chiefly from Brazil) are the chief timbers employed in the making of furniture. The best mahogany comes from the Island of Hayti.

(vili) The woods of the world are diminishing every year; but the governments of the United States, of Canada, of India, and of most European countries are taking measures to replant and encourage them. In Canada and the United States there is an anniversary called **Arbor Day** (in Canada it is the first Friday in May), when every school-boy and school-girl plants a tree. Millions of trees have been planted in this way. Forestry is now a highly important profession—especially in India.

FOOD SUPPLIES.

1. The Meat supplies of the world consist chiefly of beef, mutton, pork, and poultry.

2. Beef is imported into the United Kingdom in the form of live cattle and of dead meat. Live cattle come to us mostly from the United

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States, Canada, and Holland. Beef ("dead meat") is sent to us by the United States and Canada, and—by means of iced chambers—it comes even from the Australasian Colonies.

(i) The greatest cattle-raisers in the world are Ganada, the United States, Russia, Argentina, Germany, and Australacia.

(ii) The United States possess about 54,000,000 head of cattle. Russia comes next, with 24,000,000.

(iii) The export of tallow and bones is greatest from North America and Australia.

(iv) Raw hides come chiefly from South America and India.

3. Mutton is imported into this country chiefly from New Zealand, Australia, Argentina, and the United States.

(i) Amstralia is said to possess nearly 100 million sheep, of which New South Wales has about 60 million.

(ii) Argentina comes next with over 90 million. Exasta has nearly 50 million; the United States has the same number; New Zealand about 20 million.

4. Pork is supplied to the world almost entirely by the United States.

(i) The United States possess more swine than sheep; the number has risen to nearly 50 millions. The pigs are fed chiefly on maize.

(ii) **Cincinnati** and **Chicage** are the world-centres of the pork trade. At Chicago more than 60,000 pigs a day are converted into ham and bacon. The total annual value of "pig-products" is over £15,000,000.

5. Poultry are raised in large quantities in France, Ireland ; and in India, but for consumption in the country.

(i) Poultry are valuable from two points of view: (a) for their firsh • and (b) for the eggs they produce.

(ii) In the year 1864, the annual value of eggs imported into Great Britain from the Continent was £885,000; in 1894, they had risen to the annual value of nearly £4,000,000. More than £1,500,000 worth comes from France. The poultry imported yearly is worth over half a million.

(iii) The annual income derived from the sale of eggs and poultry in France is said to be about £14,000,000, of which nearly £8,000,000 goes for eggs.

(iv) In the United States, the daily consumption of eggs is about 50 millions.

6. One of the most important food supplies is what is called "the harvest of the sea." The chief food-fish for the northern parts of the

world are cod, herring, salmon, and oysters. For the south of Europe, tunny and sardines.

(i) The sea is, in fact, more productive of food than the land. It is probable that six times as much food can be drawn out of the sea in a single night as can be taken out of the same extent of land-surface in a year.

"Of all the animal foods with which man is furnished, there are none so plenty as fish. A little rivulet, that glides almost unperceived through a wast tract of rich land, will support more hundreds with the fisch of its inhabitants than the meadow will nourish individuals. But, if this be true of rivers, it is much truer of the sea-shores."-FIRIDER.

(ii) The value of a large fishing population is twofold—first, in supplying us with food; and, secondly, in forming a valuable naval reserve of experienced seamen in times of danger for the country.

7. For home consumption in Great Britain the most important fish are, in addition to those mentioned in the previous section : haddock, sole, turbot, mackerel, lobsters, etc.

8. The United States take the lead of all the countries in the world as regards the value of their fisheries, but the United Kingdom runs them very close. In the second rank come France and Canada; and after them, Norway and Newfoundland.

(i) The fisheries of the United States include those of the Five Great Lakes. The total value of the United States fisheries (including the so-called seal- and whale-fisheries) amounts to about £9,000,000 a year. The oyster-fisheries alone make up more than two-sevenths of the total value.

(ii) The annual value of the British sea-fisheries amounts to over £7,000,000. More than half of this value is taken on the east coast of Britain. Of the special seafisheries of Scotland the herring-fishery is the most productive. Herrings to the value of over a million sterling are cured every year. The value of the salmon taken in Scotland is over £250,000, in Ireland it is over £320,000.

(iii) The French fisheries include those of Newfoundland and Iceland. The total value of these fisheries amounts to more than £4,000,000 a year.

(iv) The Canadian fisheries yield chieffy cod, lobsters, mackerel, and salmon, the last of which is caught on the Pacific coasts of British Columbia. The Canadian fisheries embrace 5600 miles of sea coast, and to this must be added the vast areas of the Great Lakes and the larger rivers. Canada finds a market for her dried fish in the Roman Catholic countries of Italy, Spain, Portugal, and Brazil; and also in the West Indies. She sends out every year about 15,000,000 lbs. of canned lobsters. From British Columbia about 16,000,000 lbs. of canned salmon are sent out, chieffy to the United Kingdom. The Canadian provinces that take the lead in fishing are Nova Sootia and New Brunswick.

FOOD SUPPLIES

(v) The Norwegian fisheries consist chiefly of cod, herring, and mackerel; salmon and sea-trout. The value of the Norwegian fisheries is about £2,000,000 a year. Norway exports dried and cured codfish and also herrings. Their chief markets are the Roman Catholic countries of the south of Europe, the inhabitants of which consume large quantities of fish on Fridays and during Lent.

(vi) The chief fish caught off the Newfoundland coasts are cod, herring, and salmon. The annual value of the Newfoundland fisheries amounts to over a million sterling. Most of the export consists of dried herrings and dried codfish. Like Norway, Newfoundland sends most of her exports to Roman Catholic countries.

"The Banks" of Newfoundland consist of a chain of cosan table-lands (or submarine plateaux), which are richter in fish than any other known part of the cosan. The Banks are 600 miles long, 200 broad, and are larger than the whole of Italy. The "organic slime," which is the food of the counties numbers of cod, is brought down to them by the Arotic currents.

9. The greatest fishing-grounds in the world are: the Banks of Newfoundland, the Pacific coast of North America (opposite the Columbia River in Oregon, the Sacramento River in California, and the Fraser River in British Columbia), the Loffoden Islands (off the coast of Norway), and the North Sea.

(i) It is the cold currents in the ocean that yield the most and the best fish. Tropical seas abound in fish remarkable for colour and form; but most of them are not edible.

(ii) On the Banks of Newfoundland there are about 5000 French, British, American, and Norwegian vessels always at work; and the annual value of the fish taken amounts to an average of £200 a boat, that is, to about £1,000,000 altogether. The reason why there is so much food on the Banks for the fish which swarm there is that the Arctic current, which comes down Davis Straits from the coast of Greenland, bears on its surface an inexhaustible supply of food for the smaller kinds of fish, which are, in their turn, preyed upon by the larger. "The sea," says Professor Hind, "is in many places a living mass, a vast ocean of living slime, which is organic." This aline contains coundless millions of minute but living organisms.

(iii) The proportion of fishermen to the total of population in each of the great fishing countries is as follows :--

Norway .	•	•	1 in 16	France	1 in 278
Scotland	•	•	1 " 76	United States .	1 ,, 881
Ireland .	•	• -	1 ,, 216	England and Wales	1 ,, 612

Thus we see that in relation to the population there are nearly forty times more fishermen in Norway than in England.

(iv) From the point of view of food supplies, pisciculture is rapidly becoming an important industry. This industry has its chief seats in the United States, Canada, Newfoundland, Norway, and Scotland. In the United States about 88 millions of young shad (a kind of large herring, which contains the flavour of the herring with that

of the salmon) were produced in the year 1885; and of all kinds of fish the grand total amounted to 268 millions. The state of New York alone distributed about 40 millions of troat and pike-fry to other countries. Canada, in the year 1889, distributed nearly 69 million eggs of salmon, salmon-trout, etc. In 1890 Newfoundland hatchery turned out over 15 millions of cod-fry and over 4 millions of young lobsters. At Howietoun, near Stirling, about 4 millions of salmon and trout eggs are brought to maturity every year.

10. The chief markets for fish are, of course, the countries nearest which they are caught. In the United Kingdom, Great Grimsby, London, Hull, Yarmouth, Lowestoft, Wick, Fraserburgh, and other Sootch towns are the chief centres of distribution.

(i) Great Grimsby is the metropolis of the British fish-trade. It is the largest fishing port in the kingdom; and its trawlers and smacks are mostly engaged in the cod and herring fisheries. The larger smacks contain wells, which enable them to bring the fish in alive.

(ii) London is the great centre for the distribution of fish throughout England. At Billingsgate Market it gathers into itself the whole catch of the south coast and most of that of the east coast.

(iii) Scotland cures and sends out for export about three-quarters of its whole herring catch.

(iv) The total value of all kinds of sea-fish brought ashore in the United Kingdom amounts to over £7,000,000. Of this England contributes about £5,000,000; Scotland over £1,700,000; and Ireland about £370,000.

11. The Whale-fishery is carried on chiefly in the Arctic and South Pacific Oceans.

The whale is a mammal, and not a fish : hence the term "fishery" is inapplicable.

(i) The chief purpose of the whale-fishery is to procure whalebees (which varies from £1500 to £1600 a ton), and train-oil, which is obtained from the right or Greenland whale.

(ii) With the pursuit of whales the hunting and slaughter of seals are usually combined.

(iii) Dundee and Peterhead (in the East of Scotland) are the chief whaling ports.

MINERALS.

1. The most important commercial minerals are coal, iron, tin, lead, zinc; stone and slate; and petroleum.

(i) Geal ("black diamonds") constitutes the chief wealth of Great Britain.

(ii) Goal and iron are the two chief conditions of industrial and commercial prosperity.

(iii) All minerals are obtained within a mile of the surface. Deeper than that the air becomes too hot to work in. At the depth of about two miles the air rises to a temperature of 212°--that of boiling water.

2. The chief coal-producing countries are the United Kingdom, the United States, Germany, France, Austria, and Belgium. The United Kingdom and also Germany and Belgium export a great deal of coal.

(i) The cheapest kind of coal is lignite, a kind of wood-coal with small heating powers. Anthracite is the coal which has the largest heating power. Anthracite has also the advantage of burning without smoke. Anthracite sometimes contains as much as 94 per cent. of pure carbon.

(ii) The total production of coal in the world amounts to upwards of 460 million tons. Of this, Great Britain produces about 180 million tons. Great Britain, the United States, and Germany produce more than four-fifths of all the coal raised in the world.

(iii) The largest coal port in Great Britain is Gardiff, which exports annually about 12 million tons. Newcastle comes next with about 5 millions; then follow, in order, North Shields, Newport (in Wales), Kirkcaldy (in Scotland), Sunderland (in Durham), Swanses, and Grangemouth (on the Forth).

3. Iron is found chiefly in the United Kingdom, the United States. Russia, Sweden, France, Germany, and Spain.

(i) Great Britain produces about 7 million tons of pig-iron a year, and about 2 million tons of Bessemer steel. The lengths of molten iron which come out of the furnace are called pigs. This is the iron of commerce.

(ii) The production of pig-iron in the United States has risen to about 10 million tons, which is about 30 per cent. more than that produced in the United Kingdom.

(iii) Austria and Russia produce more steel than Belgium.

(iv) The richest iron ore is magnetic or black oxide of iron. The best is found in Sweden. The next best is red hæmatite, which is found in the island of Elba, near Bilbao in Spain, and at Whitehaven and Ulverston in the north-west of England. Brown hæmatite comes next; and it is found in Devonshire, in the Forest of Dean, in South Wales, and in the county of Antrim in Ireland.

4. Tin is found chiefly in the Malay Peninsula, in Cornwall and Devon in Eugland, Banka and Billiton in the East Indies, in the east of Australia, and in Tasmania.

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(i) The "Straits Settlements," as the Crown Colonies (with the island of Singapore) on the Malay Peninsula are called, export tin every year to the value of more than £5,000,000. The Malay Peninsula is thus the greatest tin-producing country in the world. The tin is found in the gravel of the river-valleys—gravel brought down by the heavy tropical rains.

(ii) Great Britain imports nearly £3,000,000 worth of tin a year, of which the Straits Settlements send a good deal more than half.

(iii) Its chief use is to coat sheets of iron in order to protect them from rust, and also as an alloy in bronze.

5. Lead.—The chief lead-producing countries of the world are: Spain, the western United States, Germany, and the United Kingdom.

(i) This metal is generally found combined with sulphur in an ore which is called Galena. A great deal of lead ore also contains silver. The argentiferous lead found in Spain is nearly as valuable as all the other kinds.

(ii) We buy from Spain every year lead to about the value of £3,000,000.

6. Zinc is found chiefly in Western Germany, Belgium, in Silesia, the United States, and Great Britain.

(i) The production of zinc is increasing rapidly every year in the United States, chiefly in Illinois, Kansas, and Missouri.

(ii) Zinc is used chiefly as an alloy in making brass.

(iii) Great Britain buys zinc to the annual value of about £1,500,000.

7. Copper is found in the United States (on the shores of Lake Superior), in Spain, Chili, Germany, Australia, the Cape, and Japan.

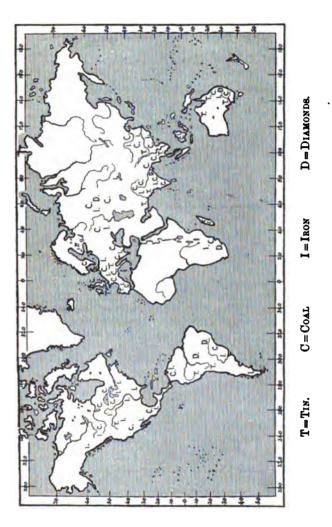
(i) Pure or "native copper" is obtained in enormous masses in the copper-bearing strata of Lake Superior. One block obtained from the "central mines" weighed 800 tons.

(ii) The United States produce copper to the value of nearly £8,000,000 a year; Spain comes next with an output of less than £1,000,000.

8. Gold is a metal that is very widely distributed. It is as common as copper, lead, or silver; and far more common than nickel or platinum. It is found chiefly in the United States, Australasia, Russia, South Africa, South America, and Hungary.

(i) South Africa stands first with about 8 millions worth of gold a year; the United States yield about $6\frac{1}{2}$; Russia (chiefly in the Urals) $5\frac{1}{2}$.

MINERALS



(ii) The years between 1850 and 1870 were the years of the richest gold finds. The yield often rose to 40 millions sterling per annum.

(iii) In California alone, up to the year 1888, gold to the amount of 200 million pounds sterling was mined.

(iv) Gold is generally found pure; and it is oftenest found in quartz. This quartz fills up the cracks in the older rocks.

(v) Gold is also got by "hydraulic mining." The streams that run over gold-bearing rocks wear these rocks down to gravel. The gravel is piled up into banks, or forms large beds or terraces on the flanks of hills or on the edges of rivers. A strong stream of water is made to play from pipes like fire-hose on their banks; and this removes the dirt and earthy matter. Then the gold is "got."

(vi) The largest nugget ever found-the "Welcome Nugget"-weighed over 2217 oz., and was sold for £10,500. It was found in the year 1858 at Bakery Hill, Ballarat.

9. Silver. The chief silver-producing countries of the world are: The United States, Mexico, Bolivia (with Chili and Peru), New South Wales, Germany, and Tasmania.

(i) The western United States are now the greatest silver-bearing regions in the world. The most important of these States are Colorado, Montana (these are by far the greatest), Nevada, Arizona, New Mexico, etc.

(ii) In the year 1861 the silver yield of the United States was very small-only £400,000 a year. In 1889 it had reached the enormous total of nearly £16,000,000.

(iii) The silver production of the world for 1889 was said to amount to nearly £33,000,000. Of this sum the United States contributed about £16,000,000; Mexico, £11,000,000; the three states of South America over £4,000,000; and European countries a little over £2,000,000.

(iv) Previous to the year 1878 silver used to cost 5s. an ounce; in the year 1888 it had fallen to about 3s. 6d.

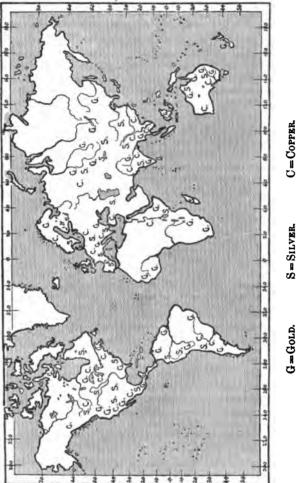
10. **Diamonds.** These precious stones are found chiefly in Cape Colony and Brazil.

(i) India was at one time the only country in the world that produced diamonds in any quantity; but its diamond production is now very small.

(ii) By far the richest diamond region is at **Kimberley**, the capital of Griqualand West, in South Africa. The most important mines at Kimberley are Du Toit's Pan, De Beer's, and Kimberley Central. "The number of diamonds found in the whole world outside of the De Beer's ground is now quite insignificant."

(iii) "Du Toit's Pan" is an open mine which covers about thirty acres. It is the richest diamond-mine in the world. Round it rose the town of Kimberley-first a town of canvas tents, then of corrugated iron, now of handsome and well-built houses.

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(iv) In 1887 the value of the diamonds dug out at Kimberley exceeded £4,000,000.

(v) The finest South African diamond is the blue-white diamond called "The Porter-Rhodes," from the name of its possessor. It was found in the year 1880, and was valued at £60,000. The *largest* diamond in the world was found in the Jagersfontein mine in the Orange Free State : it weighed, uncut, 987 carats.

(vi) The Koh-i-noor (="Mountain of Light"), which belonged to Runjeet Singh, was sent to Queen Victoria from India by Lord Dalhousie in the year 1850. The "Orloff," a famous Indian diamond which formed the eye of an idol in a temple near Mysore, and which was stolen by a French soldier, now forms the top of the imperial sceptre of the Tsar of Russia.

11. Salt is found in England, Galicia, Spain, India (the Punjab), and other countries.

(i) At Northwich (in Cheshire) there are four beds of rock-salt of an aggregate thickness of 240 feet. But most of the salt obtained in England is brought from the brine, which lies over the rock-salt; or fresh water is let down and then pumped up in the form of brine.

(ii) The most famous mine in the world is at Wieliczka (in Galicia, near Cracow). The mass of solid salt is over 12 square miles in extent, and 1200 feet thick. In the mines there are 30 miles of tramway; there is an inhabited village in one of the larger caverns; and a chapel (more than 100 feet high), the altar, pulpit, and statues in which are carved out of salt.

(iii) At Cardona (in Spain), rock-salt forms hills some 400 to 500 feet in height.

12. Petroleum is a mineral product of the greatest value. It is a mineral oil obtained chiefly in Pennsylvania (U.S.), Baku (on the Apsheron Peninsula, which juts into the Caspian Sea), Burmah, Canada, and other countries.

(i) The greatest petroleum industry in the world is in Pennsylvania; and Baku comes next to it. In 1890 the United States produced more than 1200 million gallons of petroleum, of which they exported rather more than half. The oil used to be carried in wooden or iron tank-cars, but is now forwarded solely by pipes, of which there are now 25,000 miles. By this means oil is now sent to Baltimore, New York, and even as far as Buffalo and Chicago. There are about 40,000 oil-wells in the Pennsylvania fields.

(ii) The annual production of crude petroleum in Baku is about 450 million gallons; and more than 120 firms have oil-refineries in the neighbourhood. Much of the oil is carried by a pipe from Baku to Poti on the Black Sea-a distance of about 600 miles. Petroleum is now used largely in Russia and other countries both for heating and lighting.

MANUFACTURES.

1. The most important manufactures in the world are the **Textile** Manufactures (Cottons, Woollens, Linens, Silks, and Jute); the Metal Industries, the Chemical Industries, and Shipbuilding.

2. The largest of all the Textile Industries is that of Cotton.

(i) In Great Britain there are about 2500 factories, with 800,000 persons employed in the manufacture of cotton cloth (calicoes) and cotton yarn. The annual value of the cotton manufactured in this country amounts to about £100,000,000.

(ii) In the United States the number of hands employed in the manufacture of cotton goods amounts to about 175,000; and the annual value of their productions is something under £40,000,000. The United States produced fifty years ago only 10 per cent. of the whole cotton manufactures; they now produce about 30 per cent.

(iii) There is in India a large and increasing manufacture of cotton.

(iv) Japan is making great strides in cotton-manufacture, and is securing a good share of the Eastern markets.

3. The next largest Textile Industry is that of Wool.

(i) In Great Britain there are about 1800 wool mills; and their annual production is worth about £50,000,000.

(ii) In the United States there are over 2500 manufactories of woollen goods ; and they produce every year goods to the value of over £70,000,000.

(iii) There are also large woollen factories in France and Germany.

(iv) Wool is grown chieffy in Anstralia, New Zealand, Argentins, South Africa, and India. The wools from Argentina go chieffy to the Continent; the others to Great Britain. The average yield of a River Plate sheep is little more than one-half that of an Australian; and the quality is also inferior. About 95 per cent. of the Australasian and Cape wool comes to Great Britain; but only 4 per cent. of River Plate wool.

(v) The Continental markets for wool imports are: Antwerp, Hamburg, and Marseilles; in North America, New York.

4. Linen goods are most largely produced in Ireland, Scotland, France, Belgium, and Germany.

(i) The annual value of the linen products of the United Kingdom is estimated at about £20,000,000.

(ii) Beifast and other towns in Ulster produce the finest linens (lawns and cambrics, etc.). Dunfermine (in Fife, Scotland) is noted for its linen damasks, towelling, etc. Courtrai (in Belgium) and Westphalis (in Germany) produce linen yarns of extreme fineness for the most costly lace. Frames has a wide fame for her fine cambrics and beautiful damasks.

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5. Silk goods are most largely manufactured in France, Germany, and Switzerland.

(i) The total yearly production of silk goods in the world is valued at £64,000,000. Of this France produces about £26,000,000, or two-fifths. Lycas (on the Rhone) is the chief seat of the manufacture.

(ii) In the year 1861 a treaty was made with France which allowed silks to come into the United Kingdom duty-free. This almost entirely ruined the silk manufacturers of Spitalfields (London), Macclesfield, Coventry, Dublin, etc. Coventry has since taken to the manufacture of bicycles and tricycles. There is still manufactured in Great Britain silk to the value of nearly £1,000,000.

(iii) In Germany, Erefeld (in the Rhine Province) is the chief seat of the silk manufacture; in Switzerland, Eurich and Basis.

(iv) The United States have very large silk manufactures. They make silk goods to the value of nearly £7,000,000; while their silk imports amount to about £8,000,000. Paterson (in New Jersey, U.S.) is the "Lyons of America." It has more than a hundred silk mills.

(v) The silk-worm flourishes wherever the mulberry-tree thrives. The worm is fed on mulberry leaves. In China and India the silk-worm eggs are hatched by the natural heat of the sun; in Southern Europe artificial heat is always employed.

(vi) The total quantity of raw silk produced in the world is upwards of 22 millions of pounds. The following is the proportion of each silk-producing country :--

CHIMA ITALY JAPAN FRANCE THE LEVANT INDIA 89 per cent. 80 per cent. 12 per cent. 8 per cent. 6 per cent. 4 per cent.

A little silk is also raised in Austria-Hungary.

(vii) The best silk in China is produced in the middle provinces (N. L. 30° to 35°), and in the southern province of Kwangtung.

(viii) In the great Italian Plain of the Po, the traveller passes countless rows of mulberry-trees stripped utterly bare of their leaves for the use of the silk-worm.

6. Jute is manufactured chiefly in Scotland, notably at Dundee, and in Bengal, where it is principally grown.

(i) Dundee makes and exports thousands of gaily coloured prayer carpets for the Mohammedans of the East.

(ii) There is a jute-industry also in the United States, Germany, France, and Austria.

7. Metal Industries. The most important of these is that of iron and steel; and in it Great Britain, the United States, Belgium, and Germany lead the world.

(i) In iron-smelting the chief towns in Great Britain are Middlesborough, Leeds,

Barrow, in England; Merthyr Tydvil, in Wales; and Airdrie, Glasgow, and Coatbridge in Scotland. In fact the iron-smelting districts correspond nearly exactly to most of the great coal-fields.

(ii) The list of metal manufacturing towns is very great. Birmingham makes almost anything of metal, and is the centre of the iron industries. Redditch makes needles; Bromsgrove and Cradley Heath, chains and nails; at Sheffield, noted for its cutlery, rails are made, as also at Middlesborough and Barrow. The towns on the Welsh coal and iron-field, Swansea, Cardiff, and Newport, are the seat of the tim-plate industry. Oldham and Bolton make spinning machinery, while Newcastle, Birmingham and at Enfield are large small-arm factories; and in the neighbourhood of Newcastle, especially at Armstrong's works at Elswick, heavy guns are turned out.

(iii) In the United States, which now produce more pig-iron than Great Britain herself, the chief iron-manufacturing towns lie on or around the great Appalachian oil and coal-field. They are Philadelphis in Pennsylvania, Pittsburgh, Gleveland in Ohio, Albany and Troy in New York State. Pittsburgh is the busiest of these, and can sell its wrought-iron in London at a cheaper rate than Glasgow manufacturers can afford to take.

(iv) The Belgian iron-towns cluster round the coal-fields, and the chief centres are Lisge, Ghent, Charleroi, and Mons. Liege is noted for small-arms and heavy ordnance, and for tin-ware; Charleroi for nail-making.

(v) The iron manufactures of Germany are chiefly confined to Silesia, Saxony, and the basin of the Ruhr, a tributary of the Rhine. The Ruhr basin is by far the busiest, for in it lie Essen, the seat of Krupp's cannon and rail factories, and the cutlery towns of Solingen and Remscheid. Machinery is manufactured at Chemnits in Saxony, Breslau in Silesia, Magdeburg, and Berlin.

(vi) In other countries, Lille in France is noted for machinery, and St. Etienne and Crement for iron-smelting; in Austria, Steyer, on the Enns near Linz, is the chief irontown, turning out cutlery, nails, and firearms; and Terni, in Italy, near Rome, has large iron-smelting works.

8. Minor Metal Industries.—Birmingham is the first town in the world for these, and is the headquarters of brassfounding in England. London, Namur, Liége, and Brussels have also brassfounding factories. Swansea, Llanelly; a few towns in Lancashire, and Malines in Belgium, smelt copper, imported from America, Australia, and South Africa. Zinc and sulphur are smelted at Swansea, and lead at Ghent in Belgium, and also at Swansea and Llanelly.

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(i) Zinc, which is largely used in brass-making, is also smelted in the States of llinois, Missouri, and Kansas in America.

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(ii) Geneva is the centre of the watch-making trade. Watches are also made at Locle and La Chaux de Fonds in the Jura.

9. The products of the Chemical Industries enter largely into bleaching, dyeing, soap-making, distilling, and many other trades. They are most highly developed in the United Kingdom, Germany, France, and the United States.

(i) In the United Kingdom the chemical industries lie chiefly in the neighbourhood of Liverpool, Glasgow, and Newcastle; in Germany, at and round Stassfurt, Erfurt, and Elberfeld. In France the centres are Lyons, Paris, Lille, and Marseilles; and in the U.S.A., in the States of New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Massachusetta.

(ii) Alkali, a commercial term for different compounds of soda and potash, is made especially at Widnes and St. Helens, Newcastle, Middlesborough, and South Shields. Soap is made near Liverpool and Glasgow and on the Thames. There are large chemical works at Swanses, dealing with the preparation of sulphur.

(iii) Germany has now nearly the monopoly of the manufacture of aniline dyes out of coal-tar.

(iv) The chemical industries of France are largely concerned in scap-boiling, in which fats combine with alkali to make scap. Marseilles is the great scap-boiling town.

(v) Largely depending on the chemical industries is that of Glass. For cheap glass, Belgium and Bohemis are noted. Paris in France, and Birmingham and Liverpool in England are glass-making centres. Pennsylvania in America has large glass factories.

10. Shipbuilding.—In this industry Great Britain leads the world, and the tonnage she builds is equal to more than twice that produced by all other countries. For success in shipbuilding there are three requisites: (a) an easy outlet to the sea, (b) ready and abundant supplies of coal, near which must lie (c) iron. These conditions we find in the valleys of the Clyde, which is the greatest shipbuilding river in the world, and in those of the Tyne, Wear, and Tees. In the second rank come Belfast and Barrow-ou-Furness, which turn out ocean-going steamships of a very high class, and the Thames and the Mersey, which are, however, rather shipping than shipbuilding rivers. Next to Great Britain come the United States, Germany, Prance, and Norway.

(i) The Atlantic 'greyhounds' are built for the Cunard Company on the Clyde, for the White Star Line at Belfast.

(ii) **Philadelphis** is the most important shipbuilding town in the States, and the **Delaware** has been called the Clyde of America. America is famed for her fast "clippers," and for her lake and river steamers. These last are built at **Buffale**, **Cleveland**, St. Louis, and Pittsburgh.

(iii) Germany's shipbuilding ports are Hamburg, Stettin, and Bremen.

(iv) In France, Marseilles, Havre, St. Nasaire (at the Loire mouth), and Rosen build ships.

(v) The warships of our navy are chiefly built in the royal yards of Portsmouth, Plymouth, Sheerness, Chatham, and Pembroke. But an increasing number are now being built at private yards, especially on the Clyde and at Barrow.

11. Manufacturing Power.—The industrial development of every country is proportionate to the amount of manufacturing power it possesses. This divides into three main heads: (a) steam-power produced by coal; (b) water-power; (c) power derived from natural gas. In addition to these it will be no long time before industry presses into her service both electricity and the power of the tides.

(i) "Coal is fuel, but iron is machinery." Where the two are found together, there will industrial development reach its highest pitch, as it does in the United Kingdom, the United States, and Germany.

(ii) Water-power first gave Yorkshire its manufacturing pre-eminence. Waterpower lights every little village in Canada with electric light. Part of the power of the Niagara Falls generates light for Buffalo forty miles away. The streams of Norway cut her wood; and Swiss waterfalls help to give Switzerland a high rank amongst manufacturing countries.

(iii) The "natural gas" of the Pittsburgh region in Pennsylvania is computed to supply power equal to that generated by 14 million tons of coal.

(iv) Electric power, as a motor, is yet in its infancy. It has been proposed to put to some industrial use the immense tidal power of the Bay of Fundy.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

1. Imports are those goods which are brought into a country for the use and consumption of its inhabitants. For these imports the inhabitants are obliged to pay. Exports are those goods which are carried out of a country and sold to the people of other countries. For exports, people have to be paid.

Importo-I carry into. Exporto-I carry out of.

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2. The six largest ports of Great Britain are London, Liverpool, Cardiff, Hull, Newcastle, and Glasgow.

(i) The annual total trade, turn-over, or "movement" of the Port of Leaden amounts to from 216 to 220 millions of money. It receives about 36 per cent. of the imports of the United Kingdom, and sends off about 30 per cent. of the exports. As a port, it stretches from London Bridge down to Tilbury and Gravesend. It has the largest consting-trade of all the ports of Great Britain. In the year 1887 one vessel left the Port of London with a cargo every 16 minutes.

(ii) Liverpool, which stands on the deep, wide, and grand estuary of the little River Mersey, takes in about 25 per cent. of the imports of the United Kingdom, and sends out about 40 per cent. of the exports. It possesses 25 miles of quay. With the port of Birkenhead, its water-space for ships (including canals and docks) amounts to over 1900 acres.

(iii) Gardiff is the outlet of the S. Wales mineral field, and is now the greatest coalport in the world. Its quays possess forty coal-staiths, and each staith can ship 300 tons of coal an hour. The Bute docks cover 110 acres.

(iv) Hull, on the wide estuary called the Humber, possesses 200 acres of dock. It is connected with the cotton and woollen manufacturing districts of England by canal, river, and railway. It does almost all the Baltic trade.

(v) Newcastle, which stands on the Tyne, about ten miles from the German Ocean, has not only a very busy movement, but does a very large amount of shipbuilding. It possesses a quay 1540 yards long.

(vi) Glasgow, which stands at a part of the Clyde which was easily fordable in the beginning of the century, possesses now a channel in which ships that draw 24 feet of water can ride at anchor. The quayage of the harbour and docks extends to nearly 12,000 yards. Glasgow is also a very important shipbuilding centre.

3. For many years the imports of Great Britain have been very much more valuable than the exports. That is, we have been obliged to pay for what we bought much more than we got for what we sold. Why is it, then, that Great Britain is not growing poorer every year? The reasons are two: (i) We invest a great deal of money abroad in India, Canada, and other parts of the British Empire; in Belgium, France, and other great manufacturing countries; (ii) We do a very large carrying trade for other nations; and for this we are paid.

(i) In the year 1360, our imports amounted to about £210,000,000, and our exports to about £135,000,000. In 1394, the imports amounted to about £405,000,000; the exports to less than £220,000,000. Thus we see that, in 1860, the imports exceeded the exports by a half; whereas, now, they are nearly double.

(ii) How much our carrying trade exceeds that of other nations is very visible from the returns of the ships that go through the Suez Canal. Great Britain sends through

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every year over 2500 ships, with a tonnage of more than 8,000,000; Germany sends about 290, with a tonnage of 800,000; France 174 ships, Holland 177.

The tonnage of Great Britain sent through the Suez Canal is about ten times that of Germany.

4. The giving of exports for imports is called **Exchange**. Exchange means the giving of what we do not want for what we do want, or what we want less for what we desire more. This exchange depends on a number of differences; and the most important of these differences are four: (i) Difference of soil; (ii) Difference of climate; (iii) Difference of minerals; (iv) Difference in the kinds of labour.

5. Exchanges are made easier and cheaper by good and cheap modes of transport and communication. Transport has been improved, and indeed revolutionised, by the application of steam. Communication has been revolutionised by the application of electricity.

(i) Transport takes place either by land or by water. Steam has been applied to carriage on railways, and also to carriage by water. Transport is now so cheap that heavy and bulky goods, like coal and grain, can be carried and delivered at a profit at distances of 12,500 miles—that is, half way round the globe.

(ii) Communications are made by letter, by the telegraph, or by telephone. The last two are possible only by the application of electricity.

6. Exchange, which in early times was limited to the interchange of products between town and country, is now as wide as the world we live on.

(i) Foreign trade was at one time limited to the Mediterranean, which was the highway of early commerce.

(ii) The discovery of America opened up the New World to our commerce; and the discovery of the seaway to India, first round the Cape of Good Hope, and afterwards by the Suez Canal, opened up the whole of India, China, Japan, and the East in general. Thus the Atlantic is the modern Mediterranean; and the Pacific Ocean comes next to the Atlantic as a highway of trade.

7. Exchange of goods is called by the generic term commerce. Exchange between countries is called foreign commerce; between different parts of the same country, domestic or internal commerce.

(i) Active commerce is the name given to the commerce in which the commercial nation carries its own and foreign goods in its own ships. When the productions of one country are carried by the people of another, this is called passive commerce.

(ii) Interstate commerce is the name given in North America to commercial transactions between persons who reside in different states.

8. The chief imports of Great Britain are: Articles of food and drink; raw materials for various industries, but chiefly for the manufacture of textiles; manufactured articles, metals, oils, chemicals, and tobacco.

(i) On articles of food and drink we spend about £150,000,000 a year.

(ii) On raw materials we lay out nearly £112,000,000 annually.

(iii) For manufactured articles we give a yearly sum of about £65,000,000.

(iv) We buy metals to the annual amount of £21,000,000.

(v) For cils we give over £7,000,000; for chemicals nearly the same; and for tobacco over £3,500,000.

9. The chief exports of Great Britain are : yarns and textiles, metals, and articles manufactured from them ; other manufactures, raw materials, machinery, apparel, and chemicals.

(i) We sell of yarms and textile fabrics to the amount of about £100,000,000 a year.

(ii) Our sales of metals and things made from them come to over £30,000,000.

(iii) Our miscellaneous manufactures bring in about the same sum.

(iv) We dispose of raw materials to the annual amount of nearly £18,000,000. The chief "raw material" exported is coal.

(v) We send away machinery to the annual value of nearly £14,000,000; apparel to about £10,000,000; and chemicals to nearly £9,000,000.

10. Our largest customers are, in the order of importance : the United States, the British Empire (abroad), France, Germany, Holland, Belgium, and Russia.

(i) The United States sell us goods to the annual value of about £100,000,000. But they buy from us about one quarter of that amount.

(ii) The British Possessions buy about £75,000,000 worth, India alone taking more than one-third of this. We buy from our own possessions about £100,000,000 worth.

(iii) France sends us goods to the value of about £45,000,000; buys from us nearly £15,000,000 worth.

11. The medium of exchange between commercial countries consists of (i) bills; (ii) cheques; and (iii) coins.



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The first form of exchange is simple barser. The first step away from this clumsy process is a symbol. That symbol in savage countries may consist of shells or nuts or brass wire, etc. In more civilised countries it may consist of "bricks" of tea, etc. The second step is celns of gold, silver, or copper. The third step is cheques, which are orders to a Bank to pay; and the final step is bills, which are written promises to pay.

THE CARRIAGE AND DISTRIBUTION OF GOODS.

1. THE highways of the world are naturally divided into Waterways and Landways.

(i) Water-carriage is cheaper than land-carriage, because (a) the water itself bears the weight; and (b) a water-road (except a canal) never wears out, and needs no repairs. A horse that can draw 1 ton in a cart on land, can draw 40 tons in a boat or barge upon water.

(ii) A hundred lbs. of cotton can be carried from Bombay to Liverpool—a distance of 7150 miles—for 4s. 1d.; the carriage of the same quantity from Liverpool to Oldham —a distance of 89 miles—is 7d. In other words, the carriage by water of 100 lbs. of cotton is less than 7d. a thousand miles; by land it is 7d. every forty miles. When freight is very low, it is sometimes cheaper to send a cargo from Liverpool to London by way of New York.

(iii) Wheat can be profitably carried from Chicago to Liverpool; but, if it is grown more than twenty miles from a railway, the cartage of it to that distance does away with the profit. Butter can be sent from Halifax (Nova Scotia) to Glasgow at a cost of a farthing per pound; while goods carried by men from the interior of Africa to the sea-coast have cost for carriage over £300 per ton.

(iv) Again, what adds greatly to the expense of carrying goods is what is called "breaking bulk"—that is, transferring the goods from ship to ship, or from ship to railway truck. This is also called "handling." Thus (a) goods conveyed from New York to Guayaquil (on the coast of Ecuador, in South America) are subject to six handlings. (b) Petroleum, in the United States, is delivered by means of long pipes in New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, and other towns. There are now over 25,000 miles of these pipes in the United States.

2. The Waterways of the world consist of Oceans, Seas, Lakes, Rivers, Canals, and Canalised Rivers.

3. The most important **Ocean Routes** followed by commerce are five: (i) The **Atlantic Route**; (ii) The **Eastern Route** by the Suez

Canal; (iii) The Cape Route; (iv) The Cape Horn Route; and (v) The West Indian Route.

4. The Atlantic Trade goes on between Europe and North and South America in general; and, more especially, between Britain, Canada, and the United States; and also between the Continent of Europe and the two Americas.

(i) The great ports on this side which send out goods are : London, Liverpool, Bris cl, and Glaegow ; Bremen, Hamburg, Havre, and Bordsaux.

(ii) The ports on the other side are: New York, Fhiladelphia, and New Orleans; Halifax, Montreal, and Quebee.

- (a) Montreal and Quebec are closed by ice for several months every year. New York harbour is always open.
- (b) Halifax is rather too far away from the great commercial centres.

(iii) The opening of the **Canadian Pacific Line** has turned the Atlantic Route into one of the great highways to "The East"; and goods and passengers are now sent by this route to China and Japan, to Australia and New Zealand. The harbour **Equimant** (on the Pacific) is strongly fortified.

(iv) The fortified positions which defend this route are: Quebec, Halifax, Bernuda, and Eingston (in Jamaica).

(v) There are repairing docks for ships at Bermuda, Halifax, and Esquimania.

5. The Eastern Route carries goods and passengers between Europe and India, China, the East Indies, Australia, and New Zealand.

(i) The chief ports of departure for this route are London and Southampton.

(ii) The great ports on the other side are Bombay, Calcutta, Colombo (in Ceylon), Singapore (the "Gate of the East"), Hong-Kong, Melbourne, Sydney, and Auchland.

(iii) The most important part of this route is the Suss Canal, which is 87 miles long (66 miles of canal and 21 miles of lakes). More than 8000 vessels pass through this Canal every year, with a tonnage of about 10,000,000. The electric light enables vessels to go on by night as well as by day. Three-fourths of all the vessels that go through it are British. It has reduced the distance between London and Bombay by 5000 miles, and has thus practically revolutionised the carrying trade to the East.

(iv) The Eastern Highway also conveys goods to the Persian Gulf; to Madagassar and the East Coast of Africa (Zanzibar, Delagoa Bay, etc.); to the Straits Settlements, the Philippine Islands, and the great ports of China and Japan.

(v) The fortified positions which defend this route are: Gibraitar, Maita, Cyprus, Perim, Aden, Bombay, Colombo, Trincomales, Singapore, and Hong-Kong.

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6. The Cape Boute carries goods and passengers to South Africa, Natal, the Orange Free State, the South African Republic ("Transvaal"), and also on to different parts of Australasia.

(i) The ports on this side are : London, Liverpool, Southampton, and Plymouth.

(ii) The ports on the other side are: Cape Town, Port Elizabeth (Algos Bay), Durbar. (Port Natal), and Lorenzo Marques (Delagos Bay).

(iii) At the Cape of Good Hope, this line of roads separates into two main lines one branch going north to the Indian Ocean, the other keeping on right east to Australia and New Zealand. When a sailing ship gets into the "Roaring Forties" (about 40° S. L.), she keeps due east for Australia, driven along by the "Brave West Winds," which are really the "Anti-Trades" of the regular South-East Trade Wirds of the Southern Hemisphere.

(iv) We possess few coaling-stations between London and the Cape and Australia; but steamers call or can call at Madeira, Las Palmas (Canary Islands), and Ascension.

(v) The fortified positions which defend this route are the naval and coaling stations at Sierra Leone, Ascension, St. Helena, Table Bay, Simon's Bay, the Mauritius (the "Malta of the Indian Ocean"), and one or two small islands in the Indian Ocean.

7. The Cape Horn Route is the line taken by vessels trading to the western ports of South America. Ships also call at Rio Janeiro, Monte Video, and other ports on the east coast.

(i) The ports on this side are: London, Liverpool, Bristol, and Southampton.

(ii) The ports on the other side are: Valparaise, Gallae (Lima in Peru), and Gaayaquii (in Ecuador).

(iii) Our only possession on this route is the Falkland Islands.

(iv) Ships that go to Australasia by the Cape of Good Hope generally return by Cape Horn. In the Southern Hemisphere, they make use of the "Anti-Trades," called the "Brave West Winds"; in the Northern Hemisphere, they avail themselves of the South-West Anti-Trades, which are the counterpart of the North-East Trade Winds of the Atlantic.

8. The West Indian Route is taken by ships that trade between Great Britain and Europe on the one side, and the West Indies, the Gulf of Mexico, Central America, and the Northern coast of South America on the other.

(i) The ports on this side are : Southampton and London. Southampton sends ships to the West Indies, Brazil, and the Gulf; London to Demerara (in British Guiana), etc.

(ii) The chief ports on the other side are : Mingston, Havana, New Orleans, Panama, and Demorara,

(iii) When the Isthmus of Panama is pierced by a ship-canal—as pierced it will be either by the Lake of Nicaragua Canal or at Panama—the West Indian Route will become part of a short route to Australia and New Zealand.

9. The two most commercial seas (not oceans) in the world are the Mediterranean and the Baltic.

(i) The Mediterranean was once the only great trading sea in the world; but its place has now been taken by the Atlantic, which lies between the richest and most commercial nations on the face of the globe. The chiof commercial value of the Mediterranean in the present day consists partly in (a) that it is the means of commercial interchange between such countries as Spain, France, Italy, Greece, and the regions of North Africa, but chiefly (b) that it is the highway of commerce to India by means of the Sucz Canal and the Red Sea.

(ii) The Baltie is the highway of commerce for Russia, Prussia, Sweden, Norway, and Denmark. The chief Baltic ports in Great Britain are Hull and Leith.

10. The most highly commercial lake-routes in the world are those on the **Five Great Lakes** of North America, and those on the **Caspian Sea**.

(i) The commerce on the Five Great Lakes (which are practically great inland freshwater seas) is kept up by countless steamers and sailing-vessels. This commerce comes not only from Eastern and Central Canada, but from some of the wealthiest, most enterprising, and industrious states—such as New York (on Lake Ontario), Pennsylvania and Ohio (on Lake Erie), Michigan (on Lakes Huron, Michigan, and Superior), Wisconsin (on Lakes Michigan and Superior), and Illinois and Indiana (on Lake Michigan).

(ii) Great or rising cities also stand on those lakes : Buffalo and Cleveland (on Lake Erie), Detroit (on the Detroit River, which flows into Lake Erie), Chiesge and Milwankee (on Lake Michigan), and Duluth (on Lake Superior).

(iii) The Five Great Lakes also provide parts of two of the three great water-routes of the United States. (a) The first of these is by the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence. Chicago—which is practically a scaport—sends grain by this route to Liverpool. (b) The second is by the Great Lakes, the Eric Canal, and the Hudson River to New York, and thence on to Great Britain. Along this river-valley "the tide of emigration from Europe has rolled for more than half a century."

(iv) The Caspian Sea (which is the sunken remains of a great sea which once flowed between the Black Sea and the Arctic Ocean) is the highway of commerce for the South of Russia and Persia. A canal unites the upper tributaries of the Volga with those of Lake Ladoga and the Düna; and there is thus a long inland waterway

The third great water-routs is by the Mississippi and its tributaries to New Orleans. By this routs the coal and machinery of the North find their way to the Cotton Sistem, and the grain, four, port, and beef to Europe and Great Britain.

between the Caspian and the Baltic. There are lines of steam-packets on this sea, in addition to large numbers of coasting vessels.

There is a line of railway from Poti (on the Black Sea) to Baku (on the Caspian); then a line of steamers to Erramovodsk (on the eastern above of the Caspian); and then a line of railway to Samarkand (in Turkestan). This is destined to be one day a great Highway of Commerce.

11. The most highly commercial rivers are : in Europe, the Rhine and the Danube; in North America, the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi; in Asia, the Ganges and the Yang-tse-Kiang; and in South America, the La Plata and its mighty tributaries.

(i) The most commercial rivers are always those that run from north to south (along the lines of longitude). The reason of this is that these rivers exchange the products of colder with those of hotter climates, whereas rivers that run east and west run pretty nuch through the same climates. The Mississippi exchanges the fruits and grains, the pork and beef of the Northern for the cotton, fruits, and spices of the Southern or Gulf States.

(ii) The ∇ oign is the great trunk-canal of commerce between the North and the South of Russia.

(iii) The Yang-tse-Kiang is the main commercial artery of China. As it flows from the elevated tableland of Thibet down into the Yellow Sea, it traverses many different climates and flows through countries which yield many different products. On its banks stand seven great and populous cities. It is only on its lower and slower reaches that steamers as yet ply.

12. The great commercial canals of the world are the Ship Canals, or—as they may also be called—the Isthmus Canals. These are : the Suez Canal, the Nicaragua Canal, the Eric Canal, the Baltic Canal, the Corinthian Canal, and the Chignecto Ship Railway (which may be allowed to come under this classification).

(i) The Sues Canal is the most important commercial canal in the world. It was begun in 1860 and completed in 1869. It is 87 miles long (66 miles of canal and 21 miles of lakes); it has a bottom width of 72 feet and a depth of 28 feet. It has also passing places at suitable intervals. It has shortened the voyage from London to Bombay by 5000 miles; and it is now the highway to India, China, and Australasia. In the year 1870 only 486 vessels passed through; in the year 1892, vessels to the number of \$559. The average time of passage is about 24 hours.

(ii) The Nicaragua Ganal (which will probably take the place of the unsuccessful Panama Ganal) will, when completed, have a length of 170 miles. It utilises the San Juan river and Lake Nicaragua; and there will be only 28 miles of excavated canal. The minimum depth will be 30 feet; and vessels will be able to pass from ocean to ocean in about 28 hours. There are three locks on either side of Lake Nicaragua.

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(iii) The Eric Canal connects the Great Lakes with the port of New York. It starts from Buffalo, at the east end of Lake Eric, and goes to Albany, on the Hudson River. This canal has been known to convey 50 million bushels of grain and flour from the great wheat-growing prairies of the West, down to New York, from which they were distributed over the countries of Europe.

(iv) The Baltic Canal lies between Holtenau (near Klel) on the Baltic, and Brunsbüttel, at the mouth of the Elbe. It utilises a portion of the river Elder. The length is about 60 miles; and the depth is 28 feet. This canal saves the tedious and dangerous voyage round Jutland.

(v) The Isthmus of Corinth Canal is only four miles long; but it makes a short cut from the Adriatic into the Ægean, and saves the dangerous route round the Morea. It is 261 feet deep.

(vi) The Chignests Ship Railway carries large ships bodily across the Chignesto Isthmus—14 miles wide, which connects Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. The tides in the Bay of Fundy, at the head of which Chignesto Bay stands, are the highest and the fastest in the world; on the other side, in Northumberland Strait, they are very low. Hence a canal cannot be made. There are two sets of rails; and on these immense trucks are drawn, which can carry vessels of 2000 tons across the Isthmus.

(vii) The modern tendency is for every great commercial centre to make itself, if possible, a seaport. This Manchester has already done by the construction of a shipcanal, from the Mersey right into the heart of the city, at the cost of about £14,000,000. Birmingham proposes to do the same by a ship-canal from the Severn; and Paris is also about, by the aid of canals and by canalising parts of the Seine, to enable large vessels to come up to her splendid quays.

(vili) A ship canal from Berdeaux (on the Atlantic) to Cette (on the Mediterranean) is also going to be excavated, for the purpose of saving the dangerous voyage round the coast of Spain, which is not well provided with lighthouses, and which is swept by currents that are even now not fully known by the mariner.

THE COMMERCE OF THE COUNTRIES OF EUROPE.

(The Countries are arranged in the order of the amount of their foreign trade. The value of the imports and exports is the average of the last dve years.)

1. Germany (pop. about 50 millions).—The Trade of Germany has increased and is increasing; and the commercial ability of Germans is everywhere recognised. The imports and exports of the country are about $\pm 370,000,000$. As in the case of France, the

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value of the imports greatly exceeds that of the exports: exceeds them by over $\pounds 40,000,000$.

(i) The countries that send most exports to Germany are: North and Central America, the United Kingdom, and Austria-Hungary.

(ii) The countries which receive most imports from Germany are: The United Kingdom, North and Central America, and Austria-Hungary.

(iii) The trade of Germany with the United States is one that grows every year.

(iv) The United Kingdom sells to Germany goods to the value of about £18,000,000; and it buys from Germany goods to over £26,000,000.

2. **France** (pop. over 38 millions).—The turnover in imports and exports of this wealthy country is enormous. It generally amounts to nearly $\pm 320,000,000$. The imports are much larger than the exports; they generally exceed the exports by about $\pm 30,000,000$.

THE FOUR CHIEF IMPORTS.	THE FOUR CHIEF EXPORTS.
Grain.	Textiles (woollen, silk, cotton).
Wine.	Wine.
Raw Wool.	Smallwares.
Raw Silk.	Linen.

(i) The countries which send the largest amount of exports to France are: the United Kingdom, the United States, Belgium, and Germany.

(ii) The countries which receive the largest amount of imports from France are: the United Kingdom, Belgium, and Germany. (But Belgium is to a large extent only a carrier in this instance.)

(iii) The imports from the United Kingdom generally amount to over £15,000,000; the exports to the United Kingdom are generally about treble; they amount to about £45,000,000.

(iv) Marselles, Havre, and Paris do about half the commercial trade of the whole country.

(v) France has also a transit trade of close on £90,000,000.

3. Netherlands (pop. $4\frac{2}{4}$ millions).—The commercial instincts and habits of Holland have grown and strengthened with the growth of centuries. Their annual imports and exports amount to something over £200,000,000. The imports are, as usual, larger in value than the exports; in this case, they exceed the exports by over £10,000,000.

THE THREE CHIEF IMPORTS.	THE THREE CHIEF EXPORTS.
Grain.	Drugs.
Drugs.	Textiles.
Iron and Steel	Grain.
(i) The Netherlands buy most of their imports from the United Kingdom.	

(ii) Prussia is, however, the largest customer of Holland.

(iii) The imports from the United Kingdom generally amount to about £14,000,000; the exports to the United Kingdom to something under £30,000,000.

4. Austria-Hungary (pop. over 40 millions).—The imports and exports of the country amount to nearly $\pounds 135,000,000$; and the exports are generally $\pounds 10,000,000$ ahead of the imports.

THE THREE CHIEF IMPORTS.	THE THREE CHIEF EXPORTS.
Cotton.	Sugar.
Wool.	Grain.
Coffee.	Timber.

(i) Most of the trade is internal. Of foreign Countries, Germany, which is conterminous with Austria-Hungary, buys and sells most with that country.

(ii) The imports from the United Kingdom are small—they amount to a little over a million; and the exports are very little larger.

5. **Belgium** (pop. over 6 millions).—The imports and exports amount to about £120,000,000. The imports are larger than the exports. They are generally about £10,000,000 above them. Belgium has also a large transit trade—a trade which generally amounts to

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over \pounds 50,000,000. Only one-third of the commerce of Belgium is carried on by sea.

THE FOUR CHIEF IMPORTS.THE FOUR CHIEF EXPORTS.Grain and Flour.Grain and Flour.Raw Textiles.Yarns, Wool, Linen, etc.Vegetable Substances (Oils, etc.).Machinery.Chemicals and Drugs.Coal, Coke, etc.

(i) The grain and flour exported merely pass through Belgium.

(ii) France is the best customer of Belgium.

(iii) The imports from the United Kingdom amount to about £7,000,000 : while the exports to this country rise to the sum of nearly £17,000,000.

6. Italy (pop. about 30 millions).—The imports and exports of this country amount to about £100,000,000. The imports are more valuable than the exports : the excess is about £5,000,000 a year.

THE THREE CHIEF IMPORTS.	THE THREE CHIEF EXPORTS.
Grain.	Silk (raw and manufactured).
Coal.	Olive Oil.
Raw Cotton.	Wine.

(i) The best customer of Italy is France.

(ii) The imports from the United Kingdom amount to about £5,500,000: the exports to the United Kingdom to about £3,000,000.

7. **Russian Empire** (pop. about 117 millions).—The imports and exports of Russia amount to the annual value of over $\pounds 100,000,000$. The exports in this instance exceed the imports: exceed them by nearly $\pounds 30,000,000$ in value. Grain forms about half of the whole value of the exports.

THE THREE CHIEF IMPORTS.	THE THREE CHIEF EXPORTS.
Cotion.	Grain.
Raw Metals and Machinery.	Flax and Hemp.
Tea.	Timber.

(i) Russis's largest trade is done with Germany; and the United Kingdom is her second best customer.

(ii) We send to Russia goods to the annual value of about £5,000,000; we buy from Russia about £20,000,000 worth. Thus we purchase from Russia about four times more than we sell to her.

8. **Spain** (pop. about 17 millions).—The trade of Spain is growing, and her people are becoming more alive to the advantages of commerce. Her imports and exports amount to the annual value of about $\pounds 65,000,000$. The imports are a little ahead of the exports, but not nearly to the same extent as in other countries of Western Europe.

THE FIVE CHIEF IMPORTS.	THE FIVE CHIEF EXPORTS.
Raw Cotton.	Wine.
Coal and Coke.	Mineral Ores.
Sugar.	Fruits and Olive Oil.
Salt Fish.	Cotton Textiles.
Machinery.	Cork.

(i) The largest trade of Spain is done with her neighbour, France.

(ii) The United Kingdom comes next, buying to the extent of £11,000,000 and selling to the extent of about £5,000,000.

(iii) Iron ore, fruits, and wine are the chief articles sent us from Spain.

(iv) Spain is also a large importer of Havana Cigars.

9. Switzerland (pop. about 3 millions).—Switzerland is one of the most commercial, as it is one of the most industrious countries in Europe. Though possessing a very small population, the imports and exports amount to about $\pounds 65,000,000$ a year. The chief imports are food stuffs and silk; the chief exports, silks, cottons, clocks, and watches.

(i) The largest trade is done with Germany.

(ii) The imports from the United Kingdom amount to about $\pounds 1,500,000$; and the exports to this country about $\pounds 4,500,000$. In other words, we buy from Switzerland about three times more than we sell to her.

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10. Sweden (pop. 5 millions).—Sweden has for a long time been an enterprising country, though her position on the Baltic is not the most favourable for foreign commerce. Her annual imports and exports amount to nearly $\pounds 40,000,000$. The imports are only slightly in advance of the exports.

THE THREE CHIEF IMPORTS.	THE THREE CHIEF EXPORTS.
Textile Manufactures.	Timber.
Minerals, mostly Coal.	Live Animals and Animal Food.
Coffee and Sugar.	Metals.

(i) The largest trade of Sweden is done with the United Kingdom.

(ii) Germany, however, imports most into Sweden.

(iii) We sell to Sweden to the value of about £3,000,000. We buy from her to the annual value of over £8,000,000.

11. **Denmark** (pop. 2 millions).—The imports and exports generally amount to over £30,000,000 a year. The imports rise above the exports—they often exceed them by £4,000,000.

(i) The chief import consists of textile manufactures: the chief export, provisions (chiefly butter). The exports are steadily increasing.

(ii) The chief customer is the United Kingdom, which buys from Denmark to the amount of $\pounds 8,000,000$, and generally sells her about $\pounds 2,500,000$ worth.

12. **Roumania** (pop. about $5\frac{1}{2}$ millions).—This country, which holds vast regions of the richest land in the valley of the Danube, has always been a great grain-growing country. Her imports and exports amount to about £25,000,000. The imports are, as usual, the larger : in this case by about £5,000,000. The chief import is cotton goods : the chief export, grain. The United Kingdom is the best customer, buying about £4,000,000 worth, and selling about £1,500,000 worth.

13. Turkish Empire (pop. 39 millions).—Turkey, though rich by nature, has never developed her wealth by activity in commerce or in industries. Her annual imports and exports amount to about £20,000,000. The imports exceed the exports by nearly £6,000,000.

THE FOUR CHIEF IMPORTS.	THE FOUR CHIEF EXPORTS.
Sheeting and Turkish Cloth.	Cereals.
Cottons and Cotton Thread.	Raw Silk.
Sugar.	Fruits (Raisins, Figs, etc.).
Coffee.	Mohair.

By far the greatest trade is done with the United Kingdom, which buys from Turkey to the value of about £5,000,000, and sells to her to the extent of £6,000,000.

14. Portugal (pop. about 5 millions).—Portugal has long driven a prosperous trade—especially in wine. Her imports and exports generally amount to the annual value of about £19,000,000. The imports are larger than the exports by about £2,000,000. Grain and cotton are the chief imports; while wine is the chief export, the value of the quantity exported being twice as much as that of all the other exports put together.

(i) The United Kingdom is the best customer of Portugal, and buys from her to the annual value of about £3,000,000.

(ii) We export to Portugal goods to the annual value of about £2,000,000.

15. Norway (pop. 2 millions).—Though a poor and poorly populated country, Norway does a brisk trade. Her imports and exports amount to about £20,000,000. The imports are generally larger than the exports by about £4,000,000. The chief import is bread stuffs : the chief exports timber and fish.

(i) The United Kingdom is the principal customer of Norway. We buy from her to the value of about £3,600,000.

(ii) We sell to Norway goods to the value of about £2,000,000 a year.

16. Greece (pop. over 2 millions).—The trade of Greece is small; but, compared with her population, it is both large and growing. The annual imports and exports amount to about £10,000,000. The imports are ahead of the exports by about 1 million. The chief import is grain ; the chief export, currants.

(i) The imports from the United Kingdom amount to about £1,000,000.

(ii) The exports to the United Kingdom are generally double that value.

(iii) The annual export of currants comes to about £2,000,000.

17. Servia (pop. 2 millions).—This is a small and new country; and her people have hardly as' yet found their way into the markets of Europe. Her annual imports and exports amount to only about $\pounds 3,500,000$. The exports are a little larger than the imports. The chief import is metals: the chief exports are grain and fruit, and animals, especially swine.

(i) More than half the trade of the country is done with Austria.

(ii) The imports from the United Kingdom are extremely small—they amount to only about £150,000 a year. The Servians sell to us hardly anything—not £2000 worth a year.

18. Montenegro (pop. 230,000).—This is a small mountaincountry which has very little to sell. Her imports amount to only $\pounds 20,000$; her exports to about $\pounds 200,000$. Her chief exports are shumac (for tanning), and smoked mutton.

THE COMMERCE OF THE COUNTRIES OF ASIA.

1. China (pop. about 400 millions).—Most of the commerce of China is internal—that is, carried on between the different provinces of the empire. The annual value of the imports and exports amounts to about $\pounds 50,000,000$. The exports are the larger; they exceed the imports by the value of about $\pounds 6,000,000$.

THE TWO CHIEF IMPORTS.	THE TWO CHIEF EXPORTS.
Cotton Goods.	Silk (raw and manufactured).
Opium.	Tea.

(i) By far the largest trade is done with Hong-Kong.

(ii) The imports from the United Kingdom amount to over £6,000,000; the exports to the United Kingdom to about £5,000,000.

(iii) There are twenty-three free or treaty ports, of which Shanghai does about half as much trade again as all the rest put together.

2. Japan (pop. about 40 millions).—The Japanese are becoming more and more alive to the value of commerce for the prosperity of their country. They are making more railways every year, and their foreign trade is always growing. Their imports and exports generally rise to the annual value of £26,000,000. The imports and exports are, at present, of nearly the same value.

THE FIVE CHIEF IMPORTS.	THE FIVE CHIEF EXPORTS.
Cotton Yarn and Goods.	Raw Silk.
Sugar.	Manufactured Silk.
Beverages and Provisions.	Tea.
Metals.	Rice.
Woollen Goods.	Coal.

(i) Baw Silk forms about one-third of the value of the whole export trade.

(ii) North America buys about half the exports from Japan; while the United Kingdom is by far the largest seller to Japan.

(iii) The imports from the United Kingdom amount to over £8,000,000; the exports to us to about £1,000,000.

(iv) Of the treaty ports open to trade the chief are Yokohama, Kobé, Nagasaki, and Osaka.

3. **Persia** (pop. 8 millions).— The total foreign trade of Persia is estimated at a little over £7,000,000. (There are no official returns made of imports and exports.) The chief import is cotton fabrics; the chief export, dried fruits.

(i) The imports from the United Kingdom are below £500,000.

(ii) The exports to the United Kingdom are also very small: they fall below a quarter of a million.

4. Siam (pop. 6 millions).—This country is now practically under the protection of France. The trade is not very large, but is increasing. The annual value of the imports and exports is about £5,000,000. The exports exceed the imports. The chief import is cottons; the chief export, rice (to the value of about $\pounds 2,000,000$).

(i) Trade goes on chiefly between Bangkok (the only port of any importance) and Singapore.

(ii) The trade at Bangkok is largely in the hands of British firms.

(iii) The transit trade to Singapore is conducted chiefly by Chinese

5. Corea (pop. about 9 millions).—The imports amount to about $\pounds 1,000,000$, and the exports to a little over $\pounds 500,000$. The chief import is cotton goods; while rice and beans are the largest exports.

(i) Seoul (the capital) and three coast ports are open to foreign commerce.

(ii) Seoul (which is distant from London 11,560 miles) is connected with us by telegraph. The cost is 7s. per word.

(iii) The shipping is almost all in Japanese hands.

6. **Afghanistan** (pop. about 5 millions).—The bulk of the trade is with India, and is valued at something under a million.

(i) The chief imports are cotton goods, indigo, sugar, and tea.

(ii) The largest exports are horses, carpets, fruits, and nuts.

7. Baluchistan (pop. 200,000).—This state is really a feudatory to the Government of India. The bulk of the trade is with India, and is valued at the low sum of $\pounds 100,000$.

THE COMMERCE OF THE COUNTRIES OF AFRICA.

1. Abyssinia (pop. 3 millions). — This country is now under the protectorate of Italy. The exports from Britain to Abyssinia are almost nil: they reach the low value of £15,000. The country has no seaport. Some small exports of **akins**, **ivory**, and **gums** reach the sea at Massowah.

2. Egypt (pop. 7 millions).—Since the war of 1882, this country has been under the protection of England. The annual value of the

imports and exports varies from £22,000,000 to £27,000,000 The exports are about half as large again in value as the imports.

THE THREE CHIEF IMPORTS.	THE THREE CHIEF EXPORTS.
Cotton Goods.	Cotton and Cotton Seed.
Silks, Woollens, etc.	Beans.
Coal and Timber.	Sugar.

(i) By far the largest trade is done with the United Kingdom.

(ii) The United Kingdom buys to the value of about £10,000,000, and sells to the value of about £3,000,000.

3. South African Republic or Transvaal (pop. about 120,000 with over 350,000 natives).—The annual imports amount to about $\pounds 3,500,000$. The chief exports are wool, cattle, hides, grain, ostrich feathers, and gold.

(i) The output of gold from the goldfields of Barberton and Witwatersrandt is increasing yearly. In 1891 it amounted to nearly £3,000,000; but the yearly export is now about double that sum.

(ii) The capital is Pretoria; but the largest town is Johannesburg (40,000), which is the centre of the mining country. Both have telegraphic communication with London, and are connected by railway both with the Cape and Natal.

4. Orange Free State (pop. 207,000).—The imports amount to about $\pounds 1,500,000$; the exports to $\pounds 2,500,000$. The chief imports consist of British produce of all kinds; the chief exports wool, hides, diamonds, and ostrich feathers.

(i) The exports and imports pass through the ports of Natal and Cape Colony

(ii) The capital, Bloemfontein, is connected with London by telegraph.

5. Morocco (pop. 5 millions).—The imports amount to about $\pounds 1,870,000$; the exports to a little over $\pounds 1,500,000$. The foreign trade is carried on mostly with Great Britain and France, but Germany has been making considerable advances of recent years. The chief imports are cotton goods and sugar; the chief exports, beans, grains, wool, and oxen.

(i) Imports from the United Kingdom amount to about £600,000.

(ii) The exports to the United Kingdom rise to over £700,000.

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6. Tunis (pop. 2 millions, the French pop. being about 50,000).— This country is now under the protectorate of France. The imports amount to about £1,500,000; the exports to £1,400,000. The chief exports are: wheat, barley, olive oil, and esparto grass. The largest imports are cotton goods, semolina, and four.

(i) The trade of Tunis with Great Britain is very small. The whole turnover does not amount to a quarter of a million.

(ii) Our chief purchase is that of esparto grass and other materials for the making of paper.

7. Congo Free State (estimated pop. 27 millions).—The capital is Boma, on the Lower Congo. The annual exports amount to nearly $\pounds 400,000$. The chief exports are ivory, nuts, and palm-oil.

(i) The trade is chiefly with Belgium and the Netherlands.

(ii) In the year 1892, 775 vessels, with a tonnage of nearly 200,000, entered the ports of Banana and Boma.

(iii) There are now twenty post-offices in the State.

8. Madagascar (pop. about $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions).—This large and rich island (the third largest in the world) is also under the protectorate of France. Full statistics of trade are not yet obtainable. The chief imports are : cotton goods, rum, crockery, and hardware. The chief exports are cattle, rubber, and hides.

(i) The trade is chiefly with the Mauritius and France.

(ii) The trade with Great Britain is very small, but is growing.

THE COMMERCE OF THE COUNTRIES OF NORTH AMERICA.

1. The United States (pop. 70 millions).—The annual imports amount to about £160,000,000. The exports are larger, and amount to about £180,000,000.

THE NINE CHIEF IMPORTS.	THE NINE CHIEF EXPORTS.
Sugar, Molasses, etc.	Bread Stuffs.
Coffee.	Cotton (unmanufactured).
Silk.	Provisions.
Chemicals.	Mineral Oils.
Textile Fibres and Manufactures.	Iron and Steel.
Cotton.	Animals
Woollen Goods.	Wood.
Iron and Steel.	Tobacco.
Fruits.	Precious Metals.
THE LARGEST BUYERS FROM THE UNITED STATES ARC :	THE LARGEST SELLERS TO THE UNITED STATES ARE :
The United Kingdom.	The United Kingdom.
Germany.	West Indies.
France.	Germany.
British North America.	Brazil.
West Indies.	France.

(i) The United Kingdom buys more than half the exports of the United States. She buys to the value of about £100,000,000; while she sells to the United States about £30,000,000 worth.

(ii) About 73 per cent. of the trade of the United States is carried on at the Atlantic ports, New York itself claiming 50 per cent. of the whole.

(iii) The United States import gold and silver to the annual value of about $\pounds 9,000,000$; while they produce of these metals about $\pounds 20,000,000$ worth.

2. Mexico (pop. 12 millions).—The annual imports amount to about $\pounds 10,000,000$; the exports to over $\pounds 15,000,000$. The chief imports are textile manufactures; the chief exports are silver (ore and coin), henequen (a kind of "sisal hemp"), and confree.

(i) The United States take up about a quarter of the whole trade.

(ii) The imports from the United Kingdom, £1,500,000; exports to the United Kingdom, £500,000.

(iii) Our chief purchases are mahogany and silver ore.

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3. Guatemala (pop. $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions).—The annual imports amount to about £1,200,000; the exports to nearly £3,000,000. The chief export is coffee. The chief imports are cotton cloth and yarn, wrought iron, and wines.

(i) The trade done with the United Kingdom is somewhat under £1,000,000.

(ii) Our chief purchase is coffee.

4. Costa Rica (pop. under 250,000).—The annual imports amount to nearly \pounds 1,000,000; the exports to under \pounds 1,500,000. The chief export is coffee.

(i) Great Britain is the best customer of Costa Rica; and the United States are the next.

(ii) We sell the Costa Ricans cottons.

5. San Salvador (pop. about 750,000).—The annual imports amount to something under £500,000; the exports to something over £1,000,000. The chief exports are coffee and indigo, but coffee forms two-thirds of the whole value of the exports.

(i) The trade with Great Britain is very small. We buy from the state about £80,000 worth of dye-stuffs, and about £130,000 worth of coffee.

(ii) We sell to San Salvador cottons, woollens, iron, and machinery.

6. Nicaragua (pop. 280,000).—The annual imports amount to about \pounds 500,000; the exports to something the same. The chief export is coffee.

(i) The annual trade done with Great Britain does not amount to £200,000.

(ii) We buy from Nicaragua coffee and dye-woods.

(iii) A canal has been begun by an American Company to connect the Atlantic with the Pacific Ocean. This will be a rival to the Panama Canal, if that undertaking should ever be completed.

7. Honduras (pop. 400,000).—The annual imports generally amount to about \pounds 400,000; the exports to about the same. The chief exports are live stock, bananas, and coccos-nuts.

(i) More than half the trade is done with the United States.

(ii) Great Britain buys from Honduras chiefly mahogany-to the annual value of about £12,000.

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THE COMMERCE OF THE COUNTRIES OF SOUTH AMERICA.

1. **Brazil** (pop. 14 millions).—The annual imports amount to about \pounds 30,000,000; the exports to nearly \pounds 35,000,000. The chief exports are indiarubber, cocca, and coffee: the chief imports are manufactured cotton, iron, and machinery. The trade is chiefly with the United Kingdom, the United States, Germany, and France.

(i) Our trade with Brazil amounts to the annual value of £12,000,000. Of this more than half represents the value of our exports to Brazil.

(ii) We buy from Brazil rubber, coffee, raw cotton, and unrefined sugar.

(iii) We sell to Brazil manufactured cotton, machinery, wrought and unwrought iron, woollens, and coals.

(iv) The customs duties upon articles of British manufacture are extremely heavy : they average 45 per cent. of the value of the goods.

2. Argentina (pop. over 4 millions).—The annual imports and exports amount to about \pounds 40,000,000, the two being of about the same value. But both, and notably the exports, are bound to increase.

THE THREE CHIEF IMPORTS.	THE THREE CHIEF EXPORTS.
Textiles and Apparel.	Wool.
Food Substances.	Mutton.
Iron and its manufactures.	Wheat.

Animals and animal produce make up about two-thirds of the whole value of the exports.

(i) By far the largest trade is done with us. The annual trade done with the United Kingdom amounts to over £10,000,000. Of this we sell to the amount of £6,000,000; and we buy to the extent of over £4,000,000.

(ii) Great Britain buys from the Argentine Republic about \$1,000,000 worth of fresh mutton a year; wheat and other grains to treble that amount.

(iii) We sell to Argentina chiefly cotton goods, iron, and machinery.

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3. **Ohilé** (pop. 3 millions).—The annual imports amount to about $\pounds 12,000,000$; the exports to over $\pounds 10,000,000$.

THE FOUR CHIEF IMPORTS.	THE FOUR CHIEF EXPORTS.
Textiles.	Nitre.
Machinery.	Wheat.
Sugar.	Copper.
Cattle.	Iodine.

Nitre forms about half the value of the whole exports. Valparaiso does more than half the import trade; while Iquique does over a third of the export trade.

(i) A large trade is done with Great Britain. Its annual value is over $\pounds 6,000,000$. Our purchases in Chilé are generally larger than our sales.

(ii) The staple Chilian imports into Great Britain are grain, nitre, and copper.

(iii) We send them cotton and woollen manufactures, and iron.

4. **Uruguay** (pop. over 500,000).—The annual imports amount to about $\pounds 5,000,000$; the exports to over $\pounds 5,000,000$. The chief exports are hides and skins, wool, and preserved beef.

(i) The rearing of cattle and sheep is the chief industry of Uruguay. The total value of the flocks and herds is nearly $\pounds 15,000,000$.

(ii) Great Britain does the largest trade with Uruguay. This trade amounts to nearly £2,000,000 s year, of which £1,200,000 represents the value of what we buy.

(iii) The chief imports into Uruguay are foods and drinks, textiles, ready-made clothing, and machinery.

5. Venezuela (pop. over 2 millions).—The annual imports amount to about $\pounds 3,500,000$; the exports to about $\pounds 4,000,000$. The chief exports are coffee, gold, cocca, and copper.

(i) The trade done with Great Britain is small. It amounts to about $\pounds 1,000,000$. The imports bought from us often amount to three times more than the value of what we buy from Venezuela.

(ii) Our chief purchase is copper ore.

(iii) They buy from us chiefly cotton and linen goods, wrought and unwrought iron, and machinery.

6. **Peru** (pop. under 3 millions).—The annual imports amount to about \pounds 1,500,000; the exports to a little over \pounds 1,000,000. The chief exports are sugar, silver, cotton, nitre, and guano.

(i) By far the largest trade with Peru is done by Great Britain. This amounts to the annual value of over £2,000,000; more than half being for imports.

(ii) We buy from Peru chiefly sugar, wool, alpaca wool, and raw cotton.

(iii) We sell to it cotton and woollen goods, wrought and unwrought iron, and machinery.

7. Colombia (pop. 4 millions).—The annual imports amount to nearly $\pounds 2,500,000$; the exports to a little over $\pounds 3,000,000$. The chief imports are food stuffs and textiles; the chief exports are coffee, silver ore, coccos, dye-stuffs, and tobacco.

(i) Great Britain takes about one-third of the exports; the United States less than one-half. We buy from Colombia chiefly coffee, silver ore, and caoutchouc.

(ii) The transit trade between the ports of Panama (on the Pacific) and Colon (on the Atlantic) is more important to Colombia than even her direct commerce. A railway unites these ports. A traffic to the amount of about 200,000 tons is done every year. About two-thirds of this traffic comes from the Atlantic.

8. Bolivia (pop. over 2 millions).—The annual value of the imports is about $\pounds 2,500,000$; the exports amount to nearly $\pounds 3,500,000$. The chief exports are silver ore and bars, Peruvian bark, and indiarubber.

(i) The returns of the trade done with the United Kingdom are included by the Board of Trade in those of Chilé.

(ii) We buy from Bolivia silver, tin, copper, alpaca, coca, and quinine (or Peruvian) bark.

(iii) We sell to her cotton goods, wrought and unwrought iron, machinery, and coals.

9. Ecuador (pop. 1] millions).—The annual value of the imports is about $\pounds 1,500,000$; of the exports, a little more. The chief imports are cotton and provisions; the chief export is coccoa.

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(i) Cocca is the staple produce of Ecuador, and the export of cocca is more than seven times the value of that of coffee. The export of indiarubber comes next to coffee.

(ii) France is the best customer of Ecuador for cocca, because she requires a great supply of cocca for her manufacture of chocolate.

(iii) But Great Britain sells to Ecuador a little more than France does, and nearly twice as much as Germany.

10. **Paraguay** (pop. about 400,000).—The annual value of the imports is about \pounds 400,000 : of the exports, about double. The chief exports are **Paraguayan tea** (yerba maté) and tobacco. The chief exports are textiles, wines, and rice.

(i) Great Britain sends about 85 per cent. of the textiles imported into Paraguay.

(ii) The British trade with Paraguay passes through the territories of Brazil and Argentina.

THE COMMERCE OF THE COUNTRIES IN THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

ASIA.

1. India (pop. 290 millions).—The annual value of the imports varies from $\pounds 65,000,000$ to $\pounds 80,000,000$: of the exports, from $\pounds 90,000,000$ to $\pounds 100,000,000$.

THE FIVE CHIEF IMPORTS.	THE FIVE CHIEF EXPORTS.
Cotton (manufactured).	Grain.
Metals and Hardware.	Cotton (raw and manufactured).
Silk.	Oil Seeds.
Sugar.	Jute.
Machinery.	Opium.

(i) Cotton forms about one-third of the value of the imports.

(ii) The United Kingdom does by far the largest trade with India; while China and France are the next best customers.

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(iii) Great Britain buys from India (in the order of their value): wheat, tea, jute, seeds, rice, leather, indigo, and cotton.

(iv) In exchange, Great Britain sends to India: cotton manufactures (to the value of over £18,000,000), iron, machinery, and cotton yarn.

2. Straits Settlements, including Singapore, Penang, and Malacca (pop. 512,000).—The annual value of the imports is about $\pounds 25,000,000$: of the exports, nearly $\pounds 25,000,000$. By far the largest import is rice; then come cotton piece goods and opium. The chief export is tin, and after it spices.

(i) The centre of the Straits trade is Singapore.

(ii) In addition to the ordinary commerce, there is a very large transit trade.

(iii) The trade of Great Britain with the Straits Settlements amounts to over £7,000,000 a year. Of this we buy (chiefly tin and spices) from the Straits to the annual amount of over £3,000,000.

(iv) We send to them cottons (to over £1,000,000), iron, and a little machinery.

(v) Nearly all the imports of the Settlements are re-exported.

3. **Ceylon** (pop. 3 millions).—The annual value of the imports amounts (at the present low price of the rupee) to not quite $\pounds 4,000,000$: of the exports, to a little over $\pounds 3,000,000$. The chief exports are: tea (about half of the whole value of the exports), coccoa-nut products, plumbago, and confee. The chief imports are: rice, cotton goods, and coals.

(i) The trade done is chiefly with Great Britain and India.

(#i) The coffee plantations have failed, owing to a disease; and tea has been widely planted in place of coffee. The value of the coffee sold to Great Britain in 1879 was over £3,000,000; in 1892 it had fallen to about £130,000.

(iii) The value of the tea sent to Great Britain has risen almost as rapidly as the coffee has fallen. In 1884 we bought from Ceylon about 21 million pounds of tea; in 1892 over 72 million pounds.

(iv) Our trade with Ceylon amounts to the annual value of a little over £5,000,000. Of this, our purchases amount to about £4,000,000.

4. Hong-Kong (pop. over 200,000, of whom about one-tenth are white).—There is no custom-house; and hence we have no official returns of the value of the imports and exports of Hong-Kong. But the estimates of merchants give the imports at about $\pounds4,000,000$: of

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the exports at £2,000,000. The chief trade is done with the United Kingdom, which receives from Hong-Kong goods to the value of $\pounds 1,000,000$, and sends to the value of about £2,000,000. The chief exports are : slik, tea, and hemp.

(i) A large transit trade is done in opium, sugar, flour, salt, earthenware, etc.

(ii) The Chinese silk trade and tea trade are mostly in the hands of Chinese firms in Hong-Kong.

(iii) Great Britain buys chiefly silk, tea, and hemp; while she sells to Hong-Kong cotton and woollen goods.

∠ 5. British Borneo (pop. 175,000).—The annual value of the imports amounts to about £400,000 : of the exports to nearly £200,000. The chief exports are : wax, edible birds' nests (for China), cocca-nuts, tobacco, etc.

(i) Great Britain only occupies the northern part of the island of Borneo, but this territory is somewhat larger than Scotland. The interior is mountainous; and most of the surface is jungle. Coal and gold have been found. The territory is under the rule of the British North Borneo Company.

(ii) A large timber trade has been opened with China.

(iii) The cultivation of tobacco has declined.

6. **Cyprus** (pop. 200,000).—The annual value of the imports amounts to above \pounds 300,000 : of the exports to nearly \pounds 350,000. The largest export is wheat; the principal imports are : cotton and woollen goods, tobacco, rice, groceries, and iron.

Cyprus is a very fertile island, and will one day be the chief storehouse of the provisions for the British Mediterranean fleet. It commands the opening of the Suez Canal and also the city of Alexandretta (or Scanderoon, the port of Aleppo), which has a transit trade worth nearly £3,000,000 a year.

AFRICA.

1. Cape Colony (pop. $1\frac{3}{4}$ millions).—The annual value of the imports (excluding specie) amounts to about £9,000,000 : of the exports (excluding specie), to nearly £12,000,000. The chief imports are : textile fabrics, dress, food and drinks ; the chief exports are : diamonds, wool, Angora hair, copper ore, hides, and ostrich feathers.

(i) Great Britain does the largest part of the export trade to the Cape; and she buys almost the whole of the diamonds, wool, etc., produced by the Cape Colonists.

(ii) From the years 1867-1892—a space of a quarter of a century—the Cape has sold over £62,000,000 worth of diamonds.

2. Natal (pop. 550,000).—The annual value of the imports amounts to over £3,000,000 : of the exports to about £1,500,000. The chief imports are : clothing, haberdashery, flour, saddlery, etc. The chief exports are : wool, gold, sugar, and Angora hair.

(i) Great Britain does much the larger part of the trade with Na^{*}al.

(ii) The total annual value of the British trade with Natal is over £8,000,000. Of these £2,000,000 represent the amount of our sales to the country.

3. West Africa—including the Crown Colonies of Gold Coast, Lagos, Gambia, and Sierra Leone (pop. about 2 millions).—The annual value of the imports amounts to over $\pounds 1,700,000$; of the exports to about $\pounds 2,000,000$. The chief exports are : palm oil, indiarubber, kola-nuts, and ivory.

(i) The Gold Coast stretches along the Gulf of Guinea. Gold is still worked; but the chief trade is in palm-oil and palm-kernels.

(ii) Lages is an island on the Slave Coast (to the east of the Gold Coast); and it trades in palm-oil, ivory, and cotton. It buys from Great Britain spirits, tobacco, cotton goods, and hardware.

(iii) Gambia lies at the mouth of the river Gambia. The chief town is Bathurst. It sells ground-nuts, hides, beeswax, rice, etc.

(iv) Sierra Leene (the capital of which is Freetown) deals in the usual West African products: palm-oil, palm-kernels, ground-nuts, kola-nuts, copal (a hard amber-like resin used for making varnishes), etc.

4. British Central Africa is a territory of about 500,000 square miles in extent—that is, it is two and a half times larger than Germany. The chief town is Blantyre. The chief trade is in ivory, indiarubber, oil-seeds, rhinoceros horns, hippopotamus teeth, etc.

(i) The trade at present only amounts to about £30,000 a year, of which more than half is paid for imports.

(ii) The chief imports are cotton goods, machinery, provisions, etc.

(iii) Merino sheep and Natal ponies have been imported into the uplands.

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5. British East Africa is a district with a coast-frontage of 400 miles lying between the river Juba and Zanzibar. Its exact extent is unknown, as the back-country has never been explored; but the most advanced permanent posts stand 300 miles inland. Its new name is **Ibea**, from the initial letters of the Company that governs it—the Imperial British East Africa Company (**I. B. E. A.**). It possesses the northern shore of Lake Victoria Nyanza. It is bounded by the Congo Free State on the west. It includes Uganda, Unyoro, the Equatorial Provinces (Emin Pasha's), part of Kordofan and Darfur, and a large part of Somaliland. The total area is said to be 1,000,000 square miles—that is, about half the size of Russia in Europe. The chief ports are: Wanga, Mombasa, and Kismayu. The trade at present is small, but it is increasing every year.

(i) The chief exports are seeamé-seed, ivory, indiarabber, gums, etc.

(ii) The imports are Manchester goods, Bombay cloth, iron wire, copper wire, beads, etc.

(iii) Mombasa, which is a fine harbour by nature, has been greatly improved by the construction of piers, beacons, etc. A new town has also been built near the harbour.

(iv) Mombasa is connected with Zanzibar by submarine cable.

(v) A line of railway has been projected, and the survey made, from Mombasa to Victoria Nyanza.

6. Mauritius (pop. 370,000).—The annual value of the imports is under $\pounds 1,000,000$: of the exports, about $\pounds 1,500,000$. The chief export is sugar.

(i) Most of the trade of the Mauritius is done with South Africa, Australia, and India.

(ii) The trade done with Great Britain amounts to about half a million, of which about £270,000 worth is sold by us to the island. We buy from the Mauritius chiefly unrefined sugar.

7. Zanzibar (pop. 200,000). The capital, Zanzibar, has a population of 30,000.—This Sultanate is now under the protection of Great Britain. The town of Zanzibar was proclaimed a free port in 1892. The annual value of the imports is about £1,250,000 : of the exports,

about £1,000,000. The chief exports are : ivory, cloves, copra, and rubber.

(i) The trade of Great Britain to Zanzibar amounts to something less than £100,000.

(ii) The Imperial British East Africa Company sends imports to the annual value of over £40,000.

AMERICA.

1. **Canada** (pop. 5 millions).—The annual value of the imports is over $\pounds 25,000,000$: of the exports, about $\pounds 22,000,000$.

THE FIVE CHIEF IMPORTS.	THE FIVE CHIEF EXPORTS.
Woollen Manufactures.	Cheese.
Iron and Steel Manufactures.	Wood.
Coal and Coke.	Wheat.
Sugar.	Horned Cattle.
Tea and Coffee.	Fish and Fish Oils.

(i) About half of the whole trade of Canada is carried on with the United Kingdom; while the United States absorb more than a third.

(ii) The exports from Great Britain to Canada amount to £7,000,000. The imports into Great Britain from Canada are rather more than double in value.

2. The West Indies, including the Bahamas, Barbados, Jamaica, Turks Islands, Windward and Leeward Islands, and Trinidad (pop. 14 millions).—The annual value of the imports amounts to about $\pounds 6,000,000$: of the exports, to nearly the same sum.

THE THREE CHIEF IMPORTS.	THE THREE CHIEF EXPORTS.
Cotton.	Sugar.
Fish.	Cocoa.
Wheat.	Fruit.

The imports from Great Britain amount to a little over $\pounds 2,000,000$; the exports to Great Britain to a little less than this sum.

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3. British Guiana (pop. 280,000).—The annual value of the imports amounts to about $\pounds 1,500,000$: of the exports, to over $\pounds 2,000,000$. The chief export is sugar, and its products (rum and molasses).

(i) Great Britain buys from British Guiana to the value of over £1,250,000; of which more than half a million is paid for sugar.

(ii) Great Britain sells goods to British Guiana to the annual value of a little less than a million.

4. Newfoundland and Labrador (pop. over 200,000).—The annual value of the imports amounts to about $\pounds 1,400,000$: of the exports, to a little less. The main export is \$ h (chiefly cod).

(i) Newfoundland also exports cod- and scal-oil, preserved lobsters, scalakins, and copper ere.

(ii) The annual value of the fish caught is over one million sterling.

(iii) The chief imports are four, woollens and cottons, molasses, coal, and cutlery.

(iv) One-third of the whole trade is done with Great Britain.

5. British Honduras (pop. 32,000).—The annual value of the imports is about £350,000 : of the exports, about £400,000. The chief export is mahogany.

Half of the trade is done with Great Britain.

6. Bermudas (pop. over 15,000).—The annual value of the imports amounts to about £330,000: of the exports, to under £130,000. The chief export is onions. The islands are a favourite winter resort with the Americans.

(i) The other exports are potatoes and lily bulbs.

(ii) Nearly all the export produce of Bermuda goes to the United States and to Canada. The food supplies for Bermuda come from the same countries.

(iii) Great Britain sells to Bermuda goods to the annual value of about £90,000; but she only buys from it to the extent of about £2500.

AUSTRALASIA AND OCEANIA.

1. New South Wales (pop. over 1 million).—The annual value of the imports amounts to about $\pounds 22,000,000$: of the exports, to a little more. The staple export is wool.

(i) New South Wales also exports silver ore (to the annual value of over 2 millions), tin, tallow, and coal.

(ii) Great Britain sells to New South Wales iron and iron manufactures (to the value of nearly a million), apparel and haberdashery, cotton and woollen goods.

(iii) Great Britain does a trade with New South Wales of the annual value of about £17,000,000. Of this £10,000,000 consists of purchases from New South Wales.

2. Victoria (pop. over 1 million).—The annual value of the imports varies from £18,000,000 to £22,000,000 : exports reach about £15,000,000.

THE SIX CHIEF IMPORTS.	THE SIX CHIEF EXPORTS.
Tea.	Wool.
Timber.	Gold.
Sugar.	Bread Stuffs.
Cottons.	Live Stock.
Iron.	Hides.
Coal.	Leather.

(i) Victoria exported in 1892 wool to the value of over 6¹/₂ millions sterling; but less than half this was the produce of the colony.

(ii) In addition to wool, Great Britain buys also from Victoria wheat and four, leather and tallow.

(iii) Great Britain sends in exchange, iron (wrought and unwrought), cotton goods, woollen goods, apparel and haberdashery, paper (to the value of a quarter of a million), and machinery.

(iv) The trade with Great Britain has an annual value of about £11,000,000. Of this £6,000,000 represents what is bought by Great Britain.

3. South Australia (pop. 350,000).—The annual value of the imports amounts to about £8,000,000 : of the exports, to a little more. The chief exports are : wool, flour and wheat, and copper.

(i) The value of the imports comes to nearly £23 per head of the population: of the exports, to over $\frac{294}{2}$ per head.

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COMMERCE OF COUNTRIES IN THE BRITISH EMPIRE 535

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(ii) The bread stuffs exported amount to about 110,000 tons.

(iii) About 95 per cent. of the trade of the colony is done with Great Britain and the other Australian colonies.

(iv) Great Britain takes about two-thirds of the exports.

(v) The trade done with Great Britain amounts to about £7,000,000 a year. Of this, fully £5,000,000 stands for purchases from South Australia.

4. Queensland (pop. nearly 500,000).—The annual value of the imports amounts to about $\pounds 5,000,000$: of the exports, to over $\pounds 9,000,000$. The chief export is wool. The chief trade is with the other Australian Colonies.

(i) In addition to wool, Queensland exports sugar, gold, hides and akins, from meat, and tailow.

(ii) The annual value of the gold export is over £2,000,000.

(iii) The chief imports are: textiles and apparel (to the value of about a million sterling), provisions (to the same value), metals and metal goods, and tea.

(iv) The trade done with Great Britain amounts to over £5,000,000. Of this 31 millions sterling stand for what we buy from Queensland.

5. Western Australia (pop. a little over 50,000).—The annual value of the imports amounts to about £1,500,000 : of the exports, to over a million. Chief exports : wool, gold, and pearl shells.

(i) More and more gold is getting discovered in West Australia.

(ii) Great Britain buys from West Australia chiefly wool, pearl shells, and timber.

(iii) In return we send them iron, apparel, machinery, and liquors.

(iv) The trade with Great Britain amounts generally to under a million, and of this two-thirds represents what we sell to the colony.

6. New Zealand (pop. 650,000).—The annual value of the imports is about \pounds 7,000,000: of the exports, over \pounds 9,000,000. The chief imports are: clothing, iron and steel, sugar, and paper. The chief exports are wool, frozen meat, gold, and grain.

(1) Great Britain buys from New Zealand chiefly wool (over £4,000,000 worth), from mutton (to the value of more than 11 millions sterling), wheat, gum, and hemp.

(ii) We sell to New Zealand cotton goods (to the value of nearly half a million), apparel and haberdashery (of about the same value), iron (wrought and unwrought), and woollens.

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(iii) The annual trade with Great Britain is valued at about £11,000,000. Of this, nearly £8,000,000 is paid for purchases from New Zealand.

7. Tasmania (pop. 140,000).—The annual value of the imports varies from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 millions sterling: of the exports, to about $\pounds 1,500,000$. The chief exports are : wool, tin, fruit, gold, and timber.

(i) The export of wool (which is valued at nearly £400,000) remains pretty much the same every year. The export of fruit is steadily rising. The export of timber is falling, and is only about half of what it was in 1888.

(ii) Only one-fourth of the trade is done with England.

(iii) The trade with Great Britain amounts to about £800,000 a year; and of this nearly £500,000 worth is sold by us to Tasmania.

(iv) We sell to Tasmania the same kind of goods that we sell to the other Australasian colonies.

8. **Fiji Islands** (pop. 130,000).—The annual value of the imports is about a quarter of a million : of the exports, about half a million. The chief export is **sugar**.

(i) Besides sugar, the Fiji Islands export bananas, copra, pea-nuts, etc.

(ii) They import drapery, bread stuffs, hardware, meats, and machinery.

(iii) The direct trade between Great Britain and Fiji is very small. The exports from Great Britain reach the colony by way of Australia and New Zealand.

9. New Guinea (pop. 350,000).—The British possessions in New Guinea lie in the south-eastern part of the island. They are about three times as large as Scotland. The annual value of the imports is about \pounds 35,000; of the exports, about \pounds 22,000. The chief exports are trepang, copra, and pearl-shell.

(i) Nearly 2500 oz. of gold were found in 1892.

(ii) The chief imports are food stuffs, tobacco, drapery, and hardware.

(iii) New Guines is a postal district of Queensland.

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THE COALING STATIONS OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

(Norm.-Most of the places mentioned in this chapter have received full treatment in the body of the book. Those that have not will be described in some detail.)

1. The Sea is the highway of all nations, but Great Britain makes the largest use of this highway. Hence she must have "rest-houses" at different points on the great commercial routes, and these resthouses are her coaling-stations. They serve two purposes : they are (a) simply commercial coaling stations, and (b) fortified points of offence or defence, which protect the scattered parts of the Empire, and where in time of war our navy may put in and refit. To the latter class belong more especially Gibraltar, Malta, Halifax, Bermuda, Jamaica, Castries (in St. Lucia), Simon's Town (at the Cape), Ascension, Trincomalee, Esquimault (in British Columbia), Sydney, and Hong Kong, at all of which places there are royal dockyards. Of these, in time of war, Simon's Town is of infinitely more importance than the others, for the Cape is still the tollbar on the great turnpike road to our Eastern possessions. Commercially, and in times of peace, the Suez Canal is our gate to India; but were war to break out, the Canal could be blocked in five minutes in such a way as to delay the passage of ships for a week.

2. Our Commerce with the East.—Our Eastern commercial pathway is furnished with eight chief stations, Gibraltar, Malts, Aden, Kurachee, Bombay, Colombo, Singapore, Labuan, and Hong Kong.

(i) Gibraltar is a promontory, about two square miles in area, joined to the mainland by a spit of sand. Gibraltar or Algeotras Bay laves its western side, and it is on this side that the town nestles at the foot of "the Rock." This towers up to the height of 1400 feet, and is tunnelled in every direction for the reception of guns of the heaviest calibre. Besides being an almost impregnable fortress, it is a trade entrepôt for the North of Africa; and the anchorage is a safe and good one. The movement of the port is about 10,000,000 tons (=that of Cardiff). Gibraltar is 1900 miles by sea from London.

(ii) Make, with Gose and Comine, forms an island group about 58 miles south of Sicily. The islands lie low; but hill and valley break their surface, which is highly

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cultivated. The population is about 180,000; and the powerful stronghold of **Valetta** (50) is the capital and harbour. It exports grain, potatess, and fruit, but has a huge transit trade, averaging annually £23,000,000. This "little military hot-house"—for the almost tropical heat is aggravated by the glare and refraction from the rocks—is our most important Mediterranean station. Valetta has a movement of 9,000,000 tons yearly (=twice that of Newcastle), and its harbour can accommodate the largest vessels affost. Valetta is eight days steaming from London.

(iii) Aden is a rocky, volcanic, waterless peninsula, with a population of 40,000. It is strongly fortified, and what Gibraltar is to the Mediterranean Aden is to the Red Sea. It is the entrepôt for the Red Sea littoral and the East Coast of Africa, and exchanges cottons against hides and come. The water-tanks of Aden have existed since 600 A.D. Its movement is $4\frac{3}{2}$ million tons (more than that of Newcastle). Aden is 13 days' steaming from London.

(iv) Eurachee, at the mouth of the Indus Delta, forms the sea-base for the defence of the Indian north-west frontier. It does a large export trade in the cotton, wheat, and oil-seeds of the Punjaub. Its population is 110,000; and it ranks as the fifth port in India. The harbour, with a minimum depth at the entrance of 20 feet, is strongly defended by a series of batteries and numerous torpedces.

(v) Gelombe is touched at both by Australian-bound vessels and those entering the Bay of Bengal. Vessels lie safely inside its magnificent breakwater. It has strong defences. Its distance from London is 6700 miles.

(vi) Labuan is an islet off the north-west coast of Borneo. It is almost entirely a mass of excellent steam-coal. Victoria is a safe harbour; in it vessels of fair draught can lie alongside the jettles for the purpose of coaling.

(vii) Hong Kong possesses, in the port of Victoria, one of the finest land-locked harbours in the world. It is a free port, and imports chiefly optum and cettons, while it exports tea and silk. The total trade turn-over averages annually about 45 millions. It is really the port of Canton. It possesses all the coast traffic and the native trade. It is destined, in no long time, to be the emporium for Japan, which is fast becoming a great manufacturing country. It is at present the halting-place for six large lines of steamers. Its total tonnage is equal to the foreign tonnage of London.

3. Our Commerce with the South.—The first link in the chain is formed by the two Portuguese coaling stations of Lisbon and Funchal (Madeira), and by the Spanish town of Las Palmas (on Grand Canary). Then the British stations begin : Freetown (Sierra Leone), Capetown and Simon's Bay, and Port Louis (in Mauritius).

(i) Ascension is a small naval station; and St. Helena is occasionally visited. But the Snez route has almost completely destroyed its importance.

(ii) Freetown is the only safe harbour for hundreds of miles of coast till Lagos is reached. It can hold the largest vessels, and is distant from Liverpool (our great. West African port) 8078 miles. (iii) The anchorage in Table Bay, off Cape Town, is protected by a breakwater a mile long; but it is not an altogether safe one. Inside this breakwater are large docks and basins. The fortifications are not yet sufficiently strong.

(iv) Simon's Bay is the naval headquarters, where ships can lie close to the shore, sheltered by mountains from the prevalent north-west and south-east winds.

(v) Fort Louis is one of the best harbours in the Eastern Seas. A hundred large vessels can lie in it at one time. The importance of the position of Mauritius with regard to India is great. During the Napoleonic wars, French cruisers, setting out from thence, were enabled to inflict great damage upon our Indian commerce. Mauritius was captured by us in 1810.

4. To Australia and New Zealand British commerce travels by either the Eastern or the Southern route. Australasian coasts are guarded by a squadron of cruisers specially built for service in Australian waters, and nearly all the harbours are strengthened by batteries or torpedoes. The chief are : Sydney and Newcastle, Melbourne, Adelaide, Brisbane, and Thursday Island.

(i) Fort Melbourne is two miles from the city, and is joined to it by railway. Vessels of any size can berth alongside its piers, and there is unlimited anchorage in Port Phillip Bay.

(ii) Port Adelaide lies on the Gulf of St. Vincent, seven miles from the city of Adelaide. It has a wharfage two and a half miles in length.

(iii) Thursday Island is an important touching station in the Torres Straits. It commands the entrance to the sheltered passage between the Great Barrier Reef and the Australian Coast.

5. The shortness of the ocean-passage westwards makes coalingstations unnecessary. But the western route may also become an eastern route, especially for Japan, Hong Kong, New Zealand, and Sydney. Yokohama mails, *vid* the Canadian Pacific Railway, can reach London in three weeks; the average time by the Suez Canal is nearly double (about forty days).

(i) At the end of the ocean voyage, the two most important coaling stations in the West Indies are **Eingston** (Jamaica) and **Castries** (St. Lucia).

(ii) The Bermudas, as lying half way between Halifax and our possessions in the West Indies, are of great importance as a naval station. The largest floating dock in the world is placed there.

(iii) A new line of steamers runs from Vancouver to Sydney, touching at Honolula and Suva (in the Fijis).

THE CHIEF SUBMARINE CABLES AND TELE-GRAPHIC STATIONS OF THE WORLD.

The telegraph is one of the greatest cheapeners of commerce; the English-speaking races are the greatest commercial peoples in the world; and it is therefore in their hands that the majority of the more important submarine cables lie. We may divide the submarine system of the world into three: (a) the Atlantic system, westwards from the British Isles and France to North America; (b) the South Atlantic system, to South America and South Africa; and (c) the Eastern system through the Mediterranean and Red Sea to Aden, which, after sending out an arm to the south along the African coast, continues to India, the East Indies, China, and Australasia.

(i) The Atlantic system to North America. There are altogether 14 cables beneath the Atlantic, all but two starting from British Isles. These two start from Brest in Brittany and end in Miquélon, an islet off the south-west coast of Newfoundland. The British cables leave the south-west of England and Cape Clear and Valentia Bay in Ireland, and end—some in Trinity Bay (Newfoundland); others, touching at Sable Island off the Nova Scotian coast, run to Halifax, from which place they are continued to New York and Besten. From Nova Scotia a cable drops straight south to the Bermudas.

(ii) The Southern Atlantic system splits into two: (a) the cables running to South America and their extensions; (b) the cable skirting the west coast of Africa.

(a) After leaving England, several cables proceed to Lisbon, whence, after chrowing out a branch to the Asores, they continue through Madeira and the Cape Verde Islands, to Pernambuco in Brazil. From Pernambuco a line holds north-west along the coast to Georgetown, and through the West Indies to Morant Point (Jamaica), Havana, and O. Eomano (Florida); southwards to Eio Janeiro and Baence Ayres. On the west coast of South America cables connect Valparaise with the principal ports as far as Tehuantepse in Mexico.

(b) From Lisbon cables run through the Canaries to St. Louis and Freetown, and thence touching at Lagos, Loango, and Mossamedes (Angola), finish at Cape Town.

(iii) Two cables with numerous offshoots run through the Mediterranean along the north shore of Africa (which is the only continent completely girdled by telegraphs), down the Red Sea to Adea and thence to Bombay. From Adea a cable runs down the African coast, and touching at Zanzibar, Mozambique, and Lorenzo Marques, ends at Durban. From Madras a cable stretches to Singapore, and here branches to the north

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CHIEF SUBMARINE CABLES AND TELEGRAPH STATIONS 541

and south. The northern line goes to Cochin China, Tong King, Hong Kong, Shanghai, across to Japan, and ends in the Russian port of Viadivostock (Mantchooria). The south-eastern cable goes by way of Java, and from thence three cables cross to Australia. The chief of these three lands at Port Darwin, which, by the great overland route, is in telegraphic connection with Adelaide. Sydney communicates by cable with Wellington in New Zealand.

(Iv) Miner Oables. Zanzibar is joined by cable with the Seychelles Islands, and thence to Maaritius, which lies 1000 miles to the south. From Hervey Bay in Queensland a cable goes east to New Caledonia (French). The North Sea is crossed at various points by eight cables. A cable from Odessa passes through the Black Sea and into the Archipelago, where it joins the Mediterranean system. Vera Gruz, in the south of the Gulf of Mexico, is joined to San Antonio in the north.

the are informed by the Colonial Office that the Pacific Cable Committee have accepted, on behalf of H. M., gavernment & of the government of new South Wales, Victoria, Jusensland & new Jealand the tonder of the Jelegraph Construction & maintenance Company for the manufacture & laying of the projected Pacific Cable . The amount of the tonder 43 10 795000 sthe work is to be comple by the end of 1902. The cable will run from Vancouver to ducenslands hero Jealand via Farmin Joland Ligi & horfolk Blands. The tatal longth will be considerably over 7000 miles & the stretch from Kancouver to fanning Isle provingtely \$500 miles will be the longer sall in the world. The section from tanning le Island will be about 1700 miles from It she to Brisbane Boomiles offrom hafolk Isle to the coast of new Jealan 500 miles



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TABLES

THE BRITISH EMPIRE.—The British Empire is the largest Empire on the face of the globe. The sun never rises upon it, and never sets. It is spread over all latitudes and longitudes, over all climates, over all the seas and oceans of the world; and between all parts of it there is more or less easy connection by means of the sea. And yet the island which rules this vast Empire is one hundred times smaller than the Empire itself. The area of the British Empire is over 9,000,000 square miles; and its population is about 327,000,000. The following is a list of the different parts of our Empire, with their sizes and populations, and the dates of their acquisition.

(i) The British Empire is larger by half a million of square miles than the Russian Empire; and its population is more than three times as large.

(ii) Its area is about one-sixth of all the land on the globe; and its population about one-fifth of the total inhabitants of the world.

THE COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

NAME OF COLON			Date of Acquisition.	Area in Square Miles.	Population in Thousands.	
1. Gibraltar,		•		1704	17	24
2Heligoland, 1	 \	•	•	1807	01	2
3. Malta and Gozo, .		•	•	1800	117	159

EUROPE

- Heligoland was ceded to Germany in 1890.

COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES OF

	NAI	un of	Cor	ONY.			Date of Acquisition.	Area in Square Miles.	Population in Thousands.
1.	Aden,		•	•	•	•	1838	66	35
	Ceylon,				•	•	1796	25,364	3 millions.
3.	Cyprus,	•	•	•	•	•	1878	8,584	200
4.	Hong-K	ong,		•	•		1841	30	201
5.	India, B	ritish	,	•		•	1625-1885	1,574,450	230 millions.
6.	,, F	eudat	ory	State	:8,			714,758	55 millions.
7.	Labuan,		•	•	•	•	1846	301	6
8.	North B	ornec),	•		•	1840	27,500	175
9.	Perim,	•	•		•	•	1855	41	
10.	Straits S	Settle	men	ts,	•	•	1785-1819	1,472	506
11.	,, F	euda	tory	Stat	es,	•		7,809	294
12.	Keeling	Islan	ds,				1857	8	
13.	Kuria M	luria	Isla	nds,		•		21	

ASIA

(i) Ceylon is a little smaller than Scotland.
(ii) The whole of India is nearly half the size of Europe.
(iii) North Borneo is nearly as large as Scotland.
AFRICA

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	NAME OF CO.	LONY.			Date of Acquisition.	Area in Square Miles.	Population in Thousands.
1.	Ascension Island	I, .	•		1815	35	
2.	Basutoland, .	•			1868	10,290	128
3.	Bechuanaland,				1885	162,000	44
4.	Berbera, .				1884	••	
5.	Cape Colony,	•			1806-1877	232,000	1ª million.
6.	Gambia, .		•	•	1831	69	14
7.	Gold Coast, .			•	1861	15,000	400
8.	Lagos,				1861	1,071	87
9.	Mauritius, .	•			1810	708	370
10.	Natal,	•			1838	18,750	550
11.	Niger Districts,			•	1885		
12.	St. Helena, .	•			1651	47	5
13.	St. Paul and Am	ster	lam,				
14.	Sierra Leone,		•		1787	468	61
15.	Socotra, .		•		1875	1,000	4
16.	Tristan d'Acunh	8, .			1818	45	

(i) Bechuanaland is nearly as large as Sweden.
(ii) Cape Colony is larger than the whole Austrian Empire.
(iii) Natal is more than half the size of Ireland.

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	NAME OF (2010	NY.			Date of Acquisition.	Area in Square Miles.	Population in Thousands.
1.	Bahamas,			•	•	1670	5,450	44
2.	Barbadoes, .			•		1605	166	174
3.	Bermudas,			•	•	1609	20	15
4.	Canada,					1623-1760	3,510,000	5 millions.
5.	Falkland Islan	ds,	•	•	•	1833	6,500	2
6.	Guiana,		•	•		1803	109,000	280
7.	Honduras, .			•	•	1783-1786	7,5€2	32
8.	Jamaica and T	urk	s Isl	land,	•	1629-1655	4,424	586
9.	Leeward Island	ls,	•		•	1626-1763	479	123
10.	Newfoundland	,	•		•	1588	40,200	200
11.	South Georgia,			•	•		1,570	
12.	Trinidad, .			•		1797	1,754	178
13.	Windward Isla	uds		•	•	1605-1803	623	150

AMERICA

(i) Canada is nearly as large as the whole of Europe.
(ii) Guiana is nearly as large as Italy.
(iii) Newfoundland is one-third larger than Ireland.

AUSTRALASIA

	NAME OF (2010	DNY.			Date of Acquisition.	Area in Square Miles.	Population in Thousands.
1.	Fiji and Rotu	mab	Isla	ınds,	•	1874-1881	7,754	130
2.	Kermadec Isla	and	8,	•	•	1886	21	
3.	New South W. Island,	ales	and .	Norf	olk	1787	825,000	1 million.
4.	New Guinea,	•				1884	86,457	350
5.	New Zealand,		•		•	1841	104,458	650
6.	Queensland,		•		•	1859	668,497	500
7.	South Austral	ia,	•			1836	903,690	350
8.	Tasmania,					1803	26,215	140
9.	Victoria,					1787	87,884	1 million
10.	Western Aust	rali	B.,			1829	1,060,000	50
11.	Auckland, Lo Islands,	ord •	Ho	we, e	tc.,	•••••	256	

(i) New South Wales is nearly three times as large as Italy.
(ii) The part of New Guines held by us is nearly as large as Great Britain. The color of Victoria is about the same size.
(iii) New Zealand is a little larger than Italy.

(iii) New Zealand is a nucle larger than Italy.
(iv) Queenland is a more than three times as large as Austria.
(v) South Australia is ten times as large as Great Britain.
(vi) Tasmania is a little smaller than Scotland.
(vii) Western Australia is about five times as large as France. The whole of the BRITISH EMPIRE contains 9,803,000 square miles; and is 100 times as large as Great Britain.

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546 BRITISH COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES

(i) The Imports and Exports of the British Empire amount, annually, to the enormous sum of nearly £1,050,000,000.

(ii) The Population of the Empire amounts to 327,000,000.

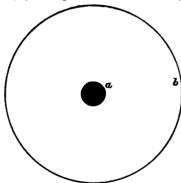
(iii) The Army of the Empire numbers over 650,000 men.

(iv) The Navy has more than 70,000 men; 260 men-of-war, of which nearly 200 are steamships, and 40 are armour-plated.

(v) "Thus a small European people, numbering hardly 5,000,000 souls at the time it entered on its career of conquest in the 17th century, has gradually extended its dominions, until they embrace the sixth part of the habitable globe and close upon 300,000,000 of human beings. In addition to this, there are wide territories in India, in Arabia, in Africa, and elsewhere, which do not officially form part of the British Empire, but where British influence is nevertheless paramount, and the request of an English consul is tantamount to a command."-Réccus.

(vi) "There is hardly a country in the world which is not indebted to British enterprise and British capital for railways, telegraphs, and water-works, or for some development of its internal resources. Nearly all the submarine telegraph cables belong to England; the mines of Brazil, the railways of the Argentine Republic, and many of the sugar-mills of Egypt are the property of English capitalists. The material labour of *half the world* is carried on through the banks of Lombard Street."

(vii) "Taking British India-itself as large as France, Spain, Portugal, Switzer-



land, Italy, Germany, Austria, Greece, Turkey, Bulgaria, Servia and Scandinavia all put together—as a unit of measurement, we shall find that British India is somewhat smaller than Western Australia, which is only one of the five huge colonies that make up the vast island-continent of Australia. Again, Australia, if set down upon Her Majesty's dominions in North America, would stand in them as a cup does in its saucer; and, when you have put on one side Australia and the Dominion of Canada, we have still some forty colonies,

ranging from mere specks to vast countries like New Zealand, or still vaster ones like South Africa, on which we could strew New Zealands about and still have room to spare."-GRANT-DUFF.

(viii) The figure a represents the size of the island of Great Britain. The figure b represents the size of the British Empire. The latter is more than 100 times as large as the former.

LETTERS AND POST-CARDS.

(From the Statesman's Year-Book for 1891.)

	NAME OF COUNTRY.	Letters and Post-cards in Millions.	Population in Millions.	Letters per head per annum.
1.	United States,	7,847	70	112
2.	England and Wales, .	1,597	30	53
3.	Scotland,	162	4	40
4.	Switzerland,	103	3	34
5.	Germany,	1,337	48	27
	Ireland,	106	48	23
6.	Netherlands,)	93	4	23
8.	Denmark,	45	2	22
	Belgium,	130	6	21)
9.	Sweden,)	100	42	21
11.	Canada,	101	5	20
	France,	723	38	19)
12.	Austria-Hungary, .	766	40	19
14.	Norway,	28	2	14
	ltaly,	180	30	6)
15.	Spain,	113	17	6)
17.	Portugal	26	5	5
18.	Greece,	6	2	3
19.	Russia in Europe, .	200	88	2
20.	Turkey in Europe, .	1	5	1 letter for every 5 inhabi- tants.

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	NAME OF COUNTRY	Length of Telegraph Lines.	Population in Millions.	Miles per Million Inhabitanta
1.	Canada, . , .	Miles. 30,000	5	6,000
	United States)	210,000	70	3,000
2.	Turkey in Europe,	15,000	5	3,000 \$
4.	Norway,	5,650	2	2,825
5.	Greece, .	4,382	2	2,191
6.	Denmark .	3,674	2	1,837
7.	Switzerland.	4,465	3	1,488
8.	France, .	55;0 3 0	38	1,448
9.	Germany,	57,416	48	1,196
10.	Sweden,	5,420	47	1,141
11.	Russia in Europe, .	88,280	88	1,000
12.	United Kingdom, .	31,450	37	850
13.	Spain,	14,000	17	823
14.	Italy,	22,075	30	736
15.	Austria-Hungary, .	28,355	40	708
16.	Belgium,	4,056	6	676
17.	Portugal,	3,210	5	642

TELEGRAPH LINES IN MILES.



RAILWAYS.

	NAME OF COUNTRY.	Miles of Railway.	Population in Millions.	Miles per Million,
1.	Canada,	13,325	5	2,665
2.	United States,	161,397	70	2,305
3.	Scotland,	3,118	4	779
4.	Switzerland,	1,970	3	656
5.	Denmark,	1,214	2	607
6.	Ireland,	2,791	4 §	598
7.	France,	20,720	38	545
8.	Germany, ,	25,358	48	528
9.	Norway,	97 2	2	486
10.	England and Wales, .	14,034	30	468
11.	Belgium,	2,793	6	465
12.	Netherlands,	1,705	4	426
13.	Austria-Hungary	15,877	40	396
14.	Sweden,	1,805	42	380
15.	Spain,	6,043	17	355
16.	Greece,	579	2	289
17.	Portugal,	1,284	5	257
18.	italy,	7,395	30	246
19.	Turkey in Europe, .	1,000	5	200
20.	Russia in Europe, .	17,59 4	88	199

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VALUE OF

NET IMPORTS.

NET EXPORTS.

NAME OF COUNTRY.	Millions £	Shillings per In- habitant	NAME OF COUNTRY.	Millions £	Shillings per In- habitant
Australia,	63	420	Australia,	50	350
Holland, .	76	375	Holland,	59	295
Belgium,	67	246	Belgium,	52	190
United Kingdom,	348	196	United Kingdom,	241	137
Canada,	25	110	Canada,	21	96
France,	199	104	France,	144	76
United States, .	151	55	United States, .	153	59
Russia,	62	14	Russia,	48	11
India,	65	5	India, .	90	7
		i l			

CONCLUSIONS :-- (i) Australia buys and sells more goods, per inhabitant, than any other country in the world.

- (ii) India sells nearly 1 more than she buys.
- (iii) Holland is the most commercial country in Europe.
- (iv) The United States have the most evenly balanced system of imports and exports.-And so on.

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TABLES

NAME OF GOUNTRY.	Valu	ie, Millions	£.	Raw Mate per Inh	Manufac- ture per	
	*Textiles.	Hardware.	Total.	† Fibre.	Iron.	Inhabi- tant.
United Kingdom,	195	127	322	71	420	£9·1
France,	111	42	153	28	122	4 ·0
Russia,	54	13	67	7	18	0.8
Italy,	20	3	23	6	8	0.8
Belgium,	21	15	36	54	303	7.
Holland,	5	3	8	19	92	2.
United States, .	122	83	205	24	241	4 ·

MANUFACTURES.

^c Cottons, woollens, linens, etc., silks, sundries. † Cotton, wool, flax, hemp, jute. CONCLUSIONS :- (i) France has twice the manufactures of Holland.

> (ii) France has five times the manufactures of Russia or Italy. And so on.

AGRICULTURE.

-	Val	ue in Millions	Capital	Product		
NAME OF COUNTRY.	Land.	Timber, Cattle, etc.	Total.	per Inhabitant.	per Workman.	
United Kingdom,	1,737	523	2,260	£65	£ 8. 22 10	
France,	2,624	618	3,242	88	25 2	
Russia,	1,386	1,239	2,625	33	92	
italy,	810	233	1,043	36	10 2	
Denmark, .	210	63	273	137	24 5	
* United States,	1,923	1,025	2,948	58	24 8	

* Does not include public lands.

CONCLUSIONS :- France is, agriculturally, the most productive state in Europe. Etc.

NAME OF COUNTRY.	Iron pro- duced in Thousands of Tons.	Pounds of Pig Iron per Inhabitant.	Consumption of Pig Iron in Thousands of Tons.	Consumption of Pig Iron, Lbs. per Inhabitant.
United Kingdom, .	8,488	555	6,415	420
United States, .	4,023	196	5,372	240
Germany,	3,171	140	2,520	126
France,	2,033	117	2,110	122
Belgium,	640	250	720	303
Austria, .	550	30	520	30
Russia,	505	12	630	18
Sweden,	410	190	180	90

IRON, PRODUCTION, CONSUMPTION,

INCOME OF NATIONS,

Name	0 7 C	COUNTR	¥.		Annual Earnings in Millions £.	Average per Inhabitant, £ per annum.
United Sta	ates,	•			1,420	27
United Ki	ngdo	om,		•	1,247	3 5
France,				•	965	26
Russia,	•				848	10
italy, .					345	12
Belgium,					120	22
Canada,					118	27
Holland,	•	•	•	•	104	26

CONCLUSIONS :-- (i) The average income of a Briton is 3th times that of a Russian.

(ii) Holland and France stand on the same economic platform.

(iii) Belgium is a much more manufacturing country than Italy. Etc.

TABLES

DISTANCES OF GREAT CITIES FROM LONDON

(As the Crow flies).

Algiers,	•	. 1,050	Madrid, .	•	. 780
Amsterdam, .		. 210	Melbourne, .		. 9,990
Astrakhan, .		. 2,180	Mexico,		. 5,800
Berlin,		. 580	Montreal, .		. 3,340
Boston,		. 3,190	Moscow,		. 1,580
Brussels, .		. 190	Naples,		. 1,000
Buenos Ayres,		. 7,260	New York, .		. 3,620
Cairo,		. 2,260	Paris,		. 200
Calcutta, .	•	. 4,870	Pekin,	•	5,400
Canton, .	•	. 5,960	Pesth,		. 900
Cape Town, .	•	. 5,950	Quebec,		. 3,200
Constantinople,		. 1,540	Quito,		. 6,500
Copenhagen, .	•	. 600	Rio,		. 6,000
Dublin,		. 280	Rome .		. 900
Edinburgh, .		. 300	San Francisco,		. · 6,000
Geneva,	•	. 460	St. Petersburg,		. 1,380
Gibraltar, .		. 1,100	Singapore, .		. 7,050
Havanna, .	•	. 4,700	Stockholm, .		. 910
Hong-Kong, .	•	. 6,040	Sydney,	•	10,120
Jerusalem, .	•	. 2,100	Tokio,	•	. 6,600
Lima,	•	. 6,900	Vienna,	•	. 760
Lisbon .	•	. 980	Washington, .		. 3,800
Madras, .		. 5,170			

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MAP-DRAWING

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS.

1. The problem in map-drawing is to reduce the shape of the country to as simple a geometrical figure as possible; and then to superimpose upon the straight lines the varying bends—the inlets and outgoes—of the coast. Thus, in the case of South America, it is easy to reduce its form to two triangles—a large one with its apex pointing to the east, and a small one with its apex pointing to the west.

2. Take the four extreme points of the continent or country; and fix in your memory the latitude and longitude of each of these points.

3. Through the most southerly or most northerly point of the continent, draw a straight line at right angles to any meridian.

4. From the most northerly point of the continent, let fall a straight line at right angles to the line previously made.

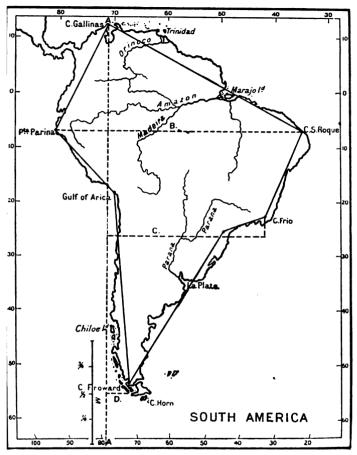
5. Measure the length in inches of each of these lines; and fix these two measurements in the memory.

6. From the most westerly point of the continent draw a straight line at right angles to the line first drawn. Then, at the distance of one inch, draw as many straight lines parallel with the lines running east and west as you consider necessary.

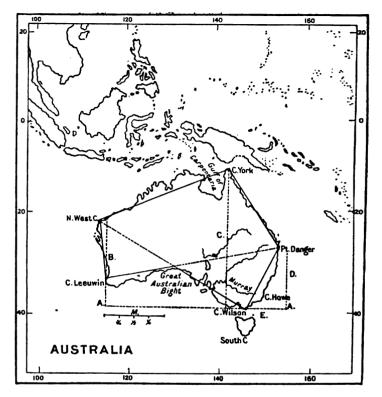
7. Connect the extreme points of the continent by straight lines.

8. Practise from memory the construction of this resultant geometrical figure till you can produce it rapidly and without a single mistake.

9. Then practise the adding of the varied coast line within and without this geometrical figure until you can draw the map accurately from memory. (Rub out the geometrical outline, which of course will be in pencil.)



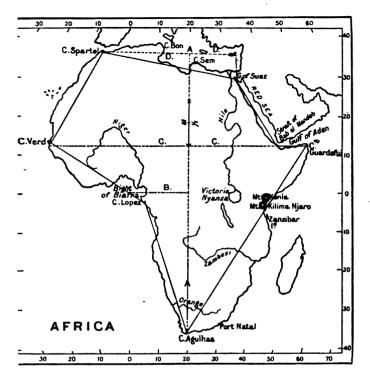
- 1. Draw straight line D through Cape Froward at right angles to a meridian.
- 2. From Cape Gallinas let fall straight line \blacktriangle at right angles to D.
- 3. From Point Parina draw straight line B at right angles to A.
- 4. Join A and the extremities of B.
- 5. From the point where the west coast trends farthest castward draw straight line O parallel to B.
- 6. Draw straight line between Point Parina and the Gulf of Arica.
- 7 Draw straight line between Cape S. Roque and Cape Frio. Draw straight line between Cape Froward and line C; and a second straight line between this point and Cape Frio.



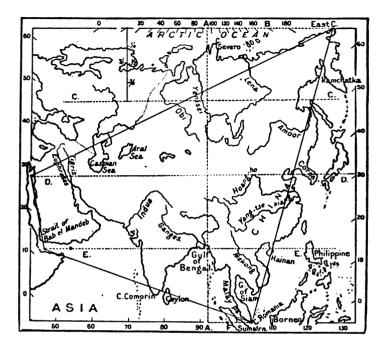
- 1. Through Cape Wilson draw straight line AA at right angles to any meridian.
- 2. From Cape York let fall C perpendicular to AA.
- 2. Draw straight line from Cape Wilson to Point Danger.
- 4. Draw straight line from Point Danger to Cape York.
- 5. Draw straight line from Cape York to North-West Cape.
- 6. Draw straight line from North-West Cape to Cape Leeuwin.
- 7. Draw straight line between North-West Cape and Cape Wilson.
- 8. Draw straight line between Cape Leeuwin and Point Danger.
- 9. The intersection of these two last lines gives the position of the Great Australian Bight.



MAP-DRAWING, ETC.



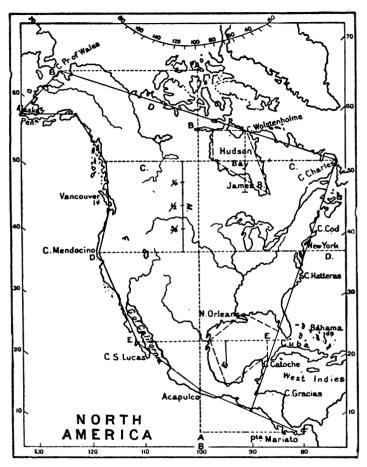
- 1. From Cape Spartel run straight line D at right angles to a meridian.
- 2. From Cape Agulhas run line AA at right angles to D.
- 3. From Cape Guardafui draw straight line OG at right angles to AA.
- 4. Run straight line from Cape Spartel to the head of the Gulf of Suez.
- 5. Join Gulf of Suez and the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb by straight line.
- 6. Draw straight line between Cape Guardafui and Cape Agulhas.
- 7. Draw straight line from Cape Agulhas to Cape Lopez.
- 8. Draw straight line from Cape Lopez to Cape Verd.
- 9. Draw straight line from Cape Verd to Cape Spartel.



- From point ▲ (a little west of Cape Severo) draw straight line ▲▲ at right angles to any parallel of latitude.
- 2. From East Cape draw BA at right angles to AA.
- 3. From Strait of Bab-el-Mandeb draw line EE at right angles to AA.
- From Gulf of Akabah draw straight line DD parallel to EE. (The distance between these two lines is exactly three quarters of an inch.)
- 5. At the same distance draw GC parallel to DD.
- 6. Run straight line between East Cape and the extremity of D.
- 7. Run straight line from Gulf of Akabah to Strait of Bab-el-Mandeb.
- 8. Run straight line from Strait of Bab-el-Mandeb to Cape Romania.
- 9. Draw straight line between Cape Romania and East Cape.

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MAP-DRAWING, ETC.

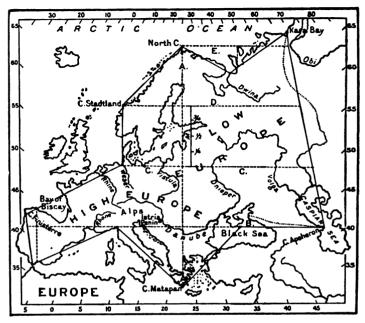


1. The chief difficulties in this map are the construction of the outlines of Hudson Bay and the Gulf of Mexico. Each requires a special apparatus of lines.

2. Hudson Bay is an irregular four-sided figure, and the direction of each of the lines composing this figure is given by the perpendicular dropped from Cape Wolstenholme.

3. The Gulf of Mexico is also constructed by an incomplete figure of four lines; and the directions of these are given by the short perpendiculars EE.

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- 1. Draw a straight line AA from North Cape to Cape Matapan.
- 2. From North Cape draw the straight line E at right angles to AA.
- 3. From Cape Stadtland draw the line D parallel to E.
- 4. From the mouth of the Weser draw OC parallel to D.
- 5. From Cape Apsheron draw the line B parallel to OC.
- 6. Draw a straight line from North Cape to Cape Stadtland.
- 7. Draw a straight line from Cape Stadtland to the month of the Weser.
- 8. Draw a straight line from the mouth of the Weser to Cape Finisterre.
- 9 Another straight line from Cape Finisterre to Gibraltar.
- 10. A straight line from Gibraltar to Genoa.
- 11. A straight line from Genoa to Cape Matapan.
- 12. A straight line from Cape Matapan to the Crimea.
- 13. A straight line from the Cape Apsheron to Kara Bay.
- 14. A straight line from Kars Bay to the mouth of the Mezene.
- 15. A straight line from the mouth of the Mezene to the North Cape.

VOCABULARY

Ais, an island in a river or lake.

Alfa, a North African variety of espartograss.

Asphalte, a mineral pitch found in a liquid state on the surface of the Dead Sea (Lake Asphaltites). It is obtained also from the earth in different countries, as in the Val de Travers in Switzerland. (ii) An artificial compound used for paving, etc.

Amber, the fossilised gum of extinct trees. It is found on the shores of the Baltic, and is made into mouthpleces for tobacco-pipes.

Atolis, coral islands in the Pacific, consisting of a circular reef which encloses a lagoon.

Avalanche, a mass of snow or ice loosened from a mountain and sliding or falling suddenly into the valley below. (French avaler, to descend; Latin ad, to, and valls, a valley.)

Bamboe, a kind of tree-grass growing in tropical countries. There are seventy different species: and almost as many different purposes to which they can be applied; such as building, basket-making, paper-making, etc.

Banana, a tropical and sub-tropical fruit, much grown for food. It is the most prolific of all the fruits of the earth. It is 181 times more prolific than wheat.

Banyan, a species of fig. Its branches send down shoots into the ground, which take root and go on increasing in the same way. One banyan "has been known to shelter 7000 men."

Baobab, one of the largest trees in the world. Its stem is often 30 feet in diameter. It produces an acid pulpy fruit. Basalt, an igneous rock, found often in the form of regularly-shaped columna. The pillars of Fingal's Cave (in Staffa), and of the Giant's Causeway (in Ireland), are composed of basalt.

Bird's nests, Edible. These are made by a kind of swallow, and found in caves along the shores of the Malay Archipelago. They are sent in great numbers to China, where soups are made from them.

Bore, a high wave formed in the estuary of a river by the violent rushing up of a tidal wave. Bores take place on the Gauges and other Asiatic rivers, on Brazilian estuaries, and at the mouth of the Severn.

Bradi auts, the seeds of a fruit which grows in Brazil and the northern countries of South America. Each fruit contains about twenty "seeds" or nuts.

Brazil wood, a heavy red dye-wood of Brazil.

Bread-fruit, a large fleshy fruit growing in the Pacific islands, where it forms the staple article of food. It is usually eaten roasted.

Cacas, the chocolate-tree. It produces pods containing a great number of seeds; and the seeds, being ground, yield the powder known as *Cocca*. This again is used in the making of *Chocolate*.

Camel, a ruminant (cud-chewing) quadruped. There are two species: the dromedary, which has one hump; and the common camel, which has two. The camel's power of enduring thirst and hunger makes it invaluable as a beast of burden in the deserts of Arabia and Africa.

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Cafes, a deep narrow gorge. or ravine cut out, in the course of ages, by a river. The most famous is that of the Colorado; where the river flows along at the bottom of a gorge whose perpendicular sides are in some places 6000 feet in height.

Caoutchout, an elastic gum, made from the juice of several varieties of tropical plants. It is employed in the manufacture of India-rubber, waterproof garments, tubes, etc.

Capars, the buds of a shrub growing in Mediterranean countries. They are preserved in vinegar and used as a condiment.

Oarob, a plant growing in Mediterranean constries and producing pods known as "locust-beans." Some say that these were the "locusts" eaten by John the Baptist.

Cassava, a preparation of manioe.

Catchment-basin, the whole area of country which "catches" the rain and contributes water to a river or lake.

Caviare, the roe of the sturgeon dried and salted; considered a great delicacy.

Chanamon, the inner bark of a tree grown in Ceylon, on the Malabar coast, etc. It is an aromatic and somewhat pungent spice.

Cinque Ports. These were five naval ports established on the south coast of England, for defence against France. They were bound to provide ships at their own expense, and in return enjoyed special privileges. The official who controlled them was called "Warden of the Cinque Ports." The original five were Dover, Hastings, Hythe, Romney, Sandwich. To these were afterwards added Winchelsea and Rye. (French cinq, five.)

Cloves, the buds of an evergreen shrub, native to the Moluccas. They are dried, and used as a strongly aromatic spice. (Latin clavus, a nail.)

Cochinesl, a curious insect which feeds on the cactus. It is found chiefly in Mexico. The bodies of the female insects are dried and used for making red dyes.

Cocca-nut, the large nut of the coccapalm. The kernel of the nut is eaten, the "milk" which it contains is drunk; the outer husk is made into cocce-nut matting; every part of the tree is used. An oil is obtained by squeezing the kernel.

Copra, the dried kernel of the coccanut, after the oil has been squeezed out. It is used in making curry-powder.

Coprolites, the fossilised dung of extinct lizards, etc. Coprolites are found in coal and lias. (Gr. kopros, dung; lithos, a stone.)

Coral, a substance consisting chiefly of carbonate of lime, secreted by small marine animals; and by them built up into barrier reefs, atolls, etc. Coral is found in greatest abundance in the Pacific and Indian Oceans.

Cork, the outer bark of the cork-tree, a kind of oak grown largely in the Peninsula. It is the material of which "corks" are made.

Cotton, the fibre which adheres to the seeds of the cotton-plant. This plant is cultivated in the southern United States, in South America, in India, and on the shores of the Mediterranean. The fibre is woven into cotton cloth.

Dates, the fruit of a kind of palm which flourishes in Persia, Arabia, and the North of Africa. They grow in large bunches, each bunch weighing over twenty lbs. They are eaten fresh, or preserved by drying.

Diamond, the most precious of gema. Diamonds are mined chiefly in Brazil, South Africa, and India. They are very hard, transparent, and brilliant.

Dode, a large and clumsy bird, whose wings were uscless for flying. It was formerly found in the island of Mauritius, but is now extinct.

Dolomite, a building stone composed of carbonate of magnesia and carbonate of line. The Houses of Parliament at Westminster are built of dolomite.

Docab, in India, a tract of country between two rivers. Cp. punj-ab="country of five rivers." Doo is the same word fundamentally as the Lat. dwo and the Eng. two; while ab is the same as Av, in Avon, and means "water."

Degeng, a marine mammal of the Indian occan and more especially of the East Indian Archipelago. Its fiesh is good to eat. The dugong comes to the surface at intervals to breathe, and shows a good deal of its body. This is supposed to be the origin of the stories of mermaids.

Durra, Indian millet. It is largely grown in Arabia and in Asia generally, and also in the south of Europe, where it is one of the chief food-grains.

Ebony, a very valuable hard black wood obtained from Ceylon and the East Indice. It takes a fine polish and is used for dainty work, such as inlaying.

Esparto, a grass much used in the manufacture of paper. It grows chiefly in the south of Spain and the north of Africa.

Encalyptus, the Australian "gum-tree," of which there are many different species. They grow to a great size and yield fine timber. Their leaves, instead of lying parallel to the ground, hang at right angles to it.

Facial angle, the angle made by a straight line from the nostril to the ear, and another straight line to the forchead. The nearer this angle approaches to a right angle, the greater the amount of intelligence is believed to be.

Fortich, any object or animal regarded as the abode of a deity, and worshipped as such. Fetichism is the religion of much of the West African coast.

Pamarole, a smoke-hole in a volcano or a sulphur-mine.

Gambier, a substance obtained from an East Indian plant and employed as a light-brown dye.

Gavial, the "Gangetic" crocodile. It is web-footed and has a very long mouth.

Geyner, a jet of hot water and steam rising periodically from a erack or fissure in the earth and shooting to an immense height in the air. Geyners are probably connected with volcanic activity. The most famous are those of the Yellowstone Region (in the Rocky Mountains), and those of Iceland.

Glacter, a river of ice, finding its way by slow degrees down a mountain-valley, till it reaches warm regions, and, melting, gives birth to rivers; or, arriving at the sea, pushing its extremity out beyond the land. These ends of glaciers, being broken off by the action of the waves, and floating away, are known as icebergs (=icemountains).

Gneiss, a rock composed of the same elements as granite, viz., quartz, felspar, and mica. The difference is that in gneiss the component minerals are in separate layers, while in granite they are jumbled together.

Guano, the excrement of sea-birds, found in immense deposits on the shores, rocks, and islands of South America. Guano is very valuable as a manure.

Hansa, a league formed by a number of German citics, in the 12th century, for the purpose of defending commerce Other cities, of different nations, joined the league. Hamburg was a Hanse Town.

Ibez, a tribe of animals with hollow horns, and not unlike goats. Different varieties are found in the Alps, the Pyrenees, and the Caucasus. The *steinbock* is a kind of ibez.

Iceberg. See Glacier.

Indigo, a dark-blue dye, obtained from an Indian plant. (Span. indigo; Lat. Indicus, Indian.)

Isinglass, pure gelatine. Isinglass is made from the air-bladder of the sturgeon and other fresh-water fishes. It is much used in confectionery.

Isotherm, a line on a map, passing through all places that have the same average temperature. (Gr. isos, equal; thermë, heat.)

Jute, a fibre obtained from the inner bark of certain Indian plants. It is used chiefly in carpet-making and for bags and sacks.

Engarco, an Australian marsupial (or pouch-bearing animal). It carries its young in a kind of pouch or sack. The kangaroo is a large marsupial, with short fore-legs, long hind-legs, and a strong tail. The hind-legs and the tail are used in lesping along the ground.

Earroo, a South African desert. Karroos are usually table-lands with a clay soil. In the rainy season they cease to be :

deserts, and are covered with flowers and grass.

Landes, plains along the French coast of the Bay of Biscay, sandy, and covered with heath and broom.

Liama, an animal related to the camel, but with no hump. It is found in South America, where its wool is an article of export, and where the animal itself is used as a beast of burden. Almost the same animal as the alpaca.

Lianos, wide grassy plains in the basin of the Orinoco.

Locust, an insect related to the grasshopper. In Asia and Africa they fly in countless armies, and when they have settled down upon a district, do not leave it till every green blade and leaf has been devoured. Their bodies are eaten in some countries; and it may have been these insects that formed the food of John the Baptist (but see Carob).

Logwood, a Central American and West Indian tree. Its timber is very compact and heavy, and of a red colour. It is used as a dye.

Macaroni, a paste of wheaten flour made into hollow pipes or tubes, and dried. It is an article of food, chiefly in Italy, from whence it is exported to other countries.

Mahogany, a fine West Indian and Central American tree. Its wood is very hard and durable, takes a fine polish, and is much used in making furniture.

Maise, or Indian corn. A grain very largely grown in America, and also in many countries of Asia, in Africa, and in the south of Europe. The grains grow in parallel rows (like strings of beads) on "cobs" a foot long.

Mangrove, a tree found in the East and the West Indies. Its bark is used for tanning and dyeing, and its fruit is eaten or made into wine.

Manice, an American plant, with fieshy tuberous roots, from which cassava and tapicca are made.

Millet, a food-grain of China, the East Indies, Arabia, Syria, etc. It is also grown in the south of Europe. Nutmeg, the kernel or nut of a fruit which grows in the East Indies. It is one of the best-known spices.

Oasis, a fertile spot in the midst of a desert; caused by the presence of a spring or well.

Optum, the thickened julce of a kind of poppy which is grown in Asiatic Turkey and India. It is a powerful narcotic, and is of great use as a medicine, *Laudanum* is a liquid preparation of optum.

Pachyderms, or thick-skinned animals (Gr. pachys, thick; derma, skin). The elephant, rhinoceros, tapir, etc., are pachyderms.

Paim, a tree of which there are about 600 different species; almost every one of which is useful, in one way or another, to man. The date-palm, the cocce-nut-palm, the sage-palm, and the cabbage-palm are the best-known and most valuable species.

Paimette, a kind of palm that grows largely in the West Indies and in the southern parts of North America.

Pampas, the rolling, grassy, treeless, plains of the La Plata Basin.

Pearl, a valuable jewel, which is really an excressence growing in the shell of a species of oyster. The best pearl-fisheries are those of Ceylon and the Bay of Bengal.

Pepper, a pungent spice made from the berry of a shrub which grows largely in the East Indies and in the tropical parts of America.

Pstroleum, mineral or rock oil. A kind of naphtha obtained from the earth by boring wells. Pennsylvania and other carboniferous regions of the United States, and also the shores of the Caspian, yield much petroleum. (Lat. petra, a rock; oleum, oil.)

Pinnbage, another name for graphile or black lead. A soft mineral from which pencils are made, and which is also used for polishing iron grates, etc. The best plumbage comes from Cumberland.

Polder, a tract of land in Holland, originally under water, which has been reclaimed and tilled. The largest polder

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in Holland will be the southern half of the Zuyder Zee, which is now draining.

Pomegranate, the fruit of a tree which is probably native to Persia. The pomegranate is a pulpy, slightly acid fruit, containing many seeds.

Prairies, the boundless natural meadows of the Mississippi Valley and the western United States.

Prairie-dog, a kind of redent(orgnawing animal) living in "villages," or common burrows, on the prairies. These animals are related to the squirrel, and are only called "dogs" because they make a kind of barking sound.

Raisin, a dried grape obtained from the south of Europe. The smaller varieties of grapes when dried are known as curvants (a corruption of the word Corist).

Reindeer, a kind of deer found in the north of Europe and Asia. In Lapland it is used to draw sledges.

Rice, the chief food-grain and the chief food of millions of people in India and China. It is also grown in the Southern States of America.

Beiling-stock, that part of the property of a railway which is not stationary or fixed; such as the engines, carriages, etc.

Runn, a desert. (The name is only found in the "Runn of Cutch," in the northwest of India.)

Sage, the pith of the sage-palm, an article of food.

Sardine, a small Mediterranean fish, preserved in oil.

Sargamo Sea, the name of a part of the Atlantic, within the greater currents, which is covered with floating gulf-weed.

Savannah, the name for a prairie in the tropical regions of North America.

Screw-pines, a curious tree which flourishes in the Kast Indies, New Guines, and parts of Australia. It has roots coming out from the trunk above the ground. Several parts of the tree are of use.

Seal, an amphibious mammal, most abundant on the coasts of Greenland, but sometimes visiting the coasts of Great Britain; valuable for its fur and its blubber. Selvas, the forest-covered plains of the Amazon. (Latin silva, a wood.)

Serioulture, the rearing of silk-worms.

Shale, slate clay. Shale is generally found in the neighbourhood of coal. It yields parafin-oil.

Simeom, a scorching wind, laden with sand, which blows in Africa and Arabia. It is generated in the deserts.

Sircoco, the name under which the simoom is known in Italy, where its effects are felt.

Solfatara, a kind of volcano; generally a mere hole in the earth, which sends out sulphurous smoke.

Springs are supplies of water which have accumulated nnderground; and which, when the natural basins that they occupy are filled to overflowing, force their way upwards and gush out from the surface of the earth. Springs are either constant or intermittent, either hot or cold; and they are sometimes impregnated with minerals which make them medicinally valuable. A spring is frequently the source of a river.

Stalactite, a natural pendant, composed of carbonate of lime, hanging from the roof of a cave or the arch of a bridge.

Steppes, wide treeless plains (barren except in spring) of south-eastern Russia and of Siberia.

Taplocs, an article of food. See Manice. Taro, a plant of the Pacific islands, whose roots are made into a kind of flour, and whose leaves are eaton as a vegetable.

Tea, the dried leaves of a shrub grown in India and China.

Trepang, the sea-slug. It is found on coral reefs in the East Indian Archipelago, dried and sent to China, where soup is made from it.

Trogons, a tropical race of birds, with the richest plumage, and tails often S feet in length, found both in the Old and the New World. Central America and the Amazon Valley yield many brilliant species.

Truffles, an underground fungus, considered a great delicacy, and found in the south of England, in Italy and France.

Dogs are trained to discover them by the scent, as there is no part of them visible above the soil.

Tundras, flat and marshy plains in Northern Siberia, frozen hard nearly all the year round.

Turpentine, a kind of resin or gum obtained from the stems of different varieties of pine. It is useful for making varnishes, and is also employed in medicine.

Typhoon, the hurricane of China, Japan, etc.

Treeze, a South African insect, whose bite, though not injurious to man or to wild beasts, is fatal to domestic animals. Vasilia, an aromatic plant of tropical America; whose fruit yields a fragrant oil, used in confectionery for flavouring.

Volcano, a mountain which sends forth smoke, flames, showers of ashes, and streams of molten minerals (lava).

Wady, in Arabia, etc., a creek or watercourse, which in the rainy season is a river, but for the rest of the year a dry channel.

Walrus, a northern marine animal, whose tusks yield a kind of ivory, whose skin is made into leather, and whose blubber furnishes oil.



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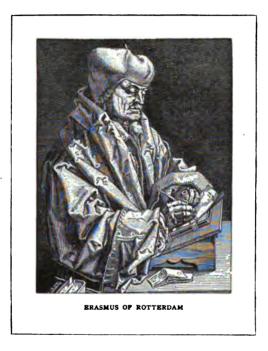
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