THE RALEIGH
LOGRAPHY READERS
VI

BLACKIE AND SON LIMITED

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A Tiger Hunt (India).

[See p. 27

Geography of Greater Britain

India—Canada—Australia—Africa
The West Indies

LONDON
BLACKIE & SON, Limited, 50 Old Bailey, E.C.
Glasgow and Dublin
1898

NOTE

The Raleigh Geography Readers are designed, like their companion History Readers, for the use of those schools where the alternative course is adopted for the higher standards, under Schedule II. of the Code. The present volume, designed for Standard VI., will, it is believed, furnish a bright and entertaining account of the countries under the British flag, their peoples, plants, animals, productions, industries, government, and their commercial and political relations with the mother country. The synopsis at the end will be found useful for revision and memorizing.

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RALEIGH GEOGRAPHY READER.

BOOK VI.

I.—INDIA AND THE ROAD TO IT.

India, or *Hindostan*, has been called the brightest jewel of the British crown. The people of such a tiny island as ours may well be proud to have conquered so great a country. Our other possessions beyond the sea were mostly won from small tribes of ignorant savages, too much occupied in fighting each other to join in defending themselves against the swords and guns, the ships and horses, that made them think Europeans supernatural beings. But India, when we first knew it, was filled with many millions of people, in some ways as learned and civilized as ourselves, among whom we found powerful rulers, large armies, and magnificent cities.

The inhabitants of our eastern empire are now nearly three hundred millions—roughly speaking, eight times as many people as there are in the British Islands, and about one-fifth of the whole population of the world. Yet it took hardly more than a century for a few Englishmen to master this region, nearly as large as Europe.

It is all the more glory to our fathers to have won such victories so far from home.

Up to nearly our own day, the journey to India was a matter of months. The traveller had to go, either all

the way round the Cape of Good Hope by sailing ship or across Europe and then by ship through the Mediterranean Sea, then by caravan over the Isthmus of Suez to the Red Sea, and then by ship again. This *overland*

route was much the shorter, but by far the more irksome. In our day, however, of steamboats and railways, travelling by either route is very much quicker than it was, and we can reach India from England in a fortnight.

To go all the way from England by sea still takes a little longer than this; but the mails, and passengers who are afraid of the rough *Bay of Biscay*, save a few days

by crossing the Channel and taking train as far as the south of Italy, where the steamers call to pick them up about half-way on the voyage. Then they steer across the *Levant* to the *Isthmus of Suez*, where a broad canal, eighty miles long, has been cut through the sands of the desert into the *Red Sea*. Britain has large property in

Photo. Frith & Co., Reigate.

Gibraltar, from the Isthmus.

this canal; and, to keep it safe as the gate between Europe and Asia, British officials are at present directing the government of Egypt, the country having been brought to the brink of ruin by its own unwise and selfish rulers. *Cyprus*, also, a large island off the coast of Turkey in Asia, is held by our troops. Without counting Egypt and Cyprus, the voyage takes us past several British possessions, which are like stepping-stones on our way to India.

Gibraltar is the first of these, a strong fortress built upon an enormous rock, which was believed by the Romans to be the end of the world. We took it at the beginning of the eighteenth century from the Spaniards, and have held it ever since to guard for our ships the entrance of the Mediterranean. It is joined to Spain by a sandy isthmus, on which the Spanish soldiers and ours stand sentry opposite each other. This is the only place in Europe where wild monkeys are to be found. They are more at home in the African mountains on the other side of the *Straits of Gibraltar*—straits so narrow that on a clear day the African mountains are visible from this side.

Malta is our next stopping place, a little island thickly packed with houses and gardens. In old days it belonged to the knights of St. John, who bravely carried on war with the pirates of the African coast. It was taken by Britain in the wars of a century ago, and is now strongly garrisoned and fortified as one of our chief foreign naval stations. The people are a mixture of different races, mostly Italians; but, as at Gibraltar, we see here plenty of British soldiers and sailors.

Aden, at the mouth of the Red Sea, is the Gibraltar of Asia, commanding the straits of *Bab el Mandeb*. The British troops who garrison Aden have not a good time of it, for this is a terribly hot and unhealthy place. The ground seems to have been burned to cinders by a volcano that once poured out fire and smoke from its hollow crater, in which a town came to be built. Sometimes it does not rain here for a whole year together; and our soldiers would give anything to see a fall of snow, or even a London fog, as a change from the burning sunshine. *Perim*, an island in the straits, and

Somaliland, the edge of the African coast opposite are also occupied by the British; and we own the rocky island of *Socotra*, lying off the easternmost point of Africa, with some other small islands in the *Arabian Sea*.

From Aden, vessels make a straight run across the Arabian Sea for India, or turn southwards for Australia. Let us visit India first, to get some general idea of what it is like. Its scenery and people are so different from ours that we may find it as hard to form an idea of this great country as it must be for Indian children, when reading English books, to understand what a church is, or a hedgerow, or a cottage garden.

II.—MOUNTAINS AND PLAINS OF INDIA.

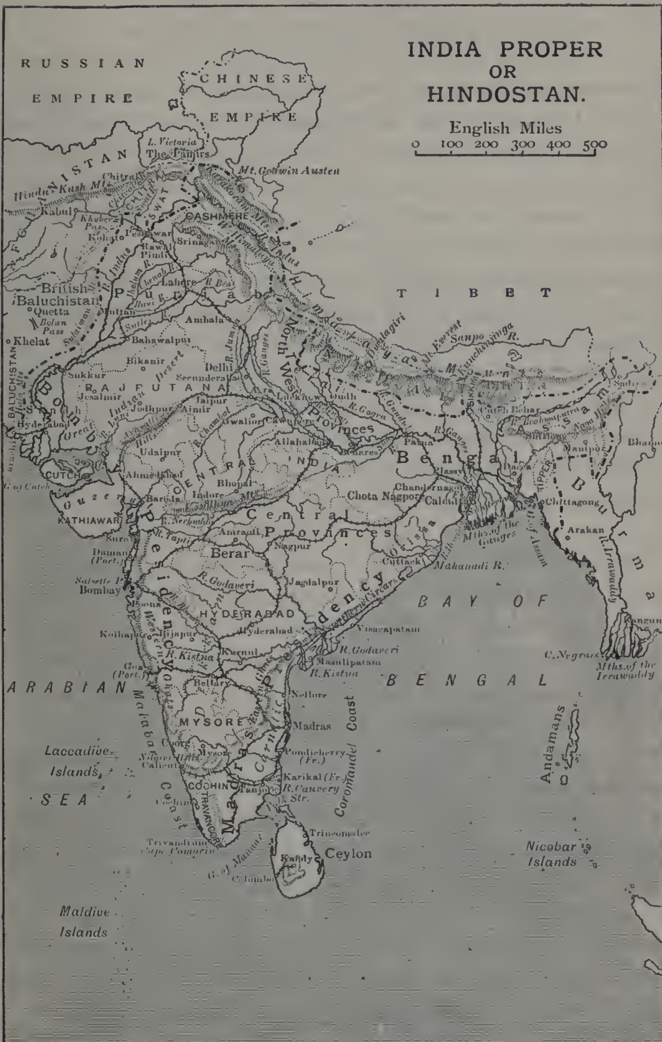
Asia, like Europe, has three large peninsulas on its south side. *Italy*, the central projection of Europe, takes roughly, as we know, the shape of a long boot worn into many wrinkles and knobs. *Hindostan*, which holds the same position in Asia, shows rather the form of a great kite. Our eastern empire has indeed grown out of all neatness of figure by extending round the shores of the *Bay of Bengal*, and along the side of the next peninsula eastward, which is beginning to be called *Further India*. But, for the present, let us look only at the kite-shaped promontory of India proper, or *Hindostan*.

If, like a bird or a kite, we could rise in the air to look down from above on this vast country, thickly packed with dusky people, what should we see? Two masses of mountains, a higher one in the north, a lower in the south, and between them a wide plain thickly seamed with rivers and dotted with cities. The mountains them-

selves, especially those of the south, inclose many stretches of inhabited plain; but the northern ones soon rise so high as to be always covered with snow, and often hidden among the clouds, where no sound is heard but the roar of storms, the bursting of ice-fields, and the thundering crash of avalanches.

These are the *Himalaya Mountains*, the "Abode of Snow", as they were named long ago, which bend round the top of India like the bow of a kite, and shut it off from Central Asia. Here the land appears turned to a sea of frozen waves, some of which are the highest points on our earth's surface, standing up between five and six miles above the level of the sea. The highest summit known is *Mount Everest* (29,000 feet), nearly seven times as high as the tallest British mountain. More than one of its snow-clad neighbours is almost as high, and there are at least forty peaks over 24,000 feet, while the general height of this gigantic wall is above the line of perpetual snow. No one has as yet reached the crown of these mountain monarchs; but not long ago, a party, led by Sir Martin Conway, climbing over rocks, snow and ice, was able to stand at the height of 23,000 feet, where it is hard even to draw breath.

Not only in height are the Himalayas enormous. With a breadth of about 200 miles, they curve round India for 1500 miles, throwing out many projections into the plains below. It is in the central part that the highest points are found, and here the barrier is almost impassable except to hardy explorers. The eastern bend of the curve is on the Indian side further fortified by a stretch of unhealthy jungle land known as the *Terai*, which extends along the foot of the mountains like a castle moat. The western bend of the range, covering


INDIA PROPER
OR
HINDOSTAN.
English Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
CHINESE EMPIRE
TIBET
BAY OF BENGAL
ARABIAN SEA
Bengal
Central Provinces
North West Provinces
HYDERABAD
MYSORE
Ceylon
Madras
Bombay
Calcutta
Delhi
Laccadive Islands
Maldive Islands
Andamans
Nicobar Islands

Afghanistan, has more openings; and here are the great passes through which again and again conquering armies have made their way to the rich plains of India.

Looking south from the Himalayas, we see them falling in huge terraces to a wide lowland region. Stunted trees begin to peep out above the snow; the ice-fields trickle into streams; the rocks begin to be covered with forests; the forests shelter fields and villages; and so, vegetation becoming always more luxuriant, we descend on to level ground, over which the snowy summits rise like clouds, dimly visible hundreds of miles away. The broadest part of India, where the kite's cross-piece would come, is taken up by a wide green plain, watered by the melting of the snows above. Here and there it is broken by separate patches of mountain, standing up like islands in the sea of green; but the greater part of it seems quite flat to a bird's-eye view.

South of this plain rises another range of mountains called the *Vindhyas*, not nearly so high, and looking lower than they really are because the plains beyond them are as high as most English mountains. The tongue of the peninsula now rises into a great table-land, with a height of from 2000 to 3000 feet. This triangular table-land, known as the *Deccan*, is edged along the sea-coast by two lines of hill-tops called the *Eastern* and the *Western Ghauts*, the outer sides of which are so broken into different levels as to form a great stair down to the sea. Near the point of the triangle come the highest southern summits, rising not far short of 10,000 feet, twice as high as the Ghauts. The Indian peninsula ends with *Cape Comorin*; then, beyond *Palk Strait*, this long line of heights is continued by the peaks of *Ceylon*.

III.—RIVERS OF INDIA.

Far up in these mountains arise the rivers that are the life of the plains. At first a tiny trickle from the melting of ice and snow, the stream, fed by showers and by fountains gushing out from the hills, grows as it falls from rock to rock. In every hollow it finds a sister stream to swell its waters, till it becomes a torrent strong enough to hew out a course for itself on the stony mountain side. Down it pours with eager haste to reach the sea, rushing among rocks, foaming through narrow gorges, leaping over steep cliffs, tumbling into the opener valleys, where it begins to flow more quietly. Reaching the plains, it takes in fresh tributaries, now broadening and steadying itself into a great river, on which boats can sail, and by and by ships, between the towns and villages that spring up on its banks.

The plain, flat as it seems to the eye, slopes gradually towards the sea; so thither, by the easiest way, rolls on the great water-course, obeying the law of nature, which bids water always fall, to rise again as invisible vapour into the clouds.

The chief rivers that come down from the Himalayas are the *Indus*, the *Ganges*, and the *Bramapootra*. Of these, the Ganges is, if not quite the largest, the most famous and important, as watering the richest part of India. After taking in the *Jumna* and other tributaries as large as any English river, it flows through the province of *Bengal*, at least a mile in breadth for hundreds of miles together, and in wet weather spreading into a flooded lake, where the villages stand up like islands. It falls into the sea by what is called a *Delta*, a net-work of channels opening out like the spout of a watering-can.

This is the largest delta in the world, two hundred miles long and nearly half as broad at the sea-shore. Here the river pours itself into the *Bay of Bengal*, through the *Sunderbunds*, a maze of marshy islands infested by tigers and other fierce creatures. The principal channel is the *Hooghly*, by which ships come up to Calcutta.

The *Bramapootra*, flowing for a great part of its course behind the Himalayas, doubles back through an opening in the mountains, and falls into the same delta as the Ganges. But the *Indus*, which rises in the same part of Central Asia, finds its way through the western side of India, running down to the *Arabian Sea*. This, with a course of nearly two thousand miles, is the longest river in Hindostan, and gave its name to India. Its channel is so shifting that few large towns have been built upon it, and in dry weather it is often choked up by sand-banks that make the navigation difficult. Five of its chief tributaries join it through a country which hence gets the name of the *Punjaub*, or "Five Rivers", and which lies below the Khyber Pass, from earliest times the chief gateway for the invaders of India.

The rivers of the *Deccan* have not so much room to flow in, and come down from the mountains too swiftly to be often navigable; but some of them, the *Godavery*, the *Kistna*, and the *Nerbudda*, are eight to nine hundred miles long. The upper part of the Nerbudda is famous for its beautiful scenery, especially where it runs between the marble rocks of *Jubbulpore*, which make one of the grand sights of India, like the Trossachs of Scotland, or the Lakes of Killarney in Ireland.

Many of the Indian rivers are almost dried up in summer, and the people have much ado to get water for their needs. All over the country there are lakes, both

natural and artificial, which go by the name of tanks. Canals and small channels are made to bring the water where it is wanted. It is also got from wells, often so deep that the buckets must be drawn up by creaking windlasses, bullocks and other beasts of burden being used to work them. Often, too you see a large wheel,

Artificial Irrigation: a Persian Wheel.

with pitchers set round the edge; and these, as it turns, are carried in and out of the water.

The natives of India are a very clean people, who make a religious duty of bathing at least once daily. Every morning, in any town or village, may be seen crowds of men washing themselves all over by wells and fountains, or on the banks of a tank or stream. The bathers can sometimes be counted by thousands, many of whom may have come hundreds of miles to dip themselves in some water believed by them to be specially sacred, of which they will carry back bottles full to their

homes. The same superstitious reverence makes them desire to die on the banks of holy rivers, that their bodies may be burned there and the ashes thrown into the stream, which they take for a way to heaven.

Water being so precious in such a hot climate, we can understand how these huge water-courses, on which the Hindoos depend for making their fields fertile, came to be almost worshipped by them, as well as the snowy mountains from which the rivers descend. The *Ganges*, above all, is looked on as a sacred river. In its course through the middle of the great plain it passes many temples, hundreds of them close together at the cities of *Allahabad* and *Benares*, to which crowds of pilgrims travel from all parts of India. We shall see something more of these cities further on.

IV.—THE CLIMATE OF INDIA.

The higher one goes up a mountain, the cooler and lighter the air becomes, so that on Ben Nevis, the highest point of our islands, snow may be found lying at mid-summer. We have seen how uneven is the surface of India; we can understand, then, that its climate and vegetation will not be the same in every part, and how when people on the plains are half-stifled by heat, those on the "hills", as Englishmen here call mountains, may be glad of a fire.

The *Vale of Cashmere*, in the north-western corner, 5000 feet above the sea, surrounded by snow-clad peaks, is like an earthly paradise of woods and gardens, with a climate of almost changeless spring. Lower down, yet standing too high to be watered by the rivers of the

central plain, at its west side we have the *Great Indian Desert*—an expanse of dreary desolation where only camels can find sustenance, and the few stunted trees and scrubby bushes are rarer than the bones of men and animals that have perished in trying to push from one well to another. The burning wind that blows across it drives clouds of stinging dust, sometimes so thick as to form a sickly fog through which the sun glares like a ball of red-hot copper. Rain may not fall here for two or three years together; then all at once it comes in torrents, drowning the thirsty land for a time. These are only examples of the remarkable contrasts to be met with in India, which includes burning deserts and mountain heights too cold for human life.

But, because India lies so far south, where the sun has much greater power than in our latitude, its climate is on the whole very much warmer than ours. Even in winter the heat in most parts is such that English people hardly trust themselves in the mid-day sun, but try to do their walking and riding in the early morning hours or at sunset. The sun everywhere beats down with deadly force, so that broad thick hats are more needed there than strong boots with us. You may have heard how all over the East people keep their heads covered even indoors, while it is their shoes they take off in sign of respect.

Along the sea-coast, and in marshy plains, the hot air is loaded with moisture that makes it particularly unwholesome and disagreeable. When summer comes the heat grows unbearable to Europeans, who sometimes must shut themselves up in their houses during most of the day, keeping the rooms as dark and cool as they can, aired by *punkas*, that is, huge fans, which native servants keep constantly going in the roof. We open our windows

for fresh air, but they have to close theirs against the sun, and let in the fiery breath of noon only through screens of wetted grass.

Natives, grown used from childhood to this heat, do not suffer so much; but all Englishmen who can get away are glad, at such a trying season, to take refuge in the cool "hill stations" of the Ghauts or the Himalayas, as our invalids in winter seek the sunny and sheltered shores of the south. Even with all precautions and comforts, the climate is not favourable to people like ourselves, accustomed to a good deal of open-air exercise, and European children can seldom be brought up in India.

In Britain we seldom know from day to day when it is going to rain, but not so in India. For months there, through the winter and early part of summer, the sky remains bright and the ground dry, till a few showers that perhaps come to lay the dust are as welcome as are to us the first flowers of spring. Then, in the middle of summer, a wind called the *Monsoon* blows across the sea, heavy with moisture, that breaks upon the hills of India in torrents of rain, lasting for days or weeks together over the next quarter of a year.

When the rain does come, it makes up for the long spell of dry weather. The half-dried rivers rise in floods, many parts of the lowlands are covered with water, the air is a steam of stifling damp, and even the natives are sometimes obliged to take refuge on the heights from the swampy deluge that drowns their fields. In many parts of Britain a rainfall of thirty inches during the year is thought a good deal. But on some of the Indian highlands as many as three hundred inches are said to come down, all in two or three months. At one part of the *Gulf of Assam* the rainfall is nearly twice as heavy,

From a Photograph by Frith & Co., Reigate.

Simla, a Hill Station among the Himalayas, the Summer Headquarters of the Indian Government.

twenty times what we count our fair share in Britain. In one very rainy year more than 800 inches were counted there, and it is believed to be the wettest corner of the globe.

Most years the Indian rainfall may be depended upon to come at its usual time, but now and then the rains pass over or fall short of their expected quantity. That brings a terrible calamity to the country; the land is scorched up, the crops fail, water runs short in many places, and food becomes too dear for the poor natives. Before the days of our rule this meant people starving by tens of thousands, and even now all the care and resources of the British Government cannot prevent sad loss and suffering in the years of famine.

V.—THE PEOPLE OF INDIA.

The climate of a country is important, not only for the comfort of those who live in it, but as having a great deal to do with their character. We British would not have conquered or colonized so much of the world, but that we belong to a country where the weather stirs us up to be active and hardy. Jack Frost is a capital play-fellow for our youngsters, not a bully as he is in the Arctic regions, but just teasing enough to make us run about and laugh at his attempts to nip our noses. All the rain we have to walk through to school does us no harm so long as we keep sound and strong on our legs. Even our hottest sun only tempts us out for bathing, cricketing, and other sports that make men of us. In such a climate as ours it comes natural for people to like doing something, either in the way of work or play.

But it would have been very different with us had we been born under the Indian sun. There the climate makes it difficult, often dangerous, to be out-of-doors during a great part of the day. To live in warm, damp air softens both body and mind. So, rich people in India are not ashamed to grow fat and lazy, while the poor, who have to work as well as they can, lose their spirit, and would like to be idle if they could.

In some ways it is not so hard to be poor in India as in Britain. The heat makes a great saving in food, clothes, and houses. Hindoos eat no meat, living chiefly on rice and other grains, produced in great abundance on their fertile plains. It has been calculated that on an average the natives of India have each only three halfpence a day to live on. A servant may be hired for a few shillings a month, out of which he keeps himself. A native soldier's pay is about sixpence a day, to support himself, his horse, and his family.

Living in their fashion is so cheap that they are content with what to us seem very small wages. Our people might be as willing to sleep away any thought of bettering themselves, if they, too, could take life easily without having to work hard for nourishing food, warm clothes, a snug home, fire, lights, books, amusements, and many other things which to us have become necessary. Trying hard to get these things for ourselves has the same stirring effect on us as our temperate climate. But give the Hindoo one cooked meal of rice a day, a thatched roof to keep off the sun, a grass mat or a frame of wicker work to lie down upon, a cotton cloth to wrap about his waist, and he is not disposed to take much more trouble, unless to please the priests and the idols he worships.

Now you can understand how it is that more than

once India has been easily conquered by bold adventurers of warlike habits, who then grew lazy and spiritless, with the result that they in their turn were easily conquered. The last conquerors, ourselves, would no doubt be as easily beaten, if the climate had time to take the spirit out of us; but few Englishmen spend their whole lives in India, and most come back every few years to freshen themselves with a holiday breath of more bracing air.

Britain, too, has been conquered, by Romans, Saxons, and Normans in turn. But after a time these old enemies made friends and settled down together so thoroughly that, except in some mountainous parts of the country, we can hardly distinguish the different races. It was not so with the various peoples who mastered Hindostan at different times, to mix, not like milk in tea, but like oil with vinegar. They have all along been kept much apart from each other by pride of birth, by differences of language, and still more by differences of religion. The result is a curious jumble of races, showing various shades of dusky colour, who live side by side, but look on each other almost as foreigners.

VI.—RACES AND RULERS OF INDIA.

The aborigines of India, that is the people who lived there before history begins, belonged to races of whom little is known; but their very tribe names, often meaning *slaves* or *labourers*, tell the tale of how they became mastered by stronger neighbours. Many of them still live apart in the wild hill districts, and are little better than the savages they were thousands of years back. Others can hardly be distinguished from the Hindoos,

who conquered them so long ago that the story is forgotten.

The Hindoos belong to the same branch of the human family as ourselves, that called the *Aryan*, whose various languages are so like each other as to be evidently related. But this race are our elder brothers. When the peoples of Europe were still ignorant barbarians, their far-off kinsmen in Hindostan wrote thoughtful books, made wise laws, and could defend themselves manfully as well as obey their rulers, qualities without which there cannot be a great nation.

By and by the Hindoos degenerated, grew cowardly and superstitious, and could no longer keep to themselves the rich country that tempted invaders. Then came swarms of pirates and mountain robbers, who mostly belonged to another stock, and had this in common that they followed the faith of Mohammed, the Arabian prophet, who more than a thousand years ago set up a bitter rivalry to Christianity. The Mohammedan warriors, again and again pouring in through the passes of the Himalayas, had little difficulty in subduing Hindostan, split up as it was into separate states, whose lords thought too much of their own ease and comfort to be brave soldiers like their ancestors.

When Europeans first began to visit India, they found it governed by a Mohammedan emperor, ruling at *Delhi*, who was known to us as the "Great Mogul", because he represented the Mongol or Mogul Tartars who had taken a leading part in this conquest. But soon his empire, too, began to go to pieces. Some of his vassals or deputies made themselves independent of him in all but name. Some of the Hindoo princes had still held their place, though they might own the Great Mogul as lord so long

as he could make them obey. The ill-governed land was overrun by whole nations of robbers, who set up powerful states; and one of these, the fierce Mahrattas from the south, became masters of the emperor himself, letting him keep his title, but little of his authority.

Meanwhile British, French, Dutch, and Portuguese traders had been settling at different points of the coast. In the reign of Queen Elizabeth was formed the English East India Company. It made its main stations at *Calcutta, Madras,* and *Bombay.* The first adventurers came only for trade, but they soon began to interfere in the affairs of a country where everything seemed to be going wrong. They got patches of land for their own; they built fortifications there; they trained natives as soldiers in their service, under the name of sepoys; and, almost without meaning it, found themselves among the many powers of Hindostan, the weakest, as it seemed, yet destined soon to swallow all the rest.

For a time it was doubtful whether the French or the British would be masters here. The French tried hard, and at one time it looked as if they would get the upper hand. But about the middle of the eighteenth century the brilliant victories of Lord Clive gave us the best of it. The East India Company by degrees pushed their armies over all India, till the Great Mogul was a puppet in their hands, and this new authority rose upon the ruins of the Mohammedan empire.

Now, a century and a half after we seemed likely to be turned out of India, the whole of it practically belongs to Britain. Some small French and Portuguese settlements still remain near the coast. Many native states are allowed to keep a kind of independence, lying like islands in the British territory; but the princes of these must

be on their good behaviour, knowing well that we will not allow them to misgovern the people as in old times. Throughout that vast continent, from the Himalayas to Cape Comorin, our small country, thousands of miles away, is fully recognized as the Paramount Power; and thus we have here made ourselves responsible for the welfare of so many millions; among whom we live as masters, to every thousand dark-skinned natives only one white man.

VII.—OUR GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

The story of this great conquest by small bands of Englishmen reads more like a fairy tale than plain history. The fact is that the Bengalees, with whom we had first to do, were so slavish and timid that any bold soldier among them would be like a dog driving a flock of sheep. It was harder work when we came to fight the warlike troops of Mahrattas and Mohammedans, who had long been used to oppress their peaceful neighbours. But even then, with odds of ten to one against us, we generally ended by winning the battle, and in time the proudest soldiers of India learned that we were their masters.

We had most trouble in subduing the Sikhs, a manly nation of Hindoos inhabiting the *Punjaub* in the north-west of India. The Goorkhas, also, and other hardy hill tribes, long held out against us in their mountain strongholds. But these brave foemen, once beaten, have usually turned out our heartiest friends among the natives, while those who more readily cringe before us, keep longer a secret hatred of the conquerors whom they durst not oppose openly.

Our victories had been mainly won by *sepoys* trained to steady discipline and trust in their British officers. But we trusted too much to their faithfulness, and there came a time when a large part of this native army turned its weapons against ourselves. The great Indian

Native Lancer in our Indian Army.

Mutiny of 1857 was a terrible danger to our power. Over Bengal and the North-west Provinces both Mohammedans and Hindoos of the native army revolted with cruel outbursts of fury. British officers, with their wives and children, had to flee and hide for their lives, or to defend themselves shut up in forts, to which no help could be sent till, in some cases, it was too late. Horrible massacres took place, which so maddened our soldiers

that, when the time of revenge came, they too showed little mercy.

For a time it seemed as if the rebellion would spread all through India, scattered over which we had only forty thousand white soldiers. Never did soldiers fight more bravely than these men, not only against the enemy, but against sickness, fatigue, and the deadly heat of an Indian summer. By and by fresh troops began to arrive from England and from other stations in the east. But even before these reinforcements could come up, a few thousand Englishmen and Sikhs had taken *Delhi*, a walled city filled with tens of thousands of native soldiers. This place being the centre of the insurrection, the worst of it was now over, and our armies soon began to restore order.

When the Mutiny had been thoroughly put down, it was felt that India could no longer be governed by a company of merchants, as it had hitherto been. The famous East India Company was dissolved, and our Queen was proclaimed sovereign of Hindostan, in place of the Grand Mogul's descendant, who had allowed himself to be made a figure-head for the Mutiny.

In the name of the Queen, who there takes the title of Empress, India is now ruled by a Governor-General at *Calcutta*, with subordinate governors at the other Presidencies of *Madras* and *Bombay*. Under them the country is managed and the laws are administered chiefly by British judges and magistrates, but some of the most trustworthy among the natives are also put in high positions. What makes our magistrates respected, above all, is that the natives know they will tell the truth and try to do justice. Lying is the weak point of eastern nations, as of all who have not been used to freedom; yet they

understand what an advantage it is to have to do with men whose word can be trusted.

The most sensible of the natives must see also the benefits of British rule. Other conquerors have overrun foreign lands merely to plunder and destroy; but we think of the real good of the people. We give them roads, railways, canals, telegraphs, and schools. We keep them from fighting with each other, as in old times, and do not allow their own princes to oppress them.

To the various races of India we have added the Eurasians, or half-castes—children of British fathers and native mothers. They usually choose to follow us in religion, dress, and manners, as is natural, when to be an Englishman in India is much the same as to be a lord at home. The most enlightened natives are also beginning to copy our ways; but it will be long before we can get them out of the many strange and harmful customs which superstition has made almost part of their nature.

VIII.—HINDOO SUPERSTITIONS.

A progressive people, such as we are, is one not too slow to change its habits, thoughts, and actions when good reason has been shown. A superstitious people is the opposite of this: one that, without regard to right or wrong, will go on doing as its ignorant forefathers did, and so falls behind in the world. For without willingness to be taught there can be no improvement; and the whole human race has been at school ever since the first man learned for himself that one is not the same as two. A nation like ours will be, so to speak, already in a high standard of experience, while others drag behind

in the lower classes, or even stick at the A B C of civilization.

In India, the bulk of the population are Hindoos, by religion at least, and the Hindoo religion is a sadly superstitious one. It was once a much nobler way of thinking, but through sloth and slavery of mind it has grown corrupt, as weeds will flourish rather than flowers or fruit when a garden is left to itself. Pious Hindoos honestly believe that they are right in their worship; but it seems worse than wasted upon hideous idols and degrading ceremonies. Their whole life is overgrown by absurd and mischievous customs, which keep them back from improvement.

Such a hindrance is the system of *Caste*. The Aryan conquerors were originally divided into three superior classes: *Brahmins*, or priests; *Rajpoots*, or soldiers; and *Vaisyas*, or farmers; while the despised aborigines were included under the general name of *Sudras*, or serfs. Then the Sudras, as well as the upper classes, began to split up into other divisions, till there are now many hundreds of castes, who make a religious duty of keeping to themselves. Members of different castes cannot marry, will not eat together, must not touch food cooked by an inferior; indeed, a high-caste Hindoo will throw away his dinner and go hungry if so much as the shadow of an outsider has fallen on it, and thinks himself polluted by drinking out of an inferior's cup. Each trade and occupation is a separate caste, the members of which look on it as wicked to lend a hand in another's business. A rich house must keep a dozen idle servants to do the work of one, because the man who makes a bed may not sweep out a room, and he who grooms a horse is not of the caste that waters a garden. Caste is not altogether a

matter of rank, for a prince may be of a low caste and his servant of a higher one; but whatever caste a man belongs to by birth, it is rare for him to rise out of it.

One great sign of a people's advancement or backwardness in civilization is the way it behaves to women. Among savages, women have usually the hardest daily work put upon them, while men do the fighting and hunting; and the Hindoos, though they are by no means savages, have not grown out of the way of treating the weaker sex as inferior. With them a boy is made much of, but a girl learns from the first that she is not so welcome in the family. One of the evil customs which our government has taken great pains to put down was that of killing female babies to get rid of them as a nuisance.

Women there are looked on as of no use except to be the wives or servants of men. The better class of them are kept closely shut up, never allowed to see or be seen by any man but their husbands, to whom it may be said that they are sold as much as married. So strong is the power of superstition that the women themselves look on this slavery as quite natural. They are often engaged to be married as mere children without having ever seen their future master. The woman unhappy enough to be left a widow becomes a wretched outcast whom no one will marry again. Another custom which we had great difficulty in putting down was the *suttee*, the burning of widows. The Hindoo dead are not buried, but burned; and when a poor woman's husband died, she would often have herself burned alive beside his body, since for her, life would be no longer worth living in this world.

The Mohammedans, too, have their superstitious customs; and there are smaller bodies with peculiar ones of

their own. In Bombay, especially, may often be seen the high black hats and white garments of the Parsees. These

Parsees worshipping the Rising Sun on the Beach at Bombay.

are descendants of old Persian fire-worshippers, who many centuries ago went there as exiles from their native land. Though not numerous, they are an intelligent and progres-

sive people, who take kindly to many of our ways, and sometimes even beat us at cricket, which has become their favourite game. Like the Jews, they succeed as money-makers and men of business; and a great part of the trade of India is in their hands.

The Parsees have such a reverence for fire that they will not burn their dead on wooden pyres, as the Hindoos do. They practise the strange custom of laying their dead on the top of high towers, there to be eaten by vultures. These "Towers of Silence" make a feature of the scenery about Bombay and other cities of Western India where the Parsees have settled. They are built upon a hill planted as a garden, where rows of loathsome vultures sit perched awaiting the funerals brought out from the city at sunrise and sunset. The bodies being exposed on the tower, in less than half an hour the bones are picked bare.

IX.—PLANT-LIFE IN INDIA.

The vegetation of India, as might be expected from its climate, is mostly of tropical luxuriance. You will get some idea of the tropics if you think of a greenhouse with the roof off. There is plenty of thick foliage and of gaudy blooms; but trees and flowers run to size rather than to sweetness. The dusty splendours of an Indian grove would look poor beside a common English hedge-row; and in the rich gardens of the East nothing seems more beautiful than a patch of turf kept green by constant watering. Everything there is apt to be in extremes: if it is not too dry, it is too wet. A curious sight may be seen upon some of the sandy Indian plains in spring, when

large trees sending their roots deep down into the water below grow fresh with leaves and blossoms, while the ground is still parched up and strewn with dead leaves.

The great heats of summer wither up the whole face of the country, to be revived by the rains that for a time almost drown it, till the floods give place to a sea of green crops. Other crops ripen in the spring; and in some places the soil is so rich that more than one harvest can be taken off it in the course of the year. Among these crops are corn and barley, as well as many kinds of grain less familiar to us till they come for sale in our shops. Indian corn grows here; there are several varieties of the bean and pea family which we hardly know; and in the wet lowlands is cultivated the rice that forms so large a part of the Hindoo's food.

Indigo, from which dye is made, forms one of the rich crops of Bengal. Another is the Poppy, cultivated to supply the opium that is often to Eastern people the curse intoxicating spirits are to Englishmen. Cotton is largely grown and manufactured in India. Tea now flourishes, chiefly in the North, and Coffee in the South of India. A valuable product introduced of late years is the Cinchona Tree, from which comes quinine, the medicine most useful in fevers, that once could be had only from Peru. Silk is another Indian product, but this can hardly be called a vegetable one, because, as you know, it comes from silkworms fed on mulberry leaves.

India has some fine fruits of her own, such as the Mango, a juicy ball as big as a large apple, which grows in groves that take the place of our orchards. Plantains are also very common, which in their West Indian variety we know as bananas. In some parts the Cocoanut Palm makes a graceful feature of the scenery. The juice of

the palm is sometimes used as a drink called toddy. There are many other fruits which we never see in Britain, but none of them so nice as our strawberries, a fruit which in India can be grown only in high districts.

The most valuable tree of India is perhaps the Teak, with its solid and durable timber. The largest is the

Indian Fig-tree or Banyan.

Banyan or Indian Fig, which throws down its branches to take fresh root till the original trunk is surrounded by a large family of offshoots, often forming a considerable wood. One famous banyan grove, now in part destroyed by a hurricane, was so large that an army of several thousand men could be sheltered among its thousands of trunks forming a wood like a green hillock. Twined among the banyan stems is often seen the lighter and more graceful foliage of the Peepul Tree, another kind of fig, which is looked on by the natives as sacred. On the

mountains a kind of cedar called the Deodar grows to a great size, its trunk sometimes measuring twenty feet round, or more. One of the prettiest trees, you may be surprised to hear, is the Castor-oil shrub, with its large leaves and great bunches of blossom, that are quite refreshing to look at among coarser blooms.

Among the most useful of plants is the Bamboo Cane, which grows so rankly all over India, sometimes to the height of a hundred feet, and is literally the "staff of life", which a native turns to many purposes.

"He builds his house of the bamboo; he fertilizes his fields with its ashes; of its stem he makes vessels in which to carry water; with two bits of bamboo he can produce fire; its young shoots provide a dainty dinner-dish; and he weaves his sleeping-mat with fine slips thereof. The instruments with which his women weave their cotton are of bamboo. He makes drinking-cups of it, and his head at night rests on a bamboo pillow; his forts are built of it; he catches fish, makes baskets and stools, and thatches his house with the help of the bamboo. He smokes a pipe of bamboo. Finally, his funeral pile is lighted with bamboo. The hillman would die without bamboo, and the one thing he finds hardest to believe is that in other countries the bamboo does not grow, and that men live in ignorance of it."[1]

X.—WILD BEASTS OF INDIA.

The wild woods of India are known as the "Jungle", a very different scene from the trim and pleasant groves of an English country-side. Sometimes thin and scrubby,

[1] Captain Levin's *Wild Races of S.E. India.*

sometimes close, dark, and tangled, these jungles often cover great stretches of country, especially at the foot of the mountains. Such forests, with their decaying vegetation, are unhealthy to men, but they make the natural home of fierce wild beasts, which thus find shelter even close to towns and villages.

The king of Indian beasts is the Elephant, distinguished among all animals by intelligence as well as size, strength, and long life. Elephants have been known to live more than a hundred years. Born in the great forest jungles, they are often caught young, usually by being decoyed into an enormous pound. The wild elephant when caught is given over to two tame ones, who begin his education, chastising him with their trunks if necessary. Before long he learns to be harmless and obedient, and we all know stories showing how fond of his keeper he becomes, and how faithful he is in the many tasks to which he is set.

Elephants are used as beasts of burden, for hunting tigers through the jungle, and for many other kinds of work, as also for show. Indian princes and great men keep them as part of their state, for processions and public ceremonies. Such an elephant is painted all over and dressed out with rich trappings; then on his back is a sort of car called a *howdah*, in which the master sits at ease, with a canopy over him to keep off the sun, and a servant behind him to drive away the flies.

Docile and affectionate as elephants are, they often have fits of bad temper, and sometimes go mad outright. A "rogue" elephant is one that has broken away to wander by himself about the woods, a terrible enemy to all he comes across. As you may suppose, it is not easy to kill an elephant, and a bullet must be well aimed to pierce his thick hide at the right spot.

Elephants are found in other parts of the world, but the Royal Bengal Tiger belongs peculiarly to Hindostan. Everybody knows how fierce, cruel, and strong is this creature, a far-off cousin of our domestic pussy cat. Lying hid in the jungle, where its stripes are so like the colours of the stems as to be a disguise, it springs suddenly upon its victim, which it kills with one blow of its strong paw, then sneaks back into hiding and returns to make its meal at sunset. Then is the time to lie in wait for it, else a hunter may search for weeks without seeing a tiger, who does not care to kill except when hungry. It is seldom that one will attack men, only, it is believed, when too old and feeble to hunt more active animals; but it is also said that if the tiger has once tasted human blood, it seeks no other prey. Once a "man-eater" has appeared in a neighbourhood, there is no rest for the poor people till this plague has been killed or trapped; and there are plenty of British sportsmen in India who ask no better amusement for their holidays than a tiger hunt, though a wounded tiger is game very much more terrible than hares and rabbits.

Lions are almost exterminated in India, but there are several kinds of Tiger-cats, such as Panthers, which do great mischief. One kind, called the Cheetah, is tamed and trained to hunt like a dog in the service of man. Walking about an Indian city, one sometimes meets cheetahs or lynxes being led about for exercise, with hoods over their sharp eyes. All these sly creatures are cruel rather than brave, and do not readily meddle with men. A writer who has seen much of Indian beasts tells us that none of them is so formidable as the British bull-dog, once his blood is up.

Our government gives rewards for killing dangerous

animals, and their numbers have been reduced in many parts. Still, however, they are the death of nearly twenty thousand people every year in India, and of a much larger number of cattle. The most deadly creatures to man are the venomous serpents that infest the country, especially one small snake no larger than an adder, which, lurking unseen in the grass, kills thousands of the barefooted natives. Englishmen with their strong boots are less liable to this danger, but they often come upon snakes which have stolen into their houses, meaning no harm, yet most deadly when disturbed.

XI.—ANIMAL LIFE IN INDIA.

There are many other wild animals in India, such as bears, rhinoceroses, wolves, and deer of various kinds, but these are not found in all parts of the country. Pigs run wild and are hunted out of the jungles, where also lurk packs of jackals, cowardly animals that may often be heard howling at night, though shy of letting themselves be seen. The jackals are hardly worth hunting, but "pig-sticking" is as favourite a sport here as fox-hunting in England, and more exciting and dangerous.

The pig is not kept tame, because in Eastern countries, especially among Mohammedans, pork is looked on as unclean meat. The Hindoos eat no meat, so that pastures are far less common in India than arable fields, and you might go far without seeing a sheep. They are particularly scandalized by our eating beef, which seems to them one of the most horrible crimes. Strictly religious Hindoos often object even to touch leather.

The reason of this is that the cow is there held the

most sacred of animals. Natives who can be cruel enough to women and children, would not for their lives strike a cow, but pamper it as if it were a pet dog. A devout Brahmin will feed his cow before he touches food himself, and if it broke its leg would think it sinful to put the poor beast out of pain. Bullocks and buffaloes are much used for ploughing and to drag carts, but the cow leads quite an idle life of it.

Monkeys are also looked on as sacred animals, which must not be meddled with, however great a nuisance they may make themselves. When the monkeys come to steal his fruit, a pious native thinks it wicked to drive them away; rather he sets out food for them, under the idea that this is a work of charity to be rewarded by his gods. Peacocks and other creatures are likewise considered more or less sacred, and our soldiers often get into trouble with the country people by shooting them. A real Hindoo hates killing anything. There is one sect so strict as to go about with a cloth over their mouths lest by accident they should swallow a fly. These ignorant people have never looked through a microscope, or they would know that there are hundreds of living things in every drink of water.

It would take too long to give a list of all the creatures, strange or rare to us, abounding in India—the long-legged Camels that are often used as horses, the Monkeys and Parrots that swarm in the groves, the Kites and other birds of prey that hover in the air watching for signs of slaughter, the Lizards and pretty striped Squirrels that crackle through the dry woods, the Flying Foxes that darken the trees like a bunch of gigantic bats, the Bandicoots, a kind of huge rat that scamper through the houses, the Mosquitoes and other stinging insects that

disturb one's rest. You must go to a hot country to understand what is meant by a plague of flies.

An Englishman in the hot parts of India usually sleeps beneath muslin curtains to keep off the mosquitoes that buzz about him in hundreds, and perhaps has a light burning all night to scare away the plague of creeping, crawling, and flying things that haunt his dwelling. No sooner is all still about him than there begins a hideous concert of noise, howls from the jungle, rustlings of huge wings in the branches about the house, the rattling of bones dropped on the roof by birds of prey, twitterings and patterings and scratchings from every wall, squeakings and croakings inside and outside; and, through all, the steady hum of the tiny busy mosquito athirst for human blood. One has a feverish dread of skipping and hovering things felt rather than seen to be about one's bed; one hardly cares to get up in the dark for fear of setting foot on some scuttling cockroach or huge spider, or even a deadly snake.

There is not so much fear that any of the prowling beasts outside will try to break in, even though the wall be only a tent or a screen of branches. Their way is to keep clear of men and lights, unless perhaps some sly panther finds courage to snap up a dog that, sleeping by the window or on the door-step, is such good company for his master. It is rather the small pests which often make sleepless English people long to be back at home, where a mouse or a wasp now and then would be the worst of such troubles. One of the first things one learns in India is to shake out one's shoes before putting them on, lest through the night they should have harboured a scorpion, a creature no bigger than a beetle, but able to inflict a painful sting. And one never knows

when an army of white ants may not invade a house, eating up everything they can, from books to boots.

XII.—CALCUTTA, MADRAS, AND BOMBAY.

There are many great cities in India, some of which have been famous for centuries, while others have risen into note chiefly through becoming seats of our government, like the capitals of the three Presidencies, *Calcutta*, *Madras*, and *Bombay*. In these cities there is a great contrast between the new quarters built by Europeans, and the crowded and dirty streets in which the natives live.

Among tram-cars and English carriages it is strange to see clumsy creaking carts drawn by slow oxen, and the closely shut litters in which Indian ladies are carried about. A turn out of a handsome thoroughfare, all smart offices and shops, will soon take us into rows of queerly-painted houses and temples, where you meet few but dusky figures, almost naked or dressed in bright colours, after the fashions of the different races that make such a lively mixture in these streets. One can tell at a glance Moslem from Hindoo, Sikh from Parsee, proud Brahmin from humble Coolie; and those who know the country well, can make a good guess at every man's caste and occupation, often denoted by painted marks on his face or bare body. The shops here are only open booths which show all that goes on inside: you can see the merchant adding up his accounts on a long roll of paper, the barber shaving his customer, the teacher droning out his lesson to a class of restless urchins, the artisan at his work, all as much in public as the beggar who squats in the dust to exhibit his loathsome sores.

Calcutta is the chief city, as residence of the Governor-general. It stands rather in an out-of-the-way corner of the country, and owes its rank to being on a navigable channel of the *Ganges*, almost 100 miles from the sea. Large ships and steamers can come up so far, first reach-

Photo. York & Son, London.

Native Street in an Indian City.

ing *Fort William*, the largest fortress in India, that guards the harbour on the eastern bank. Here is seen a wide stretch of dusty park and shady gardens, beyond which rise the handsome white and yellow mansions of the European part, called *Chowringhee*, that has given Calcutta the name "City of Palaces".

But, to tell the truth, Calcutta is hardly so beautiful as it boasts itself, and most of its quarters are not so grand as Chowringhee. For several miles it extends up the

same bank, containing, with its suburbs, a population of nearly 900,000 people. At the upper end, the wide muddy current of the Ganges, thronged by small vessels, can be passed by a floating bridge, across which one must go to reach the railway-station. By this is the shortest way to and from England, for nowadays ships come rather to Bombay than to Calcutta, and passengers travel by train, a three days' journey between the two cities.

Madras, though the oldest of our Indian settlements, is not half the size of Calcutta, but it also has fine modern buildings, among which one might almost forget this to be an Eastern city, were it not for the withered grass and the dusty palm-trees. What keeps Madras back is a very hot climate, as well as bad harbourage for shipping. The harbour has been improved of late; but for long the only way of landing on the flat sandy shore was by *catamarans*, rafts of two or three logs fastened together, which skilful native boatmen could guide through the perilous surf. *Fort George* here is the old fortress round which the city grew up, surrounded by very pretty scenery, which makes its best point.

Bombay, on the western side, has grown much faster, and seems likely to become the largest city of India, now that the opening of the Suez Canal makes it the chief port for ships from England. It stands on an island; and in the bay, which forms a magnificent harbour, are other smaller islands, one of them, *Elephanta*, famous for its cave-temples cut out in the rock. The city had become almost as large as Calcutta, before the plague broke out here in 1896 to drive away many of its inhabitants. The European quarter lies near the sea, and is remarkable for a long line of fine public buildings; but

the native part also has been opened out by wide streets that would do credit to any city in Europe.

Bombay has one of the largest railway-stations in the world. The natives of India are fond of railway travelling, but one thing they cannot get used to is a time-table. When they wish to go anywhere, they come to the station with their rugs or other bedding, and lie down to sleep till the train starts, for which crowds of them may be seen waiting the best part of a day; then perhaps these travellers spend some hours more in trying to beat down the price of a ticket. Railway fares are cheap in India; but time there is looked on as much less valuable than money. In the old days travelling was always slow work, and once off the railway line, it has still to be done in palanquins, a kind of curtained box or cage borne on men's shoulders, in lumbering bullock carts, or in light carriages drawn by "tats", as the Indian ponies are called. It is not everybody who can afford to go about on an elephant, a camel, or in an English carriage with a team of good horses.

XIII.—THE OLD CITIES OF INDIA.

The great native cities are seldom built so regularly as those which have sprung up under our government; but they are often more picturesque in their mixture of the mean and the magnificent. In them stand huge palaces, surrounded by gardens and open enclosures, the whole perhaps large enough for a town; then between these are closely-packed clusters of native hovels. The streets of shops, known here as Bazaars, are often built very high and narrow to keep out the hot sun. Temples and

Mosques take up a great deal of room; and perhaps a great part of the city lies in ruins since the day when it was devastated by some cruel conqueror.

Europeans seldom care to live within the walls of an Indian city, but usually make a "station" or "canton-

An Indian Fakir.

ments" for themselves, a mile or two outside. Here, round the dusty open space that serves as a parade ground, are built the barracks of the troops, the private houses, called Bungalows, of the officers and magistrates, the church, the Treasury and other public offices. Beside the lines of huts swarming with the sepoys' families, spring up a bazaar of native shops and the crowded homes of the many camp-followers of an Indian army.

Thus the old town and the new live side by side, having little to do with each other except in the way of trade.

The most famous of the old Indian cities is *Delhi*, the ancient capital, containing the vast palace of the Grand Mogul and the great Mosque of the Mohammedans who bore rule here before us. The city is six or seven miles round, enclosed by high red walls, beyond which stretch for miles the ruins and monuments that show how often it has been destroyed. The chief thoroughfare is called the *Chandnee Chouk*, "Silver Street". Past the city flows the *Jumna*, the principal tributary of the Ganges.

Further down the Jumna comes *Agra*, another city of the Great Moguls. The Fort of Agra is a citadel a mile or two round, its walls inclosing a strange jumble of palaces, pavilions, towers, arcades, mosques, and gardens, which remind us of the Arabian Nights. Outside of the city, in a beautiful garden overlooking the river bank, stands the *Taj-Mahal*, the tomb of an emperor's wife, all built of white marble with rich decorations. Though called a tomb, it is as large as a cathedral; and some think it the most beautiful building in the world, especially when seen in the glory of an Indian moonlight.

The Mohammedans built grander structures than the Hindoos, whose palaces and temples often strike us as absurd. The Hindoo holy city of *Benares* contains many hundreds of temples forming a long crescent upon the banks of the *Ganges*. Great stairs lead down to the river, where crowds of naked people may be seen standing up to their waists, praying devoutly and pouring over themselves the sacred water; then here and there some dead body is being burned upon a pile of wood at the edge. The Cow Temple and the Monkey Temple are

particularly reverenced, filthy and ugly sights as they seem to us; and sometimes the narrow streets will be found quite blocked up by the sacred cows treated here as living idols. *Fakirs* also abound, a kind of holy men, who are more like our idea of lunatics, and take pride in going dirty and naked. It is no wonder that Benares is a centre for spreading infectious diseases such as cholera and small-pox.

A more moving sight to English eyes is the ruins of the Residency at *Lucknow*, where, during the Mutiny, a band of our people held out for months in the middle of this city against a swarm of fierce foes. Their fortifications were little better than low mud walls, and at one place they were separated from the enemy only by the width of a road. Twice a small English army fought its way to their relief through miles of streets and palaces, garrisoned by sepoys who in their tens of thousands had not been able to enter those poor defences where "ever upon the topmost roof our banner of England flew". The ruins are preserved, blacked and broken as they stood, for a monument of one of the most famous feats of British valour.

XIV.—THE NATIVE STATES OF INDIA.

Other cities are still the capitals of native princes, allowed to retain proud titles, and more or less authority over their "protected" states. The Nizam, the greatest of these vassals, has for his capital *Hyderabad*, "the lion's town", between Bengal and Madras, in a province of the same name, not to be confounded with another Hyderabad, the capital of Scinde. Near the Nizam's city, at

Secunderabad, is one of the largest British camps in India, an abiding evidence of British supremacy.

Baroda, north of Bombay, is capital of the prince called the Gaikwar, who has gold and silver cannon among his treasures, as well as a great collection of diamonds, and another of tigers. North of this is *Jeypore*, one of the best-built Indian cities, thanks to its enlightened princes,—rajahs, as they are entitled,—who spent their money on useful public works and on the education of the people rather than on wasteful luxury, and have a museum and observatory to show as well as a splendid palace and a wonderful ruined city.

But it would take a much larger book than this to describe all the cities of India. Some features most of them have in common. They are generally enclosed by a high wall, with great gates of massive strength which are principal public places of the city. Within, perhaps upon a hill overlooking the houses, there is a huge fortress or citadel that once might have been counted impregnable, but could not stand out long against modern artillery. The prince may have several palaces, showing a queer mixture of stately architecture and gimcrack ornaments. The other chief buildings are sure to be Hindoo temples or Mohammedan mosques, perhaps both side by side, and magnificent royal tombs that might serve either as temples or castles. Without the walls may sometimes be seen extensive ruins, a monument of the city's bygone greatness.

The princes who, under various titles, keep their state in these cities are not always very noble-minded. We know what is found for idle hands to do; and now that they can no longer go to war with each other, the Indian rulers are very apt to fall into bad ways. Amid a great

train of wives, flatterers, guards, and other useless dependants, they often pass their time in unmanly dissipations. To their own vices they have sometimes added ours; then, besides growing fat with too much eating, they take to drinking wine and spirits, a thing strictly forbidden by their religion, and waste their hours lazily smoking the hookah or water-pipe, the great indulgence of Indian natives.

A favourite amusement of those princes is looking on at fights between animals, from quails and cocks up to tigers and elephants. A menagerie of wild beasts often makes part of an Indian court; and the degenerate rajah, who perhaps dare not hunt them in their native jungle, takes delight, sitting in a safe place, to see the captive creatures let loose on one another, for so does cruelty go with cowardice. The Sultan Tippoo, one of the worst of the tyrants from whom we delivered India, used to keep savage tigers in his palace to tear in pieces those who had displeased him; and when his capital, *Seringapatam*, was taken by our soldiers, they found among his treasures a machine representing a tiger as large as life in the act of devouring an Englishman. In the body of it was a sort of organ giving out sounds to imitate cries of distress mixed with the tiger's horrible roar. This pretty toy for a sovereign to play with was brought home to an English museum.

Hunting is another favourite pastime, which Englishmen in India are very willing to share. But a native great man's idea of hunting is apt to be more show and slaughter than manly sport. He sets out with a small army of attendants and beaters, who have all the danger, while their master, comfortably seated on the top of an elephant, may perhaps get a shot with the gun which he

is too lazy to load for himself. On horseback he sees deer run down by half-tamed cheetahs, or other animals of the tiger-cat family, that serve him instead of hounds. Such a sportsman does not much care to seek out the tiger alone, and meet him face to face, as Englishmen often will.

If Indian princes do not know how to spend their time better, that is no fault of the English government. We have now established a school for young princes, where the royal pupils are trained to be more worthy of their rank. Prince Ranjitsinhji, the celebrated cricketer, was educated at this school. If any one of them, on coming to his inheritance, should neglect the lessons given him, and take to vicious tyranny, not far from his splendid palace there is sure to be living an English gentleman who with far less pomp has more real power. This is the British Resident, placed there quietly to keep an eye on the doings of the nominally independent prince he has in charge; and he knows how and when to interfere if things go wrong.

XV.—EMPLOYMENTS OF THE INDIAN PEOPLE.

Many of the large towns of India have been to some extent altered by English influences. To see Indian life as it has been for a thousand years, we must visit the villages, each so like another that our eyes can hardly make out any difference except of size. Each has its cluster of huts surrounded perhaps by a mud wall or a hedge of prickly cactus or bamboo, its shaded tank, where the cattle gather to be watered morning and evening, or its deep well descended into by a flight of steps,

its temple of clumsy idols, its village green, its ancient tree round which the old men sit smoking their hookahs in the cool of the evening, exchanging gossip or listening to stories, of which they are as fond as children. Each of the inhabitants is what his father was before him—husbandman, smith, shoemaker, potter, barber, scavenger, or the like; and he has no thought of rising in the world, knows of little beyond the fields familiar to him from childhood. His time, when not given to sleep or chat, is passed in the tasks to which he was born; and so, from generation to generation, life goes quietly on in what has been well called "the unchangeable East".

Most of our people live in large towns, where trade and manufactures are carried on; but by far the greater part of the Hindoos are country-folk, working on the land. The *ryot*, or farmer, tills his fields in the old way, the only one he knows. Large farms and expensive machinery are beyond his ideas. He scratches the ground with a rough wooden plough, drops in the seed, and lets rain and sun do the rest. When his spring and autumn crops are ripe, he squats on the ground to reap them in handfuls with a crooked sickle, taking a quarter of an acre for a good day's work.

We have introduced into India some factories, such as cotton-mills, oil-mills, and jute-works, but these employ only a small part of the population. The Indians have always indeed had some manufactures of their own, that of fine goat's-hair shawls, for instance, for which *Cashmere* is famous. Some of these shawls are made with not less than sixty shades of colour arranged in beautiful patterns. A single shawl often takes weeks to finish, sometimes even years, and a very elaborate one may cost as much as a thousand pounds. Garments and turbans

of silk, sometimes interwoven with gold thread, are also beautifully made by Indian workmen.

Gold and silver working is another trade at which Indian artisans excel, though they may use what may seem to us rude tools, *e.g.* a long blow-pipe for bellows. The money of India is chiefly silver, counting being done

Indian Goldsmith, with Blow-pipe.

in *rupees*, equal to our florin, while the lowest coins are cowry shells, of which about sixty go to a penny. The ryot saves up all the rupees he can, and when his daughter comes to be married, he has them made into silver bangles and other ornaments, which she takes away with her as her fortune. Sometimes, indeed, he thinks the family credit better kept up by giving a great feast on the occasion of a birth, marriage, or funeral.

These foolish people are so fond of outdoing one another in expensive and noisy festivities, that they will

not only waste all their own savings on fireworks, lamps, and stuffing their friends with sweetmeats, but also for this purpose borrow money which they are not always able to repay. The poor ryot is too often under the power of money-lenders, who in India do a good business for themselves if not for their neighbours. Another profession here is that of marriage-makers. Boys and girls are engaged to each other as mere children, and the go-between gets a fee for bringing suitable couples together.

There are other trades in India which strike us as curious, most of them a matter of caste. There are the *Bheesties*, or water-carriers, who take water about in skin bags, which only a man of low caste may handle. There are the *Dhobies*, or washermen, who wash shirts as much by thumping at a river-side as by scrubbing, and make havoc of the buttons, in a way that would scandalize our careful housewives. There are the tailors or needle-men, who sit cross-legged at their employer's door till they have finished the job given them. There are beggars, who sometimes make so good a thing of their business as to be able to ride on horseback. There are jugglers and acrobats extraordinarily clever at the tricks of their trade. There are villages inhabited by professional thieves, who, when hired for it, are said to make excellent watchmen against other robbers. Till our government put them down, there was even a set of villains called Thugs, who made it their occupation to murder unsuspecting travellers.

The lazy fellow who has no other trade, likes to be a servant or an official, with not much to do and plenty of other hands to do it for him. It is thought part of a native nobleman's character to have a band of idle, swag-

gering followers, and quite a small English household here needs as many as a dozen servants. Their chief ambition is to get some place under government, as policeman, door-keeper, or clerk, which gives them a chance to play the great man in a small way and to take bribes for doing favours. *Backshish,* which means money given and taken as from master to slave, not earned in fair wages, is the curse of India, as of all eastern lands, where poor men will cringe like dogs, and lie and flatter where they dare not bully. That is what comes of being born out of a free country.

XVI.—CEYLON.

India has been compared to a kite in shape, and the tail of the kite is formed by *Ceylon,* almost joined on to the mainland by a line of sand-banks and coral reefs known as *Adam's Bridge.* The native legend goes that Ceylon was Paradise, and that Adam left the island by this chain of reefs. Among the mountains that in the interior swell up to the height of 7000 and 8000 feet, one of the most conspicuous is called *Adam's Peak,* where an indentation in the ground is reverenced by some as the first step Adam took after being driven out of Paradise, but by others as the footprint of Buddha.

Buddha was an Indian prince who preached the religion known by his name, which has more believers than any other in the world. Though it has died out of India, it still flourishes among the people of Ceylon, the Cinghalese, as they are called. Their island, not quite so large as Ireland, was first taken possession of by the Portuguese, then by the Dutch, but it now belongs to

Britain. The capital, and residence of the governor, is *Colombo,* one of the great harbours of eastern travel, where vessels call on their way to India, China, and Australia.

Colombo is a handsome town of white houses, half

Street Scene in Colombo.

hidden in leaves and flowers, that look singularly bright in the warm, damp air. The streets are lively with a strange mixture of Eastern peoples—Indians, Chinese, Jews, Arabs, Parsees, Malays, besides English and Dutch settlers, and English sailors and soldiers in cool white

uniforms. The Cinghalese themselves are remarkable in that the men look like women, being dressed in white calico petticoats, with their long black hair fastened up by a tortoise-shell comb, while the women look more like men. Everywhere are seen Buddhist priests, marked out by their yellow robes and by the yellow umbrellas held over their heads by boys who attend them.

The Cinghalese are not a very manly race, enterprise and industry having been taken out of them by their moist, relaxing climate. So near the equator, there is little difference in the length of the day all the year round; and on the coast the weather is always warm, though the sea-breezes keep it from being so hot as in most parts of India. But to get quite a different climate, like that of a fine English summer, one has only to go up the mountains of the interior, where a more vigorous race of natives are found, braced by the healthy air.

In these highlands lies *Kandy*, the old capital, a very beautiful town built among lakes and gardens, beneath a circle of richly-wooded hills. Brilliant dragon-flies, moths, and beetles flit about in the sunshine, and at night the scene is lit up by glittering clusters of fire flies. Gaily-coloured creepers knit the trunks together into a mass of bloom, here and there embowering pagoda-shaped Buddhist temples. One of these contains the "sacred tooth of Buddha", a piece of ivory about an inch and a quarter long, more like the tooth of a crocodile or a large pig than a man's; but it is held in the greatest reverence and carried in grand procession once a year. It is kept in six shrines, one inside the other, all of gold, richly decorated with jewels, the whole enclosed in a larger shrine of silver gilt, protected by thick iron bars.

Ceylon has always been celebrated for its gems. As

soon as a vessel anchors it is boarded by sellers of precious stones; some of them not very precious, but the merchants begin by asking a high price and allowing themselves to be beaten down. Buying and selling is apt to be always a long business in the East, where nobody is in a hurry, nobody trusts his neighbour's word, and no fair price can be settled without bargaining.

Fine pearls, also, are taken off the coast. These "gems of the ocean", as you know, belong rather to the animal than to the mineral kingdom, being formed by a growth from the bodies of shell-fish, particularly oysters. The pearl-fishing boats set out in large fleets for the banks on which the oysters lie, so deep that they must be brought up by diving. The divers take turns in going down, each man weighted with a stone to bring him quickly to the bottom, where he tries to pick up as many oysters as he can in the half-minute or so he can stay under water. When he can no longer hold his breath, he signals to the men in the boat by tugging at a rope, and they at once draw him up. The chief danger is from sharks, to keep off which each boat usually carries a shark charmer; and other such conjurers stand on the shore muttering prayers and performing strange antics that are supposed to drive the sharks away. If a shark does attack one of the divers, the others can hardly be persuaded to enter the water that day, which shows that they only half believe in their ridiculous conjurers.

XVII.—PRODUCTIONS OF CEYLON.

No one who has seen its long avenues of giant bamboos, its groves of waving palms, and its gardens of pine-

apples and other delicious fruit will wonder that people called this island Paradise. Everywhere, especially on the streams and lakes, rich flowers run up like weeds. Among the trees of its thick forests grow the ebony, rose-wood, sandal-wood, and other valuable kinds, which are to common timber almost what gems are among worthless stones.

"It is truly impossible", says Sir Edwin Arnold in his *India Revisited*, "to exaggerate the natural beauty of Ceylon. Belted with a double girdle of golden sands and waving palms, the interior is one vast green garden of nature, disposed into plain and highland, valley and peak, where almost everything grows known to the tropical world, under a sky glowing with an equatorial sun, yet tempered by the cool sea winds. Leaving the coast, you travel at first through endless groves of palms, between which lie flats of fruitful rice grounds and jungly swamp, steaming and teeming with life. Every corner where water lodges, or sun-rays fall, is seen choked with struggling stems, furious to live and blossom and bear seed. The hillsides and deep valleys display the same fertility.

"There is on every side a natural wilderness of greenery, almost too thick and flourishing even for the birds and beasts. In bird and beast life the island is not so rich as the Indian mainland. Even the black crows are less numerous than their grey brethren of India; and swallows, sparrows, and a few others are almost the only birds to be everywhere seen. Tigers are not found at all. Elephants are numerous, but smaller than those of India, though they are highly valued on account of their docility."

Peacocks, parrots, and magnificent fowls, called jungle-

Scene in a Ceylon Tea-Garden; Gathering and Weighing the Crop.

cocks, may indeed be found by those who hunt them out in the forests, which also harbour bears, monkeys, deer, and snakes. Elephants are not so numerous here as they once were. They have been much exported, and also thinned out by English sportsmen, who are no longer allowed to kill this great game without a license from the government. But the Ceylon elephant has no tusks, which saves him from being killed off, like those of Africa, for the sake of the ivory.

Cocoanuts, cinnamon, and coffee used to be the chief productions of Ceylon; but of late years coffee growing has fallen off on account of a disease in the plant, and its place is largely taken by tea-planting. *Ceylon*, and *Assam* in the north of India, now supply much of the tea used in England, for which, till it was found to flourish in other hot damp climates, we had to go to *China*. Tea-gardens seem likely to produce the most profitable crop in this island, but they do not add to its beauty, covering the mountains almost to the top with a thin growth of low bushes, which seem a poor exchange for the forests they replace.

To make room for this foreign shrub, the native woods are cut and burned away on the hillsides, only a few trees being allowed to stand as shelter for the new plant. Drains and paths are made, and the tea seeds planted at regular intervals. As they come up, they are covered with dry fern to keep off the scorching sun. Even when grown, the tea plants are not much to look at, being kept pruned to the height of a few feet, so that the buds and light green shoots may be easily plucked. As these come out, the plucking goes on for months. It is done by natives, who must be careful not to take the old leaves, the tender tips making the best tea. The sacks

filled with them are often shot down from the hills, hooked on to a wire like a telegraph line, along which they run as fast as a railway train.

Then the leaves are brought to a factory, where they are left to wither, and rolled till they begin to curl up while still green and soft as a kid glove. Next they are spread out for a process of fermentation, then dried by hot air till they take that hard curly look so well known to us at home. They are then sorted into teas of various qualities according to size, before being carefully packed. The finest tea, sifted out from the rest, is the strongest, as you may know by the strong brew tea-dust makes. The coarsest leaves are sometimes cut up and mixed with the other kinds.

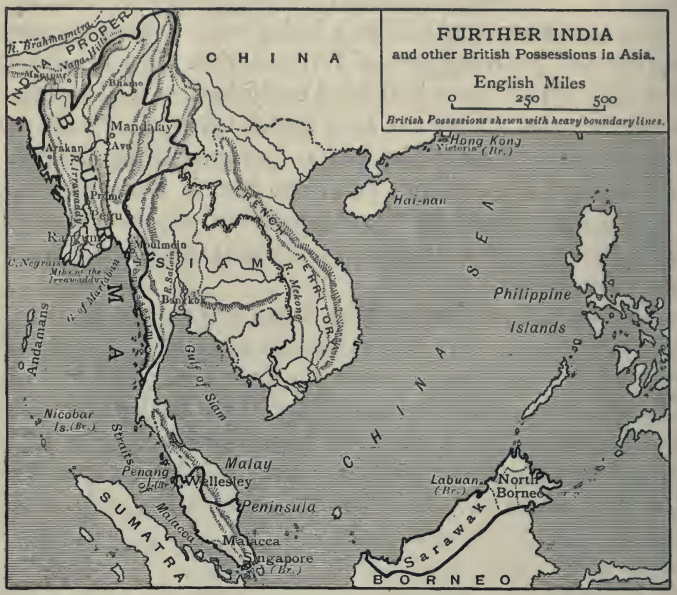
The use of machinery here is an advantage in more ways than one. We might not be so fond of tea if we saw all it goes through under the dirty hands and feet of Chinese labourers. The machinery of the Indian factories has helped us to fill our teapots at a cheaper price, just as our machines at home have lessened for us, and for the Cinghalese too, the cost of clothes, tools, and other necessaries.

XVIII.—BURMA.

Passing round the head of the Bay of Bengal from Hindostan, we find the western side of the next great peninsula for the most part British territory, under the name of *Further India.*

Lower Burma extends here for a thousand miles, a long strip of thickly-wooded mountains, rising behind plains often flooded by many streams. These are the chief roads of the country, and their mouths form the

harbours of the rocky and muddy coast. Rice is the chief produce of these watery lowlands. Off the coast, especially towards the south, are countless hilly islands, for the most part given up to wild woods and wild beasts;



then further out to sea lie the *Andaman* and *Nicobar* groups of volcanic islands, which belong to India.

In the middle of the Burmese coast-line opens the delta of the *Irrawaddy*, near one mouth of which stands *Rangoon*, the capital of Lower Burma, which has belonged to us for nearly half a century, and in that time has grown into a well-built town of two hundred thousand inhabitants. Many English people live healthily enough here, making the best of a rather rainy climate. One of the

prettiest places in this part of the country is *Moulmein*, its chief port for timber. It is built along the sea-shore, and there are beautiful views of green islands, groves of bamboo, and hills topped with gilt pagodas.

Higher up the course of the Irrawaddy lies *Upper Burma*, which we took possession of more recently, to deliver it from the tyranny of its native king. Before that his subjects used to cross our border to be safe from their oppressor; and since it has become British the country is much more prosperous. The chief town of Upper Burma is *Mandalay*, which has to be protected by a large embankment against the floods of the Irrawaddy. *Prome* and *Ava* are other cities of Upper Burma, and have both been the capital in their turn.

Upper Burma is as yet largely covered by thick forests; and its best-known riches consist in precious stones, particularly rubies, of which there are celebrated mines about seventy miles above Mandalay. In place of the rice-fields and other crops of the lower province, the river here rolls through luxuriant groves of palm and bamboo, choked up with huge creepers, among which swarm chattering monkeys and gaily-feathered birds. Upon the mountains, which enclose Upper Burma on almost every side, grow large forests of teak and other valuable timber.

The name Irrawaddy means Elephant River, and elephants are quite a feature of the country. Their intelligent usefulness is described as wonderful in a recent book of travel by Miss Gascoigne.

"They lift the huge teak logs by the aid of their tusks and trunks, and pile them up one upon another with the most amazing precision, in such a way that the ends of each plank are quite in a line with one another. When a log is of too great weight for one elephant to manipulate

another comes and tenders his aid, and together they hoist the huge beam into its place. They drag up the very large planks from the river by the aid of a chain, and this they undo in the cleverest manner imaginable."

A well-trained elephant here is worth 5000 rupees,

Burmese Elephants piling Timber.

that is £500 of our money. Far more valuable, however, in the eyes of the natives, are the so-called "white elephants", in this part of the world reverenced as living idols. They are not really white, but piebald, with flesh-coloured or light-brown patches, a peculiarity perhaps caused by the animal rubbing itself against a tree to get rid of the flies that torment the cracks in its thick hide. Kings used to go to war for such a treasure, which at their courts would be lodged in a gilded pavilion, waited on by

noblemen, and fed from vessels of gold—as if the poor beast were any the better for such distinctions.

The religion of the Burmese is Buddhism, which teaches great respect for all animal life, because men are believed to live again in the bodies of other creatures. Its peculiar temples, called pagodas, are very numerous, especially on the river banks, and in the hills are many sacred caves containing images of Buddha. The great pagoda at Rangoon is as large as an English cathedral, with a gilt umbrella-like roof of 300 feet high. Between this and Mandalay the banks of the Irrawaddy are thickly dotted with these gilded and painted temples, shining among the dark foliage.

Another frequent feature is the monasteries, as we might call them, where a great part of the population live in idleness, wearing yellow robes in sign of their religious character, with shaven heads, and supporting themselves by begging from door to door. Almost every Burman spends some part of his life in one of these institutions, which are also the schools of the country, where boys learn from the priests to read and write.

The Burmese are an intelligent people, kindly and hospitable, with a very good opinion of themselves as superior to the common natives of India, as indeed they are. Their great indulgence is smoking cheroots. To this they take as little children, and its practice does not help to make them more active. It is often said that a Burman is fit for nothing but steering a boat or driving a cart, but they show themselves able to work hard when their living depends on it. Though they do not take readily to business for themselves, they can be useful as clerks and assistants to the English merchants who are opening up the resources of this country.

XIX.—THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

South of Burma runs out the *Malay Peninsula*, a long point of mountainous land, once, like the adjacent islands, given up to the bloodthirsty and piratical Malays. The upper part of this belongs to the kingdom of *Siam*, while the lower end of the peninsula is occupied by British settlements, and by native states living quietly under British protection. Our possessions here, the provinces of *Wellesley* and *Malacca*, with the islands of *Penang* and *Singapore*, are called the *Straits Settlements*, as lying on the *Straits of Malacca*. This long narrow channel separates them from the Malay Archipelago, in which the island of *Labuan* also belongs to us, with part of *North Borneo*.

The point of the peninsula comes down almost to the Equator, so you may suppose that its climate is very hot; and it is damp as well all the year round. Here grow abundantly sugar, pepper, cloves, nutmegs, cocoanuts, rice, sago, and other plants which are at once hungry for heat and thirsty for rain. Tropical fruits of many kinds, mangoes, pine-apples, mulberries, tamarinds, and others, are as plentiful as blackberries with us, but have not so many mouths to eat them, for the whole population of the peninsula, longer, as it is, than England, would not fill a quarter of London. The forests yield india-rubber, gutta-percha, dyes, and gums. Tin is another product, which can be had almost on the surface of the ground, whereas our Cornish miners have to dig so deep down for it that the working of their mines no longer pays. On the coast edge are malarious swamps, where mangrove-trees send down into the water their roots spreading like those of the banyan groves. When the tide goes back, shell-fish

are sometimes found sticking on the exposed roots, which has given rise to a tale that oysters grow on trees here.

The greater part of this country is still a thick forest, "huge trees loaded with creepers drooping in a thousand fantastic shapes, dark-green foliage, yellow sand and clear water, overhead a blue sky and blazing sunshine". The tangled woods are the home of elephants, tigers, rhinoceroses, boars, apes, and snakes. They swarm with brightly-coloured birds and butterflies of every shade, not to speak of lizards, and that giant lizard, the crocodile, which infests the waters. "But let a cloud obscure the sun, and the whole aspect changes; the trees and water look sombre, and birds and butterflies vanish."[1]

The capital of the British possessions, where our Governor resides, is *Singapore*, on the island of that name, at the point of the peninsula, separated from the mainland by a channel so narrow that tigers often swim across it. This is a new city of nearly 200,000 people, natives, Europeans, and Chinese, who live in separate quarters. It owes its prosperity to the fine harbour, which is the chief station of our trade between India and China. The great sight of the place is the Botanical Gardens, which cannot fail to be rich in tropical plants, when all over the island pine-apples are as common as potatoes. Behind the city rises a slope covered with the white square bungalows and gardens of Englishmen, who find this not an unbearable climate. A good deal of the abundant rain falls in the night; then by day there is an intensely blue sky and sea and a bright show of evergreen vegetation very refreshing to the eye after the parched-up plains of India.

Here, as in other parts of the Malay Peninsula, the

[1] H. Lake, *Geographical Journal.*

industrious Chinese have come to form a good part of the population. That reminds us how Britain has a settlement in China itself, nearly 10,000 miles from London by sea. The island of *Hong-Kong*, a Chinese name meaning "Sweet Waters", lies at the mouth of the Canton river, and is one of a group called the *Ladrones*. This island, about half as big as the Isle of Wight, thirty miles round, has belonged to us since 1841. *Victoria*, the city we have built there, rises from the water-side in terraces cut upon a steep hill-face, making a fine show of white houses, and at night sparkling with thousands of lights, the highest of which seem to mingle with the stars. At the top is a peak giving a fine view over the rocky island and its green nooks, one of which, near the town, is called the Vale of Paradise.

More than 200,000 people from all parts of the world live here, most of them Chinese, and not a twentieth part of the whole Europeans. Like Singapore, Hong-Kong owes its prosperity mainly to having one of the best harbours in the world. A remarkable contrast is shown between the European steamers and men-of-war calling here, and the miles of junks, sampans, proas, and other native craft lying in another part of the harbour. A Chinese junk is a top-heavy and unwieldy-looking vessel, with square sails made of palm-leaf, which remind us of Venetian blinds. They are commonly armed with old-fashioned and rusty guns as a defence against the Malay pirates, who used to swarm like sharks in the Chinese seas. But now these sea-robbers have to a great extent been put down by the British cruisers, that here and elsewhere might be called the police of the ocean.

XX.—TO INDIA ROUND THE CAPE.

Before leaving the East, let us look at the course our ships had to take to India before the Suez Canal was cut. This made a long voyage for sailing ships, which had to go with what winds they could get, and were often blown out of their way. Above the line they had the steady breezes known as the "North-east Trades", below it the "South-east Trades", carrying them over the Atlantic towards Brazil. There they would find westerly winds to take them round the *Cape of Good Hope*, usually a good way to the south of it, about latitude 40°, below which lies that stormy belt known to sailors as the "Roaring Forties". Once the ship turned north, it was lucky if it got the monsoon to blow it up to the Indian seas.

In coming home, the course had to be changed, that the vessel might as little as possible have against her those winds which helped her outward voyage. Now she held nearer the coast of Africa, and had a better chance of calling at the Cape and the islands about to be mentioned. North of the Line, the trade-winds might blow her out by the *Azores*; but there she would not have to wait long for the south-westerly breezes which most frequently make our English weather; and they carried her straight home to England.

On this route three islands were often touched at, which are still British possessions, *Ascension*, *St. Helena*, and *Mauritius*.

Ascension Island, so named because discovered on Ascension Day, 1501, is a volcanic rock rising in the middle of the Atlantic between Africa and South America. It is eight miles long, a mass of stony mountain on which

hardly any green thing can be seen. Its only notable product is turtles, here found of enormous size, often as large as a table; these make good soup for those who can afford it. The only town, or rather village, is *Georgetown*, which has a population of a few hundreds, chiefly made up by what may be called the British crew, rather than garrison, for Ascension is rated on the books of our navy as a man-of-war. We took possession of it in 1815 to make a victualling and watering station for our ships. Both this island and St. Helena are of less importance now that the greater part of our trade to India goes by the Suez Canal.

St. Helena is a somewhat larger island, also of volcanic origin, lying a few hundred miles south of Ascension. This too is an English victualling station, with a population of some thousands, and *Jamestown* for its harbour. The sea about it is so deep that a vessel may lie with her yards touching the wall of high and rugged rocks that form the shore almost all round. Seen from the water, the island appears to be all bare rock, but on the higher parts are plenty of green trees and pastures, which make this a very pretty place. The highest point, *Diana's Peak*, rises to 2700 feet. Sheep and goats have been introduced, but the animals that chiefly swarm here are rabbits, rats, and mice, the rats so active as to make their nests on high trees. St. Helena is famous as the place to which Napoleon I. was sent after the battle of Waterloo, to keep him out of the way of doing more harm; and there he died in 1821.

Mauritius is a much larger island on the other side of Africa, lying some six hundred miles off the coast of Madagascar. It is sometimes called the *Isle of France*, once having been a French colony, but we took possession

of it in 1810. The chief town keeps its French name, St. Louis. There is a population of nearly 400,000 people, most of them Indian coolies brought here to cultivate the sugar plantations which make the chief industry of the island. Surrounded by coral reefs, and partly consisting of volcanic mountains, it is very beautiful and fertile, but has a climate trying to Europeans. A damp, oppressive heat is the rule from December to April, which is the period of summer here; in our summer it is rather cooler. Torrents of rain fall at times, and this part of the world is liable to violent hurricanes, which often blow ships out of their way to take shelter or seek repairs at Mauritius.

XXI.—ACROSS THE ATLANTIC.

From Great Britain to Canada is a voyage of about 2000 miles due west. Starting from Liverpool, or some other British port, we have to sail first past Ireland; and when its green shores are left behind, no more land will be seen till we approach the mouth of the *Gulf of St. Lawrence*, the great opening into Canada. Plenty of ships are sighted on the passage, going and coming between the Old World and the New; now and then a troop of clumsy porpoises may be seen leaping in the water as if trying to race the ship; sometimes a whale comes into view, and sometimes an iceberg.

Off the mouth of the Gulf of St. Lawrence lies *Newfoundland*, an island larger than Ireland, which should interest us as being the oldest of all English colonies, having been first taken possession of in Queen Elizabeth's reign. It is a rugged land, covered with hills, lakes, and

pine-woods, where still there are more wild beasts than inhabitants. The long cold winter, when the harbours are frozen up, retards its prosperity; and the summer is hot but short. The capital is *St. John's*. Though lying so near Canada, it is not part of that Dominion, but a separate colony with a government of its own.

Newfoundland is rich in minerals, but its chief wealth comes from the fisheries on its shores, seals, cod, salmon, herring and other fish being caught in enormous numbers. The "Banks of Newfoundland" are a shallow sea hundreds of miles long, where, in the season, an enormous fleet of fishing craft is at work, round which hover crowds of sea-fowl to feed on the garbage thrown out by the fishermen. Very soon after the discovery of America the value of this fishing-ground was known, and it became a resort of vessels from different countries of Europe long before Sir Humphrey Gilbert landed in the island to proclaim it English territory.

The small ships, no larger than our fishing-boats, in which he and other early adventurers crossed the Atlantic, would make a great contrast to the steamboats that now perform this voyage in a week or so. They sometimes pass on the south side of Newfoundland, sometimes round the north through the narrow strait of *Belle Isle*, which separates the island from the mainland. But whichever way we take, it may be that we see nothing of the shore. All this region is often found wrapped in thick fogs, through which a vessel may have to feel her way for two or three days together, in constant fear of running over a fishing-boat or crashing into an iceberg.

Icebergs are the chief peril of this passage, floating islands or mountains of ice that have broken loose from Arctic glaciers and ice-fields and come drifting down

south, to melt away in the warmer seas. So large are some of them that, as we steam through the cold, damp mists, with the fog-horn raising its hideous screech of warning every two or three minutes, a sudden increase of cold may be felt, warning us that we are near one of those icy masses, though it cannot yet be caught sight of looming through the fog. Then the officers are on the look-out with double sharpness, for if the finest vessel ever built ran into an iceberg, the shock would probably send her to the bottom. Ill-fated ships have set out across the Atlantic, never to be heard of again, nor any soul on board; and it is supposed that in calm weather they must have perished thus in fog or darkness.

But when safely seen by clear daylight, nothing can be more grand and beautiful than an iceberg. Fancy a crystal island, carved by sea and sun into the most wonderful shapes, glittering under a snowy crust, studded with gigantic icicles and pinnacles, shaded with pale sea-green between its sparkling points, marbled with blue veins from the refreezing of snow-falls thawed on its surface, all shining in the sun like a mass of gems or half-hidden in a rainbow mist of its own vapour!

Such an art-work of nature may be a mile long, or more, standing hundreds of feet out of the water, and sunk eight times as deep below its surface. In shape they suggest all sorts of objects, now a palace or a cathedral, now a mountain-peak or a pyramid, again a frozen arch or a ship under sail. At last, after drifting for years, may be, they crumble down into jagged, fissured, honeycombed fragments, which either melt away by degrees, or burst with an awful explosion violent enough to agitate the sea for miles around.

It is in summer that the icebergs are to be found so

far down as the ordinary track of vessels from England to America. During the winter they are fastened up among their native ice-fields of the far north. When in winter we have come round Newfoundland, sailing past the desolate island of *Anticosti* into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, we find the sea there, too, all turned to ice. Only for half the year is the navigation open to let us finish our voyage by steaming up the St. Lawrence to Quebec and Montreal.

XXII.—THE CLIMATE OF CANADA.

If we came into St. Lawrence round the north of Newfoundland, we should have caught sight of the cold cliffs of *Labrador* looking across to the glaciers of *Greenland*. Labrador is a dreary, stony, icy land, whose name makes almost a proverb for a country hardly inhabitable, with a coast terrible to sailors. Yet it lies as far south as Great Britain, and "Greenland's icy mountains" are hardly farther north than the Orkney Islands, where snow seldom lies long. This shows us how climate does not altogether depend on distance from the Equator. The mild weather of our islands is due not so much to their latitude as to the warm waters from the hot south kindly washing our shores, making a difference in the temperature of our west and east coast, moderating the winter of Northern Europe, and melting the icy currents from the Arctic regions.

Winter over the most part of Canada is very severe, especially in the parts far from the sea. The coldest snap of frost we ever get is nothing to what they must put up with for months together. But the cold is much

more bearable when it comes without damp or wind, and the settled winter of Canada is pleasanter than our changing spells of rain and snow. Across the Atlantic the sun shines though the ground is covered with the thickest snow, and at night the moon and the stars are

Toboganning in Canada.

often beautifully bright in a cloudless sky. There, winter comes on early; ice and snow will sometimes begin in September, while we are still reaping and bathing and playing cricket. When once it sets in, the people make up their minds to be snowed up till spring, and lay themselves out to make the best of it.

In fact, the long winter is the merriest time in Canada to those who are not in want of food, clothes, and fire. Once the snow has hardened, the Canadians can get about upon it anywhere; all the rivers are turned to roads, and the lakes to playgrounds. In sleighs with tinkling bells they drive about to visit each other more agreeably than through the dust or mud of summer. Smaller sleds called toboggans they use to let themselves slide down from heights, and artificial tracks are made for them, something like what we know as switchback railways.

Skating and snowballing, which we get only for a week or so now and then, are to them matters of course for months. Over the snow, too, they skate after a fashion by means of the huge snow-shoes which they have learned from the Indians to make. Another grand sport is to fly along the frozen lakes on ice-boats, with huge sails for wings. In the large towns people build great palaces of ice, lit up like a scene from fairyland; and they hold torchlight festivals, where the guests skate about in gay fancy dresses, disguising themselves, we may guess, rather as fur-clad Indians than in the light costumes fit for warmer climates.

The winter lasts long; in April or May it breaks up suddenly, once and for all, to be rapidly succeeded by warm weather. The bursting of the ice on a great river comes with a sound like thunder, and often causes much destruction, bridges being broken down, boats overwhelmed, wharves swept away. Sometimes the broken ice gets jammed together, or floating timber gathers into a barrier, choking the course of the river; then behind this dam the water is heaped up till it breaks through the obstacle in a devastating flood. The Canadian spring is so short that trees come into leaf

before the snow has melted away, and, the frost once gone, the bare earth soon puts on its new green dress.

The summer days are much sunnier and hotter than in England. There is plenty of rain at times, but not nearly so much cloudy, broken weather as we have, who never know what to expect for two days together. But the sky being often so clear, as soon as the sun goes down the heat from the ground is apt to radiate away quickly, so that even summer nights are often very cold in high and exposed situations. On the prairies such a thing has been known as a haymaker freezing to death in his tent. In the far north, indeed, even the summer is not genial enough for sowing and reaping.

The autumn is generally a very pleasant time, when may be expected the short season of calm sunny days and gorgeously coloured woods which is known as the Indian summer. It is said to have been given the name by early American colonists, because the Indians then made their last raids against the settlements before snow came on to shut them up in the deep woods.

The climate of Canada, it will be seen, goes to greater extremes than that of England. But west of the Rocky Mountains there is more damp in the air, and the seasons on that side rather resemble our own, with even a milder winter on the Pacific coast.

XXIII.—RIVERS AND MOUNTAINS OF CANADA.

The opening of the *St. Lawrence* makes the natural gate of Canada. In summer, when the river is free of ice, large ships sail up it as far as Montreal, where it is still two or three miles broad. A hundred and twenty

miles below Quebec it receives one tributary, the *Saguenay*, which is a mile broad, and the breadth of the whole stream must here be counted in tens of miles. At the mouth it measures a hundred miles across, and for three hundred miles up a vessel may not come in sight of land. With its tributaries, indeed, and the chain of lakes that make part of its course, in all measuring over two thousand miles, it has been calculated to contain half the fresh water of the globe.

Canada is a land of great lakes, several of them lying close together, running into each other or connected by short rivers, so as to form almost one sheet of water, all drained by the St. Lawrence. The highest up of these, and the largest, is *Lake Superior*, the largest lake in the world. Farther east comes *Lake Winnipeg* and other smaller ones; then to the north of this another chain of lakes, of which the *Great Slave Lake* is the largest.

This is also a region of many rivers, these rivers draining the lakes into the sea. In the old days the rivers and lakes were the only roads through the pathless forest. What has been called the masterpiece of Indian art, was the birch-bark canoe in which the red man travelled over this net-work of water-ways, as the white traders and trappers learned to do from his example. So thin and fragile was it, that an unpractised voyager would have a difficulty in getting in without capsizing it, or might send his heavy boot through the bottom; yet such an egg-shell would carry a dozen men and many hundredweight of goods. When they came to a fall or rapid that could not be shot, the freight was carefully unloaded and carried, boat and all, across the "portage", as it was called, to where the water again became navigable.

In this way the Indians could travel thousands of

miles, almost all over the continent in fact, for a portage of little more than a mile from one of the rivers falling into the St. Lawrence would put them on a tributary of the Mississippi. Beyond Lake Superior rise low heights that form the central watershed of Canada, and here one can, with a little more trouble, get upon other rivers that lead into the Arctic seas. Then farther west comes a serious obstacle to navigation in the *Rocky Mountains*, that cut off the rivers falling into the Pacific. Most of the rivers on the farther side do not make a straight course, but have to turn aside through valleys lying between the Rockies and other ranges that run parallel with them nearer the sea.

The surface of a country can be told to some extent by the course of its rivers, because we know that these come from high ground and follow the valleys. The Rocky Mountains, the highest ground in North America, lie along its west side. The central watershed is so low as to be hardly marked on maps, but from the way in which the rivers run down from it we can see how the land swells up here, sending its waters on one side to the Atlantic, on another to Hudson's Bay, and on a third to the Gulf of Mexico.

The *St. Louis River*, which runs into Lake Superior, and which forms the source of the St. Lawrence, rises not far from the head-waters of the *Mississippi*, near which also rises the *Red River*, flowing into *Lake Winnipeg*. To the north are the *Albany* and other rivers flowing straight into *Hudson's Bay*, that great inlet of the Arctic Ocean that almost forms a salt-water lake in Canadian territory.

At Lake Winnipeg we get into the country drained from the Rocky Mountains. Here comes down the

Saskatchewan, "the water that runs rapidly", flowing eastwards into Lake Winnipeg, which from the south receives the Red River, and other streams from the east; then the whole body of water pours northward by the *Nelson River* into Hudson's Bay, as do several other streams that would count as great rivers in England.

North from the Rocky Mountains flows the huge river known first as the *Athabasca*, then as the *Slave*, which finally, after passing through two lakes of these names, is called the *Mackenzie River*, and falls into the Arctic Ocean after a course of about 3000 miles. The *Yukon* is another great river that runs north from the Rockies, but soon enters *Alaska*, which does not belong to Canada. Lastly, we have the waters falling west of the mountains into the Pacific, of which the chief are the *Frazer* and the *Columbia* rivers.

The great river basins may be divided into four well-marked regions. (1) The *Polar* region on the north; (2) the region of *Mountains* and *Forests* on the west; (3) the central region of vast flat *Prairies*; (4) the region of *Lakes* and *Forests* on the east, the oldest and most inhabited part of the Canadian colonies. These regions we will visit in turn, beginning with the last, which, as the most easily reached from Europe, is as yet the best known to us.

XXIV.—CANADIAN SETTLERS.

The first explorers and settlers of Canada were Frenchmen, who took possession of its shores in the name of their king, without knowing what a great country this was. They found it inhabited by various tribes of Red Indians, a very fierce and warlike race, with whom from

first to last the white men have had many wars; but in Canada they are now quite tamed.

In 1534 Jacques Cartier, a bold sailor from St. Malo in Brittany, entered the St. Lawrence and showed his countrymen how they could carry on a trade in furs with the Indians. Seventy years later, Samuel Champlain travelled still farther inland, and founded *Quebec* as the capital of what was then called "New France". But for long the French colony there did not flourish. In those early days of discovery, people thought nothing of a land which produced no gold and silver. The few French settlers were thinly scattered along the banks of the St. Lawrence and its tributaries, or gathered at fortified trading stations to which the Indians brought their furs for sale.

The French government was very slow to see the good of such a colony. One of its chief uses seemed to be as a place for sending bad characters to. The colonists thought of themselves as exiles, and many of them married among the Indians, their children being the race of half-breeds so common over Canada. Some of the more adventurous took to roaming through the forests, and hunting on the banks of the St. Lawrence. The Iroquois warriors, especially one of their five tribes called the Mohawks, were the terror of all their neighbours; and when the French rashly interfered in Indian quarrels, they brought the Mohawks down upon their farms and villages. For many years the colonists lived in constant dread of Iroquois attacks, which ruined their outlying settlements; and it was all they could do to defend the young towns against such a terrible enemy.

Nor was it only Indians with whom they had to fight. The neighbouring colony of *New England*, peopled by

zealous Puritans, was strongly hostile to the Catholics of *New France*; and it is painful to think that these two Christian peoples armed the Indians to work barbarous cruelties on each other. Plenty of room as there was for both, the French and English could not live peaceably together in America. During more than a century they carried on wars, in which now one and now the other got the best; but at length, in 1759, the English under General Wolfe captured Quebec, the French capital; then all Canada was given over to England.

A few years later, the English colonies of America revolted against the mother country and became independent as the *United States*, while *Canada* remained under the English government. Soon it began to expand beyond the original French colony, a new population of English colonists now taking the lead in making homes for themselves in what had hitherto been a wilderness. On the map you will see how many of the names of towns, rivers, and so forth are the old Indian ones preserved, how others are French, and others English, or Scotch, showing where the first settlers came from.

The general name of *Canada* has been kept for the whole group of colonies which now stretch right across the upper half of North America from ocean to ocean. The only parts of this half not British are *Greenland* on the north-eastern, which belongs to Denmark, and *Alaska*, at the north-western corner, which is United States territory. On the south, Canada is separated from the United States by the natural zigzag boundary of the great lakes so far as they go, then by a straight line along the 49th parallel of latitude to the Pacific Ocean. On the north its only frontier is the icy shores of the Arctic regions.

Within these bounds is contained a country more than 3000 miles long by about 2000 broad, divided into several provinces, all confederated under British sovereignty as the *Dominion of Canada*. There are here fully five millions of inhabitants, more than half of them in the older settlements about the St. Lawrence and the great lakes. Each province has a parliament and administration of its own, while the whole dominion is subject to the Governor-general with the Senate and the House of Commons, which meet at *Ottawa*. The confederation of the provinces, except Newfoundland, which still stands by itself, took place in 1867; and "Dominion Day", July 1st, is every summer kept a national holiday as the anniversary of this union.

XXV.—THE MARITIME PROVINCES.

In winter, when we cannot get up the frozen St. Lawrence on our voyage into Canada, we must land either at a United States port, or at *Halifax*, our great North American naval station. This fine and well-fortified city, with its vast harbour, is the capital of *Nova Scotia* ("New Scotland"), a large peninsula separated from the mainland by the *Bay of Fundy*. North of it lies the island of *Cape Breton*, and these two make up the eastern province of Canada. This is one of the oldest of our colonies, founded in the reign of James I., but for a long time we disputed its possession with the French, who had a settlement there named *Acadia*.

Nova Scotia is a land of lakes, streams, hills, and fertile valleys, enjoying a rather more temperate climate than the rest of Canada, and particularly noted for its

apple orchards, the fruit of which is familiar to us in English shops. Besides its farms and orchards, it is well off for minerals, timber, and fisheries. A peculiar feature here is the high dikes which the French settlers built to keep out the tides of the Bay of Fundy. There are rows upon rows of them, their tops serving as rich hayfields.

From Halifax we can go by rail to the St. Lawrence, passing over a narrow isthmus into the adjacent province of New Brunswick, and leaving to the right, across a narrow channel, *Prince Edward's Island*, the smallest but the most thickly populated of the Canadian provinces. This island, named after the Duke of Kent, Queen Victoria's father, is 130 miles long, very fertile, and has great fisheries on its shores. It contains about 110,000 people. The capital is *Charlotte Town*, another name taken from the English royal family. The climate, thanks to its being surrounded by the sea, is like that of Nova Scotia.

New Brunswick is the largest of the three maritime provinces, but not yet so well settled as the other two. A great part of it is still covered by forests, which supply its main industries of timber felling and ship-building, while on the coast many of the people live by salmon and oyster fishing. The chief town is *St. John*, at the mouth of a river of the same name; but *Fredericton*, higher up this river, is counted as the capital. Again we see here how the loyal colonists named their settlements after the English royal family and its German connections, through which we got such names as Frederick and Brunswick.

We are now in the forest district of Canada, where timber or "lumber" makes the chief industry. The gangs of "lumberers", as they are called, who fell the

trees, encamp in the woods through the winter, far from any society but that of bears and wolves, which sometimes come prowling about their winter quarters sniffing, the hungry creatures, after their savoury cooking pots. All day long the cheery sound of the axe echoes through the frosty forests; at night the men have at least plenty

A "Log Jam".

of firewood to keep them warm and to scare away the wild beasts. Making roads for themselves over the snow, they haul the huge trunks by teams of oxen to the nearest river, or sometimes shoot them down a great slide on the face of some steep hill. The thaws of spring bring this work to an end, and the hewers return home with something of the feeling of sailors after a long voyage, yet none the worse for their hard winter labour.

Some, however, must stay behind to float the logs down the streams on which they are carried to the sea.

This is often the most trying and dangerous part of the business. Weeks may be passed in piloting their cargo of wood a hundred miles through gorges and rapids. Thousands of trunks will get jammed up in a narrow channel, completely blocking the course, and the men have to plunge into icy torrents to straighten out the tangle. Wet through all day, with nothing to lie on at night but melting snow, they must be strong fellows to keep their health, not to speak of the danger of drowning. Sometimes there is no other way of setting free the jam than for one man to be lowered upon it by a rope, to push, shove, cut or pry till the logs start loose so suddenly that his comrades must be quick to jerk him up and save him from being crushed by their tumbling mass. The crash of such a breaking jam can be heard for miles. Still more terrible is the bursting of an ice dam, which, having choked up a river through the winter, in spring causes its freshets to spread in disastrous floods.

Once the logs get floated into a lake or a large river where no more rapids are to be encountered, they are fastened together in enormous rafts, on which the men build huts for themselves, and on these floating villages they steer their way down the current by help of long oars called sweeps. Sometimes a steamboat is harnessed to the rafts to get them along more safely and speedily. Thus they come to the sea to be broken up and sold to make ships and houses, fences and bridges, boxes and barrels, coffins and cradles, chairs and tables, or what not. Much of this timber comes over to England, so any bit of wood one picks up by the roadside may once have been growing in a Canadian forest.

XXVI.—QUEBEC.

From the Maritime Provinces we pass into that of *Quebec*, which used to be known as *Lower Canada*, and was the original Canada of the old French settlers. The people still remain chiefly French, in language, customs, and religion, but they live contentedly under the British crown. While there is a good deal of rivalry between the different provinces of Canada, most of the people agree in loyalty to a government that tries to be fair to all its subjects, whether white or red. Quebec seems to have no cause of complaint in its present prosperity, shown by the neat villages with their church spires, the whitewashed cottages among fields and orchards, the saw-mill and timber-yards that peep out among the woods that still cover a great part of its surface.

The capital of the province is the famous city of *Quebec*, picturesquely built on and below a rock 300 feet high, where the river *St. Charles* falls into the *St. Lawrence*. This is the oldest place in Canada, and keeps an old-world look notable in America, where most cities are nothing if not new and smart. The Citadel stands on the rock, overlooking the broad St. Lawrence and a magnificent panorama of plain and mountain. Below lies the town with its churches and convents, its quaint houses and crooked streets, its steps and old gates looking, as has been often said, like a bit of mediæval Europe planted down in the New World. The clattering of wooden shoes, the dresses of priests and nuns, the looks and language of the French inhabitants, all help to give it a foreign air.

Round the city is some fine scenery—the beautiful *Isle of Orleans* in the river; the *Plains of Abraham*, on whose height Canada was lost and won in the battle

where both the French and English generals fell; the pretty Indian village of *Loretto*, a few miles off, where live a remnant of the tribe that once were masters here; and the grand *Falls of Montmorenci*, that come down over a cliff 200 feet high into the St. Lawrence, in height at least surpassing those of Niagara. Beautiful also are the banks of the St. Lawrence, up which, half-way to Montreal, at the confluence of the *St. Maurice*, comes *Three Rivers*, the second oldest town in Canada.

The largest and busiest place is *Montreal*, about 170 miles higher up the river than Quebec, and finely situated below the wooded hill called Montreal Mountain. This is more of a modern city than Quebec, but still unlike most American cities in the majority of the inhabitants being French. Both the French and the English have great cathedrals here. There are many other churches and other notable buildings; and altogether the Montreal of to-day is a very different place from the original Indian town of wigwams enclosed in stockades, and the French fort that succeeded that. It is the greatest city in Canada, with a population of 250,000 people.

The river here is two miles or so broad, and is crossed by a long railway bridge that counts as a wonder for length. But in winter, people have only to lay rails on the ice and be carried across to the opposite bank. A little way above are the celebrated *Lachine Rapids*, where the great river comes boiling down a slope that hinders its navigation. A canal, running beside it, takes vessels past this difficulty. In coming down, however, big steamboats shoot the rapids like canoes, and though it seems as if they could not avoid being dashed to pieces on the rocks, they are so skilfully steered by Indian pilots that accidents seldom happen.

Montreal stands on an island between the two mouths of the river *Ottawa*, the St. Lawrence's chief tributary. On its banks, 120 miles above Montreal, is the city of *Ottawa*, which, though by no means the chief place in

The Parliament Buildings, Ottawa.

Canada, has been chosen as the capital of the whole Dominion. It stands on a height, where the fine Government Buildings and Parliament House overlook the river; close by is the residence of the Governor-general. A cloud of vapour rises from the great *Chaudière Falls* of the Ottawa; and the river *Rideau* that runs into it

makes another grand fall on the opposite side of the city.

The Canadians are a practical people, who find waterfalls good for something else than looking at; and the water that comes down with such a mighty rush is used to turn mills, especially saw-mills, Ottawa being a chief centre of the "lumber" trade. To it are floated down the trunks of the pine forests, to be sawed up into planks before being sent on to Montreal or further. So here we see enormous woodyards of planks piled up in stacks, looking, it has been said, as if there were enough to roof-in the whole world. Before passing on to the next province, let us see what the forests are like, that make such a great feature of this side of Canada.

XXVII.—THE FORESTS OF CANADA.

In an old settled country like England we find fields and woods, meadows and commons all mixed together to form a charming variety of scenery. It is seldom so in Canada, where one may travel for days over a bare flat plain with hardly a tree to throw a shade upon its expanse of grass, or in another region may see the hills covered with nothing but woods as far as the eye can reach. In out-of-the-way parts not even a wreath of smoke may appear, nor a cheerful tinkle of cow-bells be heard to point out a dwelling of man.

There is something solemnly impressive in these dark forests, often as silent and unbroken as when none but the fierce Indian stole through them on his errands of slaughter. Few singing-birds are found in their depths. By day all will be fearsomely still save for a raven

croaking, a woodpecker tapping, or some shy beast of prey rustling through the undergrowth. It is in the darkness that the forest wakes up with the harsh voices of its inhabitants, the howl of the wolf, the hoot of the owl, the blood-curdling screech of the panther, the ceaseless hum of the mosquito, the hideous croaking of frogs, above which on winter nights may ring out suddenly a crack like the report of a gun, telling how the frost has broken the heart of some ancient pine.

Pines, firs, larches and the like make a great part of the Canadian vegetation, these being trees that flourish in cold and high situations. But they do not make the country green in winter, when their evergreen foliage stands white with snow or sparkling with icicles like a forest of giant Christmas trees.

Most of the large trees that we know best in England, grow here also—oaks, elms, beeches, chestnuts and others —besides some that are more common in Canada, such as the cedar, maple, the sumach, the hickory, and the hemlock tree. Others, which we cherish carefully in gardens, grow wild as weeds in American woods.

The maple is rendered particularly noticeable by the glory of its autumn tints: scarlet, gold, purple, and yellow. In early spring its leafless trunk supplies a more practical gift, when the sap is drawn off from it by funnels to be boiled down into maple sugar, a favourite sweetmeat all over North America. Other trees yield a tough gum, which Canadian boys and girls are fond of chewing. The underwoods also bear plenty of berries, among which the wild raspberries are particularly good. Small grapes may be found running wild like common creepers, which in America are all spoken of as vines.

The tree that was most useful to the red men was the

birch, which they turned to as many services as the bamboo in India. Out of its bark they made their canoes and wigwams, also most of their household furniture, trays, tubs, cups and such like, sometimes even their dress. The son of the forest had birch bark for his cradle, for his bed-clothes, and for his winding-sheet. Torches of bark were his candles, and he used it as paper to scrawl on or to wrap up his belongings. Ropes and nets were spun out of its fibres; indeed it is hard to think of a use to which the Indian did not turn it. At a pinch it served him as food, for he could live for days upon the soft scrapings of bark, when even roots and acorns had failed him.

It is on the banks of the rivers and lakes that the forests are first cut down, because thence the timber can be most easily carried to market, as well as the produce of the farms to which the trees give place. The first work of the original settlers was always to make a "clearing" for the fields to be enclosed by the zigzag fences of rails piled crosswise on one another that stand for hedges in Canadian scenery. Nowadays there are machines for rooting out the trunks as a dentist pulls teeth, but not every farmer can afford to go to work so elaborately. He has only to cut out a ring of bark round the trees and leave them to decay and fall in their own time, so that in the height of summer one may see the strange sight of a wood of dry trees bearing nothing but moss. When he takes pains to fell them this is usually in the deep snow of winter, when no other work can be done, and the melting of the snow shows some feet of trunk still standing above ground; what was in autumn a grove, in spring looks like a churchyard. If in a hurry to clear his ground with the least trouble, he may simply set fire to the wood, leaving the ground for a time

covered with rows of blackened stumps, among which he has to guide his plough.

XXVIII.—DESTRUCTION OF THE FORESTS.

Destructive fires are very common in the American forests, as also on the prairies, where, however, the grass is sooner burned up. We have seen how lazy farmers clear the ground by fire, and the wasteful Indians would think nothing of burning a wood to have a better crop of berries by and by. But in the dry summer, the slightest accident may cause a wide-spread conflagration, a spark from a man's pipe, a coal from a camp-fire, a hot cinder from a railway engine smouldering perhaps for long among decaying timber, till the touchwood blazes up into flame. Usually no one can tell the cause of a calamity that may sweep across a district as large as an English county, burning up not only the trees but the wooden homesteads and villages that have been built among them.

The greatest forest fire recorded appears to have been that which in 1825 spread over nearly 6000 square miles of New Brunswick. It was made more terrible by a storm raging overhead at the same time, so that the face of heaven and earth seemed at once to defy each other with devastating flame and cloud, the peals of thunder answered back by the crash and the crackle of falling trees amid the dull roar of the advancing flames, before which a wild hurricane whirled clouds of hot ashes and masses of blazing timber to kindle the woods at countless points. The bellowing, neighing, and howling of scared and tortured animals added to the din. Even the birds could

not escape, for they were suffocated by the stifling smoke that hung over the whole district. Four towns were burned up, and scores of vessels lying in a river, where many fugitives from the fire lost their lives in the water. Camps of unfortunate loggers were overwhelmed and destroyed to a man. More than five hundred people perished. The survivors wandered homeless, half-naked and starving, over the ruined country, strewn with scorched corpses of man and beast. Even the river was poisoned by the ashes showered into it, till all along the banks lay the bodies of dead or dying fish.

Lightning often blasts the tallest trees of the forests, and every winter the frost kills off the oldest, leaving them to fall at the first great storm, and perhaps to bring down some of their neighbours. Great stretches of wood may be laid low by earthquakes, or by landslips on crumbling banks of hill and river. Another destructive agency is the hurricanes which sometimes mow down a swath through the trees, leaving an opening called a "windrow" as cleanly cut as if by some giant's scythe. But the most destructive of all is man, who by patient labour has cleared such vast stretches of forest to make homes and fields for himself.

Among the woods come the swamps so frequent in wild Canadian scenery. These are soft patches where stagnant water gathers to rot the earth and its vegetation. Sometimes the swamp shows a deceitfully bright green, but then most surely will suck in whoever is rash enough to set foot on its treacherous surface. More often it is plainly a mass of decay, the very grass having a sickly hue, like the pale yellow and dull purple flowers scattered among rank tufts of weeds and flabby fungus growth. Here and there, above beds of rushes, stands a forlorn

tree, its roots soaking away in pools or trickles of water, dank with rotten bark, slimy water-weeds, and foul mud from the crumbling banks. Over all reigns a deathlike solitude, broken only by the splash of a startled water-rat or marsh-bird plunging into the creek that oozes its dull way through this scene of desolation.

Such a dismal spot is particularly infested by the flies and mosquitoes that swarm most thickly where there is dirt and moisture as well as heat. Nobody who has not travelled in the Canadian woods knows what a pest these insects can be. Unlike our wasps and bees, that seldom sting us if left to mind their own business, their delight is to suck the blood of man and beast. There is one kind in the woods, called the "black fly", whose bite is particularly venomous. For fear of it men may be seen fishing with their heads wrapped in a veil, or their faces smeared all over with some strong-smelling herb like pennyroyal. Camping out at night in the warmest weather, they may have to keep up a smoky fire to drive off their buzzing tormentors. Even thick-skinned cattle are driven almost mad by mosquitoes. On the prairies horses are sometimes disabled by attacks of the "bull-dog fly", which is as big as a wasp. A settler may have to build his house on a bare, ugly spot because he must not come near the prettily-wooded hollows infested by stinging insects. There are places where hay-making has all to be done at night, because men dare not face the flies in the hot days of summer. When we grumble against our cool climate we should remember to be thankful that mosquitoes and such like cannot make themselves at home in it.

XXIX.—ONTARIO.

For a great part of its course of more than 500 miles the Ottawa makes the western boundary of Quebec. Across it we come into *Ontario*, or *Upper Canada*, which is a province settled chiefly by British immigrants after Canada belonged to England. Though not so old as Quebec, it has "gone ahead" faster, as the saying is in America, and as it is the nature of Britons to do. We soon see that there are here larger towns, better farms, more clearings, and a general air of prosperity, though for their part the French villages may have greater picturesqueness. This is especially true of the south-western corner of Ontario, forming a projection into the lakes, where the country is so thickly inhabited and so well cultivated as to be called the "Garden of Canada". In the northern parts, stretching right up to Hudson Bay, and at the western end, there is still plenty of wild forest land.

Ontario has more towns than the French province, but its capital, *Toronto*, on the north shore of Lake Ontario, is not quite so large as Montreal. Toronto, however, means to grow much larger, in preparation for which it has laid out its chief street in a straight line of twenty-five miles or so into the open country. We need not laugh at this ambition, for the growth of some American cities in the last generation has been not less wonderful than it would be to find Toronto some day taking up quite as much room as it has an eye upon. Already it is a spacious and handsome city, built in the usual American style of straight streets running across each other in a chess-board pattern. Among its attractions are a university, a cathedral with a tall spire, a fine park, and a

pretty island in the lake opposite, which is a favourite resort of the people in hot weather. It was once named York, but as our York has stood godfather to so many places in the world, the inhabitants wisely went back to the old Indian name.

We can reach Toronto from Montreal by rail, or sail by steamboat up the St. Lawrence, passing a series of rapids; next, two or three openings of the river that form lakes; then the beautiful mixture of wood and water called "The Thousand Islands". Thus we come into *Lake Ontario*, near *Kingston*, a city which for a few years had the distinction of being the capital of Canada. There has always been a certain jealousy between the provinces on this point. At one time Toronto and Quebec took turns of being the capital for terms of four years; but finally Ottawa was fixed on as the seat of government.

At the head of Lake Ontario stands *Hamilton*, a flourishing town with pretty country around it, where sometimes we might think ourselves in the Scotch Highlands. East of Hamilton there flows into the south side of this lake the Niagara River, connecting it with Lake Erie. In the course of this broad and rapid stream come *Niagara Falls*, well known as one of the wonders of the world. The left bank here is Canadian ground, from which two suspension bridges, also wonders in their way, take us over into the United States.

The roar of the great Falls can be heard a long way off, and their position is marked by a cloud of vapour, often beautifully tinted by the sunlight. No one can ever forget his first sight of Niagara, where half a mile of river dashes itself over cliffs more than 150 feet high. The mass of tumbling water is split into two parts by Goat Island in the centre, the curved Horseshoe Fall on

the Canadian side being much the larger of the two, about 2000 feet across. Fancy the stupendous rush of such a cataract, a hundred million tons of water coming over the ledge in an hour, a huge green wave next moment lashed into foam and snowy spray! On the American side the fall is rather higher, but narrower, and not so

Photo. Underwood & Underwood, New York.

Scene in Winter, Niagara Falls.

full, the stream pouring down in white and green ribbons, through which the brown rock appears here and there.

People can go below the Falls, passing between the water and the cliff which form a misty cave of shifting shades and colours. This needs a steady eye and foot, for a slip on the wet stones would be death to the

strongest swimmer in that tumultuous pool creaming among huge rocks. Here, as in the rapids above, fatal accidents have often happened. For a couple of miles below, the waters foam on through a deep gorge, then gather into a basin called the Whirlpool, where the bodies of drowned animals may be seen floating round and round before they are sucked out by the opening, beyond which the broad stream settles down to a quieter course.

The finest view of Niagara is sometimes in winter, when the frost can work its wonders on such a scene. The vapoury breath of the fall puts a varnish of ice upon rocks and trees; the cataract streams are edged by pillars of ice, and huge ice-cakes, flung over the ledge, pile themselves up below, in time forming a white mountain as high as the precipice itself. One winter the river above was so completely blocked by ice that for once the great Falls ran almost dry, showing their naked walls of rock incrusted by snow and icicles, till the water was set free again to boil over them, as it has done for thousands of years.

XXX.—THE GREAT LAKES.

Niagara is not the only grand and beautiful sight the Province of Ontario has to show, as we should see by winding our way up the great lakes that shut it in on the south. Ships and steamers make voyages on these inland seas of fresh water, and are often out of sight of land. Where the channels that join them are too rapid for navigation, as at Niagara, canals take vessels from one to another, so that we could travel on ship-board from England into the heart of Canada. Like the ocean, the lakes are sometimes lashed up by the wind into great

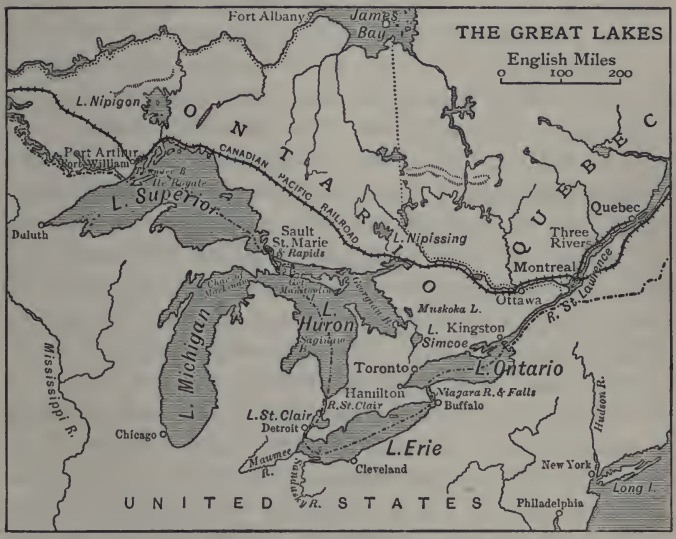
waves, and their sailors, too, know the peril of storm and shipwreck, not to speak of sea-sickness.

Ontario is the smallest as well as the lowest of the great lakes, yet it is not far short of 200 miles long, and at one part more than 50 miles broad. Next above it comes *Lake Erie*, which is rather larger, measuring about 660 miles round. This is shallower than the rest, so much so that it freezes up sooner and becomes unnavigable in winter. On the southern bank, which belongs to the United States, stand great cities such as Buffalo and Cleveland, and from this side flow into it several rivers, —the Maumee, the Sandusky, the Huron, and others. At the upper end it communicates with the next lake by the narrow passage of *Detroit* and the lake and river *St. Clair*, all these waters, you will remember, being part of the course of the St. Lawrence.

Lake Huron gets its name from an Indian tribe that once lived in this region till exterminated by their fierce neighbours the Iroquois. It is very irregular in shape, the main part of it a crescent 280 miles, which on the west side has a deep inlet called *Saginaw Bay*, and on the east spreads out into the larger opening of *Georgian Bay* that makes a peninsula of the richest corner of Ontario. Near the Georgian Bay are some other inland lakes—*Simcoe, Muskoka*, and *Nipissing*, the largest of them. All these sheets of water are beautifully dotted with wooded islets, on which Canadian holiday-makers camp out for hunting and fishing. Lake Huron alone has thousands of islands, large and small, the largest, *Great Manitoulin Island*, at the north end.

Here are two famous straits by which this lake receives the waters of the still greater ones above. *Lake Michigan*, separated from Lake Huron by a large promontory of

the United States, makes a deep gulf southwards, at the end of which stands Chicago, the most rising city in Americe. Looking at the map, we might call this the bottom of the lake, but it is really the head, for its waters flow out at the north end through the channel of *Mackinaw*, where there is an island of the same name,



being an abbreviation of *Michilimacinac*, the Indian word for a tortoise. This great fur-trading station is celebrated in Canadian history. The English garrison of the fort was once surprised and massacred by a band of Indians, who, pretending to play a game of ball, suddenly exchanged sport for earnest, and with murderous war-whoops fell upon the unsuspicious spectators. The fort at Detroit was saved from a like fate by an Indian girl, who disclosed the intended treachery.

From the north the waters of Lake Superior come down by a long channel broken by islands and rapids. The rapids called the *Sault St. Marie* were another noted station of soldiers, traders, and missionaries; for this stream made the gate to what was then the wilderness beyond, when travelling in Canada had to be done mainly by water. *Sault* is the French for a fall, and it is here pronounced *Soo*. By this passage we ascend to the last and largest of the lakes, vessels being taken up by locks, while passengers may pass their time in the excitement of shooting the rapids on Indian canoes.

Lake Superior is as long as England, 400 miles, and it measures all round more than 1700 miles. Two hundred rivers pour their water into this great basin, a thousand feet deep. Its north side shows grand cliffs and bays, *Thunder Bay* being the most celebrated point, off which lies *Ile Royale*, the largest of many islands. The heights on this shore sometimes rise higher than any part of our British coast. The south shore is more flat, but here too we find some fine masses of sandstone, notably the curiosity of nature known as the *Pictured Rocks*, a caverned cliff of wonderfully bright colours. The waters of Superior are often stirred up by perilous storms; but in calm weather they are so beautifully clear that rocks and sand may be seen hundreds of feet below as plainly as through a window. North of the great lake lies another named *Nipigon*, which contains over a thousand islands.

There are mines of silver, copper, and iron on the shores of Lake Superior, the riches of which have only lately begun to be known. To reach the lake by water one has travelled more than 2000 miles from the sea. Large steamboats run up it in summer, carrying passengers to *Fort William* on the north shore, where

they can take the Canadian Pacific railway that has come round from Montreal. This must henceforth be our highway to the great west, the grain and other products of which we see here being loaded by tall elevators into ships to feed the peoples of the Old World.

XXXI.—RAILWAYS.

Canada has plenty of railroads now to make it partly independent of its slower waterways. In some ways travelling by rail is different from what we see in England. The carriages are not divided into compartments like ours, but make long open cars, through which one can walk right through the train, passing from one to another by a platform at the end, where one may stand when tired of sitting. Boys keep going through selling newspapers, books, cigars, sweets, fruit, and other helps to passing the time. In winter the cars are warmed by great stoves, like the houses in Canadian towns, which are kept much warmer than ours, though it is so cold outside. In summer there is provided for drinking the iced water of which Americans are so fond.

There would need to be something done to make American railway travelling not so tiresome as we find it, boxed up in our close compartments. The distances there are enormous. The journey from Halifax to Vancouver, right across the continent, is between 3000 and 4000 miles, and takes a week. One can travel all the way in the same train, cars being arranged for eating and sleeping in, so that it is something like making a voyage by land.

In our thickly populated country, railways are made

very carefully, with all precautions against injuring people or property. In America they go straight ahead in a more free and easy fashion, through forests, over open prairies, and even along the streets of towns without so much as a fence to shut them in. Persons walking or driving have to look out for themselves; and the locomotive has in front of it an apparatus for catching and throwing off any stupid cow that may have strayed on to the line. Even the shape of the engines is odd, to our eyes. They are usually built with a curious funnel, wider at the top than the bottom, to let out freely the smoke of the wood, which they often burn instead of coal.

In winter the trains may be stopped by heavy storms, the snow sometimes drifting on to the line twenty feet deep. Then the engine will have a machine called a snow-plough in front of it, by help of which it clears its way through the snow. When the drift is very great, several engines may be employed to clear the track in a singular fashion. Two or more of them coupled together push themselves into the snow, another following behind to pull them back out of it if they stick fast. In the Rocky Mountains parts of the line have to be covered by long sheds to protect them from avalanches of snow that come bounding down from the heights. In summer the danger is fire. A train may push across a burning prairie, though the smoke be so thick that the passengers are almost stifled. But in a blazing forest there is the risk that a fallen trunk or branch may at any moment block the line and throw the train off the rails. Exciting stories are told of engine-drivers having to put on all steam to race the flames. Another cause that seems small enough sometimes brings a train to a stand-still. The rails become covered by such a multitude of worms

or insects that the wheels get greasy with crushing them, and will not turn.

The chief railway is the Canadian Pacific, that carries us out of the forests and by the great lakes; then over a wild country of rocks, rivers, and woods to the vast prairies of the west; beyond which it climbs the Rocky Mountains and through British Columbia reaches the sea-coast. This is said to be the longest railway in the world. It makes the backbone of Canadian travel, lines running out from it on either hand wherever there are, or may soon be, enough people to use these branches. The Canadian Pacific is also the shortest highway from England to the East and to Australia. On the other side of the Pacific Ocean a railway is now making across Siberia; and when that gets finished, people will be able to travel round the world in a few weeks.

Here is a fact that will give some idea of the distances travelled in America. When one gets into the train at Lake Superior to go west, one has to put one's

watch back an hour to be right, or six hours if it be set by English time. Time is fixed, of course, by the sun, which, rising in the east, will always be so much longer of making his way to any point westward. Thus, when it is noonday in London, evening will be coming on at Calcutta, and it will be early morning in the centre of America. Time changes just an hour in every 15 degrees of longitude; and it has been agreed in America, as on the Continent of Europe, to let railway clocks keep the same time throughout this space, which makes them roughly true to the sun. There is not much inconvenience in keeping the same time over small countries like ours, where the clock will be but a few minutes out from the true time, and when we cross into Ireland or France we have only to set our watches back or forwards a quarter of an hour or so. But in the long journey across Canada, if clocks were not altered, a train timed to reach the west coast early in the morning would arrive in the middle of the night. So America is divided across into four belts, in each of which the clocks change by one hour to keep Eastern time, Prairie time, Mountain time, and Pacific time.

XXXII.—MANITOBA.

From Ontario we travel westwards into the young and thriving province of *Manitoba*, the middle of the Canadian Dominion. The railway now hurries us in a day over what not many years ago was a journey of weeks. The way is through a picturesque rocky country, and by another chain of lakes, which send down their waters to the Arctic, not the Atlantic Ocean, for here we reach the

central watershed of the continent, as mentioned in a former lesson.

Let us see how travellers used to go by the old waterways. From Thunder Bay on Lake Superior their boats took them up a river, from which, crossing the watershed, they launched on another stream leading into *Rainy Lake.* The broad river flowing out of this lake carried them down 200 miles to the beautiful *Lake of the Woods,* a maze of rocky islands and winding channels. Its outlet, the *Winnipeg River,* made the hardest part of the journey, forming more than 150 miles of rapids, cataracts, whirlpools, small lakes and backwaters, and reaches of swift-flowing stream.

The skill and courage of the Indians in steering through this broken current were wonderful, yet half a dozen times a day or more they had to lift their light canoe across some bit where nothing could have prevented it from being swamped. At one place the river falls sixty feet in three miles, and seven times they must take to the land. Still harder was the toil of the *voyageurs,* as Canadian boatmen were called, who might have to guide heavy boats, loaded with goods, through the raging rocky stream, that at last set them on the open waters of *Lake Winnipeg.*

This sheet, almost as large as Lake Huron, is connected with several other lakes about it, and filled by streams coming from various quarters. At its north end it receives the North and South *Saskatchewan Rivers* from the Rocky Mountains. Into the south end flows the *Red River of the North,* so called to distinguish it from another Red River that is a tributary of the Mississippi. The waters of this river are rather a dirty white than red, but it gets the name from having been so often stained

with blood. Long ago the Indian tribes slaughtered each other on its banks. In our own century the fur traders fell to fighting here, as if there were not room enough for them all in what was then a vast wilderness. It is only about thirty years back that the French-speaking half-breeds of the Red River rebelled against our government, but yielded without a shot being fired when Colonel Wolseley, now Commander-in-Chief of the British army, led a few companies of soldiers over the difficult track just described. This is the last time there has been any serious rebellion in Canada, and the fighting was then all a matter of hard work against rocks and torrents.

Fort Garry, the head-quarters of the rebellion, was at that time a place of some hundred inhabitants, a little way up the Red River. To-day we find here a city named *Winnipeg*, with a population growing by tens of thousands, the capital of Manitoba, and the central point of Canada. From the Central Pacific main line, railways reach out in different directions, one being designed to run north to Hudson's Bay; and along them are rising other towns, only a few years old, *Brandon* being at present the largest of them after Winnipeg.

Such sudden prosperity Manitoba owes to its rich prairie land, particularly well suited for growing wheat. Oats, barley, flax, and big potatoes are grown as well as wheat, and Winnipeg has mills and manufactories and great storehouses to supply the population fast increasing around it. Within the last twenty years many farmers have come here from Britain, getting large farms for next to nothing, and able to make them pay well, now that they have railways to carry their grain to market.

The chief thing to be said against Manitoba is the intense cold of the winter. In England we count our

cold from 32 degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer, the freezing point of water, and hardly ever does it get down to zero, the lowest point worth marking for us. In the Canadian North-West the winter frost is more commonly marked by 20 or more degrees below zero, till even the mercury freezes, and it is so sharp that one durst not touch with the bare skin anything made of metal, since extreme cold burns like extreme heat. Faces and hands exposed to it are sometimes apt to get frost-bitten, unless the place be quickly rubbed with snow, the simplest way of restoring circulation.

But this hard winter need not frighten hearty people. It is worst when the snow comes driven by a tempest of icy wind, such as in America is called a "blizzard". Up to a certain point, the greater the cold the more pleasant the weather, so long as it keeps still, for then the snow lies dry and powdery. Travellers who have slept out in it for weeks find the confinement of a house unbearable at first. Indians often die of consumption when they are got to live in snug houses; but many white men threatened with this disease in warmer parts, have quite recovered their health in the dry and bracing climate of Manitoba.

XXXIII.—THE PRAIRIES.

At Winnipeg we are fairly in the prairie region, which stretches thence for nearly a thousand miles to the Rocky Mountains. The prairies of America are great plains such as we have not in England, sometimes flat as a table as far as the eye can reach, sometimes swelling up and down like waves of the sea, or rising into low hills that stand up as islands. Few trees appear except in

the river courses or by the lakes and ponds that may break the great expanse of land, beautifully green in spring, dappled by flowers in their season, faded to a dull brown by the summer heat, in the dry autumn often blackened for miles and miles by a prairie fire, and in winter one dazzling sheet of deep snow. All was open and empty till the settlers came to plough up this fertile country where a few years ago one might travel for days without seeing a fellow-man.

From the train, as it rolls over such an ocean of grass on a track straight as a steamboat's, we see it now cut up by new farms, which naturally come thickest near the railway; but there is plenty of room for more farmers, after the best bits have been taken up. Here and there at the stations, or hanging about the villages, we catch sight of a group of Indians, who, dressed in a ludicrous mixture of their own costume and cast-off white men's clothes, stare wonderingly at the "fire-waggons" which are beyond their comprehension. They cannot be expected to like having their old hunting-grounds turned into farms; but they are harmless enough, so long as not allowed to get at whisky, and are kept in order by a few hundreds of mounted police.

Beyond Manitoba, the North-West has been marked off into other new provinces, *Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, Alberta,* and *Athabasca.* As we advance into these, we find farms and towns, as yet fewer and further between. We pass *Regina,* the chief town of Assiniboia, where a branch goes off to the north; then, forty miles on, another branch comes in from the south. A railway, like a river, has its tributaries that fall into the main line to swell the stream of traffic. And like rivers, railways are seen to carry prosperity where they come, for beside them we

find towns springing up at places a few years ago not worth marking on the maps.

The ground becomes rougher, the country more barren, as, a thousand miles from Lake Superior, we draw near the mountains. Still it is broken here and there by patches of cultivation. In this region the settlers, as well

Photo. York & Son, London.

Indian Wigwam on the Prairie.

as making farms, have set up great cattle ranches, on which herds of thousands are driven about by the "cow-boys", as they like to call themselves, who have such an active and hardy life of it in the far west. It takes a bold lad to herd cattle in this part of the world, where sometimes he may have to defend them from hungry Indians as well as from wolves.

Now and then the train may give us a peep of an Indian camp, tall pointed tents of smoky skins or canvas,

round which feed their troops of active ponies. We have reached the country of the Blackfeet, fiercest of all western Indians, as the Iroquois were in the east; but both of them have long ago learned that the white man must be master. Shy antelopes may sometimes be seen bounding away out of shot; and the many lakes, often salt or edged by a whitish scum, are alive with flocks of wild-fowl.

Another thing must have struck us as we crossed the prairies, how they are often dotted with the great white skulls of the buffaloes that once pastured on them in enormous numbers. The trails made by great herds of them are still to be traced on the grass, marked also by hollow pits where they used to wallow in the mud. The red man of the west chiefly lived on the buffalo, and his main employment was the exciting hunt of these shaggy wild cattle. Their skins gave him clothes, bedding, and lodging, as bark did for the forest Indian. Their horns were made into spoons; their bones into tools and weapons; their sinews into string and thread; their hair was twisted into ropes, and glue boiled out of their hoofs. Buffalo skins were the money with which he could best pay white men for the firearms, that proved more deadly than his bow and arrows.

But now it is hard to set eyes on a live buffalo. The Indians, gorging and starving by turns, were wasteful enough; then the white hunters with their powder and shot came to speed the work of destruction. Millions of beasts were killed for their skin, and left to rot on the prairies. There are men living who have seen herds to be counted by hundreds of thousands, and leagues of country black with their passage. In the early days of western railways, trains were sometimes brought to a

stand by them. Now, so fast has the work of destruction gone on that the buffaloes are almost exterminated, both in Canada and the United States. A few small herds in out-of-the-way parts are carefully preserved by laws passed too late; and others are believed to hold out too far north for hunters easily to get at them. On the rich plain where they once roamed in such innumerable hosts, only their bones remain, and their place is being taken by cattle. If the Indians cannot learn to be farmers or cattle breeders instead of hunters, what is to become of them?

XXXIV.—BEARS AND OTHER BEASTS.

The Buffalo has gone, the great game of the prairies; but in the forests and the mountains there are still plenty of wild beasts to be hunted. Lions and tigers are represented in America by various fierce wild-cats of the panther kind, one of them known as the "mountain lion"; but this is only the Puma, no bigger than a large dog, We need not look in Canada for monkeys, elephants, and other inhabitants of the tropics. The Bear here may be taken as the king of beasts; whose warm fur makes him so much at home in these cold forests.

The common Black and Brown Bears are found on both sides of the Continent, keeping themselves for the most part out of sight among the woods. The Bear has a bad name for ill-temper, but he seems to be rather shy than sulky, and seldom cares to meddle with men if they will only leave him alone. His claws are more suited for digging and climbing than for tearing, though he can make savage use of them when driven to fighting. He is not much of a flesh-eater, being fonder of fruit, and

with a very sweet tooth for such food as honey. When hungry, however, he is not particular, being obliged to take what he can get when the season of berries and nuts is past. Then he may be caught prowling about farm-yards to pick up a young sucking pig or some such dainty morsel; and he has been known to help himself to a large steak from a live ox if no other dinner came in his way.

It is the nature of bears to sleep through most of the winter, living on their own fat in some cave or hollow tree. This is the time for hunters to track them out by prints on the snow and on the bark. However high up the bear may have made its dormitory, the Indians know how to stir it up or smoke it out, even if they have to spend a day or two in cutting down the tree. Thus roused, Bruin will make a fierce fight of it, especially the female when wounded, or defending her cubs. Its way of fighting is to rise on its hind paws, trying to knock the weapon from the hunter's hands, then closing on him with a deadly hug. One wrestle with a bear is enough for most men.

Larger and much more dangerous is the Grizzly Bear of the Rocky Mountains, who also has an innocent taste for fruit, but will readily attack men and beasts disturbing him in his solitudes. The Indian warrior's proudest ornament was a collar of bears' claws won at the risk of his life; and still the killing of a "Grizzly" is the western hunter's greatest exploit. Many tales are told of desperate single combats with this formidable creature; but many who have undertaken such a struggle never came home to tell that they escaped from it. Unless one have a good rifle and a sharp knife, not to say a stout heart and a steady eye, it is as well to keep clear of the Grizzly Bear's haunts. Running away will not always help, for

Bruin, awkward as he looks, can easily catch up a man who has had the ill luck to provoke him.

The largest of all is the Polar Bear, that lives in the far north, its chief food being such amphibious creatures

Large "Grizzly" regarding the carcass of a deer which he has covered with rubbish.[1]

as seals, that come within its reach on the bare ice-floes; but it will eat Arctic birds and their eggs when it can get them, or a man, if such a rare animal is ever caught napping in its frozen wilds. The poor bear has little chance against the guns of the hunters. Steam and gunpowder are great odds against this big animal; but

[1] Reduced from *Life in the Backwoods* by J. Turner Turner. (Published by the London Stereoscopic Co., Ltd.)

even the stunted Esquimaux are not afraid to attack him with their bone-pointed spears and troops of savage dogs, in a region where both man and beast know better what it is to be hungry than how to get food.

Deer of various kinds formed a great part of the Indian's food; the Moose, or Elk, of the forests, with its huge horns; the graceful Antelopes of the prairies; the Caribou, known in Europe as the Reindeer, vast herds of which wander over the snow-fields of the north. As the country becomes cleared and settled, the beasts, like the Indians, naturally disappear. Then the hunting of large game becomes an amusement for sportsmen who can follow it into the wilds, where the greedy Wolf, seldom far off, comes to prowl after their leavings. To keep anything eatable from these four-footed robbers, it has to be buried underground or hung up out of their reach.

Without going so far, one can shoot many kinds of birds, some unknown in England, and catch salmon, trout, and other fish, often much larger than is common in our waters. There is one enormous fish called the Sturgeon, which tastes something like veal, and sometimes weighs more than a calf. The lakes swarm with wild fowls, ducks, geese, swans, and the like, which on the way to or returning north from their winter quarters, in autumn and spring, pass in such innumerable flocks that the killing of them seems rather butchery than sport.

XXXV.—THE ROCKY MOUNTAINS.

As we go westward on the railway, the prairies have been gradually rising towards the foot of the *Rocky Mountains*, sighted more than a hundred miles away,

first a faint blue line on the clear horizon, then taking shape as a row of jagged and snow-topped heights. This is the longest chain of mountains in the world, its length counted by thousands of miles. Continuing the line of the Andes in South America, it runs right up the west of the northern continent through more than fifty degrees of latitude. Its highest peaks are over 15,000 feet, though not always looking their real height, because the plains from which they spring are already some thousands of feet above the sea.

Inclosed within their peaks and ridges lie elevated valleys or basins, each as large as an English county. These are called "parks" from their fertile soil and beautiful scenery. Out of them and other reservoirs of melted snow pour down the rivers that, in the course of ages, have cut a way for themselves through the deep gorges known as *canyons*. Such dark chasms are a frequent feature of the Rocky Mountains, among thunder-splintered peaks, ridges apparently sharp as a knife, dizzy precipices, glistening glaciers, measureless slopes now dark with pine-forests, now white with snow, now seamed with torrents and cascades. The most marvellous freaks of nature are found here: fossil forests, boiling springs, honeycombed beds of lava, mountains rent into strange forms by volcanic convulsions, and rocks carved by wind and water into extraordinary shapes, often appearing to be the work of human hands, a spired cathedral, a ruined castle, or a tall monument.

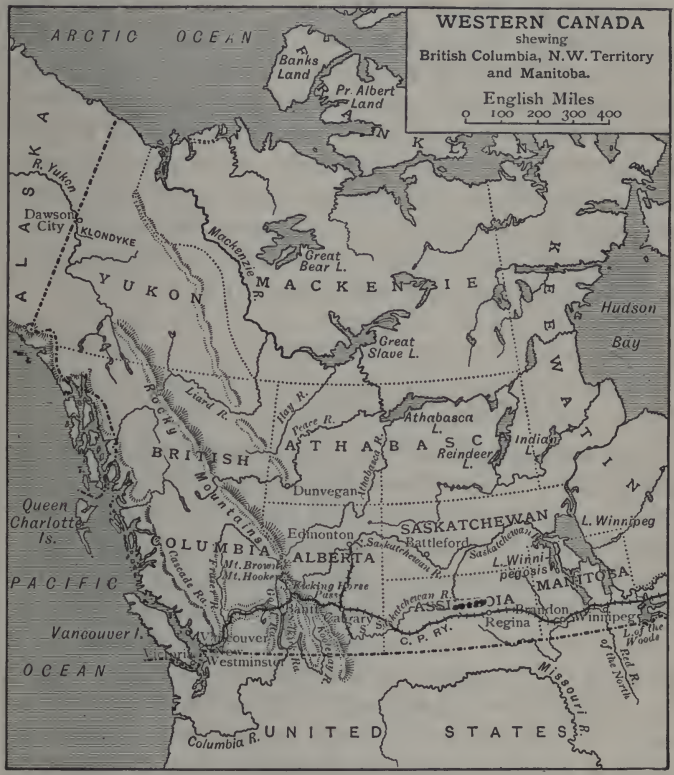
At the foot of this wonderland the railway reaches *Calgary*, capital of the new province of *Alberta*, where branches go off north and south, while the main Pacific line threads its way on into the heart of the mountains. A little back it may have seemed impossible for a train

to get through that high wall across the continent, but the streams show winding ways by which it may be passed with the least amount of climbing. The engine pants up the pass, where white cascades gleam far above, and green valleys or rocky river beds open a thousand feet below. The air is so clear and bright in good weather that every rock and tree stands out with a distinctness which confuses our ordinary ideas of distance. Most of the way is as yet a magnificent solitude, but here and there we see signs of mining, or the camp of some hunter after the wild goats and "big-horn" mountain sheep that scurry away over the lofty cliffs at the rattle of the train.

More than two thousand miles from Montreal we stop at *Banff*, overlooking the valley of the Bow River, a place already famous for its hot sulphur springs and for the grand beauties of nature which surround it, discovered and named as they were only within the lifetime of our generation. This district has been reserved by the Canadian government as a great national Park, for the enjoyment of the public, as the United States have done with the Yellowstone Park, a region of volcanic marvels farther south. The hot springs of Banff also are in summer resorted to by invalids, like those of Bath and Buxton in England. The largest mountain in this district seems to be Mount Assiniboine, nearly 12,000 feet high, fifty miles round, and having more than a dozen lakes about its foot.

Farther on, the railway passes near the "Lakes in the Clouds" and other magnificent scenery. The station here is *Laggan*, a name that, like Banff, Strathmore, Forres, Cluny, and other places we passed, reminds us how much Scotchmen have had to do with settling Canada. Some of the names sound more odd. The gap by which the

railway crosses the mountains is called "Kicking Horse Pass", and another has the name of "Old-man-coming-down-from-the-Crow's-Nest Pass", which is of course



translated from the Indian name. The mountains, lakes, and rivers bear all sorts of names after their first discoverers, or suggested by some peculiarity of shape. Many of them are still nameless unless to the Indians, and have yet to be explored as well as christened.

At the top of *Kicking Horse Pass* we are over 5000 feet above the sea. To the north here rise *Mt. Brown*, believed to be 16,000 feet, and *Mt. Hooker*, 13,500 feet, the highest points of the Canadian Rockies. From this point the train begins to descend the western side of the mountains, and still for hours curves through grand peaks and passes as it comes down into the river valleys of what was at first named New Caledonia, but is now called *British Columbia*, or B. C., as its name is commonly contracted. Time counts for money in America, where people are fond of cutting names as short as they can, so the railway on which we have come such a long way is seldom spoken of but as the C.P.R.

XXXVI.—BRITISH COLUMBIA.

This western province of Canada is 800 miles long by 300 broad, a country in some ways unlike the rest of the Dominion, from which it is cut off by the Rocky Mountains. When we descend the western side of the Rockies, it is to find other ranges rising ahead of us, the *Selkirk* and the *Gold Mountains*; then comes a central table-land, beyond which the *Cascade Range* fringes the coast. Cut off from the mainland by a sound of the Pacific Ocean lies *Vancouver Island*, another clump of hills and mountains to the north of which are the *Queen Charlotte Islands*, also belonging to British Columbia. Most of the ranges are under 10,000 feet in height, but above them rise taller volcanic peaks that once poured out fire and smoke, now cold and shrouded with perpetual snow.

These mountains generally run north and west, parallel to the Rockies. The valleys between them contain the

river courses that on our maps are so crooked as to show us how rough the country must be through which they pass. The *Columbia River* is the largest of those that flow into the Pacific, and it has a great tributary called the *Kootenay*, both of them rising near each other in the Rocky Mountains, but wandering hundreds of miles before they can come together. Farther north comes down the *Fraser River*, and there are innumerable smaller ones, often forming long, deep lakes. Still higher up, the *Peace River* turns back eastwards, cutting a deep way for itself through the Rocky Mountains, then joining the *Mackenzie* to reach the Arctic Ocean.

The climate of *British Columbia* is more temperate than that of the interior, and more like that of England in its changes of rain, fog, and snow; so English settlers find themselves at home here. The coast is the mildest part, washed by a warm current from Japan, which moderates the climate as the Gulf Stream does for our shores. From the sea comes a warm stream of air called the Chinook wind, making itself felt even on the further side of the Rocky Mountains, where it can blow through the gaps. Yet so much of the country stands high that there is no want of bracing cold for those who might grow lazy in too mild weather.

The scenery of this land of rocks, woods, streams, lakes, and valleys is very beautiful and often grand. It abounds in great trees, giant cedars, pines, spruce firs, and tamaracks, a kind of red-barked larch growing 200 feet high. After the Rocky Mountains are left behind, the railway still carries us through magnificent mountain passes and by rushing torrents. At one place, where the slope is too steep to be climbed in a straight line, the iron road winds up in a series of loops like a

corkscrew, doubling upon itself again and again, so that from the train we can see, far below, the place we were at half an hour ago. Then it passes before the Great Glacier, a lake of ice stretching as far as the eye can

Photo. York & Son, London.

A Canyon of the Fraser River through which runs the Canadian Pacific Railway.

reach. At another place it winds along the canyon of the Fraser, where the river foams at the bottom of a black gorge so deep that in some places the sun's rays hardly shine to the bottom of it.

Strange people also are seen as we hurry by. Here and there is an Indian village or wigwam, beside which sometimes appear the graves of their dead, ornamented

by flags and carvings. Chinamen, who turn up occasionally all over the west of America, are quite common near the coast. On the rivers the Indians may be seen fishing for salmon in their canoes: the Chinamen are more likely to be washing for gold dust. These rivers are famous for salmon, which in spring come up them in such thick swarms as almost to crowd one another out of the water. There is gold in British Columbia, silver too, and other metals, besides coal, which is really more valuable. Much of the country is still unsettled, but in many of the valleys English farms and cattle stations are spreading.

Revelstoke, on the Columbia River, between the Selkirk and the Gold Mountains, is a junction for the Kootenay mining district, where a town named *Rossland* has gathered together 10,000 gold-seekers in the last two or three years. Many such mining towns have sprung up as suddenly in this country, to be soon deserted when it was found that the gold would not pay for working. *Kamloops*, in the centre, is the chief inland town, standing high above the sea level. Through the Cascade Mountains we then reach the coast, passing near *New Westminster*. This city stands not far from the United States boundary, and opposite the capital, *Victoria*, which is at the south end of Vancouver Island, separated from the mainland by a narrow strait full of small islands. When early travellers had to come here by sea, we can understand how the island on the outside would be the first part to get settled.

Vancouver, after whom it is named, was one of the comrades of the famous Captain Cook, who first discovered this to be an island long after its coast was known to old navigators. On the main coast, looking over the strait, has quickly sprung up *Vancouver City*, a

dozen years ago covered by forests, but now growing to be the chief place in British Columbia. This it owes to its being the terminus of the Canadian Pacific Railway, and to the fine harbour, from which steamers carry its passengers on to Victoria, to San Francisco in the United States, to Japan and China, to the South Sea Islands and Australia.

XXXVII.—HUNTERS AND TRAPPERS.

The Red Indians were not less famous as hunters than as warriors, the same gifts serving them against their prey and their enemies. Trained from infancy to kill, they learned the ways and haunts of every creature upon which they might have to depend for subsistence, and their senses became so keen as to seem instincts like those of the animals they hunted. The bloodhound's nose was hardly surer than the eye with which an Indian could follow a trail, invisible to a white man, telling at a glance from grass, leaves, or rocks what men or beasts had passed that way. In the widest prairie, in the deepest forest, he could steer his way, if not by the sun or stars, by unfailing signs familiar to him from childhood. The moss on the trunks, the thickness of the bark, always told him which side was the north; and in taking an unknown route he would break a twig here and there to mark out his path homewards.

Wonderful was the patience and cunning with which they would steal upon their game. Disguised in the skin of a stag, they might slink unnoticed into the middle of the shy herd; or imitating the bleat of a fawn, they could bring the mother doe within reach of their weapons. At night, a torch burning in the canoe would

be a bait to draw puzzled creatures to their death. By daylight a cleverly-stuffed decoy would deceive the wild fowl into approaching the hunter's screen of boughs. Through the ice they could spear fish and rats. In short, they had a hundred tricks and snares, and could deceive even the wily fox, himself the most tricksy of animals.

Many white hunters easily learned the Indian's arts, and sometimes were able to give their teachers a lesson in cleverness and endurance. What the red man chiefly learned from the white, besides the use of firearms, was that the skins of his game might have more value than the flesh. The furs of several North American animals fetch a high price in Europe; so, long before farmers came into the western wilderness, they were visited by bold trappers who made a business of catching beaver and other fur-bearing animals. French and English fur-traders also ventured far from the settlements, to exchange for the spoils of Indian hunting the luxuries that made the red man dependent on them. A wild, daring race were those traders and trappers, who, spending their lives among rocky hills or frozen plains, became often as savage as the Indians themselves.

Beavers are about as large as badgers, with round heads, sharp strong teeth, short fore-paws, long fat tails, and the rich brown fur which has caused the slaughter of so many of them. They live on the banks of rivers, where they show extraordinary sagacity in damming up ponds, where they build for themselves huts out of wood, mud, and stones, and store these with bark for their winter provision. Beavers were once found in Britain, but they will not exercise their ant-like and bee-like arts in the neighbourhood of man. The trapper has to seek them out in wild solitudes, encamping against them

with his traps, till he has gathered a pile of their valuable skins.

Up to this century there was such a demand for beaver fur, to make hats and other articles of dress, that the beavers were killed out or frightened away from a

Beavers at Work.

great part of Canada. They are not so keenly hunted now, or they might become altogether exterminated. But still, in the wilds of the North-West, the fur-traders carry on their dealings with the Indians in beaver skins instead of money. As our standard of value is the sovereign, so when an Indian comes to buy a gun, a blanket, a kettle, or what not, its price is counted in beaver skins. Other furs are accepted as well as beaver skins, being reckoned according to a scale, which he knows

as well as we know our tables—so many beavers worth one marten, so many martens worth one fox, and so on.

Most of the animals bearing the best fur come naturally from the cold Arctic regions, as the seal, which grows such a soft thick coat, to keep ladies warm and smart in Europe. The otter skins of this region are also much prized, so are those of several of the weasel tribe, the mink, the marten, and others. Even in their icy retreats some of these creatures are so much hunted as to become rare, and therefore more valuable. The black foxes of the north have such fine fur that it has been found worth while to breed them on an island off the eastern coast, where they are as carefully preserved for skinning as foxes are in England for sport.

XXXVIII.—THE FAR NORTH.

We are now almost done with Canada, yet little has been said about the greater part of its surface—good for nothing but a hunting-ground. This is the vast stretch of mostly barren and frozen land around *Hudson Bay*, that huge inland sea bearing the name of the navigator who discovered it in 1610. Here three millions of square miles were long the property of a fur-trading company, as India was ruled by the East India Company. In our time the rights of the Hudson Bay Company were bought by the government, and their territory now makes part of the Dominion, a part little inhabited by white men, and much of it quite uninhabitable.

How are farmers to make a living where winter lasts for eight months, and the rest of the year is a short, chilly summer? Only for two or three months in the

year can ships depend on finding Hudson Bay free from ice. The perils of Arctic navigation did not keep bold sailors from again and again attempting to discover a north-west passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean, but when this was at last made out, half a century ago, it proved useless for navigation in such a severe climate. Recently gold-fields have been found at *Klondike*, on the river Yukon, near the frontier of Alaska; and thousands of adventurers made haste to set out for this region, where it is feared they will have a terrible time of it in winter. But if the gold be as plentiful as reported, and if men are able to live there at all, Klondike may become the largest settlement of the North-West.

Only the southern edge of the Hudson Bay territory is at all fit for agriculture; and even there cultivation succeeds only in the river valleys and other sheltered spots. As we push on north, all vegetation begins to dwindle and disappear. The dark fir forests straggle off into a few stunted spruce and birch trees here and there, or now and then some scrubby willows, till among a desert of icy rocks nothing grows but dry moss. The surface is broken by innumerable lakes, some of them more than a hundred miles long, but many are hardly known, still less measured. For the greater part of the year this barren land—earth and water alike—is covered by snow, a white wilderness, silent as death, over which the Aurora Borealis shoots out its glowing rays in the deep Arctic night.

The inhabitants are Indian tribes and half-breeds, easily tamed, for it is all they can do to keep themselves alive through the long hard winter, and even their passion for making war on each other is half-frozen out of them. Their chief dependence for food is on the

enormous herds of caribou, musk-ox, and other animals that roam through these solitudes, butchered in hundreds by the wasteful red men whenever they have a chance. Luxuries like tea and tobacco they get in exchange for skins from the fur-traders, who often have to rescue the improvident hunters from starving when game has failed them. Another part of their summer subsistence is the fish that swarm in the lakes and rivers, so numerous throughout this region; in winter all covered up by one thick bed of snow.

At wide distances apart, usually on the waterways that can be travelled both in summer and winter, stand the forts or "factories" of the Hudson Bay Company, with perhaps a missionary's house beside them, and a few Indian huts, forming the nearest approach to a town found for hundreds of miles. To these storehouses the Indians bring their furs, and are provided in return with guns, powder, blankets, gay-coloured handkerchiefs, and other articles. One would think it a dismal life for the agents of the company, living so far from their fellow-countrymen and in such a dreary climate; but many of them come to love the wild life of the far north, with its hardships and adventures.

From *Calgary* below the Rocky Mountains a branch railway has been made to *Edmonton*, 200 miles north. To travel farther one must take to a canoe, when the rivers are open; and in winter to snow-shoes, or to sleds drawn by fierce hungry dogs, who, if not well fed, are hardly to be kept from eating up their harness. Often their masters have much ado to feed themselves, and may be reduced to gnawing the leather of their own moccasins, the soft skin shoes worn by the Indians. It is difficult for them to carry even a tent on a long journey; they

may have to sleep out on the deep snow, without a fire, when they can no longer find a stock of wood; and if their ammunition runs out, or no game comes within shot, they are like to perish of cold and hunger, no one ever knowing what became of them.

Where travelling is so difficult and distances are so vast, we know only the outlines of a country in which frozen land and ice can scarcely be distinguished from each other. The map-making of much of this region is mere guesswork. Still more dim and broken grow the shores north of Hudson Bay, the edges of which have been partially tracked by explorers. There are islands here each large enough to be a country in Europe, seen only by the bold fishers who force their way even into these ice-bound seas, the home of whales, walruses, and seals. Farther north, little more than names, like *Lincoln, Grinnel Land,* and *Grant Land,* mark for us the mysterious region lost within the Arctic Circle.

XXXIX.—AUSTRALIA.

Australia is an island large enough to be called a continent, which with New Zealand and Tasmania make a great empire belonging to Britain, at the opposite side of the globe. The whole mass of islands in these southern seas bears the name *Australasia* ("South Asia"), which is sometimes spoken of as a fifth quarter of the world, having been discovered after old geographers had divided our earth into four quarters.

The first settlements in *Australia* were made at different points on the coast, from which the people, spreading inland and to either side, took in great stretches of land

that came to be marked off as separate colonies, under the names of *New South Wales*, *Victoria*, *Queensland*, &c. Each of these, as big as a European country, has its boundaries, its capital, its own parliament and laws, its governor, representing the English crown; in short, is independent of its neighbours; while they all look to us as the mother country, whose sons they are proud to call themselves. Some day, perhaps, they will unite into one great power like the United States of America, but remaining a part of the British empire. For the present, leaving these political distinctions out of sight, let us look at the whole extent of Australia as nature made it.

Australia is about as large as Europe, but does not look so large on maps, because of its coast being less broken up by gulfs and inland seas. It is more compact. In the north-east corner runs out one long point, *Cape York Peninsula*, beside which is a wide and deep bay called the *Gulf of Carpentaria*. The south coast is hollowed by another bay known as the *Great Australian Bight*, to the east of which open two deep gulfs, separated by a point, also named *York Peninsula*. But the greater part of the coast is broken only by small estuaries and short promontories. On the east side, at the distance of a few hours' sail, in some parts only a few miles off, there runs along it for 1200 miles the *Great Barrier Reef*, a bank built up to the surface of the sea by coral animals. For a long way there is no opening, so that ships have to be careful in approaching the coast. This reef marks what was once the edge of the mainland before the sea broke in upon it on that side.

Australia differs greatly from most islands in its high grounds being for the most part near the coast, while the interior is comparatively level. The principal mountains

are those which, under different names, stand back a little way from the east coast, and are sometimes called the *Great Dividing Range*, though in fact they divide only a strip of shore, thirty to sixty miles broad, from all the rest of Australia. They are commonly no higher than English mountains, but near the south, and where they get the name of the Australian Alps, they rise in *Mt. Kosciusko* to the height of 7308 feet.

These mountains being so near the sea, the rivers flowing from them are mostly short. The only one which would count as a large river in Europe is the *Murray*, with its chief tributary the *Darling*, coming from the west side of the mountains to run southwards into the sea. Other streams of the interior disappear in large lakes of saltish water, which are often almost dried up in the hot season. Round the coast open the mouths of many small rivers, which also are apt to run dry before they reach the sea. On the whole, Australia must be called a badly-watered country, especially when, as sometimes happens, in some parts it does not rain for a year or two together. These short rivers, liable in turn to be dried up or flooded, are not easily navigated, and seldom give much help as means of communication.

The interior, so far as we know it, is chiefly flat, and contains enormous stretches of barren wilderness where men can hardly travel, much less live. Sometimes the ground is a stony desert; sometimes it is covered with a thick thorny grass that cuts the feet of men and horses like knives; sometimes again it is hidden by "scrub", a dense growth of low trees and dry bushes, through which a way must be hewn with axes. Pasture and plants fit for human food are hardly to be found here, and fresh water also is wanting, so much needed in the thirsty heat.

Bridge over the Murray River at Yarrawanga, connecting Victoria with New South Wales, opened January, 1892.

In spite of such difficulties, bold explorers have from time to time struggled into the central deserts; and some have succeeded in crossing from sea to sea, while others have never come back to tell the tale of their sufferings. Thanks to those explorations, we have now a general idea of this forbidding region; but as yet it is not thoroughly known. The inhabited parts of Australia are chiefly near the sea or on the grassy plains and table-lands not far inland.

XL.—CLIMATE AND SEASONS.

The climate of Australia naturally varies a great deal, like that of Europe. We must remember that the country is so broad that a train travelling 20 miles an hour would take four days to cross it; and half that time on our side of the world would carry us from a country covered with snow to one where oranges are growing in the open air. Australia's southern point is in the temperate zone; its northern in the tropics. The hottest part, then, is the north, the coolest the south; and there are other differences in temperature, according as we go up or down the heights, or get away from the cool sea breezes to the burning sandy deserts of the interior.

Taken generally, Australia is warm and dry, much warmer than England, and much more sunny. The thermometer sometimes rises as high as 115° or 120°, thirty degrees above what we should call a hot day at home. In the central desert a still higher temperature has been marked. It is often as hot here as in India, but the heat is less trying, not only because of being dry, but because the sun's rays do not strike so directly down, which, in countries nearer the Equator, makes their glare

so dangerous. In India no Englishman exposes himself to the sun without protecting his head by a wide, thick helmet or other shade. In Australia people go about without fear of anything worse than being sunburned; and we know how they play cricket all the year round, so as often to beat us at our national game.

This is a healthy climate for Englishmen; but its dryness has drawbacks. We have seen that Australia is an ill-watered country, chiefly for want of mountains to catch the clouds and make them fall in rain. That is what makes the interior such a dried-up desert, over which dark clouds sometimes gather only to pass on as if mocking the thirsty soil below. When rain does come, it often falls in torrents, perhaps as much in a day as would make almost the whole yearly rainfall of some parts of Britain. Such downfalls bring about sudden floods; and there are patches of ground which by turns become parched deserts and swampy lakes. Creeks, as people call them here, are river courses that may run dry for months together.

Even near the mountains, where the rain is less irregular, it may fail to fall; and every few years large regions of Australia are half ruined by a drought, drying up the grass over thousands of square miles, and killing sheep by millions, as well as other animals. Snow and ice are not common except on the mountains; there are many Australians who see snow for the first time when they come home to England. They are more used to storms of hot sandy dust, laid so thick that footsteps are marked on it, as on snow, after the wind falls. Crops and fruit are often withered up by hot winds blowing from the scorched plains of the interior.

In the south, which is the temperate region of Australia,

the rains fall chiefly in winter. In the north, they come all together in summer, the climate here being tropical, that is, divided into a wet and a dry time, rather than into the four seasons marked in a temperate zone like ours. All our seasons are distinguishable in the south, though the difference beween them is not so great as with us, the climate being more even; and the large proportion of evergreen trees found in Australia helps also to make the change not so noticeable as that between our leafless winter woods and the green glories of midsummer.

It may puzzle us to hear of the north being the hotter, and the south the cooler climate, unless we bear in mind that to those who live at the opposite side of the world everything comes, as is expressed by the familiar phrase, "the other way on". Their north is nearer to the equator, like our south; their night is our day. They begin to think of going to bed just as we are getting up. So, too, their seasons are reversed. When we are sliding and snow-balling they are reaping their harvests and grumbling about the heat. When they get comparatively cool weather, we are at midsummer, often indeed no warmer than what they call winter. Our autumn is their time of bloom and blossom. They keep Christmas in what to them is the summer holidays, and decorate their tables with roses instead of holly. Children born in the colony laugh to read our poets, who seem to write so strangely of January and of July.

XLI.—THE "BLACKFELLOWS".

We found this vast country inhabited by a peculiar race of savages, who, in many respects, are among the

lowest of the human race. The "Blackfellows", as they were nicknamed by the settlers, are rather dark brown, with thick black hair, and a coating of grease and dirt that hides the natural colour of the skin. Herded together in wandering tribes, they have no fields nor villages, and only faint idea of religion, government, or comfort. They go naked as willingly as not, unless they can get blankets or cast-off clothes of the white people. Their own clothes were only skins fastened together for protection against cold weather or thorny thickets, and they often adorned their heads with most absurd ornaments made from the feathers, teeth, and tails of animals. In summer they lie in the open air; in winter they erect rude shelters of boughs or bark; but they never stay long anywhere.

It is the men who wear what finery takes the taste of savages. They are truly savage in their treatment of the women, or "gins", who count as little better than beasts of burden. An Australian savage buys or steals his wife, sometimes knocking her down by way of courtship; and when he is in a bad humour will punish her by a blow on the head from a heavy club, or by running a spear through her limbs. There is a story that an explorer was asked if the bullocks he brought with him were the white man's "gins", because they carried the baggage! A poor Australian woman's body is usually covered by scars from the injuries inflicted on her by her lazy and ill-tempered husband, who thinks nothing of killing her outright in his brutality.

The men, too, are often seen to be strangely marked, in accordance with their savage practices and notions of ornament. The common punishment among them is to run spears through the fleshy part of the offender's arms

and legs, so that one given to thieving bears all his life the signs of this bad character. The bodies of boys and girls are often horribly gashed with sharp stones to leave raised scars, which are admired as marks of manhood or beauty. The nose is pierced to have a long bone stuck through it, as we wear ear-rings. In some parts a boy's two front teeth have to be knocked out when he reaches a certain age. Such disfigurements are common to all savages, and have not wholly died out among ourselves, when one comes to think of it. The tattooing of the sailor, the shaving of the soldier, like a girl's ear-piercing, are remnants of our savage ancestry.

All the blackfellow's occupation is getting food, and he leaves this task as much as possible to the woman. They eat whatever they can get, even human flesh sometimes. Their chief food is the flesh of animals, raw, or cooked by being thrown on the fire for a few minutes. They have no means of making fire except rubbing two sticks together. They do not trouble about plates or forks, but use shells as cups. Their tools are stone hatchets, sharp-edged shells, and needles of pointed bone. They can sew after a fashion with sinews or hair, and make bags of net-work, in which they carry about their few possessions, nowadays often increased by pots, sacks, and other utensils which they get from the whites. A few mangy dogs are their domestic animals.

As hunting and war were the only pursuits which a man cared to trouble about, the weapons of the Australian natives are much better than their other implements. Killing is the science to which a savage gives most attention. These savages never seem to have hit upon the use of bows and arrows, but they have a remarkable weapon of their own, called the *Boomerang*, a curved

Blackfellow climbing a tree by means of shallow footholds cut in the bark as he ascends. On the right are seen three other natives engaged in a trial of skill with the boomerang.

stick about a yard long, which they can hurl so that it takes a circling course and comes back to the thrower after knocking down several birds, one after another. They are also skilful in throwing spears pointed with bone or flint; and they cut out for themselves clubs and shields of wood. With such weapons they often fall to fighting, tribe against tribe, but make more noise over it than slaughter. They grow almost as much excited about the wild dances that form their chief amusement, at which they sometimes work themselves up to quarrel and fight with their friends.

In early days of the Australian colonies, the Blackfellows made dangerous neighbours, being always ready for massacre and treachery, but slow to be won over by kindness, as Captain Cook found. It is to be feared that kindness has been too little tried on them; but at least they have learned to be afraid of our superior strength. Not so much by our weapons as by the diseases we have introduced among them, and by the fatal strong drink which we carry with us to curse all lands, they seem likely to be exterminated before long. There were believed to have been no more than 150,000 of them when we first came; but now the dwindling and degraded tribes cannot number half as many.

XLII.—ANIMALS OF AUSTRALIA.

The wild animals of Australia are also peculiar. Almost all the quadrupeds belong to an order hardly found in any other part of the world, that called the *marsupial*, the characteristic of which is carrying about their young in a pouch. The only exceptions are the dingo or wild

dog, and various kinds of rats and mice, which may have been introduced long ago from other countries. In our own time another addition has been made, which the colonists would gladly do without. Someone brought over a few rabbits from England, which took so kindly to emigration as to spread and multiply in their new home at a rate that has made them a positive nuisance, though they are killed down like vermin by all possible means. There is no affection for poor Bunny on this side of the world.

The chief of the marsupial animals are the kangaroos, of which there are several kinds, from the great "old man", ten feet high when he rears himself on his hind paws, down to the wallabies or kangaroo hares, weighing about ten pounds. There are also kangaroo rats and rabbits, the latter so called because they burrow in the ground. The kangaroo goes on all fours, and eats grass, but it can stand up and show fight when attacked. Driven to bay against a tree, its powerful fore-paws will rip up the dogs with which the colonists hunt it, else kangaroos are harmless enough, big and small.

The opossum is another pouched animal, living in trees, like its relation in the American forests. There are creatures of the same kind with wings, known as flying-squirrels, flying-mice, and so on. Below the ground lives the shy wombat, three feet long, which burrows in deep dens like a badger, a whole village of them together. There are also small but fierce wild-cats which prey upon other animals, whereas most of these creatures are vegetarian in their diet.

Men have nothing to fear in Australia from such wild beasts. More dangerous are the snakes—black, brown, yellow—of which several kinds are poisonous, though

they will seldom meddle with man if left alone. There are crocodiles, too, in some parts of the country, and many harmless lizards of all sizes; among them the iguana, sometimes several feet long, as thick as a man's leg, but tapering off at the tail to the size of whip-cord. Scorpions that sting with their tail, huge centipedes or "hundred legs", and venomous spiders may inflict a painful injury. There are "soldier" and "bull-dog" ants an inch long, whose sting is worse than a wasp's; and the smaller white ants often do great damage by eating up the wood-work of houses which they have invaded. Bees are plentiful, smaller in size than ours; so are grasshoppers; and flies of all kinds are most troublesome.

Among the most curious creatures are the porcupine ant-eater, a sort of hedgehog that feeds on ants; and the duck-bill, in body like a mole, in bill and webbed feet a duck, which burrows into the banks of streams and ponds. Among insects is found more than one kind of *Mantis*, to which nature has given as protection an appearance to deceive its enemies. One of them, for instance, called the "Walking-leaf", can hardly be told from the leaf of a tree when at rest; and another, the "Walking-stick", is not less like a dry twig, sometimes a foot long. Such cases of "mimicry" of the vegetable by the animal kingdom are not uncommon in hot countries.

It is in birds that Australia is richest, for it has over one hundred kinds more than are found in Europe. The emu is the largest of these, a sort of ostrich, six feet or more high, which runs rather than flies, having hardly any wings, but with its powerful leg it can break a man's limb. The Australian eagle, the pelican, and the black swan are other big birds. But Australia has chiefly to boast of a great variety of songsters and of gorgeously-

feathered fliers. There is the lyre-bird, for instance, with the magnificent tail that resembles a lyre, while its trick of imitating other birds gives its nickname of the mocking-bird.

There are dozens of cockatoos, parrots, and perroquets—black, white, gray, green, blue, red, and yellow—said to be seen sometimes in such numbers as to colour the woods. White cockatoos fly about in flocks like rooks, but are still more noisy and mischievous. The black ones fly rather in pairs, and their scream is taken as a sign of rain. Beautifully-plumaged and finely-crested pigeons also abound. Then there are the various kingfishers, one of which, from its peculiar cry, has the name of the "Laughing Jackass", and is also called the "Settler's Clock", from the regularity with which it "laughs" at dawn and sunset. It feeds on snakes in the woods, but is not at all shy of men's society, in which, when tamed, it makes unintelligible remarks that sound like cross language. Another bird's comical voice has won it the name of "More Pork"! It is notable about the birds of Australia that they are much about in daylight, while the beasts are mostly nocturnal in their habits. Among these natives has been introduced our English sparrow, which makes itself at home here as easily as the rabbit.

Laughing Jackass.

XLIII.—PLANT LIFE OF AUSTRALIA.

In plant life Australia is very rich, and after a style of its own. A marked feature in the scenery is the prevalence of the evergreen eucalyptus or gum-tree, various kinds of which are so common, while in England they are rarities that flourish only on sheltered parts of the coast. The largest Australian gum-trees grow in great open forests, miles upon miles of straight bare stems, often rising to the height of two hundred feet before they throw out their crown of dull-coloured, dry, and scanty foliage. They are sometimes found over four hundred feet high, and one fallen trunk has been measured that appeared to have stood nearly five hundred—the tallest tree known in the world.

The evergreen woodlands are not very attractive in their sameness; but they make pleasant travelling compared to the "scrubs", which have been already mentioned as a main obstacle to the exploration of the interior. These are stretches of dry, sandy soil thickly covered with a scrubby and thorny growth, among which, nevertheless, one may find many beautiful shows of blossom and foliage. Such are the crooked trees called "Honeysuckles", covered with yellow flowers in the shape of "bottle-brushes", as they are named; sweet-scented acacias of different kinds, and the "Grass-tree", having at the top a tuft of sharp and pointed leaves out of which grows a stalk some feet long covered with small flowers. There are different kinds of scrub, that is, a tangled growth of small trees. The open forests are called the "bush", even when nothing is left of them but blackened stumps.

On the sides of the mountains are chiefly found woods displaying the richness of a tropical jungle, which have

the name of "brushes". Here the trees are gay with climbing flowers, and their trunks bound together by a mass of luxuriant creepers. Above the dense undergrowth rise tree-ferns, twenty or thirty feet high, and still higher, light-green nettles with enormous stinging leaves. There are magnificent cedars with wood like mahogany, and graceful drooping acacias, such as the Miall-tree, whose wood has a smell of violets. The blossoms and leaves of many Australian trees are like great flowers. There are the "Fire-tree" and the "Flame-tree", so called because thickly set with large orange and red blooms which make a hillside covered with them look, miles away, as if on fire. There is the Rock Lily, a gigantic stalk bursting at the top into lily-like flowers several feet in circumference; and the Warratah with its crimson crown borne up by a stem as high as a man.

In the spring, whole acres of land may be seen glowing with colour, huge wild-flower beds as they are. In autumn, on the other hand, since most of the trees do not cast their leaves, the woods are not coloured by the fading tints familiar to us. The strong point of Australian plants is flowers rather than fruit, of which nature has been rather stingy here, and the same may be said of edible vegetables. The plants of the country are more fit to feed its large population of flying and skipping animals than to furnish food for man. Many English fruit-trees have been introduced by the settlers, and flourish so well that their branches are often broken down with the weight of apples and pears, while their leaves look quite bright and fresh beside the dull olive-green of the gum-trees. There is no country so beautifully green as England, though others may surpass it in gorgeous flowers and in juicy fruits. The Australian grass may

grow above a horse's head, but it is not that fresh tender turf which the colonists bring from home, and try to keep from being burned up by tropical suns.

Flowers, such as orchids, which at home can be grown only in hot-houses, run wild in Australian woods. We can suppose, then, what gay gardens the colonists have to show. But round their houses they love to cultivate the humbler pinks and sweet-williams, cabbage-roses and jessamines, lilacs and laburnum, and other familiar blossoms that remind them of "the old country". One such importation is not admired, not even by the laughing jackass. Some patriotic Scotchman introduced the thistle, which soon made itself a home in the Antipodes, so as to become as great a nuisance as the rabbits.

XLIV.—AUSTRALIAN COLONISTS.

The population of Australia is still chiefly English, or people of British race, born in the colonies, who nick-name themselves "Cornstalks". Among these are mixed representatives of many other nations, drawn here by the fame of easily-made wealth. There are sober, hard-working Germans, lively Frenchmen, and adventurers from different European countries. There are Americans, always ready, like ourselves, for money-making enterprise in any part of the world. There are colonies of industrious Chinese, who make themselves useful in many ways. There are Japanese also, coolies from India, Malays, natives of the South Sea Islands, and others, who take to work better than do the wandering aborigines of Australia. There is still plenty of room for more, only one inhabitant, on an average, going to each square mile of the whole country.

It is in the towns lying chiefly near the coast that the greatest mixture of races will be found. In some parts there are settlements of Germans, or other European people, who naturally keep together in their new home. The most enterprising of the colonists are scattered over the "bush", a name given here to the country, more or less wild, lying behind the towns. Many parts of the bush are fairly well settled; but in others one may have to go a day's journey to visit a neighbour, a ride of fifty miles to the nearest post-office, and twice as far to fetch a doctor.

Mustering Cattle on an Australian Ranche.

All Australians brought up in the bush are at home on horseback, indeed they would hardly know how to get on without horses. Their horses have plenty of strength and spirit, and are apt to be a little wild, with ugly tricks, such as buck-jumping, leaping up with their backs humped and their heads between their legs, by which they would soon get rid of a bad rider. Horses

are reared in Australia for export, especially to India, where the "Walers", as they are called from New South Wales, make more gallant steeds than the Indian ponies.

It is only on horseback that Australian stock-rearers could drive their enormous herds of cattle running almost wild over the country. One often counts his cattle by the thousands, and has hard work to count them all, when from time to time they are driven together to make sure they have not got mixed with neighbours' herds. On a "station", as a cattle-run is called, nobody need want for beef.

There was a time when a beast would be killed for the hide and tallow, its flesh left to the eagles and wild dogs; but the colonists soon cast about for some means of doing away with such waste. At first they had nothing for it but to dry or salt the beef, which prevents decay, as we see in ham. It put plenty of money into Australian pockets when a way was found of preserving meat in tins and boiling it down into extracts, so as to send to Europe what was so dear there and so cheap at the other end of the world. Then another plan was hit upon for conveying the abundance of Australia to English markets. All the great steamboats have now ice-chambers, in which whole carcasses of beef and mutton can be brought over frozen, so as to come fresh upon our dinner-tables.

Farmers grow large crops of wheat and other grain, but most of the flour made is eaten by Australia itself, where people have such healthy appetites. Fruit orchards supply another rich crop; we know what fine apples and oranges Australia sends us, but we do not know how many more might be spared us if it paid to send them. In some parts vines have been introduced from France and

Germany, and wine is being made with great success. Tobacco, sugar, and other luxuries are also grown, while farmers are constantly making fresh experiments to see what else they can do with their rich soil.

The timber of the forest employs many men in saw-mills and the like industries. Copper, silver, tin, and other metals are got out of the soil, not to speak of gold. Coal has been found, and so have diamonds, which, bright as they look, are nothing but a very beautiful and valuable form of carbon. Other precious stones sometimes turn up, and there are fisheries of pearls on the coasts.

In short, everyone in Australia has plenty of choice of work for his hands, those mentioned being only some of the industries carried on here. Two of the chief productions, gold and wool, are so important that they should be treated of in separate lessons.

XLV.—GOLD.

What brought a great increase of population to Australia was the discovery of gold in 1851. Gold is found chiefly in quartz rocks; and where these stick up above the ground like patches of snow, specks and lumps of gold may sometimes be seen shining on the top. You may guess how men were excited by coming on such bits of treasure, which the poor blackfellows had left lying unheeded like so much dirt. On the surface, or a few inches below it, great nuggets were occasionally dug out, of such weight that a man could hardly carry them. Bits of stone used to mend the roads, or to build houses, have sometimes been found heavy with gold.

Exaggerated rumours of this discovery soon spread,

and from all parts of the world there was a rush to the new gold diggings, as there had been to California a few years before. The first famous gold finds of Australia were at *Ballarat*, in the mountain country behind Melbourne. Other mines were started not far off, at *Bendigo*, a name changed to *Sandhurst* now that this is a thriving town. Hither came adventurers of all nations, in haste to be rich. People went mad for gold; the hope of gaining it drew them like a loadstone from their common work. In the colonies clerks ran away from their offices, sailors from their ships, servants from their masters; farmers let their land go to waste, tradesmen shut up their shops, and flocked to the diggings to try their luck. The hills and valleys were quickly covered by a crowded camp of tents and huts, where gentlemen, tradesmen, workmen, runaway convicts, white men, black men, yellow men, all sorts of men, could be seen sharing the same toils, dangers, and discomforts for the sake of gold.

They were not long in learning that only here and there could gold be had for the picking up. Hard work was necessary, and harder always as they had to go deeper for the precious metal. At first it was most easily found lying along watercourses, where its weight had caused it to sink among gravel and surface soil. The ground likely to be so enriched was eagerly turned up again and again, and carefully washed in troughs and cradles, where the heavy particles of gold fell to the bottom, and could be taken out when the dirt and water had been emptied away. By and by the diggers had to burrow further and further below the surface, till a gold-field became like a heap of ant-hills among pools filled with a muddy puddle.

Some of the first adventurers were lucky, but their fortune often turned to misfortune, for they flung away the riches they had won so lightly, or were robbed and cheated by the scoundrels who swarmed round them like flies round a carcass. Others gave up in despair, or could not stand the hardship and exertions of a digger's life. Many went off to new diggings, of which exciting reports

A Mining Township—Victoria.

came from time to time, and there too perhaps found themselves disappointed. Sometimes, in their search for gold, they came upon other metals, silver, copper, tin, iron, and so forth, which might often be worked to more profit. It is the beauty and the rarity of gold, and the chance of being able to get it without much trouble, that so turn people's heads. No gold diggings in the world yield so much wealth as can be got by steady work out of our coal-mines.

After all, gold turns out to be not such a very valuable possession, since for the most part it must be gained at great cost of labour and money. The excitement of gold digging is gone with the uncertainty, except when now and then a new gold-field is discovered where nuggets may still be lying about for the first comers. Most of the gold is now worked by the help of machinery, out of regular mines, sunk hundreds of feet into the ground. The gravel and rubbish is brought up to be washed by cartloads; or sometimes blocks of quartz have to be crushed by steam-engines, to get perhaps an ounce of gold out of a ton of rock.

But the true riches of a country consist of its crops, herds, and manufactures. These go on multiplying under the care of strong arms, prudent heads, and bold hearts, such as Australia needed most of all. The product of Australian gold-mines is scattered all over the world. Their chief profit to the colonies has been the bringing of sturdy inhabitants, who, when they found that gold-hunting made them not so suddenly rich as they expected, had the sense to try slower but surer ways of earning a livelihood, and in so doing helped to settle, cultivate, and improve their new home. In Australia, as elsewhere, men had to learn that little worth having can be had without working for it.

XLVI.—WOOL.

The chief wealth of many parts of Australia consists of something much more common than gold, and that is wool. Besides the mountain ranges stretch vast plains and downs covered with grass growing rankly below the

thin eucalyptus forests; and the chances are that some part of the clothes we are wearing come from sheep fed on those rich pastures at the other end of the world. England was once a great wool-growing country; but now it has not nearly room for all the sheep whose fleeces are needed to keep its factories going.

There is plenty of room, as yet, in Australia. Some of the sheep "runs", as they are called there, are as large as a man could ride across in a day; and many of the great "squatters" or sheep owners count their flocks by tens of thousands. Shepherding so many would be hard work at home among our small farms and enclosures; but in Australia, for the most part, there is little to do but turn the sheep out and leave them to grow fat. Now and then some of them will be torn by the wild dogs, or a lamb be carried off by an eagle; but a few such accidents are hardly noticed among so many.

A rich squatter hardly knows how many sheep he has till they have been driven together to be counted. His home is usually a comfortable house, with several other buildings about it—perhaps a church and a school, so as to form almost a small village. But the shepherds at the out-stations, where each may have to look after a flock of a thousand or two, have a trying time of it. They live on mutton, which they have such a good chance to tire of, on flour, which they make into a kind of cake called "damper", and on tea, which is the universal luxury of the bush. Every week someone comes round with their rations, else for weeks together they may not see a human being. This lonely way of life among the dreary eucalyptus woods, with no company but sheep, often drives them mad. They cannot always keep even a dog as a companion, where poisoned meat may have

to be laid down for the dingoes. Sometimes they lose themselves, perishing, with their flocks, of hunger and thirst. In the early days they might be attacked by blackfellows, as may still happen in out-of-the-way parts.

To save looking after the sheep, many miles of country are often fenced-in as their feeding ground. Then fifty thousand or so of them can be kept in charge by a few men riding round from time to time to see that the fences are all right. If they do stray a few miles, it is only a matter of hunting them up again; and if one or two get lost outright, a sheep in Australia is worth no more than a leg of mutton in England.

The busiest time is in the spring, that is our autumn, when the flocks are driven together to be washed and shorn. As in our harvest, there is plenty to do for everyone that can lend a hand. For weeks the work goes on, one bleating flock after another being driven up from the pastures. If the shearing be not done in time, the wool is likely to be spoiled by seeds and burrs, which fill the fleece with knotty lumps, and sometimes work their way through the skin, hurting or even killing the animal.

The shed in which the shearing is done shows a lively scene, filled with struggling sheep and hurried men, each trying to get off his fleeces in the shortest time. A good shearer will sometimes strip a sheep in five minutes, and may boast of shearing a hundred in the day. Often in his haste he cuts the skin as well as the fleece, sometimes, indeed, his own skin; then there is a cry for the boy, who has a tar-pot ready, and a dab of tar is stuck on by way of ointment before the trembling creature is turned out to join its naked comrades in misfortune.

Not less trying to the poor sheep is the vigorous

washing which they undergo first, to get the dirt and grease out of their wool. There is no time to handle them so carefully as when sheep are washed in England. A dozen or so at a time, they are shoved into a pool, where men duck them under, push them about with poles, poke them into deep water to make them swim, or hold them beneath strong spouts till their fleece seems clean. When allowed to scramble out, the drenched sheep seem more dead than alive, and indeed they are sometimes drowned in this terrifying bath.

XLVII.—DROUGHTS, FLOODS, AND FIRES.

A squatter who owns a hundred thousand sheep may in a few months become a poor man. Not to speak of diseases that make havoc among the flocks, Australia, with its extremes of dry and wet climate, is liable to ruinous misfortunes, of a kind scarcely to be guarded against. We have bad seasons from time to time, rather too much sun or too much rain together, but, on the whole, we can count on our changes of weather as happening pretty regularly, which cannot always be done in Australia.

The worst trouble in this part of the world is the droughts that come from time to time. In some parts two or three years have been known to pass without rain. Every few years it will be dry for months together. Then the pastures wither up, the plains turn brown, the cloudless sky scorches, the trees shrivel from heat as ours when bitten by frost, the ground cracks open, and the hot wind drives pillars of dust over a thirsty desert. When the sheep have cropped the last

dry blade and nibbled bare every bush within reach, they perish by thousands, by millions, over a whole colony, and their owner sees all his fine fortune turned to dry bones and skins.

It is not only starvation, it is the torture of thirst that comes to kill them off. Sheep can do long without water, but only if they get juicy grass. After the creeks and pools are dried up as well as the pastures, they suffer in a way of their own, huddling up together in a stupid madness of thirst, and not letting themselves be driven to the water that might be found a few miles off. But there are parts of Australia where men as well as beasts may in the best of seasons have to wander for days in search of water. The more the country is settled, the more it loses its dryness. Crops keep the ground moister; the streams are stored up by dams, and water is got from wells bored into the earth sometimes a couple of thousand feet deep.

When the rain does come, it is apt to come in spouts rather than in showers, causing disastrous floods. The creek that to-day was dry may to-morrow be filled with a rapid torrent spreading out widely upon the parched plains. Flocks that have crept down into the empty water-courses, tempted perhaps by a little remnant of moisture in their muddy bottom, may be suddenly caught by these floods, and next day their carcasses will be tossing on a swollen river a hundred miles away. A river has been known to rise so much in a day that when it sank again dead horses were seen hanging high up in the trees, where they had been caught by their halters. These sudden floods often do great mischief; but at least the rain brings new life to the earth. The squatter counts his losses, and hopes for a better season, knowing

that a few years of average weather will re-stock the pastures.

Another danger is the bush-fires that often destroy great stretches of country. In dry weather the least spark will flame up among the parched grass and timber; and the throwing away of a lighted match may cause a conflagration extending for many miles and lasting for days together, visible from afar by the cloud of smoke that hangs over the scene of devastation. Sometimes, indeed, the old grass is burned on purpose to secure a finer crop, but without the greatest care such fires may easily spread farther than was intended. One is told of that once burned up a country 300 miles long by 150 broad, most of this in a single day.

A forest on fire is a grand sight, but a perilous one to those who may be caught in it. The roaring flames send before them a blast of scorching air, and raise a noise like moving thunder. Kangaroos and other shy animals come wildly rushing from the fire, too terrified to be afraid of what they meet. Flocks of screaming birds soar up from the blazing trees, only perhaps to fall stifled into the cloud of smoke, through which fiery tongues leap like lightning from one trunk to another. So fast does the conflagration travel that horses flying before it have fallen dead from heat and exhaustion, and men are glad to plunge into a creek, keeping all but their heads under water till the furnace around them has slackened its fury. Still worse does it fare with sheep and cattle, scared out of their wits by the glare, the heat and the uproar of such a scene.

Next day the forest is turned to a crumbling wilderness, the soil still hot with smouldering ashes, strewn with smoking trunks and branches and the half-burned

bodies of animals which had not been able to make their escape. Here and there some great tree may still stand, crackling as it consumes, or falling with a sudden crash; all else is silent as death. Every living thing must have perished, except creatures deeply burrowing into the earth, which for long will be too much scared to show themselves. Yet from this black ruin nature can bring fresh life; and in time the forest will spring up all the greener for its destruction by fire.

XLVIII.—NEW SOUTH WALES.

It has already been said that Australia is divided into several colonies, each having its own government and laws under the British crown. So far they are different countries, showing some jealousy as to which of them should rank as the most important. *New South Wales* was at all events the first founded, and its capital, *Sydney*, is the oldest town in Australia.

In about a hundred years Sydney, "the Queen of the South" as it calls itself, has grown from an encampment of huts and tents into a stately city of about 400,000 inhabitants, with many fine public buildings, churches, schools, banks, and shops. In one way it is more beautiful than any English town. Its warm climate makes it a city of rich parks and gardens, gay with blooms that would be wonders in England. One traveller tells us he had never seen such a beautiful scene as the public gardens, where "the ground slopes from the town to the sea with inclining lawns, flower-beds, and the endless variety of tropical flora. Tall Norfolk Island pines tower up dark into the air, and grand walks wind for miles

among continually varying landscapes, which are framed by the openings in the foliage of the perfumed shrubs."

This park slopes down to the harbour of *Port Jackson*, one of the largest and most lovely harbours in the world. It opens at the mouth between two rocky headlands, forming natural piers, and runs deep into the land, with long arms thrown out among red rocks and green woods. There are so many of these inlets that the gulf is said to measure 200 miles round, if one followed all their windings. You may suppose what delightful bathing there would be here if it were not for the sharks that must always be looked out for.

Near this is *Botany Bay*, where the first convict settlement was made towards the end of last century. The convicts did harm to Australia, and we need not be surprised that after a time the colonists of New South Wales refused to receive any more of them. To Norfolk Island, lying far out at sea some hundreds of miles eastward, to Tasmania, and to Western Australia, criminals were afterwards transported from England; but now we keep our bad characters at home.

In the early days these convicts were very cruelly treated, and it is no wonder that many of them ran away into the wild country when they got the chance. Some of them joined the native tribes and became real savages. Others took to living in the bush as best they could, which generally meant helping themselves to what they could steal on the outskirts of the settlements. Thus the country came to be infested by a class of outlaws called "Bushrangers", who got a bad name for robbing and murdering. A peaceful settler in some out-of-the-way part never knew when he might not be "stuck-up", as the phrase was. A party of armed men would burst into his

house, and order those within to hold up their hands as a sign of offering no resistance; then the robbers ransacked the place and made off with their booty; nor were they easily caught, when the nearest policeman might be a hundred miles away.

The gold-digging excitement made this state of things worse. Scoundrels from every part of Europe flocked to Australia, ready for any crime, and many of these found bushranging more to their taste than working. The gold also, on its way from the diggings to the towns, made tempting plunder for such adventurers. Disappointed diggers "took to the bush", and found it hard to settle down to honest ways. The doings of several daring gangs became notorious, and it was long before the police could hunt them down. Even in this generation bushrangers have been heard of here and there; but New South Wales, and the more settled parts of Australia, are now as quiet and peaceable as England.

The original settlers were at first shut in on the coast by the range of *Blue Mountains*, which for a time seemed impassable. But once they had made their way over these mountains, on the other side were found grand grazing grounds, through which this was able to become the great wool-growing colony. Now, in New South Wales alone there are twice as many sheep as in Great Britain and Ireland.

XLIX.—VICTORIA AND TASMANIA.

New South Wales is several times larger than England, though it is by no means the largest of our Australian colonies. *Victoria*, squeezed up between its southern boundary and the sea, is the smallest of all except

Tasmania, being only about as big as England; but it is the most thickly peopled, and for a time was the most prosperous of the Australian colonies. Victoria got its name from our queen, and is as old as her reign, but it became a separate colony only in 1851, having till then formed a part of New South Wales, from which the river Murray now separates it.

What brought so many people to Victoria was the gold-fields, the richest of which were in the mountainous part of this colony. Mining still goes on; but most of the immigrants have found it more profitable to settle down to farming and to manufactures. Victoria now begins to be a great wheat-producing country, while it has cattle, sheep, and other sources of wealth, all which together make it flourish out of proportion to its size, and *Melbourne*, its capital, is as yet the largest city in Australia.

Melbourne has a right to be proud of its broad straight streets, handsome public buildings, and the magnificent parks with which all Australian cities can adorn themselves, where our hot-house plants grow in the open air. In about half a century it has grown into a place, suburbs and all, of nearly half a million inhabitants, larger than some European capitals; and it hopes to go on growing till perhaps some day it may come to look down on the oldest cities of the world. But what grows fast does not always live longest. So, at all events, New South Wales likes to think, which was not well pleased to find itself beaten for a time, by its upstart child and neighbour, in the race for prosperity. And of late years New South Wales and Sydney have taken a fresh start that seems likely to leave Victoria behind.

Melbourne stands near the mouth of the *Yarra-Yarra* river, and has a fine harbour on the inlet of *Port Phillip*,

to which ships come from all parts of the world. On this inlet is *Geelong*, a town of some importance, which at one time had a chance of becoming the capital. *Ballarat*, thanks to the gold-mines, is now the second place in the colony. No part of Australia has so many towns so

Mount Wellington, Tasmania.

thickly set together as this populous corner, which is also better off for rivers and harbours.

The climate of Melbourne is sometimes very trying in hot weather; then its inhabitants can go for a change to the Island of *Tasmania*, which, like Ceylon at the end of India, lies off the south-eastern corner of Victoria, separated from it by Bass Strait, 150 miles wide. This island, not quite as big as Ireland, is the most beautiful

part of the Australian colonies. Its surface is all rough with mountain ridges, their tops often covered with snow, while the lower and more sheltered parts are a blaze of flowers. Sea breezes keep its sunny climate from being oppressive, and its evergreen forests are watered by numerous rivers and lakes.

The productions of the island are more varied than on the mainland of Australia. All the richest fruits of England flourish here; it is said that twenty-five different kinds can be put on the table at Christmas time. The natives, after giving a good deal of trouble, have been killed off; but to make up for its want of savages, Tasmania has some ferocious beasts, such as the so-called Tasmanian wolf, a flesh-eating marsupial animal, which attacks both flocks and men.

Tasmania used to be called *Van Diemen's Land*, from its first discoverer; but this name was changed when the convicts that used to be sent here gave it a bad reputation. It is a separate colony, with *Hobart Town* as its capital. The next largest place is *Launceston*, upon the Tamar river, names that remind us how Englishmen love to carry the familiar sound of their own birthplaces all over the world, though again such names as Brighton, Bagdad, and Jericho are found strangely mixed in this new country. Most of the Tasmanian counties are called by the names of English ones—Devon, Dorset, Kent, Lincoln, and so forth. In some ways, indeed, Tasmania is like a brighter England, with a better climate and more mountains.

L.—QUEENSLAND, SOUTH AUSTRALIA, WEST AUSTRALIA.

The other Australian colonies are much larger than those already mentioned, but being still so thinly peopled, and in parts so little known, they are not as yet so important. Still less need be said of *New Guinea* or *Papua*, which lies off the north end of Australia, separated from the point of Cape York Peninsula by *Torres Strait*, here 100 miles wide. This is the largest island in the world, next to Australia, but we know little about the interior of it, which is given up to savages and wild beasts. Though on maps the country is divided between the Dutch, the German, and the British Government, their settlements are only a few trading and missionary stations on the coast, and most of New Guinea seems too hot and unhealthy for European colonists.

Opposite New Guinea, the north-east corner of Australia is taken up by *Queensland*, along whose coast, with its many islands, runs the Great Barrier Reef, shutting it off on that side from the open sea. As Queensland lies mainly within the tropics, it has a warmer climate than its neighbour New South Wales, yet a more even one, not so much troubled by hot winds and other extremes of temperature. Winter here is delightful, and all the year round the climate is healthy, though so hot in summer that natives of the Polynesian islands, and other dark-skinned people, have been imported to do work for which the white men feel too lazy. Cotton, sugar, Indian corn, and other heat-loving plants flourish here; gold is found, and sheep are reared on the rich pastures, so that Queensland has every chance to grow into a prosperous colony.

Brisbane is the capital, near the mouth of a river opening into *Moreton Bay.*

In the sea here, as well as on land, there are harvests to be gathered. Pearls are fished up on the north coast, at some risk to the bold divers of falling a prey to sharks. The Dugong or Sea-cow, a warm-blooded creature, which feeds upon sea-weed, is speared for its oil, and the flesh makes good eating. A curious industry of this coast is the collection of Trepang, the dried bodies of "sea slugs", which are found in shallow waters and look like soft leather bags. The Chinese are very fond of this for making the rich messes in which they delight, so trepang brings a good price in China.

Next to Queensland comes *South Australia,* which should rather have been named Central Australia, and includes a good part of North Australia. This great strip of land, 2000 miles long by 700 broad, runs all across the middle of the continent, much of it still unsettled and unexplored. A great deal of the territory is known to be deserts, scrubs, salt lakes, and mountains; but there is also plenty of rich land for growing corn and feeding cattle. Copper-mines are another part of the wealth of South Australia. The settlements are chiefly in the south, near the sea coast, where lies the capital, *Adelaide,* a few miles from *Port Adelaide,* which is one of the great harbours of Australia.

Western Australia is still larger and still more thinly populated. This used to be called the Swan River Colony, from the river on which stands its capital, *Perth,* which, we may guess, was settled by Scotchmen, and indeed Scotchmen and Irishmen are found all over Australia. The chief seaport is *Albany* on *King George's Sound.* This colony now includes the whole west side of Aus-

tralia, nearly a third part of its surface, but much of this huge expanse is only unprofitable desert. Western Australia has the advantage of a fine climate, dry and bracing, but the disadvantage of a want of water, while in some parts there grows a poisonous shrub that will kill cattle.

Ten years ago the whole population of West Australia

Gold-miners, Coolgardie District.

was under 40,000 people, about one to every twenty-five square miles. But lately the discovery of rich gold-mines has drawn many adventurers both from other Australian colonies and from England, so that in ten years more a very different account may have to be given of the prosperity of a colony that long hung behind the rest. These searchers for gold will not all grow rich, as they hope; but they will enrich the country with the human life in which it is so poor at present. It has other resources besides gold, such as forests of the Jarrah or

Mahogany Eucalyptus that makes excellent timber, which not even the greedy white ants can destroy.

The chief gold-fields are at *Coolgardie*, to the north-east of Perth, a dry and dusty country, where a shower of rain is a treat and a bath an expensive luxury. Camels have been brought here to do the work of horses and bullocks, but no hardships of climate can keep men from coming to try their luck at the mines, when many of them end by having to work for more fortunate adventurers. Each mine has its name, some of them very curious ones: "The Jumping Frog", "The Tinned Dog", "The Hit or Miss" and so forth; and everyone who has to do with them lives in hopes that his mine will turn out a lucky one; but it is to be feared there are more misses than hits in this speculation.

LI.—NEW ZEALAND.

New Zealand was originally discovered in 1642 by the Dutch navigator Tasman, who naturally called it after a part of his own country, as Australia was first named New Holland. In the next century it was visited by Captain Cook, after whom came other Englishmen, till towards the middle of this century it began to be settled as a British colony. It consists of two long, narrow islands, with some smaller ones, in shape not unlike Italy, in size rather less than the British Isles. A much better name for the country would be New England, if that had not already been taken by our great colony in America.

The New Zealanders form a separate colony, which they would not like us to call an Australian one. Looking at them on a small map we are apt to think of Australia

and New Zealand as going together, but in fact they are very different, and it is quite a thousand miles from the nearest part of one to another. Though New Zealand lies at the other end of the world from us, of all our colonies it is the one most like Britain in appearance, and in a temperate climate which, on the whole, is better than ours.

There are differences of scenery and climate in the islands themselves. In general they are mountainous, well watered by lakes and streams, with a broken coast-line of bays, cliffs, and islets, and their surface is beautifully green, showing that there is no want of rain in this country. There are not nearly so many flowers here as in Australia, but there are magnificent forests, the king of which is the grand Kauri pine, growing to the height of 200 feet, and furnishing masses of timber, as well as a fine kind of gum resembling amber. Ferns are another main feature of the vegetation, covering the hills like grass, and growing to the size of trees in the forests, which are often choked up by a rich undergrowth of creeping plants climbing round the trunks and killing them with wreaths of bloom.

But New Zealand becomes more and more like England as in many parts its own plants give place to those we have introduced. As in Australia, English fruit-trees flourish here better than at home. English grass is gaining ground upon the coarser native grasses; and even English gorse spreads more rankly than was bargained for by those who planted it. As the country gets dotted with British homesteads, it grows more like what its settlers call "Home", or indeed, for the most part, rather like the highlands of Ireland and Scotland than the lowlands of Britain.

From a photograph by Valentine & Sons, Dundee.

Scene in New Zealand Forest, showing Kauri Pine, Palms, and Tree-ferns.

In animals it owes to us still more, for Captain Cook found here no quadrupeds except a kind of dog and rat, which had come perhaps with former visitors. English cattle and pigs now run wild in the New Zealand woods, but these are the wildest beasts to be encountered. For birds, the country was better off, having many kinds of parrots, pigeons, ducks, and others. Long ago there roamed over these islands a gigantic bird called the Moa, standing more than 12 feet high, of which only the skeleton is now found. There still exists a smaller bird of the same kind, the Kiwi, about the size of a fowl, without tail or wings. One kind of parrot is remarkable, not only for its noisy impudence, but for a bad trick it has learned of perching on the backs of sheep and pecking a hole in them to feed itself, as it could not have done before we introduced these animals.

The islands, when we came to them, were inhabited only by a race called the Maoris, who seem to have been originally South Sea Islanders. Though given to cannibalism, which they may have taken to because they found here so little flesh for food, the Maoris were far above most savages—brave, warlike, and with some notions of arts and industry; their better treatment of women also showed them superior to the miserable aborigines of Australia. At first the settlers got on with them pretty well, but by and by there came quarrels, leading to a series of wars lasting for a quarter of a century. At one time there were 10,000 English soldiers in the field against them, but the Maoris defended their palisaded forts so well that we can hardly be said to have got the best of it. At last peace was made, and the Maoris are now so far civilized that they vote like other citizens, and some even sit as members of the colonial parliament.

LII.—THE NORTH ISLAND.

The *North Island* of New Zealand is very irregular in shape, having a long narrow peninsula running out from the top of it, and a broader projection on each side. On the neck of that peninsula is *Auckland*, the largest town; but *Wellington*, at the very south of the island, is the oldest, and has been chosen for the capital of the whole colony as being more central. The coast is often broken by deep bays and harbours, upon which many other towns have sprung up. In the middle of the island is *Lake Taupo*, from which flows its longest river, the *Waikato*.

This island, lying nearer the Equator, is warmer than the other, and has a climate like that of England, only pleasanter, and without any severe winter. In many parts the scenery is very beautiful, showing fine features of volcanic action. Hills and valleys are often known to have been carved out by water and ice; here they are shaped also by the subterranean fires which occasionally burst forth, cracking, scorching, or shaking the surface of the earth. We have all seen pictures of Vesuvius and other still active volcanoes; what we do not all know is that in England, too, volcanic fires were once at work, though they seem to have long ago burnt out. But in the North Island of New Zealand they still make themselves felt and seen by eruptions, earthquakes, and other startling phenomena. The houses in a volcanic district are commonly built of wood, as being less dangerous than stone or brick if an earthquake brings them down upon their inhabitants.

In one part of this island, lying towards the centre, south-east from Auckland, the volcanic phenomena are so

extraordinary as to count among the wonders of the world. It is a country of warm lakes and boiling springs, where the earth seems like a thin crust over some restless reservoir of hot water pressing up through every opening. If you push a stick into the ground a jet of steam will spring forth. One must be cautious in walking among the bubbling holes for fear of falling through to be scalded to death, for the water is often boiling hot, while many of the pools and springs are merely warm, so that one can bathe in them. In some places they ooze out of seething mud; in others they fill basins beautifully tinted blue, green, and red by the deposition of mineral matters from the water, as you may have seen at home how a crust is formed on anything dipped in water containing salt or iron.

Here and there are deep holes, from which, every now and again, bursts a huge column of water and steam, driven high into the air by the volcanic force below, then falling like giant fountains into natural stone basins. These "geysers" are far more grand and numerous than the famous geysers of Iceland from which they got their name. They are surpassed indeed only by those discovered not long ago in the Yellowstone region of the American Rocky Mountains. Chief among the wonders of the New Zealand volcanic country were the Pink and White Terraces, formed by mineral deposition, which coated these huge staircases, as they seemed, with lovely colours painted upon the delicate carving of the alabaster-like rock. But the same mysterious agency which produced such a rare spectacle has also destroyed it, for some years ago the Terraces were overwhelmed by an eruption from a volcano near them.

Still, there remain countless lakes, rivers, cascades, pools,

and springs of hot water kept always filled by the volcanic kettle undergound. People troubled with rheumatism and other complaints come to be cured by bathing in

Photo. Valentine & Sons, Dundee.

Hotwater Geyser—North Island, New Zealand.

these natural warm waters; and the tattooed Maoris delight to sit squatting in them for hours, which cannot be the best way of keeping one's health. This is the country of the Maoris, who are hardly to be found now

out of the North Island. Even here they are dying out through the bad ways which they learn from us more readily than the good lessons we have to teach them.

It is sad to think that civilization so often enters such lands only to cast a blight upon their natives. As the English grass spreads over New Zealand soil, as our daisies and clover take the place of the plants they found, as pheasants from England multiply in the woods where the old birds die away, as the very rats and flies we brought with us are driving out the native species, so the wild people here and elsewhere seem unable to live side by side with the white men who need their land. The poor Maori is disappearing like his forests and their inhabitants.

LIII.—THE SOUTH ISLAND.

The two principal islands are separated from each other by *Cook Strait*, at the narrowest point not quite sixteen miles wide. The southern one is sometimes called Middle Island, because at its south end there is another known as *Stewart's Island*; but this is comparatively so small that the middle one, the largest of all, is commonly spoken of and marked on maps as *South Island*. New Zealand is badly off for names, as might not have been the case if when it was first discovered people had guessed what it would grow to. Many of the towns have called themselves by their native names, which seems the best way when there are so many Londons and Plymouths already over the world.

If the North Island has a region of fire, the South is largely a land of ice. Throughout it runs a great chain of mountains, rising at its highest point, *Mt. Cook*, to 12,000

or 13,000 feet, not far short of the highest summit in Europe. The tops of these mountains are always covered with snow, and hidden among them are huge glaciers, ice-rivers moving slowly down at the rate, perhaps, of an inch an hour, till they reach the point at which they melt into water. Here are the same grand features, carved out by frosts, ice streams, and avalanches, as we have in Switzerland and other Alpine countries; while the rocky coast is cut by the sea into picturesque promontories and fiords like those of Norway.

Naturally these cold highlands have as yet been little explored. But such bold climbers as have made Switzerland their playground are now seeking fresh perils among the New Zealand Alps; and more than one of their lofty summits have been ascended by adventurers from the other end of the world. Now that travelling becomes so much easier, it will soon be as common to visit the grand scenes of New Zealand as it once was to take a tour among the Alps of Europe.

Meanwhile the uninhabited mountains make it rather difficult to get about from one part of the island to another. New Zealand has constructed a remarkable number of railways for its size, but it is rather ill off for roads as yet; and these are sometimes blocked by snow in winter, in the South Island at least, where there is a real winter. Often the best communication from one place to another is by steamers plying along the coast, on which the chief towns lie, and the plain districts that are more fitted for settlement.

The largest town here, coming next to Auckland in the whole colony, is *Dunedin*, capital of the province of *Otago*, standing at the head of a fine harbour near the south end of the island. Otago was originally colonized by

Scotch people, as you may know by Dunedin being an old name for Edinburgh. Above Otago, on the east coast, lies the province of *Canterbury*, with its long plains between the mountains and the sea, and its capital *Christchurch*, which was intended to be a specially English colony. Christchurch has tried to look as English as it can, and all the streets are called after English bishopries. It stands not on, but near the sea, with *Port Lyttelton* for its harbour, a few miles off. Many of the other towns also have names which show how dear to the settlers are memories of their homes and the famous men of the mother-country.

Though various colonies have thus been settled by people from separate parts of Britain, the colonists do not stay pent up from each other like different flocks, but mix and spread over the country, wherever they see the best chance of making a living. In the South Island sheep-farming is the chief occupation. Besides wool, the whole colony, like Australia, exports preserved meat, fruit, and grain. Sulphur from the volcanoes is a peculiar product of the North Island, and both of them export the valuable kauri gum. Gold is found in several districts; also coal and petroleum, which may do more to make New Zealand a rich country, some day, than all the gold so eagerly sought.

LIV.—THE SOUTH SEA ISLANDS.

To the south and east of New Zealand lie several small British possessions, the *Chatham Islands*, the *Antipodes Islands*, the *Auckland Islands*, and others, some of which serve as stations for whalers, but most of them are

Cocoa-nut Palms on the Shore of a South Sea Island.

uninhabited. Northwards extends the great archipelago of the *South Sea Islands*, many of them belonging to Britain. The principal colony we have here is the Fiji Islands, 1200 miles from New Zealand, and still farther from Australia.

The *Fiji Islands* are a volcanic group, more than two hundred and fifty in number, richly covered with tropical vegetation, though not all as yet inhabited by men or beasts. As in New Zealand, the only beasts we found here were small rats and bats; but dogs, pigs, goats, and fowls have been introduced from Europe. The climate, though tropical, is tempered by the sea-breezes, so that Europeans are able to live and work, and for more than twenty years these islands have been a thriving British colony.

The natives are an unusually fine race, manly and intelligent above other South Sea Islanders. They used bows and arrows as well as clubs, built houses for themselves and temples for their gods, and could make very good canoes. When we first knew them their great fault was being given to cannibalism; but they have now abandoned such barbarous practices under the teaching of the missionaries. Many of them go to church, and most of the children to school, a remarkable change among a people who, in the memory of men still living, had a name as the fiercest of savages.

The two chief islands of the group are *Viti Levu* and *Vanua Levu*, on the former of which is *Suva*, the capital, which some day may be a great town. The European settlers number only a few thousands, and the natives a few tens of thousands, so that there is plenty of room for more. Sugar is the most valuable export; another valuable product is copra, that is, dried cocoa-nut kernels,

from which oil is made. Bananas, plantains, yams, bread-fruit, and other native fruits also flourish here, besides several kinds introduced from Europe.

We know what bananas and cocoa-nuts are like, from seeing them at home; yet indeed we do not know what cocoa-nuts are in the tropics. What comes home to us is only the hardened inside of the nut, that sometimes grows as big as a football, a lump of thick, green fibre filled with milk and with soft buttery stuff, turned firmer than cheese before it reaches England. The yam is like a very big floury potato. The bread-fruit is another green ball, which, when baked or roasted, is thought to taste like bread. Plantains are much the same as bananas, but a coarser form, that might be considered as vegetables rather than fruit, both of them so common as to be here almost what corn is with us.

All over the South Sea Islands such big fruits grow almost as wild as the berries in our woods. You might think that having cocoa-nuts, bananas, and so forth, to eat for the trouble of pulling them, would be a blessing to the inhabitants, but it is not so. To be able to live without working is rather a curse, as all history shows. Human nature, like the soil, runs to waste in these warm rich countries, where the sun and the rain do so much to save their inhabitants the trouble of labouring for subsistence. However it may be with plants, man flourishes better for having to bear the winter as well as to enjoy the summer.

These groups of innumerable islands are mostly very beautiful, some of them thrown up by volcanic agency, some slowly built by millions upon millions of coral animals from the bottom of the sea. In the quiet Pacific Ocean they lie, green and fruitful, rimmed about with

coral-reefs and broad sands, which shut off the mass of palms and creepers from the surf foaming without. Each of them seems like a little Paradise, in which men have nothing to do but to bathe and dream and gather fruit.

The inhabitants are a tall and handsome race, often very friendly in their manners, and easily taught to abandon some of their worst superstitions. But what is easily taught is not always well learned. Civilization does them as much harm as good, especially when, along with our religion, we bring them the example of drunkenness, so fatal to people in a state of childhood. In many places the islanders seem to be dying out, while their soft climate does not favour the manliness and energy of Europeans, who else might take their place.

Several of the South Sea groups are British possessions, the *Tonga* or *Friendly Islands*, and others, of which you may see the names on the map. Others belong to France; and the Germans, too, have made settlements here. But the Fiji Islands are the only ones that have invited a flourishing colony of Englishmen. The rest are chiefly known to traders, missionaries, and travellers. who all agree as to their unprofitable charm.

LV.—THE VOYAGE TO THE CAPE.

From England to the Cape is more than 6000 miles, a distance done by steamers in less than three weeks. The most difficult part of the voyage may be getting out of Southampton water, round the Isle of Wight, then safely down the English Channel, always crowded with shipping, and often made dangerous by fogs. At the N. W. corner of France comes Cape Ushant, off which lie a number of

rocky islands that are a great danger in foggy weather, as the wreck of the *Drummond Castle* showed not long ago. Once round this corner, the vessel turns southward, and henceforth has a clear course before her.

First she holds across the outside of the *Bay of Biscay*, which has a bad name for rough waves, so that passengers unused to the sea are likely to have an uncomfortable time of it there. But in a very few days the cold winds and dull skies are left behind; and in warm summer weather the travellers sail on down the African coast of the Atlantic, passing by the *Azores*, *Madeira*, the *Canaries*, and the *Cape Verde Islands*, some of which are sometimes touched at for a sight of their rich vegetation and sun-burned natives.

As she approaches the Equator, warm is not the word for it; the people on board begin to understand what living in a hot country means. Even out at sea, with the draught their vessel makes through the air to cool them, they find it tryingly hot, and are glad to get into any patch of shade. No land is in sight, nothing to be seen on the horizon but the long trail of smoke left by the steamer, perhaps the spouting of a whale, or now and then the smoke or sail of another craft, the passing of which is quite an excitement to the idle passengers. Above, in the cloudless sky, the sun burns fiercely like a ball of molten brass; below, the boundless blue sea spreads out smooth and shining, like a sheet of oil. Often a dead calm prevails in these tropical latitudes, where a sailing ship might lie helpless for days, awaiting the least stir of air to fill her canvas. But the great steamer ploughs on her way through storm and calm; and the captain can always tell where he is almost as plainly as if he saw the sea ruled by the lines of a map.

By his observations of the sun he knows when the Equator is crossed, and when he has entered upon the other side of the world. In a few days more the change is felt, for now every mile south carries the vessel into a more temperate zone, though still far warmer than our wet and windy islands. As the voyage draws to an end the passengers are again able to enjoy it. If, while crossing the equatorial region, those on deck suffered from the heat, what must have been the condition of the engineers and stokers below, who, stifling, panting, and perspiring, had to keep the engines going through all weather!

The course now has turned a little south-east, following the deep bend made by the African shore in its lower half. On the homeward voyage *St. Helena* and *Ascension* may be called at, where the British flag flies, as we have seen. All along the coast of the mainland are strips of land claimed or occupied by different European powers, several of them belonging to England, *Gambia, Sierra Leone,* the *Gold Coast,* the *Niger Territories,* and others. For the most part they should rather be called trading stations than colonies, since the climate is too hot and damp to let Englishmen keep their health long. Sierra Leone especially has been named "The White Man's Grave". But at many spots we have traders, officials, soldiers, and sailors, risking their lives to carry on with the tribes of the interior a traffic in palm-oil, cocoa-nut, india-rubber, ivory, gold-dust, and so forth. Once the great export of this region was human flesh and blood; but long ago England took a lead in putting down the slave-trade that still is the curse of some parts of Africa.

These possessions are not seen on a voyage to the Cape, our steamer keeping too far out from the land, the first sign of which will be *Robben Island,* or its lighthouse,

outside the harbour of *Cape Town*. Here at last is reached what most people take to be the extreme end of Africa. But if you look closely at the map, you will see that the most southerly point is really *Cape Agulhas*, a little way beyond the more prominent projection formed by the *Cape of Good Hope*. *Agulhas* means the "Needles", a name suggested by the shape of its rocks, as in the case of our own Needles, which may have been the last point of England seen by the travellers.

LVI.—SETTLEMENTS IN SOUTH AFRICA.

The Portuguese were the first European visitors to this part of the world. About the time when our Wars of the Roses came to an end, one of their bold navigators, Bartholomew Diaz, discovered that Africa seemed to end in a promontory, which at first he called the "Cape of Storms", but which afterwards was called the "Cape of Good Hope" by the Portuguese king. This was indeed a hopeful discovery, for after it ships could sail round Africa to India, as they would need still to do but for the Suez Canal. The Cape of Good Hope became an important half-way station on voyages to the East, and thus a name so familiar to sailors that they called it *the* Cape, as if no other in the world were worth mentioning beside it.

For a long time the Cape was known only as a harbour. Then the Dutch made a colony there; and from the middle of the seventeenth century their farms began to spread over the interior. They were joined by a number of Huguenots, or French Protestants, driven out of France on account of their religion.

In the great wars with Napoleon, a century ago, an

English garrison was sent to hold the Cape and keep open our road to India. When these wars were over, the Cape Colony, like other possessions, remained in the hands of Britain, whose fleet had made her mistress of the seas, while Napoleon was conquering all the mainland of Europe. English colonists now began to mix with the original Dutch settlers, all living together under English government.

But the two peoples did not always get on well with each other. The Boers, as the Dutch called themselves, from their name for farmers, had been used to make slaves of the natives, and were accused of treating them harshly. Englishmen held slaves, too, in their colonies, but many of them felt this to be wrong; and more than sixty years ago our parliament made a law that there should be no more slavery under the British flag. Money was to be paid to the owners of the slaves; but the Boers complained that they did not get their proper share of this compensation. Their discontent over this and other grievances was so great that thousands of them emigrated with all their goods and cattle to the wild country lying northwards, where they might live in independence.

There they have founded two republics, known as the Transvaal and the Orange Free State, the latter so called from the Orange River, which for a time was the boundary between the Boer emigrants and the British colony. But British enterprise kept pressing in this direction, and now the Dutch republics are enclosed by our territory. Fresh quarrels have arisen; and perhaps South Africa will not be at peace till all the white men agree to unite under one government.

On the sea-coast the Dutch are shut in by the English colony of *Natal*. To the west of them extend *Bechuana*

Land and the great desert of *Kalahari*, which are British territory. To the north a new country, stretching almost as far as the Equator, has recently been opened up under the name of *Rhodesia*. It is so called from Mr. Rhodes, a leading man in the Chartered Company, to which this land has been granted, as formerly India was left to be conquered and governed by the East India Company, not by the British crown.

Above Natal the Portuguese have on the coast a colony called *Delagoa Bay*, and the shore for a long way northwards is also claimed by them, though they do little to settle it. On the other side of Africa also, the Portuguese are masters of the coast for some distance. Both on the east and west coast a large strip of land belongs to Germany, which has only of late begun to trouble herself about foreign colonies. In the middle of their western settlements, however, the harbour of *Walfisch Bay* is a British possession. None of these foreign colonies is so flourishing as ours; for no people has shown itself so well able as the English to settle and improve wild countries.

Our South African territory, then, consists first of *Cape Colony*, taking up the point of the Continent, where many of the people are still Dutch, and where often Dutch names, sometimes Portuguese ones, recall that we were not the original settlers. Then comes *Natal*, continuing Cape Colony round the eastern coast. Lastly, we have the central part, still for the most part uncolonized, extending up to the great lakes that lie south of the Equator, where the country, known only to bold explorers, is claimed by other European nations.

LVII.—CONFIGURATION AND CLIMATE OF AFRICA.

We are apt to think of Africa as a land of vast sandy deserts, under a burning sun. But the south end of the Continent, more temperate than those parts lying nearer the Equator, by no means comes under this description. It is, for the most part, a high-lying land with green plains, grand mountains, rushing rivers, magnificent waterfalls, and now and then fine forests. On the north and east side of Cape Colony, indeed, real sandy deserts can be found; and all over it there are great patches of barren heath like the Australian scrubs. But, near the coast especially, much of the country is fertile and beautiful.

A peculiarity of this country is that, from the sea, it rises to the interior by successive terraces, like gigantic steps, on which, the higher one goes, the cooler the climate becomes. Inland run several mountain ridges shutting in large plateaus called *Karroos,* which form a remarkable feature of the scenery. These are stretches of flat country, covered with thirsty and thorny shrubs that wither up in dry weather, when the ground is baked hard as a brick, and the only water found is in shallow salt lakelets, crusted with a white scum, except where some green oasis shows that a well has been sunk by settlers. The plain called the *Great Karroo* stands as high as an English mountain, and is bounded on the north by ridges reaching to the height of 8000 feet. Beyond the mountains again extend huge treeless plains towards the desert of *Kalahari,* which, so far as it has been examined, appears to be a barren wilderness.

Karroo is a native name; but most of the words used

here to express natural features are Dutch, which is an older form of English, so that these words differ from ours only in spelling and a little in pronunciation. Thus "berg", which we know in *iceberg*, is a rugged mountain;

A Karroo Landscape.

"kopje", pronounced *koppie* (our *cap* or *cape*), is a prominent hillock, often of the flat-topped shape which gives its name to Table Mountain, the first characteristic feature of South Africa that catches one's eye on arriving at the Cape. "Kloof" is a *cleft* or gap in the mountains. The open country is spoken of as the "veldt" (field), which again is distinguished as "sweet veldt"

and "sour veldt", according to the pasture it grows, while the name "bush veldt" describes the way in which much of it is covered by dense shrubs.

The highest of the mountain ranges is called the *Drakensberg*, or "Dragon Mountains", which rise to over 10,000 feet on the east side of the colony. Here the *Orange River* has its source, from which it flows westward to the Atlantic so as to form the northern frontier of the old Cape Colony, beyond which lie our new possessions and the Boer states. Many other rivers rise in the mountains, but their course to the sea is usually short and rapid; and their mouths are often choked up by bars and sandbanks, which spoil them for navigation.

The climate of such a country, we see, must vary greatly, according as one is on a high or low step of its terraced surface. Generally speaking, it is hot and dry. Its great fault is a want of rain. As in Australia, the plains are often quite parched till heavy showers come again to brighten the wilderness with grass and flowers. But for violent thunderstorms, frequent among the mountains, there are parts that would have no rain at all. Hot winds sometimes blow, driving along clouds of red dust; and in the dazzling, sweltering sunshine the traveller may be mocked by what seems a silvery lake, but turns out to be only a deceitful mirage painted on the arid plain. More commonly the dry air is so beautifully clear that a plain twenty miles broad looks as if one could walk across it in half an hour, and mountains a long day's journey off seem to be within a few miles.

If the dry weather is not good for the ground, it is healthy for Europeans, making them able to live and work well here. The air, tempered by sea-breezes, is delightfully fresh, and works wonders on consumptive

patients, who often recover their health by spending a single winter on the warm yet bracing heights of South Africa. When we, on this side of the Equator, have winter, they have summer; but even in their winter the climate is mild, though on the higher points ice and snow can sometimes be found. Even when the warmth of the days makes men glad to take off their coats, the nights are often tryingly cold on the uplands.

There is always more rain about the mountains, which are chiefly near the coast, where their summits catch the clouds coming from the sea and draw down the moisture before it can get far inland. Farther in lie the dry wastes, while towards the sea are the districts more fit for cultivation.

LVIII.—PLANT-LIFE IN AFRICA.

For large timber South Africa is badly off. In the south and east there are forests among the mountains and near the coasts; but on the great inland plains one may travel far without coming to a tree large enough to cast a welcome shade. Here and there, perhaps, above the long grass or the thick scrub stands up a cedar or a stunted mimosa tree, with its thorny, shrivelled branches that burst into a fine show of yellow blossoms in spring. The edges of water-courses are commonly marked by lines of mimosa trees or other acacias, but sometimes a willow makes a refreshing change among the low dry brushwood which takes the place of timber.

Thorns and prickles are very characteristic of the vegetation here; and, to make it worse for travellers, the thorns often grow, not straight, but bent back like a fish-

hook. One such thorn, expressively known as "Wait a bit", grows in dense thickets, through which the thick-skinned elephant and rhinoceros crash their way unhurt; but men trying to penetrate into their haunts have sore need of patience and sticking-plaster; and even the lion gets his mane as sadly torn as a sheep's fleece among brambles. Prickly plants, such as aloes and cactuses, abound; even the nettles are larger, and have worse stings, than those we know in England. Very common are various kinds of heath, which, when in bloom, colour the country for miles. The hot dry summer soon burns everything brown; and the scrubby bushes look so withered up that one wonders how nibbling goats can find pasture on them as they do.

But we must not judge by appearances, as Mr. H. A. Bryden tells us in his *Kloof and Karroo*, a capital book of African adventure. "These dried-up shrubs and the low heathery bush that form the karroo vegetation are even now full of feeding power; and when the rains come, as we afterwards witnessed, what a transformation! Bush and scrub, apparently devoid of life, shoot out a fresh and vernal verdure; starry flowers spring forth in profusion, even before the green leaves appear; fragrant grasses and herbs emerge as if by magic from the soil; and the whole surface of the karroo appears one immense ocean of dark-green, spangled with flowers most brilliant and innumerable."

Africa indeed is in spring a garden of flowers, that cover the plains and kloofs as with a gay carpet. Geraniums and lilies bloom here like daisies and buttercups at home, and many other wild flowers which would be the pride of an English garden. Wherever there is water, crops and vegetables can be made to grow richly.

Indian corn lifts to the height of several feet its heavy ears, known to the colonists as "mealies", and much used as food for man and beast. Wheat, barley, rye, potatoes, all thrive well in parts.

Most sorts of fruit-trees also have been introduced with great success. Figs, oranges, lemons, mulberries, pomegranates, flourish here as in the South of Europe, not to speak of our own apples, pears, plums, peaches, and cherries. Vines are largely cultivated near Cape Town, and wine is made for export. The colonists grow their own tobacco. One foreign plant—the prickly-pear—has made itself only too much at home in this land of prickles, almost ruining some farms by its rapid growth, while cattle suffer from eating its golden fruit covered with irritating little spikes.

Near the towns, Australian blue gum-trees, English oaks, and other imported timber, are much planted to make avenues on the dusty roads. The colonists now see the advantage of not letting trees die out or be destroyed, as was the wasteful way of the first Dutch settlers. In some parts of the colony one day in the year is made a holiday celebrated by the planting of trees. Thus the next generation will not be so much in want of either fruit or shade as their fathers were.

As we get north into the tropics, the jungles grow richer; and native trees, such as the palm and the baobab, relieve the monotony of thorny scrubs. The various kinds of palms, with their graceful feathery foliage, should be known to us all from picture-books, if we have not seen them in some English botanic garden. The baobab, which the colonists call the "cream-of-tartar tree", is a singular one, throwing out its gnarled limbs sometimes to a circumference of thirty or

forty feet, with small branches sticking out queerly at the top. The pods, the size of a small cocoa-nut, contain a white creamy acid substance, so like the medicine we call cream of tartar as to give the tree its name.

LIX.—WILD BEASTS OF AFRICA.

The Lion has his home in Africa; and the first colonists of the Cape could often hear his terrible roar through the darkness of the bush. He would more often be heard than seen, for, to tell the truth, this king of beasts is not so brave as we imagine him, or at least he keeps his bravery till it is needed, and chooses rather to slink about in dark places, avoiding the sight of man, unless he be pressed by hunger. Nowadays lions have been driven out of the colony; and one must go far beyond the Orange River to have a chance of seeing, as Lord Randolph Churchill saw, the long grass become alive with yellow animals about the size of small bullocks "trooping and trotting along like a lot of enormous dogs". But if the hunter venture a shot at these runaways, he must be ready to fight or fly, for a wounded lion, turning upon his assailant, is a most formidable enemy.

"Tigers", as the Dutch call leopards, are still common enough in the rough parts of the country, though, true to the sly instincts of the cat tribe, they keep themselves so close that it is difficult to get a shot at them; and the farmers have often to kill them by laying poisoned meat where they come prowling at night to prey upon the flocks. Wild Buffaloes are also met with, not less dangerous than lions when attacked, as they seldom can

be in their thorny retreats. Baboons live in holes in the rocks, boldly showing themselves to chatter and bark at strangers, but making off on all-fours at any sign of hostility. They do a great deal of mischief in fields and orchards, and though they do not eat flesh, some of them have learned the trick of killing goats to get their milk.

Monkeys and Tiger-cats count as nuisances rather than dangerous enemies of man; and Jackals and Hyænas act as scavengers of the wilds, as do the ugly Vultures that soon come hovering over any scene of slaughter.

The beautifully striped Zebra is now almost extinct in most parts of the colony. Hippopotamuses and Rhinoceroses must be hunted for in its distant outskirts, by marshy river beds, or in unpeopled jungles. A few herds of Elephants still wander through wooded parts of the mountains; but all over South Africa they are being killed off, wherever ivory hunters can track them out to make spoil of their fine tusks. This ornament is an unfortunate one for the poor elephants, slain, on its account, by tens of thousands every year. Ivory used to be one of the chief exports of South Africa; but now, even in the wild lands of Rhodesia, it is difficult to find an elephant.

Snakes are still too common, such as the deadly Puff Adder and the Cobra. There is one familiar animal which is as deadly to them. Their poison seems to be wasted on the fat of the pig; and as pigs are not at all particular about their feeding, the colonists turn them out to munch up the snakes, which they do very readily. Another great enemy of snakes is the long-legged Secretary Bird, which gets its name from a crest of feathers looking like a quill pen stuck behind its ear as it stalks along to pick up a dinner of snakes, lizards, and other ground-game. The Boers sometimes keep these birds

tame about their farm-yards; and another curious little creature, the Meer-cat, is seen as a pet in houses, like our domestic pussy.

Eagles, Hawks, and other birds of prey abound, as well as great Cranes, Herons, and Bustards. Then there are rainbow-coloured Sunbirds, among others more distinguished for beautiful plumage than for sweet song; gorgeous Cuckoos, the game-birds known as Cape Pheasants and Pigeons, Plovers, wild Geese, wild Ducks, and many more of the kinds familiar in England, besides some quite unknown to us, such as a bird called the Kaffrarian Grosbeak, which at one time of the year has such a long tail that he can neither walk nor fly easily, and hardly ventures out of the bushes.

These birds give plenty of sport to the colonists; but their great game is the shy and graceful Antelope, several varieties of which still abound in the highlands, though others have been quite killed off for their skins by the wasteful Boers, or have fled from the neighbourhood of civilization. Game-laws have now been made, to save them for fair sport.

The streams are not well stocked with fish; but the sea has some huge ones, fierce Sharks among them. In the northern rivers one has to be on the look-out for Crocodiles as long as a boat, which, like the sharks, would snap up imprudent bathers.

LX.—OTHER AFRICAN ANIMALS.

The largest of all African birds is the Ostrich, which might have been exterminated like the lion and the elephant, if the colonists had not found it worth preserv-

ing for the sake of its valuable feathers. Standing seven to nine feet high on its long legs, the ostrich can run faster than any horse. Dr. Livingstone says that, when it goes at full speed, its legs become invisible like the spokes of a wheel. It is harmless enough as a rule, not to say shy and stupid; but when provoked, or fighting in defence of its young, it can give a formidable blow with its powerful leg and its horny toes.

Many of the Cape colonists have ostrich farms, where

On an Ostrich Farm in South Africa.

hundreds of these great birds are kept shut up behind wire-fences. It is no joke going among them at the risk of getting a kick from an ill-tempered old bird; but a forked stick or a thorn bush held to its neck will usually keep it off. They are herded about like sheep, or sometimes, when there is a long distance to go, they may be harnessed with leather reins and so driven along or made to run beside a man on horseback. When the time comes for clipping the feathers, a bag or box is put

over the bird's head; then it stands quite still and lets itself be shorn more gently than a sheep.

Goats are another profitable stock reared at the Cape, where they thrive on the scrubby pastures, and their long hair makes an important article of commerce. Cattle and sheep are now reared in millions on the plains once given up to wild beasts; and the descendants of the fierce warriors with whom white men had to fight for the country, are found serving as herdsmen to their conquerors. The Kafirs and Hottentots had once herds and flocks of their own, but of inferior breed to those we have introduced from Europe.

The farmers of South Africa have still many difficulties to fight against. In some parts, leopards and other tiger-cats take toll of their stock, if not carefully fenced in and guarded. In others, the cattle often die from eating poisonous herbs. Drought sometimes kills them off by thousands. Herds and flocks are liable to deadly diseases; and there is one fatal sickness which destroys most of the horses where it breaks out, the poor beast dying in a few hours. This is more common in the new lands of Rhodesia, where the road to the settlements is seen dotted with the skeletons of horses and mules that have died on the way, of this mysterious complaint. A "salted" horse, that is, one that has passed through it safely, is a most valuable possession here; so ought to be a donkey, which is not liable to the disease.

Flies are always a plague in hot countries; and in South Africa there is one insect, no bigger than a house fly, that has extraordinary powers of mischief for its size. This is the Tsetse fly, infesting certain regions, where it often brings explorers to a standstill. Though

harmless to man, it is certain death to the horses and oxen on which he must depend for transport, so that the wild beasts of the country are better protected against hunters by it than by their own teeth and claws.

Another scourge of this continent is the Locusts, which travellers describe as coming up in such countless numbers as to cloud the sky and dim the light of the sun. Like heavy flakes of snow, they begin to fall, first a few here and there, then by scores, at last by thousands, till the ground is hidden by them. In a few minutes the place where they have alighted is bare as a rock, stripped of every green leaf and blade. Nothing can stop their advance once they have settled; if their march be crossed by a stream, they rush in, filling it up with their bodies and making a bridge for those pressing on behind. Nor when they have passed away, is that always the last of them, for they may leave their eggs behind to be hatched into a new swarm of young ones that in turn devour the revived vegetation. Flocks of birds follow the locust hosts, devouring them by hundreds as they fly; and when they have settled on the ground, the antelopes and other animals browze on them like grass; but for every thousand so destroyed, there are tens of thousands left to desolate the country through which they pass.

Much might be said of other curious animals and insects found in South Africa. There are beautifully striped butterflies so like the flowers on which they feed, as hardly to be told from them at a few yards' distance, There are tortoises like great stones, and beetles, which one might take for pebbles till they begin to roll away. The same protection against enemies is given by nature to certain spiders, which look like shrivelled berries of

the bush on which they hang. Here are found several kinds of the Mantis, which in Australia we heard of as having this strange trick of "mimicry". Perhaps the most remarkable instance of it is the Chameleon, also a native of Africa, which changes its colour in a minute to match that of the ground. There are ants that on the brown plains throw up ant-hills almost as large as a Hottentot's house. Close to these will be found the deep burrows of the Ant-eater, that digs into the ant-hills with his active claws, and sucks up their swarming inhabitants with his long tongue.

LXI.—AFRICAN NATIVES.

The natives of South Africa belong to two great races, which have split up into many tribes. The aboriginal inhabitants appear to have been Hottentots, who, when white men first came among them, were found in greater number about the south and west of the country, while in other parts, and especially on the east side, they had long ago been displaced by conquering tribes from the north. These Kafirs, Zulus, and others were not so easily mastered by the settlers as the Hottentots were.

The *Hottentots* are a stupidly barbarous people, with yellowish-brown faces, black woolly hair, flat noses, and thick lips. The most remarkable point about them is their language, which has some curious clicking sounds hardly pronounceable by Europeans, and not unlike the cackling of geese. They used to go dressed in sheep-skins, the rough side of which they turned inward in cold weather; also they wore leather aprons, and loved to smear themselves with grease and paint. Their dwell-

ings were low beehive-shaped huts of matting, grass, or branches, which they built together in circular villages called *Kraals.*

Of the same stock as the Hottentots, apparently, are the *Bushmen,* who, like the Australian aborigines, count physically among the lowest of savages, though in some ways they seem to be more intelligent than they look. In height the men are only about four and a half feet, the women even smaller. Their poisoned arrows made them dangerous enemies; but they were hunted away like beasts by the original settlers, and only a few of them are now found hiding in deserts and caves upon the edge of the colony. They were wonderfully clever at painting, and in many places have left curious pictures on the rocks as memorials of themselves.

The wild Hottentot, too, has almost disappeared, though many of them still live among the settlements in a partly civilized state. These poor "Totties" as they are called, act as servants to the conquerors, who in times past often treated them very cruelly; but the cruellest thing of all was teaching them the use of spirits, which does so much to destroy all savages. There are tribes of half-caste Hottentots, such as *Griquas,* who are more or less broken in to civilization; but it is to be feared they inherit the faults rather than the virtues of their white fathers.

The *Kafir* tribes, Zulus, Pondos, Swazis, Basutos, and others, are bolder and more intelligent people, coming from a stock of black men widely spread over Africa. This is called the *Bantu* race by learned men; but the various tribes are commonly spoken of as Kafirs in South Africa, where they make the majority of the population. In some parts they still live as great tribes, ruled by powerful chiefs, cultivating fields of their own and own-

ing large herds of cattle. They are tall and strong, loving to go naked, yet on occasion dressing themselves out in leopard-skins and ox-hides, or gaudy European blankets, and doing up their hair in various extraordinary fashions. Their own weapons are clubs, large ox-hide shields, short spears called assegais, and "knob-kerries", or knob-sticks, which they throw with great dexterity; and when to these they add European fire-arms, they prove enemies by no means to be despised, as our soldiers have often found.

This is not the place to tell the story of the wars which both we and the Dutch have again and again had with the Kafir tribes. Peaceful missionaries, also, have faced dangers and hardships to carry light among these dark-minded barbarians. The religion of the Kafirs is a cruel superstition, only too true to their fierce nature. They believe much in witchcraft and evil spirits. Their priests are cheating conjurors, who pretend to be able to bring rain and work other miracles. If anything goes wrong, such impostors try to throw the blame of it on anyone who may have offended them, and often thus get innocent people put to death on suspicion of being wizards and witches.

When the Kafirs showed themselves so cruel to their own countrymen, it may be supposed what they were to their enemies. But, between our missionaries and our soldiers, the tribes near the colonies have now been tamed so far as to keep from interfering with the settlers, and many of them are learning to live quietly and industriously. Some are still proud barbarians who care for no work but that of killing. Others are found serving the colonists as herds, grooms, and labourers on the land where they once were masters. A Kafir is usually a strong

fellow, who will work well while he is at it, but does not keep long in a mind for industry. Often he comes down to the settlements for a spell of work till he has earned enough to buy a gun, a wife, or some cattle, with which, for the rest of his life, he can set up as an idle gentleman among his own people.

LXII.—THE ZULUS.

Among the Kafir tribes, the most warlike and the proudest are the *Zulus*, whose country lies between the sea and the mountains north of Natal; but they have spread widely into other parts, where sometimes they are known by different names. Wherever they came no other tribe could stand against them; and it was hard, even for the best-armed soldiers, to attack them in their walled kraals, or among the rocky hills which they turned into fortresses. Their strength consists chiefly in this, that to barbarian ferocity they have added a system of military discipline which gave them great advantage in fighting with warriors not so well trained to slaughter. The Zulus here, indeed, are what the Iroquois were among the Red Indians of America.

It is believed to be only a century ago that a powerful chief, who perhaps had learned something of European warfare, succeeded in turning the whole Zulu nation into a drilled army. Every man and boy was taught to look on fighting as the chief business of life, and, above all things, to be proud of facing danger and bearing hardship. No one was allowed to marry till he had slain an enemy, and as a sign of this honour might wear his hair twisted and waxed into hard curls. They were enrolled in regi-

ments, called *impis*, distinguished by badges of feathers and shields of different colours. These were brought to such a point of military obedience that every soldier had to obey any order of the king, if it cost him his life; and hundreds of men would sometimes be marched to death to gratify a whim of their tyrant.

Warriors who have learned to obey a chief so blindly without being afraid of their enemies are indeed formidable; and one king after another carried out the same system, till the Zulu army became a terror all over that part of Africa. The neighbouring tribes never could feel safe from their raids. A regiment of them would move to the attack not less stealthily than the beasts of prey, whose voices they imitated as signals to each other in the darkness. The first warning the devoted village had would be the war-cry of the dreaded Zulus as they leaped forward upon their victims. Taken by surprise, and surrounded, the poor people might be able neither to fight nor to fly; and one by one they would be butchered amid a horrid din, each slaughterer raising a fresh shriek of triumph as he tore out the heart of the dying foe, speared by his assegai. When the killing was over they would drive together the cattle, as well as the boys and girls whom they had made orphans, and with these trophies return to feast and dance over their victory. They had good reason to make themselves terrible, for if they came back beaten their own king would have them executed by his other soldiers.

When they had no one else to fight with, the Zulus sometimes fought among themselves, if only to keep their hands in at this favourite occupation. There were quarrels about chieftainship that led to their splitting up. Sometimes the leader commanding an unsuccessful

expedition would not dare to return home, expecting to be put to death for his failure; then his band might wander off to conquer a new home for themselves on the lands of some more peaceful tribes. In some such way it is supposed went off the branch of the Zulus, whom we

A Matabele Kraal. In the foreground a witch-doctor is seated.

have heard much of lately under the name of *Matabele*, now settled far from Zululand, but keeping up the same fierce customs.

When the Zulus had overcome most of their black neighbours they had to deal with the Dutch, then with the British, and did not always get the worst of it, even fighting against cannon and rifles. The war in which we destroyed the power of the Zulu King Cetewayo, is still

well remembered for sad misfortunes on our side. In the first battle our soldiers were defeated with great loss; but in the long run their discipline and their better arms prevailed over savage valour. Cetewayo's kingdom was broken up; and the Zulus are now under the authority of the British Empire. There are some hundreds of thousands of them, who might still prove a danger to the Colonies if they could find a leader and agree to act together; but for some years now they have given us little trouble, though more than once their kinsmen, the Matabele, have risen in our new settlements.

LXIII.—CAPE COLONY.

The *Cape of Good Hope* was so long the best-known part of the colony, that it gives its name to this whole country, twice the size of Great Britain and Ireland. Here stands the capital, *Cape Town*, not at the very point of Africa, as we might think from some maps, but on a bay, looking north, at the neck of this promontory. Behind rises *Table Mountain*, with its flat top nearly 4000 feet high, ending in a curious hill, known from its shape as the *Lion's Head*. In the summer months a cloud of white vapour, which people call the "Table Cloth", hangs over the mountain, rolling down in waves of bright mist to melt in the sunshine below. Farther round the bay stands up another picturesque peak, and between these is built Cape Town.

This is a handsome place, with broad straight streets, spacious flat-roofed houses, fine public buildings and parks. It has electric light and electric tramways, which make a striking contrast with old-fashioned Dutch houses.

Some of the suburbs are very beautiful, lying as they do among the tinted rocks and rich vegetation of the mountain slopes and glens. Nothing can be finer than the view over sea and land from the mountain itself, round which runs a grand carriage road, looking down on its steep sides.

The population is a very mixed one, showing all shades of colour from the fresh face of the English visitor to the black skin of the negro. The majority are English, or Dutch who have become almost English; but many other races are to be seen, and notably the gaily-dressed Malays from Asia, who live here in thousands, and with native half-castes form the greater part of the working class. Kafirs, Hottentots, Arabs, Turks, and Hindoos from India all go to make up a strange jumble of peoples, such as is often found in foreign seaports; but nowhere, perhaps, greater than at Cape Town, where the natives of four continents come to seek a livelihood, and miners from Australia, too, are sometimes seen on their way to the African gold-fields.

The chief faults strangers have to find with Cape Town are the bad smells and the dust. These are from time to time carried away by a violent south-east wind prevalent here. This wind is supposed to do so much good that the inhabitants nickname it the "Cape Doctor"; but while it lasts, the doctoring is done in a very disagreeable fashion, as Mr. R. M. Ballantyne describes in his *Six Months at the Cape*. "It rattles roofs and windows, and all but overturns steeples and chimneys; it well-nigh blows the shops inside out, and fills them with dust; it storms the barracks, and maltreats the soldiers; it compels the shutting up of sun umbrellas, or reverses and blows them to ribbons; it removes hats and bonnets by

the score, and sweeps up small pebbles in its mad career, so that one feels as if being painfully pelted with buck-shot; it causes the shipping to strain fearfully at its cables, and churns the waters of Table Bay into a seething mass of snow and indigo."

Table Bay is the harbour of Cape Town, behind which, on the eastern side of the promontory, is the larger *Simon's Bay*, which makes the station for ships of war. Going eastward for several hundred miles along the coast, which has a bad name for shipwrecks, we come to *Port Elizabeth*, the second port of the colony. A little farther east, standing high inland, is *Graham's Town*, a beautiful "City of Gardens", as it likes to call itself, which is the capital of the Eastern Province. Still farther east comes *King William's Town*, a place which would flourish more if the nearest harbour, East London, were a better one. Beyond this, the Cape is cut off from the neighbouring colony of Natal by native lands as yet little settled.

All over the seven provinces into which Cape Colony is divided are scattered towns and villages, not so large or so many as in England, but showing that this is no longer a wild country. The towns are usually joined to each other by good roads, often shaded by avenues of large trees. In the more out-of-the-way parts the roads become mere tracks, or the traveller must find his own way over the open country, fording rivers as best he can. Much of the "trekking", as such travelling is called, has still to be done by help of strongly-built "Cape wagons", dragged along through thick and thin by teams of twelve to twenty oxen or mules; and sometimes twice as many are needed to pull them out of a hole. These heavy vehicles with their great loads cut up the roads so much

"Boers Trekking".

that lighter vehicles can often get on better by leaving them altogether.

Railways are a great boon to the colony where they can be made. There are already three lines of rail, with several branches and junctions, starting from Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, and East London, for of course their chief use is to bring the productions of the country down to the coast. The principal line is that which from Cape Town runs north-eastwards to the gold and diamond mines beyond the Orange River, whence it has been pushed on to our new settlements in Rhodesia, and by a roundabout route through the Transvaal gives communication with Natal.

LXIV.—NATAL.

Higher up the east coast of Africa comes a separate colony, which got the name of *Natal* from its being discovered on Christmas day, 1497, the nativity or birthday of Christ. For more than three hundred years after that it remained little known to white men, but in this century it has been colonized and made a British possession, after some quarrelling with the Boers, who would have liked to keep it for themselves.

There was fighting with the fierce Zulus too, whose country this is. The colonists still remember the gallant exploit of "King's ride": how, when their new settlement was attacked by Zulu warriors, this brave man, in little over a week, rode 700 miles through wild hostile country to fetch help from Port Elizabeth, then their nearest neighbour.

Lying nearer the Equator, between the high Drakens-

berg Mountains and the sea, Natal has a moister and warmer climate than the Cape Colony, and is so rich in vegetation as to be called the "Garden of South Africa". Fine forests flourish here, such as are often wanting in African scenery. The country, like the Cape, rises in terraces, forming three levels that present great differences of climate. The low-lying coast lands are green with the palms, bamboos, and mangrove trees we see in India, and grow such tropical productions as coffee, sugar, arrowroot, rice, cotton, ginger, and pine-apples. Going inland we mount to a higher country, where the climate is temperate, and the crops are much like those of English farms. Higher still, under the mountains, corn grows only in the sheltered valleys, but the "up-country" plains make good grazing grounds for sheep and cattle. This colony is also rich in coal and other minerals, so that some day Natal seems likely to become a great country.

As yet the population is not more than half a million, most of whom are natives. These Zulus, though strong and handy fellows, do not take very kindly to peaceful work; and to help in cultivating the warmer parts, many thousand, of Hindoo *coolies*, that is, labourers, have been introduced from India, where they have long been more used to labour than to war. The land in India has too many people on it; in Natal there are not enough people for the land; and the Hindoos find themselves so well off here that they often do not care to go back to their own country.

The capital of the colony is *Pietermaritzburg*, founded by the old Dutch settlers, about fifty miles inland; but the most important town is *Durban* on the coast, which gets its name from a former governor of the colony. Durban, one of the prettiest places on the South African

shores, is built below high cliffs covered with trees, among which live innumerable monkeys. These cliffs are like a miniature picture of the whole country, for they rise by great steps to a vast stretch of grass land upon the top. The harbour below is inclosed by a long wooded point called the "Bluff", and inside of it are a group of tiny islands.

The worst of this coast is a want of good harbours. The Durban people are doing all they can to improve theirs; but in rough weather large vessels have still to anchor outside the bar, and the passengers are swung out in a basket, like a bale of goods, into the small steamer that comes to put them on shore. Then comes the difficulty of travelling into the interior, for the rivers are too rapid to be navigated, and it is not easy to make good roads in a country that slopes so steeply upwards. A railway joins Durban with Pietermaritzburg, and now it has been pushed on to the Transvaal gold-fields over the passes of the Drakensberg Mountains.

These mountains display magnificent scenery, the full beauties of which are hardly yet known. *Cathkin* or *Champagne Castle*, where the Orange River rises, is over 10,500 feet high; and another peak, *Mount Hamilton*, is said to be at least a thousand feet higher. The wide and deep falls of the river *Tugela* form a magnificent spectacle; and there are other grand waterfalls, peaks, passes, cliffs, and gorges, that some day will make this country as famous as the Alps of Europe or the Rocky Mountains of America. Those who have seen it declare there can be no finer sight than the view from the high mountains over the broad plains of the Orange and the Transvaal, into which they sink on the inland side.

LXV.—THE GOLD-FIELDS.

Of the *Orange Free State* little need be said, as, though it would make a good-sized European country, its chief town, *Bloemfontein*, contains only a few thousand people, the inhabitants of the state being a thinly-scattered race of farmers who ask nothing but to be left alone by strangers. But the *Transvaal*, a still larger country, has become much more talked of through unfortunate disputes between its old and its new settlers, and through the discovery of its rich gold-fields, which in a few years has more than doubled the population without making them better friends.

This country gets its name from the *Vaal* river, that forms its southern border, a tributary of the *Orange*. On the northern side the great *Limpopo* flows eastward to the Indian Ocean, receiving several smaller streams, the chief of them, the *Oliphant*, that is Elephant, River. To this land of rivers and pastures a number of Boers emigrated about sixty years ago, to live independent of England, since which its history has been a painful one of quarrels, misunderstandings, and errors on both sides. At one time it appeared that the people wished to come under British rule again; but when we took possession of the country, they revolted and defeated our troops in more than one fight, where they had the advantage through their knowledge of the country and their skill in rifle-shooting. It would not have been hard for England to send out an army that must have overcome them; but our government judged it more generous to own that a mistake had been made as to the Boers' feelings, and to let them keep their independence, a forbearance for which they have shown little gratitude.

The Boers are a slow, old-fashioned people, who have done little to develop the resources of their country, quite content to live on their farms as their fathers did, with plenty of game to shoot and plenty of natives to domineer over. But the gold discoveries have brought a more enterprising class into the country. These newcomers, called *Uitlanders* ("Outlanders") by the Dutch, are chiefly Englishmen and Americans, who, though they already outnumber the Boers, are not allowed any voice in the government of the country they do most to enrich. Such treatment is hard to bear for either English or Americans, and the result has been much ill-feeling, of which we cannot tell what may come. We have all heard of Dr. Jameson's raid into the Transvaal, undertaken to help the English settlers to upset the Boer Government; but this attempt, by its failure, only made matters worse.

Gold was first found in 1884 at a place men called *Barberton*, near the east side, where a railway runs inland, through the Portuguese territory, from Delagoa Bay. A town quickly sprang up there; but its growth was nothing to that of *Johannesburg* on the south side of the Transvaal, to which a year or so later came the great rush of gold searchers. Here, in a district called *Witwaters Rand*, or White Waters Range, were discovered forty or fifty miles of rich gold-bearing reefs, the fame of which brought from all over the world the same kind of adventurers as flocked to the diggings of *Ballarat* and *Coolgardie*. There are other gold-fields in the Transvaal, but it is too soon to say how far they may turn out as valuable as those of the Rand, where a great part of the Transvaal population is now concentrated.

If you look at a map of twenty years ago, you will see nothing of Johannesburg; but it is now far the

largest town in South Africa, with a population of over 100,000. New-comers are constantly arriving by the railways that connect it both with Cape Colony and with Natal. It is already almost like an English manufacturing town, not so smoky indeed, but with the same

A South African Gold-mine near Johannesburg.

show of shafts, engine-houses, tall chimneys, and handsome streets, where the main difference to English eyes is the use of corrugated iron for roofs and walls. This material, being more easily carried than stone, is common all over South Africa, ill off as it is for roads and timber. Several of the mines are in the town itself; others stretch out upon the hills around; and there is no saying to what Johannesburg may grow, if the gold does not become

exhausted by all the machinery now at work to crush it out of the quartz rocks and pebbles in which it has long lain hidden.

The capital of the Transvaal is about thirty miles north, at *Pretoria*, which has been called "prettiest of the South African towns, with its red and white houses, its tall clumps of trees, and pink lines of blooming rose hedges", lying in a plain among green hills. It is well laid out and has some fine buildings, but not nearly as many inhabitants as Johannesburg, at whose extraordinary progress the Boer Government seems by no means well pleased, fearing that the two peoples as well as the two rival towns may soon change places in importance. From Pretoria another railway runs eastward to *Delagoa Bay*, where Portuguese settlements cut off the Transvaal from the coast.

LXVI.—THE DIAMOND MINES.

Cape Colony has coal and copper mines within its boundaries, which were once intended to go no farther north than the Orange River. But when, about a generation ago, it was discovered that *Griqualand West* beyond the river contained diamonds, our Government made haste to seize such a valuable possession; and British authority had been extended still more to the north over what is called *Bechuanaland*. The Bechuanas, whose home this is, are a large and powerful nation; but they have given us far less trouble than the Zulus, because their king, Khama, was an enlightened chief, who saw the good of living in peace with his civilized neighbours, and learning what they had to teach him.

We might perhaps have left all this country beyond the Orange to the natives and the Boers, had it not been for the discovery of gold, and of diamonds, so much more precious than gold. These tiny sparkling crystals are nothing but a very pure form of carbon, known to us in its coarser forms as charcoal and coal. Being so rare and so much admired, they command such a high price that one of fine "water", as the term is, will be sold for many thousands of pounds. Diamonds are of all colours, yellow, green, blue, pink, brown, orange, and pure white, the last being the most valuable. Hitherto they were found chiefly in the East and in Brazil; but within the last few years whole tons of them have been exported from South Africa.

The story goes that the first discovery of South African diamonds was made in 1867, through some children quarrelling over a pretty stone they had picked up by the river, which turned out to be worth hundreds of pounds. Then a Hottentot brought another to the settlements, which at first no one would buy; but a Boer, who at last bought it for £400, sold it again for £12,000; and it is now judged to be worth twice as much. After that people began to believe in the gems waiting to be picked up across the Orange River; and there was a rush into Griqualand West, where soon thousands settled down like a swarm of bees at a place that came to be called *Kimberley*, high up on a dreary, dusty, shadeless plain, where few would choose to live but for the hope of gain. The chief diamond mines being at or near Kimberley, in a quarter of a century it has become an important town connected by a railway with Cape Town, 650 miles away.

The diamonds are found in "pipes" of blue ground

running deep into the earth, which appear to have been the chimneys of a volcano choked up by eruptions. Such gems as had got washed among the pebbles by the streams, or otherwise brought to the surface, were soon picked up among so many searchers. Now they must be got out of deep mines, by the help of machinery and much labour. The great mine in the middle of Kimberley seems one of the biggest holes ever dug by men, large enough to bury an English village 400 feet below the ground; and there is one even larger in the neighbourhood.

When the miners could dig no more in the open air, they sunk shafts downwards, from which galleries are pushed sideways underground, as in a coal-mine. In these galleries, lit by electric light, the blue earth containing the diamonds is cut out and brought up in trucks. After being exposed to the air for some months to make it dry and powdery, this precious earth is put under running water that washes away all but the hard part, where the diamonds are still concealed among pebbles and rubbish, settling down like dregs of a coffee cup. Other machinery is used to separate this stuff, and at last the diamonds are sifted out and cleaned, after lying useless under the earth for more years than one can count.

When property at once so valuable and so easily concealed is being handled, most elaborate precautions must be taken against stealing. The natives, who do most of the work, are kept shut up in an enclosure surrounded by a high wall. On coming out of the mines they have to strip naked and hang up their clothes, which are carefully searched, as are their bodies, hair, mouths, toes, and all, every place where might be concealed a speck of crystal worth to them a small fortune. Then they are turned

into their enclosure, where they find blankets instead of their clothes, given back to them only when they return to work in the morning. This treatment seems rather hard on the poor fellows who toil so patiently and good-humouredly, and often lose their lives to enrich white men; but they submit to it for the sake of wages with which, after a few months, they are able to go home rich, according to their own ideas.

LXVII.—RHODESIA.

British South Africa now includes a million of square miles, reaching up through the centre of the continent to the great lakes south of the Equator, where on the coast and at the sources of the Nile there are other British settlements, not to speak of the island of *Zanzibar*, which is under our protection. The southern part of that central division is British Bechuanaland, on the frontiers of Cape Colony. Northwards the country till lately had hardly a general name, though it was sometimes spoken of as *Zambesia*, from the *Zambesi*, its chief river. It had hitherto been known only to adventurous hunters, traders, and explorers, and to fearless missionaries, like Moffat and Livingstone, who have been the pioneers in African discovery. Within the last few years gold-finding has brought many white men into the territory north of the Transvaal, lands which are at present administered by the Chartered Company under the name of *Rhodesia*.

Long ago, indeed, gold must have been sought here, for the country is covered with abandoned shafts and other signs of mining. Among the rocky hills rise

stranger ruins, that seem the work of very different people from their present inhabitants; but who this old gold-digging people were is as yet a mystery. At one place two rusty cannons were found that pointed to the presence of a civilized nation, perhaps the Portuguese; at another place a Roman coin has been picked up. Some think that here must have been the land of Ophir, from which Solomon drew his riches, or the realm of the Queen of Sheba. But, however well visited this country once may have been, it was deserted and almost forgotten when the explorers of our time brought news of its gold.

The country was then occupied by two native tribes, the Mashonas and the Matabele, who cared little about gold. The iron also found here was of more use to them, especially to the fierce Matabele warriors, though the Mashonas had greater skill to work it. The former, a branch of the Zulu nation, kept their quieter neighbours in terror, as may be seen by the way in which the bee-hive huts of the Mashonas are built upon the rocky hills so common here, to be out of reach of sudden attack. The first white settlers had to defend themselves against thousands of Matabele warriors under their chief Lobengula. A well-fought war settled who was to be master, and Lobengula's capital, *Buluwayo,* became an English town, where young fellows play football on the field not long ago given up to savage war-dances.

After their defeat and the death of their leader, the Matabele again rose against us, provoked because some of their cattle had to be slaughtered to prevent the infection of cattle plague. For several weeks the capital of the new state, *Salisbury,* was surrounded by the enemy; but in the end we once more made them lay

down their arms; and they now seem to be learning to work for themselves and for us.

The country thus subdued is for the most part a table-land, standing as high as the highest point of England, rough with granite hills, ravines, and the great veins or reefs of quartz, in which gold is found. In the valleys there are wood and water; and sometimes travellers declare that they would think themselves in a rugged part of England, but for the roar of a lion which now and then comes prowling through the brushwood or long grass. The heat on the high ground is so tempered as to be healthy for Englishmen; at night it is even sharply cold in June and July, the warmer and rainy season there being our winter.

It is too soon to say what will become of Rhodesia, where the towns as yet are little better than forts or miners' camps. But if it prove as rich in gold as is believed, besides being healthy and good for farming, it is sure before long to be overrun by white settlers, and some of us may live to see it a prosperous country, though at present it has not got the length of being marked on most maps. Already the railway from the Cape has been carried on as far as Buluwayo; and another line will give communication with the east coast through Portuguese territory. The telegraph wires go all the way from London to Salisbury, where only the other day we were fighting with savages; but our farthest settlements are fast being pushed farther north, already reaching over 1700 miles from the Cape.

Railways are very important to such a country. Think of the difficulty of dragging stores, building materials, and mining machinery over hundreds of miles of broken ground, up hills, over steep gullies, and across unbridged

rivers, as must now be done on heavy wagons, drawn by slow oxen or obstinate mules. In some parts a "fly-belt", that is, a wide strip of land infested by the tsetse-fly, whose bite is fatal to horses and cattle, makes transport across it impossible except on men's backs. So it is plain why Rhodesia wants railways before it has got cities. Some of the hopeful men who founded this state look forward to the day when a railway will run right through Africa, scaring from their haunts lions, giraffes, and rhinoceroses, amazing Kaffirs, negroes, and Arabs by turn, as it carries travellers safe and sound from the Cape of Good Hope to the mouths of the Nile. Then, if by that time a line has been made all along the north-east of Africa, there will be nothing to prevent our travelling to the Cape by land, except for the short crossing of the Straits of Dover and Gibraltar.

LXVIII.—THE WEST INDIES.

The *West Indian Islands* form a long chain of stepping-stones, as it were, stretching across the mouth of the gulf which on the east side opens between North and South America. They are sometimes called the *Antilles*, a Spanish name, signifying that they lie *opposite* the American coast. The name under which they are best known came from the mistake made by their original discoverer, Columbus, who was here searching out a road to India, and fancied that the first land he reached must be its western side. Thus also the American natives got the name of Red Indians.

The first Spanish settlers in these islands behaved very cruelly to their original inhabitants, and killed almost

all of them off in a short time, though they had received the strangers with friendliness. Other white men who sought to make their fortunes here were less cruel, but not less lazy and greedy than the Spaniards. To work for them in the hot sun of this climate, they brought negro slaves from Africa, whose descendants now make up a great part of the population.

By and by it began to be felt, first of all in England, that it was wrong to treat the most barbarous of our fellow-creatures like beasts, tearing them from their native soil and families and driving them to toil under the lash for the profit of their masters. The shameful slave-trade was first put down; then slavery was abolished wherever the British flag flies, an example since imitated by all civilized nations. But when the negroes were no longer obliged to work, they showed themselves as much disposed for idleness as their masters; and the West Indian Islands have not flourished in freedom, especially since sugar, one of their chief products, has come to be largely made in Europe.

West Indian sugar is the juice of a thick cane with long leaves and large soft blossoms, growing high above a man's head. When the canes have been cut down, they are squeezed between rollers to press the juice out of them, which is then boiled till part of it turns into coarse brown grains, that can be refined into the hard white lumps we know. Part remains a sticky soft stuff called *molasses*, out of which rum is distilled, or it is clarified to make treacle and syrup. But the same sweet juice can be got out of beet root and other vegetables that grow nearer home, so that we are no longer dependent on the tropics for sugar.

Hayti or *St. Domingo*, one of the largest of the West

Indian Islands, became independent through a rebellion of the negroes against their French masters. France has still some possessions there; so have Spain, Sweden, Denmark and Holland; but the greater number of the islands are under British government.

The largest of these is *Jamaica*, which lies by itself to the south of *Cuba*, the largest of all. Small as it may look on the map, Jamaica is nearly 150 miles long, but has a population of only about half a million, no more than that of some of our English cities. The name Jamaica, meaning "Land of wood and water", well describes it. The greater part of the island is taken up by the range of *Blue Mountains*, rising to 7000 feet, and sending down to the sea many rapid mountain streams. This broken surface makes beautiful scenery, but it is not very fit for farming.

The climate of Jamaica, too, is against it. High up in the mountains, indeed, fresh cool air can be enjoyed, but on the sea-coast the climate is hot and unhealthy for white men, liable here to attacks of yellow fever, one of the most terrible of tropical diseases. In parts the soil is very fertile, but that proves no blessing to the lazy negroes, who with little trouble can grow enough to feed themselves, and do not much care to be any better off.

Coffee, cocoa, and several kinds of spices are among the chief productions of this as of other West Indian Islands. There is plenty of fine timber, also, in Jamaica, but a want of good roads to bring it down from the heights where it grows. Plantains, bananas, yams, sweet-potatoes, and other fruits and vegetables such as we saw flourishing in the South Sea Islands, are not less abundant in the West Indies.

Kingston is the capital of Jamaica, a town of 35,000

From a photograph by Valentine & Sons, Dundee.

Kingston (West-end), Jamaica.

people, beautifully situated above the fine bay of *Port Royal* on the south side. There are several other good harbours about the island where ships can ride safe from the storms that often rage here; but the sailors hardly dare bathe in the bright-blue water, swarming with cruel sharks as it is. On land, however, there are no wild beasts bigger and more mischievous than monkeys.

LXIX.—SMALLER WEST INDIAN ISLANDS.

Next in size to Jamaica is *Trinidad*, which lies at the end of the chain, near the mouth of the *Orinoco*, off the coast of South America. Its capital is called *Port of Spain*, showing how this, like the adjacent mainland, was originally a Spanish possession. Trinidad is notable for volcanic eruptions, not of lava and sulphur as usual, but of mud and pitch. Especially famous is its "Pitch Lake", which makes so strange a sight among the luxuriant vegetation around it.

Lake, indeed, seems hardly the right name for this great patch of half-melted asphalt, such as is used to pave our streets. It is about two miles in circumference. Over some parts of it people can pick their way by taking care; but in the middle the pitch bubbles and boils in a liquid state. "Out of the black sea rise little green oases covered with flowering shrubs, and occasionally lines of grass streak the surface. Here and there a massive tree trunk, or tapering pole, protrudes through the pitch, like the hull and masts of some wrecked vessel sinking gradually out of sight."

Stretching northwards from Trinidad, the *Windward Islands* lie in a crescent-shaped group, many of them

British. *Grenada, Barbadoes, St. Vincent, Tobago, St. Lucia,* are the principal of these; but it would take a whole page or more only to go over the names of our West Indian Islands, not to mention hundreds too small to have a name.

The *Leeward Islands* come next, of which the same thing may be said. Many of them are of volcanic origin; and their rich vegetation and mountainous form makes them all beautiful. *Antigua* is perhaps the most important. *St. Christopher,* commonly called *St. Kitts,* is named after Christopher Columbus. *St. Salvador,* one of the Bahamas group, was the first piece of America discovered by him.

The *Bahamas* are coral islands, lying nearer to North America. There are about twenty of them inhabited, besides some 3000 rocks and reefs, very dangerous to ships that get among them in rough weather. The capital is *Nassau,* on *Providence Island.* The chief productions of the Bahamas are pine-apples and sponges, the latter growing among the coral rocks, which, seen under a sea clear as crystal, seem like gardens of brilliant flowers. The corals, the sponges, the fish, the shells, are all coloured with wonderful tints, making a submarine fairyland, as rich in loveliness as the sunlit shores.

"If you can picture to yourself," says Lady Brassey, "the most beautiful of corals, madrepores, echini, seaweeds, sea-anemones, sea-lilies, and other fascinating marine objects, growing and flourishing under the sea, with fish darting about among them, like the most gorgeous birds and butterflies conceivable, all in the clearest water, which does not impede the vision in the least, and resting on a bottom of the smoothest white

coral sand; if you still further imagine a magnificent blue sky overhead, and a bright sun shining out of it; even then you will have but a very faint idea of the marvellous beauty of the wonders of the sea on a coral-bank in the Bahamas."

But the sponges soon grow dull and dead when pulled out of their native element by hooked poles, or by the divers that go down to loosen them from the rocks to which they cling. In the sea they are alive, being really a mass of animal existence. But as we know them they are only the dried skeleton of an organism which looks more like a plant than an animal.

LXX.—THE BERMUDAS, &c.

The *Bermudas* are a small group lying out in the Atlantic, far north of the Bahamas, and 600 miles from the coast of the United States. They were one of the earliest of our colonies, having been made known by an English sailor named Somers, shipwrecked here three hundred years ago, after whom they are sometimes called the Somers Islands.

These islands have a bad name with sailors, as they are often visited by storms and hurricanes. Even in fine weather it is not easy to steer through the winding channels that separate them, and among the lovely coral reefs, where ugly wrecks will be seen sticking up here and there as beacons of danger. The five chief islands lie so near as to be joined by bridges and ferries. There are about 300 of them in all, the largest called the *Great Bermuda*, on which is *Hamilton*, the capital.

When the wind does not blow too hard the Bermudas

have a delightful climate, in which early fruit and vegetables are grown for American markets. Beautiful birds flit about the trees; and the water swarms with still more gaily-coloured fish. The houses are largely built of white coral, so that the Bermudas look very bright under the warm sunshine, which brings many Americans here to escape their own hard winter. The harbour is an important station for British war-ships.

Besides islands, in this part of the world Britain has some possessions on the American mainland. South of Trinidad there is a country called *British Guiana*, twice as large as Ireland, with *Georgetown*, or *Demerara*, as its capital, which belongs to us. Then, in the Gulf of Mexico, in the neck of land known as Central America, we have *British Honduras*, known also as *Belize*, the name of its capital, from which comes logwood and the mahogany that makes such fine furniture. Both of these colonies have trying climates, and are cultivated only in strips by the sea-shore or on the river banks, the interior being taken up by tropical forests.

But here must end a list of our chief colonies, which might have been spun out to far greater length. They are to be numbered by hundreds in all, if we count every island. Scattered over the face of the earth, they are calculated to cover one-fifth of the world, and to be sixty or seventy times the size of Great Britain herself, whose bravery and enterprise has won such wide dominion, that on the British Empire, it is truly said, the sun never sets.

SYNOPSIS OF GEOGRAPHY

OF

THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

The British Empire includes lands in every quarter of the globe. It forms nearly one-fifth of the land surface of the earth, and is inhabited by about one-fourth of the whole population of the world.

Those possessions in which people from Britain have settled are called **Colonies**; those in which the British rule, but do not settle, are called **Dependencies**.

Our possessions are of three kinds:—

1. Those suitable as homes for emigrants.
2. Places for trading.
3. Those which are useful in times of war, or as coaling stations.

POSSESSIONS IN ASIA.

(I.) India, with Burmah; (II.) Ceylon; (III.) Straits Settlements; (IV.) Labuan, North Borneo, Hong Kong; (V.) Aden, Perim, and Cyprus.

I. INDIA.

BOUNDARIES.

North—Himalaya Mountains.
East—China, Anam, Siam.
South—Indian Ocean.
West—Arabian Sea, Hala Mountains, Suliman Mountains.

SIZE AND AREA.

Length, 1900 miles.
Breadth, about the same.
Coast-line, 4000 miles.
Area, 1,700,000 square miles.

THE COAST-LINE.

Capes.

Cape Negrais.....On coast of Burmah.
Cape Comorin.....Most southerly point of India.

Openings.

Bay of Bengal.....Including Gulf of Martaban on East.
Palk Strait..... } Between India and
Gulf of Manaar.... } Ceylon.
Arabian Sea..... }
Gulf of Cambay... } On the West.
Gulf of Cutch..... }

ISLANDS.

Ceylon.....S. of India.
Area, 25,000 sq. miles.
Andaman Islands.. } In Bay of Bengal.
Nicobar ,, .. }
Maldive Islands.... } Off the S.W. coast.
Laccadive ,, ... }

MOUNTAINS.

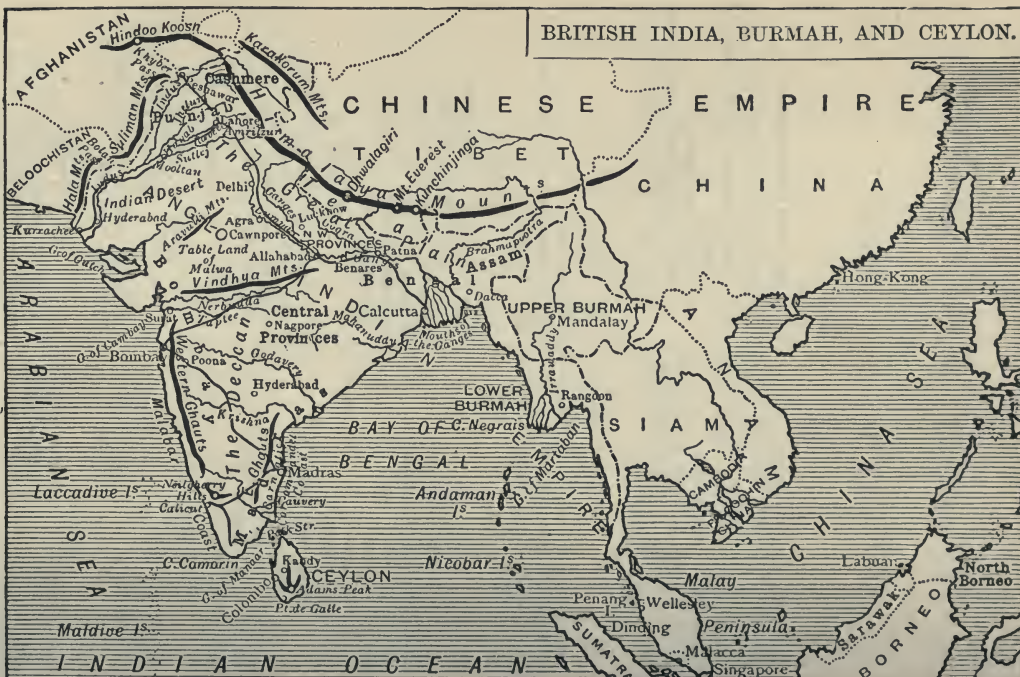
HIMALAYA MOUNTAINS—between India and Tibet. They form a range 1500 miles long, with an average width of 150 miles, and contain the highest peaks in the world.

Chief Heights....
- **Mount Everest**, the highest mountain in the world, is 29,000 feet high.
- **Kunchinjinga**, 28,176 feet.
- **Godwin Austen**, 28,250 feet.

SULIMAN MOUNTAINS } Forming the
HALA MOUNTAINS } N.W. frontier.

Chief Passes....
- Khyber.
- Bolan.

ARAVULLI MOUNTAINS—in N.W.
VINDHYA MOUNTAINS—forming northern boundary of Deccan.


BRITISH INDIA, BURMAH, AND CEYLON.
AFGHANISTAN
Hindoo Koosh
Khyber Pass
Karakorum Mts.
Cashmere
Peshawar
Suliman Mts.
Indus
Punjab
Lahore
Amritzur
BELOOCHISTAN
Bolan Pass
Hala Mts.
Sutlej
Mooltan
Indian Desert
Delhi
Hyderabad
Kurrachee
G. of Cutch
Agra
Cawnpore
Aravulli Mts.
Table Land of Malwa
Allahabad
Vindhya Mts.
Lucknow
N. W. PROVINCES
Patna
Benares
Ganges
Dhwalagiri
Mt. Everest
Kunchinjinga
Himalaya Mountains
The Great Plain
Brahmapootra
Assam
Bengal
Dacca
Calcutta
Mouths of the Ganges
Mahanuddy
Central Provinces
Nagpore
Nerbudda
Taptee
Surat
G. of Cambay
Bombay
Poona
Godavery
Hyderabad
The Deccan
Western Ghauts
Krishna
Eastern Ghauts
Malabar
Madras
Cauvery
Neilgherry Hills
Calicut
Coast
Palk Str.
C. Camorin
G. of Manaar
Kandy
CEYLON
Adams Peak
Colombo
Pt. de Galle
Laccadive Is.
Maldive Is.
ARABIAN SEA
INDIAN OCEAN
BAY OF BENGAL
C. Negrais
LOWER BURMAH
UPPER BURMAH
Mandalay
Irrawaddy
Rangoon
G. of Martaban
Andaman Is.
Nicobar Is.
CHINESE EMPIRE
TIBET
CHINA
Hong-Kong
ANAM
SIAM
CAMBODIA
CHINA SEA
Malay Peninsula
Penang I.
Wellesley
Dinding
Malacca
Singapore
SUMATRA
Labuan
North Borneo
Sarawak
BORNEO

Mountains—*Continued.*

WESTERN GHAUTS — forming western boundary of Deccan.

EASTERN GHAUTS — forming eastern boundary of Deccan.

NEILGHERRIES — in South, famous for pleasant climate.

PLAINS AND PLATEAUX.

Terai, at foot of Himalaya Mountains.

Great Plain, stretching across the whole of Northern India, including the *Indian Desert,* and also the basins of the *Ganges* and the *Indus.*

Malabar Coast, between W. Ghauts and Arabian Sea.

Carnatic or **Coromandel Coast,** between E. Ghauts and B. of Bengal.

The Deccan, a table-land occupying the triangular part of Southern India.

Table-land of Malwa, between Vindhya Mountains and the Aravulli Mountains.

RIVERS.

Flowing into the BAY OF BENGAL:

Irrawaddy, Brahmapootra, Ganges, Mahanuddy, Godavery, Krishna, Cauvery.

Flowing into the ARABIAN SEA:

Taptee, Nerbudda, Indus.

THE CHIEF RIVERS.

Ganges. — The most important river of India. Rises in Himalayas; navigable from Hurdwar. Length, 1500 miles. It is the sacred river of the Hindoos. Delta formed at mouth, called the Sunderbunds.

Chief Tributaries.... { Jumna. Gogra. Goomtee.

Indus, rises in Himalayas. Length, 1800 miles. Navigable below Attock, 950 miles from sea.

Tributaries..... { Jhelum. Chenab. Ravee. Bias. Sutlej.

The tributaries give the name of **Punjab** (that is, "five rivers") to the district through which they flow.

CLIMATE.

Owing to its great size and various altitudes, India has many climates, more or less tropical. Plains in summer, sultry and unhealthy; Deccan and slopes of Himalayas more temperate.

Rainy season, from June to October; S.W. monsoon.

Cool season, from October to March.

Hot season, from March to June.

EMPLOYMENTS.

People chiefly engaged in agriculture. Eighty per cent of population directly or indirectly connected with land. Manufactures of shawls and textile fabrics carried on, though the industries are not so flourishing as formerly.

AGRICULTURE.

Chief Crops—Rice, wheat, cotton, jute, opium, tea, sugar-cane, coffee, indigo, pepper.

MANUFACTURES.

Shawls at Lahore, Amritzur, and in Cashmere.

Cotton at Calcutta, Allahabad, and Bombay; **Opium** at Patna.

Muslin at Dacca; **Cotton** and **Silk** at Benares.

Ivory goods and other ornaments at Madras and Surat.

DOMESTIC TRADE.

Steamers ply on the Ganges, Brahmapootra, Irrawaddy, and Indus. Sea-going ships ascend the Hooghly to Calcutta. The dangerous delta of the Indus is avoided by means of a railway, which brings goods from Kurrachee, at the mouth of the river, to Kotri.

The **Roads** are numerous and well kept. The most important are found between the larger towns, as from Bombay to Delhi and Calcutta. Railways and canals greatly facilitate traffic. Oxen and buffaloes are commonly yoked in carts. Camels are used in the Indus and Punjab districts.

FOREIGN TRADE.

The foreign trade, especially that with Britain, is of very great importance. The Suez Canal is a great highway of Indian trade. It is chiefly in the hands of the British.

Employments—*Continued.*

IMPORTS.

Cotton, woollen, and metal manufactured goods, materials for railways, tin, copper, glass, fancy articles of all kinds, spices, oil, and coal.

EXPORTS.

Raw cotton, jute, sugar, coffee, tea, rice, wheat, opium, wood, sago, indigo, hides and skins, ivory, silk, carpets, and shawls.

TRADING PORTS.

Bombay, the leading commercial town. Chief articles of export: cotton, opium, wheat, seeds.

Calcutta, the capital of India, exports opium, rice, tea; and imports vast quantities of cotton goods.

Madras does an extensive commerce in teak, indigo, cereals, and sugar.

Kurrachee, at the mouth of the Indus, trades with countries on Persian and Arabian Gulfs, and with the East-Coast of Africa. Has large exports of wheat.

Rangoon, in Lower Burmah, carries on trade with Europe, China, and Australia, and exports rice, teak, sugar, and cotton.

RAILWAYS.

The first Indian railway was begun in 1853; now there are 20,390 miles of railway in use, and 4000 under construction.

The chief lines are:

1. **From Calcutta to Allahabad and Bombay.**
2. **From Allahabad to Lahore and Peshawar.** This is chiefly for military purposes.
3. **From Lahore to Mooltan and Kurrachee.**
4. **From Bombay to Madras.**
5. **From Madras to Callcut.**

161 million passengers, and 32½ million tons of goods were conveyed by Indian railways in 1897.

NATURAL PRODUCTIONS.

Vegetable—Teak, banyan, bamboo, mango, palms.

Animal—Tiger, elephant, boar, monkey, crocodile, snakes of many kinds.

Mineral—Coal, iron, gold, diamond, salt, nitre.

GOVERNMENT.

The **Empress** is represented by the **Viceroy**, who is under the direction of the Secretary of State for India at home. Some of the provinces have a **Governor**, others a **Lieutenant-governor** or a **Chief-commissioner.**

POPULATION.

310 millions. Four-fifths of them are under British rule. The natives are of various races, Hindoos, Parsees, Sikhs, and others.

PROVINCES AND CHIEF TOWNS.

Bengal—*Calcutta* on the Hooghly, the capital. *Patna* trades in rice and opium.
North-west Provinces—*Allahabad, Benares, Cawnpore, Lucknow.*
Punjab—*Lahore, Delhi, Peshawar.*
Central Provinces—*Nagpore.*
Burmah—*Rangoon, Mandalay.*
Assam.—*Shillong, Sylhet.*
Madras—*Madras.*
Bombay—*Bombay, Poona, Surat.*

II. CEYLON.

A pear-shaped island to the S. of India. Acquired in 1815. Tropical climate; heat tempered by sea breezes. Soil fertile; vegetation most luxuriant.

Population, 3,300,000.

SURFACE.

Mountainous in centre. Chief heights—Pidurutallagalla, Adam's Peak.

PRODUCTIONS.

Tea, coffee, cinnamon, cocoa-nuts, plumbago or black-lead, precious stones.

GOVERNMENT.

Ceylon has a governor, an executive, and also a legislative council of its own.

CHIEF TOWNS.

Colombo, the capital and chief seaport. *Kandy*, in the interior. *Galle*, on S. coast, a coaling station.

III. STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

PENANG, MALACCA, AND SINGAPORE.

SINGAPORE is the chief. It is a town on a small island of the same name at the south of Malay Peninsula. Population 200,000, chiefly Chinese, Malays, and Indians.

It is valuable as a calling place for ships, as a depot for British goods, and as a centre for the extensive telegraph system of the East.

IMPORTS.

Textile fabrics and metal goods.

EXPORTS.

Pepper, sago, spices, hides, and gum.

IV. LABUAN, NORTH BORNEO, HONG KONG.

LABUAN, an island of 30 square miles, off N.E. of Borneo. It produces some coal of great importance for steam-ships in these waters.

NORTH BORNEO—British Protectorate declared over this region in 1888. Area, about 70,000 square miles. Population 500,000. The chief productions are timber, sago, rice, pepper.

HONG KONG, an island off S. coast of China, is valuable as an emporium for British goods. An extensive trade is carried on. The popluation is about 250,000.

Capital, *Victoria*, strongly fortified.

V. ADEN, PERIM, CYPRUS.

ADEN, at the S. of Arabia, is a highly important point, since, with the small island of **PERIM,** it commands the entrance to the Red Sea. It is also an important coffee market, and a coaling station for vessels bound to and from India.

CYPRUS, an island in the eastern part of the Mediterranean Sea, was ceded to England by Turkey in 1878. The value of it consists in the fact that it commands the Suez Canal, and part of Syria. It produces wine, cotton, raisins, &c.

POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA.

SOUTH AFRICAN:—

(I.) Cape Colony; (II.) Natal; (III.) Basutoland; (IV.) Bechuanaland Protectorate; (V.) Rhodesia; (VI.) Central African Protectorate.

EAST AFRICAN:—

(I.) Zanzibar Protectorate; (II.) East Africa Protectorate; (III.) Uganda Protectorate; (IV.) Somaliland; (V.) Sokotra.

WEST AFRICAN:—

(I.) Gambia; (II.) Sierra Leone; (III.) Gold Coast; (IV.) Lagos; (V.) Niger Coast Protectorate; (VI.) Nigeria; (VII.) Walfisch Bay.

INSULAR:—

(I.) Ascension; (II.) St. Helena; (III.) Tristan D'Acunha; (IV.) Mauritius, with Seychelles and Amirante Islands, &c.

I. CAPE COLONY.

BOUNDARIES.

North—The German Protectorate, the Bechuanaland Protectorate, the Transvaal, the Orange Free State, Basutoland, and Natal.
East—Indian Ocean.
South— ,, ,,
West—Atlantic Ocean.

Area, 277,000 square miles.

Population (white), 400,000; (coloured), 1,600,000.

COAST-LINE.

Capes.

Cape of Good Hope....On S.W.
Cape Agulhas.....The most southerly point of Africa.

Openings.

St. Helena Bay.....
Table Bay..... } On the West.
False Bay.....
Algoa Bay..... } On the South.

MOUNTAINS.

The mountains run in ranges parallel to the coast. The chief are:

ZWARTE BERGEN (Black Mountains), south of Great Karroo.

NIEUWVELD and SNEEUW BERGEN (Snowy Mountains), north of Great Karroo. **Compass Mountain**, in the latter range, is the highest mountain in Cape Colony proper.

DRAKENBERG MOUNTAINS, parallel to E. coast. The highest summit is Mont aux Sources, 11,150 ft. high.

PLAINS AND PLATEAUX.

The surface rises from the sea in a series of terraces. The low-lying coast lands are fertile and well cultivated. Beyond these is an extensive table-land, called the **Great Karroo**, barren, destitute of trees, and badly watered. During the rainy season it becomes covered with luxuriant grass, and affords pasturage for enormous herds of sheep and cattle.

RIVERS.

Orange River, Olifants River (Elephant's River).

Great Fish River, Great Kei River.

The rivers are useless for navigation, as they are very shallow in summer; besides which, bars or sand-banks choke the mouths.

EMPLOYMENTS.

The people are chiefly engaged in rearing live stock or in mining.

CATTLE-REARING.

The chief branch of this industry is sheep-farming. The colony contains about 14 million sheep. The wool exported to the United Kingdom in 1896 was valued at £2,333,310. Horned cattle, horses, and goats are reared in hundreds of thousands. Ostrich farming is flourishing.

MINING.

The chief minerals worked in the colony are copper in Little Namaqualand, coal in the neighbourhood of Newcastle, and gold. The diamond fields of Griqualand West have been most productive. The value of the diamonds exported to the United Kingdom in 1896 was over 4½ millions sterling.

FARMING.

The excessive dryness renders agriculture impossible except at scattered spots. Still, thousands of square miles might be reclaimed by irrigation, for the soil is fertile. In the S.W. the vine is cultivated with success.

MANUFACTURES.

These are entirely confined to the longest-settled parts of the colony, where all the European crafts are represented.

TRADING.

Domestic Trade.

The inland trade extends far into the interior of Africa; for all the neighbouring states are dependent for their supplies on the British.

The chief railways are (1) from Cape Town to Kimberley, and (2) from Port Elizabeth to Kimberley. The railways are mostly the property of the government. In 1897 about 2500 miles were worked—2314 by the government, and 181 privately. The line to Kimberley has been continued north to Buluwayo in Rhodesia.

Foreign Trade.

This is much more important than the domestic trade. The importance of the colony is based on its position as a natural calling-place for vessels bound for India, and its seaports serving as gateways for great part of the commerce of the interior of the continent.

EXPORTS.

Wool, ostrich feathers, mohair, hides, diamonds, copper, gold.

IMPORTS.

Metal goods, clothing, leather, machinery, coffee, tea, tobacco, grain, manufactured goods.

TRADING PORTS.

Cape Town, the capital of the colony, on Table Bay.

Port Elizabeth, on Algoa Bay.

CLIMATE.

Dry, temperate, and healthy. Especially suited for people suffering from consumption. The seasons are the reverse of our own.

WILD ANIMALS.

Large wild animals, such as the lion and elephant, have gradually retired into the interior. Numerous antelopes, jackals, and quaggas are still to be met with; but the ostrich is rarely seen in a wild state.

GOVERNMENT.

There is a Parliament consisting of an Upper House with 23 members elected for seven years, and a Lower House with 79 members elected every five years. The head of the executive is the governor, appointed by the crown.

PROVINCES.

Cape Colony is divided into nine electoral provinces, as follows:—

1. **Western Province**—*Cape Town* (83,718 inhabitants) is the capital, and seat of the governor.


Lake Tanganyika
GERMAN EAST
Lake Leopold
AFRICA
CONGO
STATE
(Belgian)
L. Mweru
Lualaba R.
Kasai R.
L. Bangweolo
BRIT. C. AFRICA (Prot.)
Lake Nyassa
ANGOLA (Portuguese)
R. Zambezi
BRITISH CENTRAL AFRICA
BAROTSE COUNTRY
RHODESIA
R. Zambezi
L. Shirwa
Zomba
Blantyre
Tete
AFRICA
R. Kuando
MASHONALAND
Salisbury
Quilimane
Victoria Falls
Chobe Swamp
Charter
Umtali
Gwelo
Beira
Tonga R.
R. Zuga
Makarikari
Inuati
MATABELE LAND
Buluwayo
Sofala
GERMAN
L. Ngami
DAMARALAND
Tati
KHAMA'S COUNTRY
Tuli
Macloutsi
GAZA LAND
PORTUGUESE EAST
SOUTH
Palapye
R. Limpopo
BECHUANALAND
(Protectorate)
TRANSVAAL
WEST
Molopolole
Lourenço Marques
Delagoa B.
GREAT NAMAQUA
Mafeking
Witwaters Rand
Pretoria
AFRICA
R. Molopo
Johannesburg
Vryburg
Tonga Land
LAND
Bechuanaland
Kuruman
(To Cape Colony)
Vaal R.
ORANGE FREE STATE
Zulu Land
Ulundi
Orange R.
Kimberley
Bloemfontein
Maseru
Pietermaritzburg
Durban
Port Natal
Port Nolloth
BASUTOLAND
NATAL
CAPE COLONY
Pondo Land
INDIAN OCEAN
Olifants R.
St. Helena B.
C. St. Martin
Cradock
Gt. Kei R.
East London
Graaf Reinet
Great Karroo
Zwarte Bergen
Kei R.
King Williams Town
Worcester
Grahamstown
Gt. Fish R.
Algoa Bay
Port Elizabeth
Table B.
Cape Town
C. of Good Hope
False B.
C. Aguilhas
R. Beaufort
British Possessions in SOUTH AFRICA.
English Miles
0 100 200 300

Provinces—*Continued.*

2. North-Western (including Namaqualand).
3. South-Western—*Port Beaufort.*
4. Midland (including the Great Karroo)—*Graaff Reynet.*
5. South-Eastern { *Port Elizabeth* (23,000). *Grahamstown* (10,000).
6. North-Eastern—*Cradock.*
7. Eastern—*King William's Town.*
8. Griqualand West—*Kimberley* (28,000).
9. British Bechuanaland.

II. NATAL.

BOUNDARIES.

North—By the Transvaal and the Portuguese Territories.
West—Drakenberg and Lobombo Mountains.
South—Transkei Territory.
East—Indian Ocean.

SURFACE.

The land rises by terraces from the sea to the Drakenberg Mountains. The soil is fertile and well watered. The area of the colony is about 35,000 square miles, including Zululand and Amatongaland, united with it in 1897.

Climate, healthy and agreeable.

Population, about 750,000.

EXPORTS.

Gold, wool, hides, coal, sugar, &c.

IMPORTS.

Iron goods and machinery, woollens and cottons, wearing apparel and food-stuffs.

GOVERNMENT.

There is a Legislative Council of 11 members, appointed by the governor with the advice of his ministers. The members hold their seats for ten years. The Legislative Assembly consists of 37 members, chosen by the electors for four years.

CHIEF TOWNS.

Pietermaritzburg (20,000), and Durban (30,000).

III. BASUTOLAND.

BOUNDARIES, &c.

Basutoland is bounded by the Orange Free State, Natal, and the Cape Colony. It has an area of 10,293 square miles, and a population estimated in 1895 at 250,000.

SURFACE, &c.

The country is one continuous though broken elevated plateau, and is splendidly watered. It is the finest grain-producing district in S. Africa, and the Basutos also keep immense herds of cattle.

PRODUCTIONS, &c.

The productions are wool, wheat, mealies, and Kaffir corn, and the chief imports are blankets, ploughs, saddlery, clothing, and groceries.

CHIEF TOWN.

Maseru.

IV. BECHUANALAND PROTECTORATE.

BOUNDARIES, &c.

The Protectorate is bounded on the east by the Transvaal and Rhodesia, on the south by the Cape Colony, on the west and north by German South-West Africa.

AREA, &c.

It has an area of over 200,000 square miles, and a healthy climate, but suffers greatly from scarcity of water. Its population is about 200,000.

GOVERNMENT, &c.

The Protectorate is governed by its native chiefs, with each of whom an imperial officer representing the Queen resides. It exports maize, wool, hides, cattle, and wood.

CHIEF TOWNS.

Palapye and Tati.

V. RHODESIA.

BOUNDARIES.

Rhodesia is bounded on the west by the Bechuanaland Protectorate, German South-West Africa, and Angola; on the north by the Congo Free State and German East

Boundaries– *Continued.*

Africa; on the east by the Central Africa Protectorate and Portuguese East Africa; and on the south by the Transvaal and the Bechuanaland Protectorate.

DIVISIONS.

1. **British Central Africa,** north of the Zambesi, with an area of 500,000 square miles, and a population of about 4,000,000.
2. **Mashonaland,** south of the Zambesi, has an area of 80,000 square miles, and a population of about 240,000.

   Chief Town, Salisbury.
3. **Matabeleland,** west of Mashonaland, between the Middle Zambesi and the Limpopo, has an area of 125,000 square miles, and a population of about 200,000.

   Chief Town, Buluwayo.

In October, 1897, the railway from Cape Town to Buluwayo was completed, and as both Mashonaland and Matabeleland have a fertile soil, a healthy climate, and great mineral wealth, their progress will probably be rapid.

VI. BRITISH CENTRAL AFRICA PROTECTORATE.

POSITION, &c.

The Central Africa Protectorate lies round the shores of Lake Nyassa. It includes Nyassaland as well as the Shiré Highlands, and has an area of 40,000 square miles, and a population of 1,200,000.

PRODUCTIONS.

Coffee, sugar, cinchona, and tobacco are grown.

CHIEF TOWNS.

Blantyre, Zomba. These towns are now in telegraphic connection with Cape Town.

EAST AFRICAN POSSESSIONS.

I. ZANZIBAR PROTECTORATE.

POSITION, &c.

This Protectorate consists of the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba, with an area of 985 sq. miles and a population estimated at from 200,000 to 250,000.

PRODUCTIONS.—Chiefly cloves.

CHIEF TOWN.

Zanzibar, on the middle of west coast, a free port, with large trade, and a population of at least 100,000.

II. EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE.

BOUNDARIES, &c.

This extends along the east coast of Africa, from the Umba to the Iuba, a distance of 400 miles, and inland as far as the borders of the Uganda Protectorate.

DIVISIONS, &c.

This vast region is divided into four provinces for administrative purposes.

POPULATION.

Estimated at 2½ millions.

PRINCIPAL PRODUCTIONS.

Cloves, ivory, india-rubber, copra, and hides.

CHIEF TOWNS.

Mombasa (capital), Machakos, Lamu, and Kismayu.

III. UGANDA PROTECTORATE.

In July, 1896, the Protectorate was extended so as to include, besides **Uganda** proper, **Unyoro,** and other countries to the west, and **Usago** to the east.

POPULATION, &c.

The population is estimated at between two and three millions.

EXPORTS.

The chief export at present is ivory. But the soil is fertile, and when the railway from the coast has been carried through, a very considerable trade will probably spring up.

CHIEF TOWNS.

Mengo (capital of Uganda); **Kampala,** near Mengo; and **Port Alice** and **Port Victoria,** on the Victoria Nyanza.

IV. SOMALI COAST PROTECTORATE.

BOUNDARIES.

North—Gulf of Aden.
West—French Somaliland.
South—Abyssinia.
East—Italian Somaliland.

AREA.

By treaty with Abyssinia in 1897 the area was reduced to 68,000 sq. miles.

EXPORTS.

Skin and hides, ostrich feathers, cattle, sheep, and gum.

IMPORTS.

Rice, piece-goods, shirtings, and dates.

CHIEF TOWNS.

Berbera, Zailah, Bulhar.

V. SOKOTRA.

BOUNDARIES, &c.

This island lies off Cape Guardufui. It has an area of 1382 sq. miles, and a population of about 12,000.

PRODUCTIONS.

Aloes of the finest quality, dragon's-blood and other gums, tobacco, dates, &c.

Chief Town.—Tamarida.

WEST AFRICAN POSSESSIONS.

I. GAMBIA.

BOUNDARIES, &c.

This is a colony on the Gambia river, and is the oldest British possession in Africa.

Area, 2700 square miles.
Population, about 50,000.

PRODUCTIONS.

The chief productions are ground-nuts, hides, bees'-wax, rice, maize, grain, india-rubber.

Chief Town.—Bathurst.

II. SIERRA LEONE.

BOUNDARIES.

Sierra Leone is bounded on the N. and N.W. by French Guinea; on the E. and S.E. by Liberia, and on the W. and S.W. by the Atlantic.

AREA, &c.

The colony has an area of about 30,000 square miles, and a population estimated at 350,000. A rebellion of the natives in 1898 gave considerable trouble to the authorities.

EXPORTS.

Palm-oil, palm kernels, hides, bees'-wax, india-rubber.

IMPORTS.

Apparel and food-stuffs, cotton and woollen goods, wine and tobacco.

CHIEF TOWN.

Freetown, with a population of over 40,000. It is the greatest seaport in West Africa, is an imperial coaling-station, with a fortified harbour.

III. GOLD COAST COLONY.

BOUNDARIES, &c.

South—Gulf of Guinea.
West—Ivory Coast.
East—Togoland.
North—Not fixed.
Area, 46,000 sq. miles.
Population, 1,500,000.

EXPORTS.

Palm-oil, gold, ivory, gum, and monkey skins.

IMPORTS.

Textiles, hardware, spirits, and tobacco.

CHIEF TOWNS.

Accra, Cape Coast, Elmina, Addah.

IV. LAGOS.

POSITION, &c.

The Protectorate extending along the coast of the Gulf of Guinea, between 2° and 6° east long., taking in a considerable part of what was formerly known as the Slave Coast.

AREA, &c.

It extends a considerable distance inland, and including Yoruba has an area of 20,000 sq. miles and a population of 3,000,000.

EXPORTS.

Palm-oil, ivory, gum-copal, cotton, rubber, coffee.

IMPORTS.

Spirits, tobacco, cotton goods, hardware.

CHIEF TOWN.—Lagos.

V NIGER COAST PROTECTORATE.

BOUNDARIES.

The Protectorate occupies the whole coast-line between Lagos and the Cameroons, except the part lying between the Forcados and Brass Rivers. It includes the Benin region, the Niger delta, and the Old Calabar river from the rapids to the sea.

AREA AND POPULATION.

No trustworthy estimate of either could be given.

EXPORTS.

Palm-oil, palm kernels, india-rubber, ivory, hides, indigo, gums.

IMPORTS.

Cloth, calico, hardware, spirits, tobacco, gunpowder, guns, rice, bread.

CHIEF TOWNS.

Old Calabar, Opobo, Brass, Benin, Bonny, New Calabar.

VI. NIGERIA.

These territories are at present administered under a charter by the Royal Niger Company.

BOUNDARIES.

East—The German territories and Lake Chad. **North**—The French sphere. **West**—The French sphere, and Lagos. **South**—Niger Coast Protectorate and German Cameroons.

AREA, &c.

The area is estimated at about 500,000 sq. miles, and the population at from 20,000,000 to 40,000,000. The exports are rubber, ivory, palm-oil, gum, hides, &c. The imports are cotton and woollen goods, earthenware, hardware, salt, silk, and spirits.

TOWNS.

In Native States.—Sokoto, Wurno (present capital of Sokoto), Gando, Yola, Kano, Bida, Kebbi, Yakoba, Illorin.

In Territories.—Asaba, Lokoja, &c.

VII. WALFISCH BAY.

BOUNDARIES, &c.

This important dependency of Cape Colony is surrounded by German S.-West Africa. It has an area of 700 sq. miles.

INSULAR POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA.

I. ASCENSION.

The island lies 960 miles from the African coast, and is used as a health resort by officials in the west of Africa.

Port.—Georgetown, furnished as a naval station with batteries and storehouses.

II. ST. HELENA.

POSITION, &c.

St. Helena lies 1140 miles from the African coast, and 800 miles S.E. of Ascension.

Area, 4789 sq. miles.

Population, 4120. Has continuously declined since opening of Suez Canal.

Town.—Jamestown.

III. TRISTAN D'ACUNHA.

This is a small group of islands in the Atlantic, midway between Cape Colony and S. America. The population is less than 100.

IV. MAURITIUS.

POSITION, &c.

The island lies 500 miles east of Madagascar, has an area of 705 sq. miles, and a population of 378,000.

EXPORTS.

Sugar, drugs, hemp and other fibres, and caoutchouc.

IMPORTS.

Cotton goods, iron, machinery, apparel, beer, and ale.

Town.—Port Louis (60,000), the capital.

The **Seychelles**, the **Amirante**, the **Rodrigues**, the **Chagos Islands**, and other small islands in the Indian Ocean, are dependencies of Mauritius.

POSSESSIONS IN AUSTRALASIA.

British possessions in Australasia are—(I.) Australia (five colonies); (II.) Tasmania; (III.) New Zealand; (IV.) Fiji; (V.) British New Guinea; (VI.) Pacific Islands.

I. AUSTRALIA.

BOUNDARIES.

North—Pacific Ocean.
East— Do.
South— Do.
West—Indian Ocean.

DIMENSIONS AND AREA.

Length, E. to W. about 2,400 miles.
Breadth, N. to S. about 2,000 miles.
Area, 2,900,000 square miles.

COAST-LINE.

Coast-line about 8000 miles. Little indented, but possesses some very good harbours. Off N.E. is the longest coral reef in the world, known as **Great Barrier Reef.** It is more than 1200 miles long.

Capes.

Cape York .....The most northerly point.
North-west Cape.
Cape Leeuwin .....In S.W.
Cape Wilson .....The most southerly point.
Cape Sandy.....In E.

Openings and Straits.

Gulf of Carpentaria, Torres Strait } In the N.
Shark Bay.....In the W.
Gt. Australian Bight, Spencer Gulf, Port Philip, Bass Strait } In the S.
Botany Bay, Port Jackson } In the E.

MOUNTAINS.

The mountains, as a rule, run parallel with the coasts, the most important ranges being in the east and south-east. The interior is an extensive plateau, which is bounded by mountain ranges in the E. and S.E.; while on the west it descends by terraces to the sandy coast-plains.

Chief ranges:—

AUSTRALIAN ALPS with **Mount Kosciusko** (7,100 feet).
BLUE MOUNTAINS, LIVERPOOL RANGE } In the S.E.
MOUNT STUART .....In the centre.

RIVERS.

There is only one river, the **Murray,** which is navigable for any distance throughout the whole year. Many of the streams dry up in summer. In a portion of Australia, as large as France and Germany together, there is not a single river which could drive a mill of any size all the year round.

Chief Streams.... **The Murray,** with its tributaries, the **Darling, Lachlan,** and **Murrumbidgee.** **Swan River**—in the West.

LAKES.

Lakes and marshes, of great extent, are frequent in the interior during the rainy season, but nearly disappear in summer. Many of the lakes are salt.

Chief Lakes.... **Eyre, Gairdner, Torrens**—in S. **Amadeus**—in the centre.

NATURAL PRODUCTIONS.

Vegetable.—Low, impenetrable "scrub" covers the surface in many parts. *Gum-trees, cedars, ferns,* and *palms* are numerous. *Wheat, vines, figs, sugar-cane, tobacco,* and *cotton* have been introduced.

Animal.—*Phalanger, kangaroo, wombat, dingo, ornithorhynchus* or *water-mole, echidna.* The quadrupeds noted for being "marsupials." **Birds:** *emu, lyre-bird, parrots* and *cockatoos* of many kinds, *laughing-jackass,* and *black swan.*

Mineral.—*Gold, coal, copper, silver, iron, tin, lead.*

EMPLOYMENTS.

CATTLE-REARING.

The most important branch of this industry is sheep-rearing. The sheep flourishes

Employments—Cattle-rearing—*Cont.*

on the scanty herbage of the country; and there are more than 90 millions of them in the colonies. Many "squatters own flocks of 200,000 to 500,000 sheep. About 1¼ million bales of wool are exported annually.

Employments—Cattle-rearing—*Cont.*

Horned cattle stand next in importance—of these there are $10\frac{1}{2}$ millions on the continent; and of horses, $1\frac{3}{4}$ millions.

MINING.

This industry gives employment to many thousands. Gold was discovered in 1851, and now Australia is the second gold-producing land of the world. At present the annual production varies in value from six to seven million pounds.

Coal is produced in large quantities in New South Wales, where the coal-fields are estimated to cover an area of 25,000 square miles.

AGRICULTURE.

On account of the scarcity of water agriculture flourishes only in scattered districts, where water is more abundant than usual. Wheat is produced, however, in sufficient quantity to form one of the exports.

MANUFACTURES.

In and around Melbourne, Sydney, and Adelaide, numerous factories abound for the manufacture of agricultural and other machinery, tallow, soap, woollen goods and sugar; while meat is preserved and exported in tins to Europe.

Sydney, too, is famous for ship-building. Yet, for textile fabrics, glass and metal goods, Australia is dependent on England.

TRADING.

Internal Trade.

This has made great strides within the last few years. There are few good roads in the country. Oxen are used as draught animals. Railways are increasing. In 1896 there were nearly 11,400 miles of railway completed, of which the greatest portion is in New South Wales and Victoria.

Foreign Trade.

The foreign trade, which is very great, consists in exporting raw materials in exchange for the manufactured articles imported. Australia is one of the very best customers for British goods.

EXPORTS.

Wool, grain, flour, cattle, tallow, preserved meat, hides, gold, copper ore.

IMPORTS.

Sugar, tea, coffee, tobacco, machinery and metal goods, leather goods, furniture, textile fabrics, and clothing.

TRADING PORTS.

Sydney, trades chiefly with America and Polynesia.

Melbourne.. } Trade chiefly with Europe
Adelaide.... } and Africa.

CLIMATE.

The northern portion of the continent is very hot. The south is more temperate. The peculiarity of the climate, however, does not consist in the temperature. Australia receives as much rain as Europe, but it is very unevenly distributed. Long periods of drought occur, to be followed by times of flood. Hot winds blow occasionally from the north, bringing unpleasant clouds of fine dust. On the whole the climate, except in the north, is healthy and suitable for Europeans.

GOVERNMENT.

In each of the colonies of Australia there is a **Governor**, appointed by the crown, who is at the head of the administration. He is assisted by a cabinet of responsible ministers. There is also a **Parliament**, consisting of an **Upper** and a **Lower House**, the members of the latter being elected by the people every three years.

DIVISIONS AND CHIEF TOWNS.

Australia is divided into five independent colonies as follows:—

1. **New South Wales.**—The oldest colony.
   Sydney, on Port Jackson, is the capital (pop. 410,000).
   Newcastle, N. of Sydney, has a large coal trade.
   Bathurst, W. of Sydney, chief interior town.
2. **Victoria**, the smallest but most thickly populated colony.
   Melbourne (451,000), the capital, is the largest town of Australia.
   Geelong has a great foreign trade.
   Ballarat, *Sandhurst* } In the gold-mining district.

Divisions and Chief Towns—*Cont.*

3. **South Australia:**
   Adelaide, capital of the colony, a well-built town on Gulf of St. Vincent. The third town in Australia (pop. 145,000).
   Palmerston, on north coast, is the chief town of the N.
4. **Queensland** { *Brisbane, Ipswich, Maryborough, Rockhampton.*
5. **Western Australia** { *Perth, Freemantle, Coolgardie,* and *Kalgoorlie.*

POPULATION.

In 1897 the population of Australia was about 3,500,000, most of whom were of European descent. The number of natives is variously estimated, but does not probably amount to more than 50,000.

II. TASMANIA.

This island, formerly called Van Diemen's Land, is separated from Australia by Bass Strait, about 120 miles wide.

Area, 26,300 square miles.
Population, 167,000.

COAST-LINE.

Bold and indented, containing many good harbours.

MOUNTAINS.

Surface very mountainous. Highest peaks, **Cradle Mountain** (5,000 ft.) and **Mount Humboldt.**

RIVERS.

Derwent, flowing S.E.
Tamar, flowing N.

CLIMATE.

Very healthy and enjoyable. Resembles that of South of England, though the summer is warmer. Western side of island has greater rainfall than eastern.

PRODUCTIONS.

Soil unusually fertile. Abundant trees, chiefly gum and pine. Wheat, oats, potatoes, fruit, and tobacco are chief crops. Great numbers of sheep in colony. Tin, coal, copper, and gold are found.

EMPLOYMENTS.

Agriculture, sheep-rearing, some mining. Large numbers engaged in South Sea whale-fisheries.

EXPORTS.

Wool—about 9½ million lbs. annually—timber, tin, fruits, gold, silver.

GOVERNMENT.

Like the other Australian colonies, the government is vested in a **Governor**, and a **Parliament** consisting of an **Upper** and a **Lower House.**

CHIEF TOWNS.

Hobart, on the Derwent, has a population of 28,000. Many tanneries, mills, and factories.
Launceston on Tamar in N. is the second town.

III. NEW ZEALAND.

Consists of three islands: **North Island, South Island, Stewart Island.**

AREA.

104,000 square miles.

COAST-LINE.

Capes.

North Cape, East Cape, Cape Farewell.

Inlets and Straits.

Hawke Bay, **Bay of Plenty**, **Hauraki Gulf** } In North Island.
Tasman Bay, **Pegasus Bay**, **Otago Harbour** } In South Island.
Cook Strait divides the North and South Islands.
Foveaux Strait divides the South Island and Stewart Island.

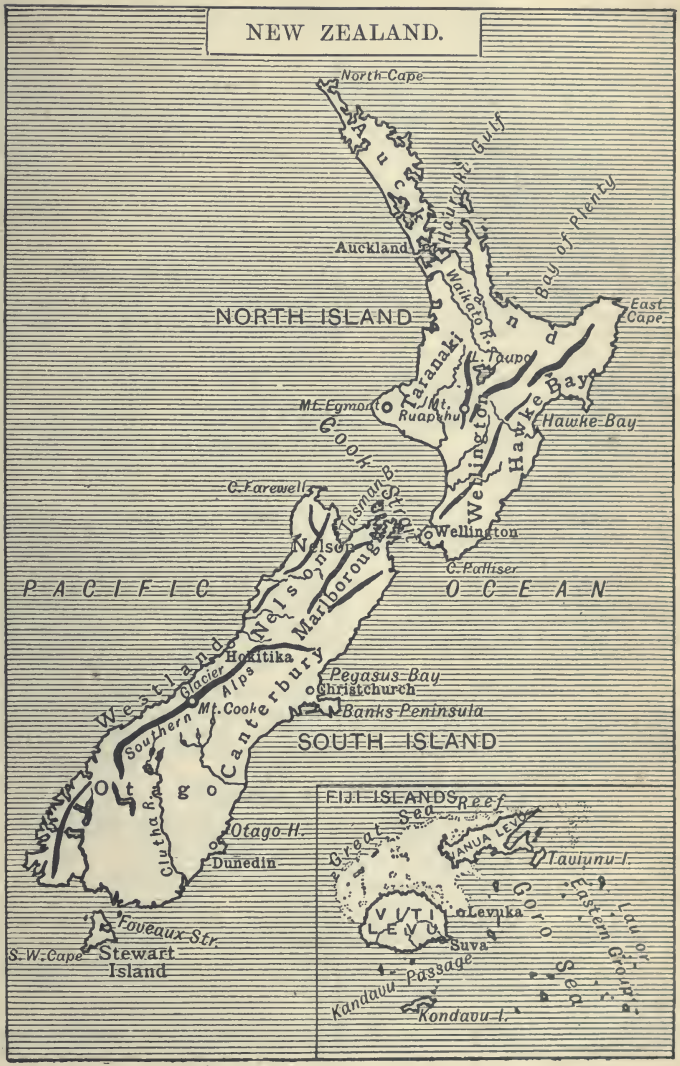
MOUNTAINS.

SOUTHERN ALPS, in South Island, containing **Mt. Cook**, 12,349 feet high, the highest mountain in New Zealand.
MOUNT RUAPEHU, MOUNT EGMONT } In North Island.

Glaciers lie among the mountains of the S.W.

RIVERS.

Waikato.....In North Island.
Clutha.....In South Island.


NEW ZEALAND.
North Cape
Auckland
Hauraki Gulf
Bay of Plenty
East Cape
NORTH ISLAND
Waikato R.
L. Taupo
Taranaki
Mt. Egmont
Mt. Ruapehu
Hawke Bay
Wellington
C. Farewell
Cook Str.
Tasman B.
Nelson
Wellington
C. Palliser
PACIFIC OCEAN
Marlborough
Nelson
Westland
Hokitika
Glacier
Alps
Pegasus Bay
Christchurch
Mt. Cooke
Banks Peninsula
Canterbury
SOUTH ISLAND
Southern
Otago
Clutha R.
Otago H.
Dunedin
Foveaux Str.
S.W. Cape
Stewart Island
FIJI ISLANDS
Reef
Sea
Great
ANUA LEVU
Taviuni I.
VITI LEVU
Levuka
Suva
Eastern Group
Kandavu Passage
Kandavu I.

LAKES.

Both islands have many lakes. The chief is **L. Taupo**, in North Island. Hot lakes and geysers abound in the same island.

EMPLOYMENTS.

REARING LIVE STOCK.

The chief branch of this industry is the rearing of sheep. More than 19 millions of these animals are to be found in the colony. Cattle and horses are also reared in great numbers.

AGRICULTURE.

This is steadily spreading. The chief crops are wheat, oats, and flax.

MINING.

Gold is found yearly to the value of a million pounds. Coal, copper, and petroleum are the other chief mineral products.

TRADING

EXPORTS.

Wool, hides, tallow, timber, frozen mutton, gold, and kauri-gum.

IMPORTS.

Spirits, agricultural implements, clothing, furniture, weapons, glass.

TRADING PORTS.

Auckland (58,000), in North Island.
Wellington (42,000), do. do.
Nelson, Dunedin, and Christ Church, in South Island.

CLIMATE.

Very healthy. Winters milder than in England; summers warmer. Snow seldom seen. The seasons are the reverse of ours.

GOVERNMENT.

There is a **Governor** who is at the head of the executive, and a **Parliament**, consisting of an **Upper** and a **Lower House**, or Legislative Council and House of Representatives.

POPULATION.

In 1896 the population was 743,000, of whom 40,000 were Maories.

IV. FIJI ISLANDS.

Ceded to Britain in 1874. They are about 250 in number, of which **Viti Levu** and **Vanua Levu** are the largest. Population about 120,500.

EXPORTS.

Sugar, fruit, cotton. The cocoa-nut and bread-fruit trees are natural to the islands. The natives were formerly cannibals.

The small island of **Rotumah** was added to Fiji in 1880.

V. BRITISH NEW GUINEA.

A portion of the island of New Guinea, on the side next to Australia, having German New Guinea on the north of it. Area, 90,000 sq. miles; population about 135,000. No towns, but several missionary stations.

VI. PACIFIC ISLANDS.

A number of small islands in the Pacific belong to Britain. The chief are the Cook's or Hervey Islands; largest, Raratonga; and Southern Solomon Islands.

POSSESSIONS IN AMERICA.

The British possessions in America are—(I.) **British North America**; (II.) **Bermudas**; (III.) **British West Indies**; (IV.) **British Honduras**; (V.) **British Guiana**; (VI.) **Falkland Islands.**

I. BRITISH NORTH AMERICA.

BOUNDARIES.

North—Arctic Ocean and Alaska.
East—Atlantic Ocean.
South—United States.
West—Pacific Ocean.

Area, estimated at 3,500,000 sq. miles.
Population, 5,250,000.

COAST-LINE.

Capes.

Chudleigh.....North of Labrador.
Race.....S.E. of Newfoundland.
Breton.....E. of Cape Breton Is.
Sable.....S. of Nova Scotia.

Openings and Straits.

Bay of Fundy.....Between Nova Scotia and New Brunswick.


BRITISH NORTH AMERICA.
ARCTIC OCEAN
GREENLAND
Behring Str.
ALASKA
(To United States)
R. Yukon
KLONDYKE REGION
Mt. Elias
N. W. TERRITORIES
DOMINION OF CANADA
Gt. Bear Lake
Mackenzie R.
Gt. Fish R.
Gt. Slave L.
L. Athabasca
Peace R.
Athabasca
Keewatin
Baffin Bay
Melville Sound
Lancaster Sound
Davis Strait
Hudson Strait
C. Chudleigh
Hudson Bay
James Bay
North East Territory
Labrador
Str. of Belle Isle
Newfoundland
St. John's
C. Race
Quebec
Montreal
St. Lawrence
G. of St. Lawrence
P. Edward I.
C. Breton I.
C. Breton
New Brunswick
Fredricton
St. John
Nova Scotia
Halifax
C. Sable
B. of Fundy
Ontario
Ottawa
Albany R.
Churchill
Nelson
L. Winnipeg
Winnipeg
Manitoba
Saskatchewan
Assiniboia
Assiniboine
Regina
Calgarry
Alberta
Mt. Brown
Mt. Hooker
Rocky Mountains
British Columbia
Cascade Mts.
Fraser R.
New Westminster
Queen Charlotte I.
Vancouver Island
Victoria
CANADIAN PACIFIC RAIL ROAD
Red R.
L. Superior
Huron
L. Ontario
Toronto
Hamilton
Niagara Falls
London
L. Erie
UNITED STATES
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN

Coast-line—*Continued.*

Gulf of St. Lawrence. Between Newfoundland and Quebec.
Strait of Belle Isle. Between Newfoundland and Labrador.
Hudson Strait ..... North of Labrador.
Hudson Bay with James Bay.
Davis Strait ..... } West of Greenland.
Baffin Bay ..... }
Lancaster Sound } On the route of the
Melville Sound ... } North-west Passage.
Behring Strait ..... Between America and Asia.

ISLANDS.

Newfoundland ... }
Prince Edward Island ..... } At the entrance of the Gulf of St. Lawrence.
Cape Breton Isld. }
Vancouver Island }
Queen Charlotte Islands ..... } Off the W. coast.

Numerous islands in the Arctic Ocean.

MOUNTAINS.

ROCKY MOUNTAINS, stretching along the west coast from north to south.

Chief Heights.... { **Mount Brown, 16,000 feet.**
Mount Hooker.

CASCADE MOUNTAINS.

Chief Height..... **Mount Elias, 15,000 feet.**

RIVERS.

The country is unusually well supplied with magnificent waterways, both river and lake. Chief rivers:—

(1.) **St. Lawrence,** 2000 miles long, draining the great lakes.
Chief Tributary ..... **The Ottawa.**

(2.) The **Red River,** flows northwards from the United States into Lake Winnipeg.
Tributary ..... **The Assiniboine.**

(3.) The **Saskatchewan** flows into Lake Winnipeg, which is drained by

(4.) The **Nelson River,** flowing into Hudson Bay.

(5.) **Mackenzie River;** flows to the Arctic Ocean; known in different parts as the **Slave River** and **Athabasca River.**
Chief Tributary ..... **Peace River.**

(6.) **Fraser River,** in Columbia.

LAKES.

Ontario, Erie, Huron, Superior (32,000 square miles), **Winnipeg, Athabasca, Great Slave Lake, Great Bear Lake.**

Between Lake Erie and Lake Ontario are the famous Falls of Niagara.

EMPLOYMENTS.

FARMING.

Wheat growing is extensively carried on in Manitoba and other parts. Oats, barley, and fruit are also largely cultivated. Large numbers of cattle are reared and great quantities of cheese and butter produced.

LUMBERING.

The immense forests of pine and fir, as well as other trees, supply timber for shipbuilding and other purposes, and give employment to great numbers.

TRAPPING.

British North America is the chief fur-producing country in the world. The chief wild animals are bears, beavers, foxes, sables, ermines, wolves, and deer.

FISHING.

Fish and fishery produce to the value of between four and six million pounds are produced annually. The Gulf of St. Lawrence teems with fish. The cod-fisheries of Newfoundland are of world-wide fame. Salmon in Fraser River.

MINING.

Coal is found in New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Vancouver Island.

Copper and **Tin** in the neighbourhood of the lakes.

Gold is found in British Columbia.

Petroleum is found in Ontario.

TRADING.

The internal trade is assisted by the abundance of natural waterways. In winter the snow forms natural roads for sleighs. The foreign trade is very great.

IMPORTS.

The import trade is entirely in the hands of the U. States and Great Britain. The chief imports are sugar, coffee, tea, manufactured goods, tobacco, spirits.

Employments—*Continued.*

EXPORTS.

Grain, animals and animal produce, timber, furs, potash, fish, hides, and oil.

RAILWAYS.

There are 20,000 miles of railway. The most important is the **Canadian Pacific.**

CLIMATE.

Colder than in similar latitudes in Europe. The air is, however, dry and healthy. Winters long and severe; summers short and hot. The mildest climate is in the west, on the Pacific slope. Rainfall considerable. In winter a great deal of snow.

GOVERNMENT.

British North America, with the exception of Newfoundland, is united into a confederation called the **Dominion of Canada.** The Dominion is divided into seven provinces (besides the territories), each having a **Lieutenant-governor,** appointed by the **Governor-general,** who, in turn, is appointed by the crown. Legislative power is vested in a **Parliament,** consisting of a **Senate** of 78 life-members chosen by the Governor-general, and a **House of Commons** elected by the people every five years. Each province has a local parliament.

PROVINCES AND CHIEF TOWNS.

* *Capital towns marked with an asterisk.*

1. **Quebec.**—**Quebec* (63,000 inhab.); *Montreal* (220,000).
2. **Ontario.**—**Ottawa* (capital of the Dominion), centre of lumber trade; **Toronto* (200,000); *Kingston; London; Hamilton.*
3. **New Brunswick.**—*St. John;* **Fredericton.*
4. **Nova Scotia.**—**Halifax,* famous for its splendid harbour.
5. **Prince Edward Island.**—**Charlottetown.*
6. **Manitoba.**—**Winnipeg.*
7. **British Columbia.**—**Victoria,* on Vancouver Island; *Vancouver; New Westminster.*

The **Island of Newfoundland,** with its dependency **Labrador,** is a crown colony under a Governor, Legislative Council, and House of Assembly.—**St. John's.*

In the **North-west Territories** are the districts of *Assiniboia* (chief town, Regina,), *Saskatchewan, Alberta, Athabasca, Ungava, Franklin, Mackenzie,* and *Yukon.*

II. THE BERMUDAS.

A group of 360 islands in the Atlantic, about 600 miles E. of U. States. Climate, very agreeable. Chief products are vegetables, indigo, coffee, tobacco. Pop. 16,000.

The islands form an important naval station, as they command the route of vessels bound for the West Indies.

Capital: *Hamilton.*

III. BRITISH WEST INDIES.

The West Indies form an archipelago at the entrance of the Gulf of Mexico.

CLIMATE AND POPULATION.

Very hot, though tempered by trade-winds and sea-breezes. Tempests are frequent. Yellow fever dangerous to Europeans. Pop. 5,000,000 (two-thirds negroes).

TRADE.

Chiefly with Great Britain, and amongst the islands themselves.

EXPORTS.

Sugar, rum, coffee, cocoa, dyewoods, fruits, spices.

IMPORTS.

Rice, flour, wine, oil, manufactured goods.

DIVISIONS AND TOWNS.

The British Possessions are arranged under six separate administrations:—

	CHIEF TOWN
1. Bahama Islands	*Nassau.*
2. Jamaica	*Kingstown.*
3. Leeward Islands	*St. John's.*
4. Trinidad	*Port of Spain.*
5. Windward Islands.	
6. Barbadoes	*Bridgetown.*

IV. BRITISH HONDURAS.

On E. coast of Central America

Exports: Mahogany, logwood, and sugar.
Capital: *Belize* (6000).

V. BRITISH GUIANA.

Situated along N.E. coast of S. America.

Area: 109,000 square miles.

Climate, warm, damp, unhealthy for Europeans. Population chiefly negroes.

Considerable trade.

Exports: Sugar, rum, coffee, cotton, tobacco, cacao.

Imports: Manuactured goods, meat, flour, salt, and coal.

Capital: *Georgetown.*

VI. FALKLAND ISLANDS.

These treeless and desolate islands in the South Atlantic are chiefly of importance as a station for the southern whaling fleet. Large herds of half-wild cattle and sheep roam about in the interior.

POSSESSIONS IN EUROPE.

The British Possessions in Europe are (I.) Gibraltar and (II.) Malta.

I. GIBRALTAR.

This owes its importance to its position at the entrance of the Mediterranean. It is strongly fortified, and is a calling station for ships. About 13,000 vessels enter the free haven yearly. Pop. 24,000.

II. MALTA.

This island is of great importance to Britain owing to its position, and the excellence of the harbour at *Valetta*, the capital. It is the chief station of the Mediterranean fleet, and one of the most valuable coaling stations and telegraph cable stations in the Mediterranean. The population is about 176,000.

TRADE ROUTES.

Great Britain is the most highly civilized and the most commercial country in the world. It trades with every other nation, so that the lines of communication between Great Britain and other commercial centres are exceedingly numerous. Leaving out of sight, however, the trade with the continent of Europe, that with other parts of the world will be found to follow a few main routes, of which the following are the chief:—

I. To India, Australia, and the East, by the Suez Canal.

Three-fourths of the immense traffic which passes through the Suez Canal is British. Ships from London, Southampton, &c., sail by Gibraltar and Malta to Port Said, and passing through the canal proceed by Suez and the Red Sea to Aden. At Aden their courses separate.

(*a*) **To India.**—Ships for Western India sail directly across the Arabian Sea to Karachi and Bombay. Those for the Bay of Bengal and Further India proceed by Colombo in Ceylon, and thence they make their way to Madras, Calcutta, and Rangoon, &c.

The chief lines of steamers on this route are those of the Peninsular and Oriental, familiarly known as the "P. and O.", the British India Steam Navigation, the Anchor, the Bibby, the Wilson, the City, and the Clan lines.

(*b*) **To Australia.**—Steamers either go by Bombay, or go direct to Colombo, and proceed thence to Adelaide, Melbourne, and Sydney. In other cases they go direct from Aden by King George's Sound to Melbourne and Sydney.

The chief lines to Australia are the Peninsular and Oriental, the Orient, and the British India Steam Navigation Company.

(*c*) **To Singapore, Hong Kong, China, and Japan.**—From Aden steamers proceed

through the Straits of Malacca to Singapore, and thence to Hong Kong, Shanghai, and Nagasaki.

The chief lines to the Far East are the "P. and O." and the British India Steam Navigation Company.

II. Between Britain and North America.

(*a*) **To the United States.**—Steamers from London, Liverpool, and Hull proceed by the South of Ireland, and steamers from Liverpool and from Glasgow by the North of Ireland, to New York.

There is an enormous trade between Boston, New York, and other ports on the east coast of the United States, and Great Britain.

The White Star, the Cunard, the Allan, the Wilson, and the Anchor are the main lines of steamers.

(*b*) **To Canada.**—Ships from Liverpool and Glasgow go by the north of Ireland, calling at Moville. In summer they sail to Quebec, and in winter to Halifax. The trade between Canada and Britain is very large, and is rapidly growing larger.

The "Dominion" and the "Allan" are the principal lines.

III. To South Africa.

Ships from Southampton proceed by way of Madeira and the Canary Islands to Cape Town and Port Elizabeth.

Cape Town is the chief commercial centre for the southern part of the continent.

The Castle and the Union Steamship Company are the chief lines.

IV. To New Zealand.

Ships from London, &c., proceed by Plymouth, Teneriffe, and Cape Town, calling at Hobart Town, to New Zealand. The journey home is usually made round Cape Horn, calling at Monte Video, Rio Janeiro, and Teneriffe on the way.

The New Zealand Shipping Company, and the Shaw Savill and Albion Company, are the principal lines on this route.

Note that besides the routes mentioned, there is regular steam communication between Great Britain and the West Coast of Africa, between Great Britain and the West Indies, and between Great Britain and South and Central America. There is also regular communication by the Straits of Magellan between Great Britain and Chili and Peru.

LATITUDE AND LONGITUDE.

For fixing positions on a flat surface, two measuring lines, the one horizontal and the other at right angles to it, are conveniently used. Thus, the position of the point O is marked by its distances from E Q and P G.

Similarly, to fix positions on the earth's surface, we imagine two fixed lines on it, one running east and west, the other north and south, and we measure from these. These fixed lines are: (1) The **Equator**, a circle equidistant in every part from the poles. (2) The **Meridian of Greenwich**, a semicircle from pole to pole, passing through the observatory of Greenwich, and cutting the equator at right angles.

Latitude is distance north or south of the equator. Lines drawn through places having the same latitude are *parallel* to the equator. *Parallels of latitude* on a globe are circles equidistant from one another, but smaller in diameter as they approach the poles.

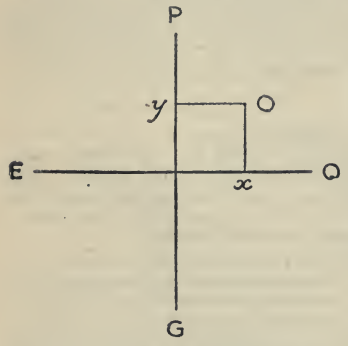
A degree of latitude is about 69½ miles in length; this is the same as 60 geographical miles. Hence a minute of latitude is a geographical mile or *knot*, the common measure of distances at sea.

Some latitudes: The Equator = lat. 0°; Quito = lat. 0° 20′ S.; London = 51° 31′ N. Cape of Good Hope = 34° 22′ S.; North Pole = 90° N.

Longitude is distance east or west of the Meridian of Greenwich. Meridians or lines drawn through places having the same longi-

tude are semicircles which meet at the poles and are at their greatest distance from one another at the equator.

A degree of longitude at the equator is



about 69½ miles, on the thirty-fifth parallel of latitude a degree is nearly 50 miles, in the latitude of London (51°) it is about 38 miles, and on the eighty-ninth parallel little over a mile

A circle or sphere which has its centre in the centre of the sphere is a great circle. The equator is a great circle, but the other parallels of latitude are not great circles. The meridians are halves of great circles.

Some longitudes: London, 0° 5′ W.; Edinburgh, 3° 12′ W.; Hamburg, 10° E.; Cape Town, 18° 30′ E.; Quebec, 71° 12′ W.; Quito, 78° 52′ W.; Sydney, 151° 15′ E.

Longitude and Time.—Since the earth rotates once with respect to the sun in 24 hours, every part of the surface (except the poles) moves 360°÷24=15° in 1 hour. A difference of longitude of 15° makes a difference of 1 hour in time, or 4 minutes for 1°.

The word **meridian** means *mid-day* or noon, and places on the same meridian have mid-day at the same moment. Dublin is 6° west of Greenwich and has noon 24 minutes later. Calcutta is nearly 90° east and has noon nearly 6 hours earlier.

Latitude is easiest found in the northern hemisphere by measuring the height of the pole-star above the horizon. *Longitude* is reckoned by calculating the difference between local and Greenwich time.

NOTES AND MEANINGS.

p. 5. **supernatural beings,** beings in nature and powers more than men. Savages always ascribe to supernatural agency actions, &c., which they cannot understand.

p. 7. **large property,** &c. In 1875 Britain purchased £4,000,000 worth of Canal shares. These are now valued at between 22 and 23 millions sterling.

p. 8. **knights of St. John,** a body of military monks to whom Charles V. gave Malta when they were driven from Rhodes by the Turks, and who in the middle ages prevented the Turks from making themselves masters of the Mediterranean.

p. 10. **avalanches,** masses of snow and ice that become detached from the mountain's side and slide rapidly to the valley below.

line of perpetual snow. At a certain height above sea-level snow lies on the ground all the year round. The lower edge of the region of perpetual snow is called the snow-line. The height varies in different countries according to the latitude.

Sir Martin Conway, born in Rochester, 1856, is Professor of Art in University College, Liverpool. In 1891 he crossed the Himalayas, and in 1894 explored the Alps.

p. 16. **superstitious reverence,** ignorant belief in and worship of objects not worthy of worship.

p. 23. **vassals,** lords who held lands and exercised power on condition of doing military service to their overlord.

p. 24. **Mahrattas,** Hindus who occupied Central and Western India, and in the 17th and 18th centuries conquered much of the country.

Lord Clive (1725–1774), first a clerk in the service of the East India Company; afterwards the brilliant victor of Arcot and Plassey (1757).

p. 25. **paramount,** higher than all others.

Sikhs, a partly political and partly military organization of reformed Hindus established at Lahore in the end of the 15th century. They made themselves masters of the Punjab.

Goorkhas, the ruling race in Nepaul. They are Hindus, and though of small size are both brave and hardy, and make excellent soldiers.

p. 26. **sepoys,** native soldiers in the British service.

p. 27. **a figure-head for the Mutiny.** The mutineers pretended they were fighting for him and in obedience to his instructions, but in reality he had little influence over them, and little authority.

p. 33. **Cinchona Tree.** The tree gets

its name from a Spanish lady, the Countess of Chinchon, who was cured of fever by the use of the bark, and made its usefulness known in Europe.

p. 34. **Peepul Tree.** The tree is held sacred because Vishnu, one of the chief gods of the Hindus, is said to have been born under its branches.

p. 37. **lynx,** a kind of wild cat found both in Europe and Asia.

p. 38. **jackal,** an animal of the dog kind found in Asia and Africa.

p. 39. **kite,** a kind of falcon, differing from the true falcon in having a long forked tail, short legs, and long wings.

bandicoot, the largest known kind of rat, is a native of India and Ceylon.

p. 40. **scuttling,** running away awkwardly and panic-struck.

p. 41. **coolie,** a name for any labourer in the East.

p. 44. **picturesque,** having that kind of beauty which would make it look well if represented in a picture.

jute, a substance obtained from an Indian plant like hemp.

p. 53. **Thugs,** a religious society of Indians whose religion required them to murder secretly by strangling. They arose in the thirteenth century, and were put down by Lord George Bentinck 1828–35.

p. 56. **embowering,** covering them over and making them seem as if placed in a bower.

p. 66. **malarious swamps.** Swamps, the air about which is full of decaying animal and vegetable matter, and is therefore unwholesome, giving rise to malarial or jungle fever.

p. 68. **Ladrones,** group of small islands at the mouth of the Canton river, which must be distinguished from the Ladrone (Robber) or Marianne islands in the Pacific Ocean.

p. 72. **garbage,** the refuse thrown overboard by the fishermen when curing their fish.

Sir Humphrey Gilbert, famous English sailor, half-brother of Sir Walter Raleigh, born 1539, went down in the *Squirrel* 1583.

p. 86. **pry,** raise or move by means of a lever.

freshets, the rapid flooding of streams due to the melting of ice, or to heavy rains.

p. 90. **cow-bell,** a bell hung round the cow's neck to tinkle when the animal moves. These are used especially in hilly countries like Norway and Switzerland.

p. 91. **sumach,** a low straggling bush. Its leaves when crushed are found to be pleasantly scented.

hemlock, the hemlock spruce, an American fir, which gets its name from the resemblance its branches and foliage bear to the common hemlock.

p. 93. **devastating,** destroying or laying waste.

p. 94. **swath,** a line of grass or corn as left when cut by a scythe or reaping-machine.

p. 95. **bull-dog fly,** a Canadian name for a gad-fly that is peculiarly troublesome to cattle, especially to horses.

p. 96. **a tall spire.** The spire of St. James's Cathedral, Toronto, is 316 feet high, and with the exception of the spire of St. Patrick's, New York, is the highest spire in the American continent.

p. 97. **old Indian name.** 'Toronto' means 'a place of meeting', a place where men gather together.

p. 98. **Niagara.** The name means *Thunder of Waters.*

p. 104. **apparatus,** a piece of machinery. Apparatus means usually a collection of things intended for use in producing a certain result.

p. 115. **amphibious,** able to live both on land and in water.

p. 117. **glacier,** a mass of ice and frozen snow which is formed high up on mountains and gradually works its way slowly downwards by force of its own weight, sometimes called a river of ice.

fossil forest, petrified remains of plants and trees which in the course of ages have become covered over with soil, and are now found by digging.

p. 125. **decoy,** a fowl, real or sham, employed in order to entice fowls for the hunter.

p. 129. **musk-ox,** a small ox found in the far north, smelling of musk.

p. 138. **remnants of our savage ancestry,** customs that were practised by our savage ancestors and have been handed down to us.

p. 143. **perroquet,** another form of parrakeet, the name given to certain kinds of parrots, usually of small size, and with long tail-feathers.

p. 144. **prevalence,** existence in greater numbers than other kinds.

rarities, things of which only very few are met with.

p. 146. **Antipodes,** *i.e.* Australia, the 'opposite corner' of the globe to us; the word literally means 'opposite feet'.

aborigines, the natives.

p. 170. **palisaded forts,** forts formed and protected by rows of stakes driven firmly into the ground.

p. 172. **some years ago,** in 1886.

a volcano near them. Tarawera, considered up to that time an extinct volcano, in 1886 broke forth with terrific violence, desolating the neighbouring country, and destroying the Pink and White Terraces.

p. 181. **Drummond Castle.** On the 16th of June, 1896, the *Drummond Castle,* on her homeward passage from Natal and Cape Town, struck

on a reef of the 'Ile de Molène' off Ushant, and of 143 passengers and 104 of a crew only three escaped.

p. 181. **spouting of a whale.** Off the Cape Verde Islands is one of the 'grounds' in the Atlantic for the 'sperm' whale-fishing.

p. 188. **mirage,** a natural optical illusion whereby the observer sees distorted or displaced images of objects that may or may not be beyond the horizon. In the Sahara and other arid deserts, owing to the layer of air nearest the sand being the hottest, an impression is sometimes produced on the eye of the traveller resembling that which the reflection of skylight from water would produce, and the thirsty traveller hastens towards what seems to him a lake.

p. 191. **prickly-pear,** a kind of cactus covered with clusters of prickles and producing an edible fruit.

baobab, one of the largest of African trees, often from thirty to forty feet in diameter, and though only of moderate height, sending out branches from sixty to seventy feet long. It produces an oblong pulpy fruit about a foot in length, which, as monkeys seem to be fond of it, is sometimes called monkey-bread. The tree is called also the sour gourd or calabash-tree.

194. **meer-cat,** a South African animal, closely allied to the ichneumon, and, like other members of the family, a deadly enemy to reptiles.

p. 196. **take toll,** seize and destroy a number of their cattle, which may be regarded as a kind of tax the farmer pays for not fencing and protecting them.

p. 198. **chameleon,** a small African lizard with a long tail, by which it can cling to the branches of trees. It possesses the faculty of

changing its colour either in accordance with its surroundings or as an indication of its temper when disturbed, and it can fast for a long time, and frequently inflates itself, circumstances which gave rise to the fable that these animals lived on air.

p. 215. **water,** the transparency, lustre, size, &c., of a diamond. The total of the qualities that make it valuable.

p. 225. **impede the vision,** hinder one from seeing clearly.