
AT HOME AND ABROAD

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OR

First Lessons in Geography

BY

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TO

ELSIE, MARY, AND LEO:

From their Father.

PREFACE.

In offering this little work to a very young public, it is not, perhaps, out of place to urge on all teachers, whether in home or in public schoolrooms, the paramount necessity of good large maps, to be hung up or pinned against the wall. Small maps try the eyes; maps lying on the table try the chest and back; thoroughly good wall-maps, sufficient for all the purposes of this book, can be procured at a very low price, and are better suited to the wants of a child than the best and most costly atlas. In the latter chapters, I have referred freely to the globe; this should be as large as convenient,—one of twelve or eighteen inches diameter will do very well;—but even a little one, of three or four inches, is better than none.

In teaching geography, a child's attention should be, at first, more especially directed to those places with whose names he (or she) is already familiar,—places where family friends live, places where pre-

sents come from, places about which *he* has a certain sense of reality. The fog that, in the mind of the young, accompanies distance, has, in the first place, to be cleared away. If the circuit of a couple of miles from home is the range of a child's conception of distance or locality, what possible good—as a means of education or even instruction—can there be in teaching *him* about distant countries and foreign people? From this point of view, a first book on geography ought to be considered merely as a framework, to be filled up by the teacher at discretion; and what I have here chiefly aimed at is to make a practical protest against the absurd system of teaching which has hitherto too much prevailed,—a protest against the oblate spheroid, the elliptic orbit, the nine hundred millions of inhabitants, and other words without meanings, which have long been the bogies and the bugbears of young children. The plan I have adopted has been indeed, though somewhat vaguely, recommended by several eminent writers on education, from Canon Moseley downwards; but apparently no one has felt, like me, driven to try and carry it out. How far I have succeeded in my attempt, it is for the public to determine.

J. K. L.

Greenwich, 1878.

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PART I.—AT HOME.

CHAPTER I.

GREAT BRITAIN.

A VERY long time ago a tribe of people who called themselves Angles or English, and other people with them, some of whom were called Saxons, came into this country, the name of which was then Britain or Britannia, but has since been, after the name of the new comers, Angle-land or England.

The people who lived here before were Britons, but our forefathers, the English, forced their way in and fought against the Britons; killed a great many of them, made slaves of a great many, and drove the rest away from their pleasant fields and villages into the wild parts of the country, amongst mountains and swamps, where it was not easy for strangers to follow them.

I must tell you that mountains are very big hills; and, as you know how difficult it is to run up a steep hill, even on a good road, you will understand that to

run up a mountain, where there is no road at all, is very difficult indeed. Swamps are places where there is a great deal of water, not lying deep, but soaking into the ground till it is like a wet sponge, and any one who tries to go across it without knowing the way is apt to get into a soft place and sink in.

As the English drove the Britons into the mountains and swamps, it came about that all the lowlands, plains, fields, lands which could be cultivated, and were therefore valuable, were occupied by the English, and all that part of the country came to be called England; but the mountain country, where the English did not care to follow, was occupied by the old inhabitants, the Britons, whom the English called Welsh, which means strangers; and the part of the country the Welsh lived in they called Wales: or by the Scotch, who had themselves only lately come into the country; and the part they lived in was called Scotland.

When you are a little older, and read history, you will learn more about these people, and about the fierce wars which they waged with each other before they agreed what parts of the country belonged to the English, what parts belonged to the Welsh, and what parts belonged to the Scotch; and you will, I hope, remember, from what I am now telling you, that England is, for the most part, a country of plains and cultivated fields; that Wales is a small country, and very mountainous; and that a great

deal of Scotland is also very mountainous, though in the course of time, many of the English people living in the lowlands, near the Scotch mountains, became friends with the Scotch, and subjects of the Scotch king, so that their part of the country likewise got the name of Scotland.

But as years passed away, these three parts of the country became united under one king or queen; and the kingdom so made, which was not England, or Scotland, or Wales, but all together, as it had no name, was called by the old and half-forgotten one, Britain, or, to mark the greatness of the united country, Great Britain.

Now, Great Britain is a country of itself, distinct from all others. England, Scotland, and Wales were, long ago, different countries; but only because the people who lived in them were not friends, and were constantly fighting; the boundaries between their countries were such as were agreed on by themselves, which might be altered whenever they chose, and which were altered very often. Such boundaries, you must remember, are called political; for they are fixed by the Governments of the countries, and whatever belongs to, or is done by, the Government is said to be political.

But Great Britain does not join on to any other country; there is no other country from which it is separated only by a political boundary. It is sepa-

rated from all other countries by the sea. It is entirely surrounded by the sea. It is an island.

I wonder if you have ever seen the sea. It is a wide-spread piece of water, stretching out far, far away, much farther than you can see; like a very large pond, only you can see to the other side of a pond, but the sea is much larger, and you cannot see to the other side of it. The water of the sea is salt, and very nasty to taste; but a great many fishes live in it, some little, some big; and men make boats and ships, and sail over it, and go away to countries a long way off, to do business or to see friends. So the sea does not separate people who want to see each other; but it does separate the countries between which it lies, and is a division between those countries which no agreement of the people or their Government can alter.

The shores of the sea are therefore said to be natural boundaries; when a country is an island, that is, when it is entirely surrounded by the sea, its boundaries are natural, and they are but little likely to be changed by any treaty or agreement for other boundaries which would be only political.

Great Britain is an island; I have drawn its shape on the opposite page, and I want you to copy it on your slate: if you don't make it very like at first, try again, and again, until you know it by heart, and can draw it without looking at the book.

OUTLINE MAP OF GREAT BRITAIN.

CHAPTER II.

THE CARDINAL POINTS.

Now, if you have learned to draw the outline of Great Britain, you must learn how to place it; you must learn which is its top and which is its bottom; for though an island has no top or bottom, and if it was only small enough, you might look at it from whichever side you liked, and it would still be the same island, it is convenient when we have to draw the outline of it on paper or a slate, to call one part of it the top and the opposite side the bottom; so that we may know how to place it, and remember its shape more easily.

The outline which shows you the shape of any country, whether an island or not, is called a map: what you have just been drawing on your slate is a map of Great Britain; and when a map is properly drawn, and properly placed,

The top of the map is called the north;
The bottom of the map is the south;
The right hand side is the east; and
The left hand side is the west.

But remember that these names, north, south,

east and west, belong to the directions in which the parts of the country lie, and not merely to the top or bottom or sides of the map.

Scotland is north of England;
England is south of Scotland;
Wales is west of England;
England is east of Wales;

and the position of England, Scotland, and Wales, with respect to each other, does not in any way depend on what we choose to call the top or bottom of the map, which we may change just as we like; but is fixed, unchangeable, and always the same.

North, south, east, and west, are therefore names which we must learn to give to the parts of the country, without a map at all; and you will remember them in this way, by watching the sun.

In the morning the sun rises; he comes up as if out of the ground, but of course it is from behind the farthest part you can see. He gets higher and higher, till, just before your dinner time, he has got as high as he can. This time, when the sun is at the highest, is called noon; it is the middle of the day; and the sun immediately begins to go down again, and keeps on going down, till he goes out of sight behind the distant ground; he is said to set.

Little boys and girls who live in large towns will not be able to see this so well as those who live in the country; but those who do live in the country, and more especially those who live near the sea, will,

I daresay, have often seen the sun as he gets up in the morning, and have watched him as he sweeps across the sky to noon and to evening, when he sets in a brilliant display of beautiful colours, crimson, purple, green, and gold.

And this goes on day after day, and year after year, whether clouds hide it or not, whether you see it or not; and by it, by this daily journey of the sun, the directions, north, south, east, and west, are fixed.

Each day at noon, the sun is in the same direction; he gets higher up some days than others; he gets much higher up in summer than he does in winter; but he is in the same direction every day when he is at his highest. Now you must notice this for yourself: watch the sun; see how high he gets up; see where he is just before you come in for dinner; try and stand so that you see him in the line of a tree-top, or a chimney-pot, or the corner of a house, or a church-steeple; and having so fixed him once at noon, you may see him in the same direction, over the same tree-top, or chimney, or church-steeple, every day of your life. And till you get old enough to have a watch, you can tell by the sun's coming into that position that it is noon; and if you pay attention and use your eyes and your understanding, you will soon be able to tell what o'clock it is by the distance the sun is away from that position.

Now that direction that I have been speaking about, the direction that the sun is in at noon every-day, is south.

If then at noon you face the sun, the south is straight before you: the north is at your back. If you turn your back to the sun at noon, you face the north; your shadow points towards the north; if you stretch out your right hand, it points to the east; if you stretch out your left hand, it points to the west. If you stand so that the sun at noon is broad on your right hand, you are looking towards the east; if the sun at noon is on your left hand, you are looking towards the west.

Now if you quite understand what I have been saying, you will understand that if you are in England, and you stand with your back to the sun at noon, you are looking towards Scotland; or if you are in Scotland, and you face the sun at noon, you are looking towards England; and you will be able to understand how people in Scotland or England, or in any other country can tell that they are looking in the same direction, just as surely as if they were side by side, although they may be many miles or hundreds of miles apart.

CHAPTER III.

GREAT BRITAIN.

I DARESAY you have often heard of the Queen; perhaps, indeed, you have seen her. The Queen is the head and chief person of the Government of Great Britain, but she herself does not govern; she governs by her councillors, a number of gentlemen whom she appoints to consider everything that can be done for the good of the country.

There are, besides, a great number of gentlemen, chosen by the people in the different towns and in different parts of the country, who meet and talk over the business of the country, and advise the Queen's Councillors, in a large room which is called the House of Commons; for the common people are the commons, and these gentlemen are chosen by the commons.

There is another room which is called the House of Lords, and there the Lords talk over the business of the State, and consider what they should advise the Queen and the Queen's Councillors to do. The Lords are not chosen by the people, but are made Lords by the Queen, because she thinks them fit men

to advise her; or else their fathers, or ancestors, were chosen by former kings or queens, and they sit in the House of Lords because the privilege has descended to them; they have inherited it, just as if it was property, and they will leave it, in the same way, to their eldest sons.

You must remember, then, that the Government of Great Britain is carried on by the Queen and her Councillors, who are advised by the members of the House of Lords and of the House of Commons; and that the House of Lords and the House of Commons together are called the Houses of Parliament.

The Houses of Parliament, and the offices where the Queen's Councillors work, and the State House, or palace, where the Queen sometimes lives, are all in a very big town which is called London. A very great many people live in London, and among them are a very great many little boys and girls, some of whom, I hope, will read this book, and think that I am writing it just for them.

It is because everybody who helps the Queen in governing this great country lives in London, or at least works in London, that London is considered the chief town or capital of Great Britain; and because all these great and rich people, and many of the Queen's friends and attendants, live there, and the Queen often holds her Court there, London has grown by degrees to be very large and very rich.

But, besides this, there is in London a very great

deal of business with other countries, about which I will tell you by and by. A large river, called the Thames, passes through London and pours its water into the sea; and as this river is very deep, great ships come up to London, and bring there all sorts of merchandise from other countries, or take away things which grow or are made in England, and which they sell to strangers. This bringing things to England from other countries, and taking things to them out of England, buying what we want, and selling what we don't want, is called commerce; and the men who make a business of commerce are called merchants.

Now if a merchant is clever and minds his business, he often gets very rich; and as there are a great many merchants in London, there is a great deal of money; and it is this, quite as much as the presence of the Queen and the Parliament, that makes London such a large and rich town.

So, as I have told you about London and its river, the Thames, I must show you whereabouts it is. It is near the south of England, and also near the east side; you will know, then, to look for it on the map near the bottom right-hand corner; and close to it you will see the River Thames, which flows for a great way from west to east, that is, on the map, from left to right. At London the Thames gets very much wider, and its water gets salt from the sea, and it becomes a part of the sea. When the sea comes in

this way into the land, that part of it is called an arm of the sea; but sometimes, when the arm of the sea is made by a river widening out, as the Thames does, it is called an estuary; and so the wide part of the Thames below London, on the east side of London, is called the estuary of the Thames.

Besides London there are a great many other towns in Great Britain which are near the sea, either on arms of the sea or estuaries of rivers, so that ships come to them, and they have a great deal of commerce, some of them as much as London. I will tell you the names of some of them, and you must try and find them on the map, and remember whereabouts they are.

Liverpool is the richest and largest town in England, except London; it is on the west side, on the estuary of a river called the Mersey.

Glasgow is another very large and rich town, almost as large as Liverpool; it is in Scotland, on the west side, a long way north of Liverpool, and you will see that it is at the beginning of the estuary of the river Clyde.

Bristol is in England, and also on the west side: you will find it on the south shore of a large arm of the sea which is called the Bristol Channel, and at the mouth of the little river Avon, which opens into the Bristol Channel; and whilst you are looking at that part of the map, you should notice that the

beginning of the Bristol Channel is the estuary of the River Severn, the largest river in Great Britain except the Thames. And just where the Severn begins to widen out into its estuary is the town named Gloucester, which has not much commerce, because the river is not deep enough for large ships to come to it.

Now, if you will look along the south coast of England, you will see Plymouth; it stands between two arms of the sea, the westernmost of which runs a great way into the land and is very deep, so that it is an excellent harbour, a place where ships can lie safely, sheltered from storms. This harbour is called Hamoaze; the ships that lie there are almost all ships of war, whose duty it is to fight the Queen's battles in different parts of the world, and to protect our merchant ships from robbers. There is not much commerce at Plymouth; and the merchant ships that come there do not go into Hamoaze, but into the much smaller harbour on the east side of the town. This is called Catwater, and is really the estuary of the little river Plym, which gives its name to the town; for Plymouth is only another way of saying the mouth of the Plym.

Some way to the east of Plymouth is Southampton, which is the principal town for commerce in the South of England: its harbour is part of a large arm of the sea, known as Southampton Water, and is sheltered from all bad weather by an island which is just opposite to it. This island is called the Isle of

Wight. It is only a small island, but it is very pretty, and warm. It is a favourite place of the Queen's, and she has had a large house built there, facing Southampton Water; it is called Osborne, and she goes to it very often when she can get away from London.

Close to Southampton, a little way to the east, is Portsmouth, which also has a large harbour where ships of war lie. There is very little commerce at Portsmouth, but it and Plymouth are almost entirely naval ports; ships of war are built and fitted out there, and the business of the people who live there belongs to the navy. There are a great many soldiers there to guard the Government works and stores; and of course there are a great many sailors.

Now let us look along the east coast of England, and a little to the north of the Thames you will see Yarmouth, which has no harbour, and the river Yar is a very little stream, into which only very small ships can come; but Yarmouth is a busy place, because a great many fish are caught in the sea near there, and are brought to Yarmouth to be dried; it is there that great numbers of herrings are made into red herrings or bloaters; and when you hear of Yarmouth bloaters, remember that they are called so because they are cured at Yarmouth.

Farther to the north you will see Hull, on the Humber, a large arm of the sea; and beyond that Newcastle, on the river Tyne, where there is a great

deal of trade in coal, which is dug out of the earth near there. Then, if you look along the east coast of Scotland you will see a large arm of the sea called the Frith of Forth; and near it, on the south side, is a large and beautiful town called Edinburgh, where, long ago, when Scotland was a separate kingdom, before it joined with England, the king of Scotland and his Government used to live. In those days Edinburgh was the capital of Scotland, as London was of England, and it is often called so even now; but as there is no separate king or queen of Scotland or England, and no separate Government, there is really no capital of either Scotland or England, but London is the capital of Great Britain.

To the north of the Frith of Forth there is another arm of the sea, the Frith of Tay, which is really the estuary of the river Tay; and beside this is the town of Dundee, a very busy and wealthy place; and still farther north you will see Aberdeen between two little rivers, the Don and the Dee, neither of which is large enough to hold many ships, and those that do come there are not very big.

Now, if you have found all these places on the map, you should try and remember their position, and what each is distinguished for; you should try and remember the names of the rivers or arms of the sea near each, and follow the rivers back, to see what direction they run in. It is not by merely reading, or by being told, that you will ever learn to know these; you must

learn them from the map, and then try and draw them yourself.

You have, I hope, learned to draw the outline map of Great Britain; now try to mark on it the places we have been talking about; never mind if you are not quite right at first, you will get better by and by; and in this, as in everything you have to do, the first secret of success is to take pains.

Now, then, take your slate, draw the outline map of Great Britain, and mark the towns:—London, Liverpool, Glasgow, Bristol, Gloucester, Plymouth, Southampton, Portsmouth, Yarmouth, Newcastle, Edinburgh, Dundee, and Aberdeen. Mark also the names of the harbours, arms of the sea, or estuaries beside these towns; and try and copy the course of the rivers which open out into these estuaries—the Thames, the Mersey, the Clyde, the Severn, the Tyne, and the Tay.

CHAPTER IV.

ENGLAND.

I HAVE told you that the whole of Great Britain is governed by the Queen, as advised by her Councillors or Ministers, and the two Houses of Parliament, the Lords and the Commons; but for the more easy carrying out the Government, every part of the country has a little government of its own; and for this purpose the country is divided into a great number of parts, each of which is quite independent of the others, but is subject to the Queen's government and the Parliament.

These parts of the country are now called counties, because they were formerly ruled over by a nobleman who was called a count or earl; but they were first of all called shires, an old word which meant shares or divisions.

I am going to tell you about the counties or shires: and I will begin with England.

If you look at your map, you will see that the northernmost shire is Northumberland. The river Tyne, that you have already heard of, falls into the

sea at its southern boundary: Newcastle which is on—that is, is close to—the Tyne, is in Northumberland. I hope you remember that I told you that a great deal of coal comes from Newcastle. It is found underground in deep pits in Northumberland and in the county which is next to it, Durham.

Between Durham and Yorkshire is the little river Tees. Yorkshire, you will see, is a very large county, and stretches all the way to the Humber; it is the largest county in England, and has a great many large towns. Besides Hull, which you have already found on the map, there is York, which is the chief town of the county, and has a very large and beautiful church called the Minster; and there is Leeds, where a great deal of cloth is made; and Sheffield, where they make knives, and carpenters' tools, and all sorts of things in steel; and Halifax, where they make blankets; and a great many more, whose names you may learn from the map, and which I daresay you will read about by and by.

Now, long ago, these three counties were subject to one earl, whose dominion extended all the way from the Humber to the Frith of Forth, and it was called North-Humber-Land, or Northumberland: but later on, after many cruel wars and much hard fighting, the northern part of this became part of Scotland, and the name of Northumberland was kept by only the one county which now has it.

Now look to the west of Northumberland, and

you will see the county called Cumberland, and fitting in between it and Yorkshire is Westmoreland. Cumberland is a very mountainous country, with bogs or swamps, and lakes, which are very large ponds; and so, as I told you at the first, when the English drove the old inhabitants, the Britons, in amongst the mountains and bogs, they lived here long after they had been driven out of the rest of England; and as these people called themselves Kymri, or perhaps Kymbri, the country they lived in was called the land of the Kymri, or Cumberland. Westmoreland is, in that way, really part of Cumberland; but it has been cut off and made a little county of itself: it is, as its name may tell you, a land of moor, that is, of wild land where nothing grows but heather and coarse grass and bracken; and it is on the west of the older English country; it is, therefore, West-moor-land, though the name is now always written Westmoreland.

Cumberland and Westmoreland were, then, very long ago, part of Scotland; and the country from Morecambe Bay—a deep and large bend of the coast, where the sea comes a long way in between the land—from Morecambe Bay to the Frith of Clyde formed one province called Strathclyde, which means the valley of the Clyde.

A valley is the low-lying land between mountains, hills, or even gentle slopes; and as water always runs down to the lowest land it can find, the course of a

river always follows the line of the valley, and all the rain that falls on the sides of the hills finds its way in little streams, or trickling rills, into the bottom of the valley and into the river: so that the valley of a river means the country it flows through; and Strathclyde means the country near the Clyde.

South of Cumberland and Westmoreland is Lancashire, a large tract of land which for a long time was so poor and so thinly peopled, that it lay almost unclaimed. Part of it belonged to Strathclyde, or Cumberland, part to Yorkshire, and part to Cheshire, the county next to it on the south. The land is not very fertile, and there are wide patches of bog, and miles of barren sand; so that nobody cared very much about it. But the few people who lived there were forced by the poorness of their land to be very industrious, and to work at different trades, in which they became very clever; and then they invented all sorts of machines to help them in their work; and so, by little and little, Lancashire came to be no longer the poorest, but the richest and most populous of all the counties in England.

And there are in Lancashire a great many very large and very rich towns. I told you of Liverpool, which is so rich because of its commerce, and the great deal of merchandise which is brought in ships to the river Mersey: but besides Liverpool, there is Manchester, which is almost, if not quite as big as Liverpool, and which is very rich, although it has no

large river, and no ships; but it has a great many manufactories, places where people make thread and calico and all sorts of cotton cloths; and in this way they get a great deal of money; so that the manufacturers of Manchester are, I daresay, quite as rich as the merchants of Liverpool.

And besides Manchester there are other towns, all more or less engaged in manufactures. . At Rochdale, blankets and flannel are made; at Bolton and Oldham, calicoes and thread; near Wigan, there are many coal-pits, which give a supply of coal for the engines that are worked in the manufactories; and at St. Helens there are large glass-works, where they make window-glass, and looking-glasses, and drinking-glasses—tumblers, wine-glasses and decanters: they make also at St. Helens large quantities of something little boys and girls do not like very much—Epsom Salts; but you see, as it is made at St. Helens, it is really St. Helens' salts.

But there are some places in Lancashire where things not quite so nasty are made: there is Ormskirk, where Ormskirk gingerbread comes from; and you will find the home of Eccles cakes not very far from Manchester. And close to Liverpool, there is Everton, which used to be famous for toffee: but the Everton toffee-shop has been pulled down, and at present Everton toffee is all made in Liverpool.

Now if you have found all these places on the map, and look at the position of these six counties that I

have been telling you about, you will see that the estuary of the Mersey and that of the Humber come nearly opposite to each other, and mark off these northern counties from the rest of England: and if you bear in mind what I told you, that those counties on the east side were once part of a big county which was then all called Northumberland; and that, on the west side, Cumberland, Westmoreland, and the northern part of Lancashire, belonged to Strathclyde; you will understand that the people of these counties are a little different from those of the rest of England; and though they are English, they have mixed a good deal both with Scotch, and the old Kymri, and with other people, called Danes, of whom I will tell you something by and by: they are taller and stronger than the men of the rest of England, and they speak with a broader and harsher pronunciation.

Now then, as you know the names of the six northern countries—Northumberland, Durham, Yorkshire, on the east side; Cumberland, Westmoreland, Lancashire, on the west; try and draw them on your slate; mark them off on your outline map; and write the names over and over again, till you are quite sure you can write them correctly, without the book.

CHAPTER V.

ENGLAND—*continued.*

Now, if you will look again at your map, you will see that just south of the Humber, and coming up to the very large Yorkshire, is Lincolnshire, which, next to Yorkshire, is the biggest county in England. And next to that, on the sea-coast, is Norfolk; and sticking in between Lincolnshire and Norfolk is Cambridgeshire; on the west of that, and touching the south side of Lincolnshire is Northamptonshire; then, pushing itself in between Northamptonshire and Cambridgeshire is Huntingdon, and farther south Bedfordshire.

All these counties are very flat, and just at that part where they come closest together is a large swampy country which is called the Fen country, or the Fens. Fens are very much the same as swamps, but they have, perhaps, more water; and all over this part of the country the water used to lie, so that it was difficult to say whether it was land or lake; but a great deal of this has been drained now by cutting large deep ditches, almost like canals, for the water to run into, and making great banks to raise

the sides and keep the water from flowing over the country. The land is very little higher than the sea, so that the rivers Ouse and Welland are not able to carry off the water; and the sea itself, where it makes a large bay called the Wash, between Lincolnshire and Norfolk, is very shallow. Long ago this was land, but the sea broke in over it and washed it away; and now they are trying to build banks or dykes to shut the sea out and get back part of the land again.

There are no large manufacturing towns in these counties, and the trade is almost entirely in corn, and fat cattle, and sheep; the principal towns you should notice are Lincoln, Norwich, Ely, and Peterborough, each of which is celebrated for its beautiful church or cathedral, and Cambridge, which has one of the great universities of England. A university is a place where young men go to study, and where the wisest and most learned men of the country work and teach. In this university of Cambridge there is a very large library, containing many thousands of books, and now, whenever a book is printed in Great Britain, a copy of it is put there, so that it gets larger every year.

When the English, and the other kindred tribes with them, first came into this country, as I told you before, the two easternmost counties were those in which the Angles or English themselves settled; and from there they spread towards the north, over Lincolnshire and the counties north of the Humber,

which you will remember were all joined under the one name Northumberland; but these two counties where they first settled were then called East Anglia, and were separately the lands of the North folk and of the South folk, which got shortened into the present names, Norfolk and Suffolk. They are very fertile counties, and the grass is so good that a great many cattle are bred there, and a great many turkeys which are killed about Christmas time each year and sent up to London to feast the people of that great town.

Immediately south of Suffolk, and separated from it by the little river Stour, the mouth of which forms a large estuary and falls into the sea at Harwich, is Essex, that is to say the land of the East Saxons; and joining on to Essex, at the south-west corner, is Middlesex, or the land of the Middle Saxons, a very little county, but a very important one, because London, the chief town and capital of Great Britain, is in it. Now that London has grown so big, it has spread over a great part of this little county, and stretches out into Hertfordshire and over part of Essex, and across the river too, into the counties of Surrey and Kent; so that these five counties, Middlesex, Hertfordshire, Essex, Surrey, and Kent, are very often called the home counties; that is, you know, they are close to London, which is the home of the Queen, and her ministers, and the members of

Parliament who are chosen by the people all over the country.

Now go over these names again, and try and remember them; write them on your slate, that you may learn how to spell them; and then draw them in their proper places in the map of England:—

Lincolnshire, Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridgeshire, Northamptonshire, Huntingdonshire, and Bedfordshire; Essex, Middlesex, and Hertfordshire; Surrey, and Kent.

CHAPTER VI.

ENGLAND—*continued.*

We must now look along the south coast of England, and you will see next to Kent, Sussex, the land of the South Saxons; and beyond that, to the west, is what was once called the land of the West Saxons, or Wessex, but is divided into several counties. The first of these is Hampshire, in which are Southampton, and the great naval town, Portsmouth, that I told you of before, and Winchester, which, long ago, was the capital of all the south of England.

Hampshire is a very beautful country, with many fine trees; there is in it a large forest extending for many miles, where the kings of England used to hunt deer; and the oak trees from this forest supplied the wood that the ships at Portsmouth were built of; but now that ships of war are almost all built of iron, these oak trees are not so highly prized as formerly. Lying along the north of Hampshire is Berkshire, and to the west of both Hampshire and Berkshire is Wiltshire, whose chief town, Salisbury, has a magnificent church, with a very high spire, the highest in all England.

Close to Salisbury begins a wide-spreading tract of country, on which it was believed that nothing would grow, but short grass and small, very prickly thistles. For miles and miles and miles, there was nothing to be seen but grass, and thistles, and sheep feeding on them. This is called Salisbury Plain; not that it is exactly a plain, for it is all ups and downs, little hills with very gentle slopes, almost like waves or ripples on the water. Such a country is sometimes called a rolling plain; for the ground looks almost as if it was moving, and rolling along.

Salisbury Plain is now much smaller than it used to be; for a good deal of the land has been ploughed up and cultivated, so that corn grows now in many places where some few years ago there was nothing but the short grass or the low dumpy thistles; and by and by, perhaps by the time you are old enough to go and see it, it will all be corn fields, and Salisbury Plain will be merely an old name, without any particular meaning.

But though it is smaller than it used to be, Salisbury Plain is still very large, and in the middle of it is a very curious building, made entirely of huge stones; it was there when the English came into the country, and has stood ever since, though it is now very much broken down. Nobody knows what it is, or who built it, or what it was built for; but it is believed to have been a holy place, where the old Britons used to worship; or perhaps it was where they used to meet, to talk

about the government of the country, like our Houses of Parliament. It is called Stonehenge, which means Hanging Stones; this is a picture of it, and will show you why it should get the name of Hanging Stones; although a great many of the stones have fallen down, and been broken up.

South of Wiltshire, and west of Hampshire, is Dorsetshire; and to the west of Wiltshire is Somersetshire. All this, as I told you, was formerly the country of the West Saxons, or Wessex; and the old Britons, being driven before the Saxons, were gradually pushed into the corner, where the country is very hilly, almost mountainous, and wild moorland: but bit by bit the English gained on them, and so Devonshire and Cornwall became English territory; but Cornwall much later than Devonshire; and the old natives of Cornwall were not killed or made slaves, as they had been in other parts of the country; they were received by the English as fellow-subjects, and lived on there, speaking their own language. By little and little, the memory of this died away, and now for many years the people of Cornwall speak only English; but you will understand that they are not quite the same as the rest of the English; as the people of Hampshire or Wiltshire, for instance, where the old Britons were all killed out; for in Devonshire, and still more in Cornwall, a great many of them remained; and in the course of time, got mixed up with the English, and are now

STONEHENGE.

always called English; but they are really a mixed people, using in their talk many words which are not English, and having many customs and ways of doing things which they have inherited from the Britons.

In the western part of Devonshire, and in Cornwall, are a great many mines of tin and lead. Tin is found there in greater quantities than anywhere else; so that a very great many of the Cornishmen are miners, and work all day in deep dark holes, called mines, digging out the earth which contains the tin or the lead. I have already told you of Plymouth, a large town in Devonshire, where ships of war assemble in the harbour, Hamoaze; but besides Plymouth there are several other towns, the largest of which is Exeter. Many years ago, when there were no railways, Exeter used to be considered the capital of the west of England; for this corner is more westerly than any other part of England, and is very often spoken of as the West Country; a name that includes Cornwall and Devonshire, and sometimes also Somersetshire.

Now all these counties which I have just been telling you of were long ago the kingdom, and then earldom of Wessex; that is, from the western border of Sussex and Surrey, away to the farthest part of Cornwall, and from the River Thames, and the Bristol Channel to the sea-coast on the south of England. You must learn their names:—

Sussex; Hampshire, Berkshire, Wiltshire, Dorsetshire, Somersetshire, Devonshire, and Cornwall.

And you must notice on the map that the southernmost part of England is in Cornwall; it is a point jutting far out into the sea, and is called the Lizard: the westernmost point of England is also in Cornwall, and its name explains itself; it is the Land's End.

CHAPTER VII.

ENGLAND—*continued.*

You must now follow up on the map the counties which lie along the boundary between England and Wales.

The first of these is Monmouth, the south of which is washed by the water of the Bristol Channel; it takes its name from the town Monmouth, at the mouth of the little river Monow, where it falls into the river Wye, and is only the short way of saying Monow-mouth. On the east side of Monmouth is Gloucestershire; and you will see the town of Gloucester near the mouth of the river Severn, one of the largest rivers of England, which, just below Gloucester, opens into an estuary, and widens out till it becomes the Bristol Channel.

North of these is Hereford, next to Wales, and Worcester. In both these counties there are a great many apple-trees: the apples are not very good to eat, but they are crushed up, and from the juice a drink is made called cider: it is rather sour, and I daresay you would not like it at all; but

those who are accustomed to it get very fond of it, and think it very nice. In Worcestershire pears are crushed up in the same way, to make a drink called perry, which is something like cider; but the principal business of the people in Worcestershire is to make porcelain—cups and saucers, and plates and dishes, for tea and dinner; and there are also large manufactories of carpets, more especially at Kidderminster, a town near the northern edge of the county. It is from this town that Kidderminster carpets got their name: it was, perhaps, the first place they were made in, and though they are not made there now, they have kept their old name.

North of Hereford, and touching Wales, is Shropshire; east of which, and north of Worcestershire, is Stafford. Stafford is a very busy county, but is not very pretty; for there are in it a great many iron mines and coal-mines; and the dust and dirt from these, and the smoke of the large fires which are used to melt out the iron from the earth it is mixed up with, make the greater part of the county very grimy; so that this is often called the Black Country.

Next to these, and still adjoining Wales, is Cheshire, the chief town of which, Chester, is the most old-fashioned looking town in England. It is still surrounded by walls, which were built long ago to keep out the Welsh, the Britons, who had been driven into Wales, and were for a long time trying to get back into England, and fought very boldly for

the country which the English had taken from them, and which they thought was theirs. The shops and houses are still as they were three or four hundred years ago, very quaint and pretty, but perhaps not so comfortable as newer houses might be. There is, too, a very beautiful old church, or cathedral; for the town long ago, in the time of the wars between the English and the Welsh, was a place of great importance, as a castle and fortress beyond which the Welsh could not safely pass.

Now go over these counties near Wales again, and be quite sure that you know their names, and where to find them on the map, and how to draw them in on your slate:—

Monmouthshire, Gloucestershire; Herefordshire, Worcestershire; Shropshire or Salop, Staffordshire, and Cheshire.

CHAPTER VIII.

ENGLAND—*continued.*

I HAVE got very nearly to the end of the English counties now; for I have told you of all except a few that lie quite in the middle of the country, and are therefore generally called the Midland Counties. So look once more at your map, and you will see immediately east of Cheshire, and south of Yorkshire, Derbyshire, a very hilly county. In the eastern part of it, round about Chesterfield, and where it borders on Nottinghamshire, are many coal-pits; and so there are in the northern part of Nottinghamshire, near Retford.

Touching Derby and Nottingham on the south, is Leicestershire; and on the east side of Leicestershire is Rutlandshire, the smallest county in England, a pleasant, quiet, pretty little county, with pretty little gently sloping hills, but with no mines or manufactures; and it has two quiet little towns, Oakham and Uppingham, where there is little or no trade, and where everybody would sleep all day long, if it were not for a big school for boys at Uppingham,

which just serves to keep the people awake. This prettiness, and cleanness, and quietness, have made Rutlandshire a favourite place for gentlemen to live in; so that there are in it a great many gentlemen's houses, and the whole county is almost like a well-kept park.

On the south-western side of Leicestershire, lying between Staffordshire and Worcestershire on the west, and Northamptonshire on the east, is Warwickshire, the north-western part of which, near to Staffordshire, must be included in the Black Country; and indeed Birmingham, a town in that part of Warwickshire, is to be considered the chief town of the Black Country. It is at Birmingham that almost all the things of iron and brass, which you have at home, are made: fire-grates, fenders, and fire-irons; buttons, pins, and needles, steel pens, and a great many other things which would take me too long to tell you. Not very far from Birmingham is Coventry, where a great deal of silk ribbon is made; but in the southern part of the county there are no manufacturing towns. The Black Country scarcely comes south of Birmingham, and the rest of the county is very pretty.

Next to Warwickshire is Oxfordshire, a county also well cultivated and pretty. Oxford, the chief town of it, has a large university, just like that at Cambridge, which I hope you remember about; and there are there a great many beautiful colleges, which are the different houses of the university; and

a large library, quite as large as that at Cambridge, called the Bodleian Library. There are no manufactures, or manufacturing towns in Oxfordshire; and the only other town in it that I will ask you to look for is one that I daresay every little boy and girl has heard of. It is Banbury, and at the end of the principal street is the town cross—not the cross that you used to be told to ride a-cock-horse to, for it is quite a new one, and is very different from what it was when the lady used to ride by, with bells on her toes; but it stands in the same place as the old one did. Banbury is a very quiet little town without any great trade or traffic; but excellent ale is made there, and everybody knows about Banbury cakes.

Joining Oxfordshire on the east side is Buckinghamshire, which like Oxfordshire has no manufactures of any size or importance, and is well cultivated and rich in corn and other things grown in the fields.

Now then, you are to remember the Midland Counties, just as I hope you have the others; they are—

Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, Leicestershire, Rutlandshire, Warwickshire, Oxfordshire, and Buckinghamshire.

CHAPTER IX.

ENGLAND—*continued.*

You have now learnt the names of all the counties of England; but I daresay it will take you a little time before you remember them quite easily; and you should be able to spell them as well. So I give you them again in a list, each one with its chief town; but I should tell you that the chief town is very often not the largest or most busy town of the county, though it is generally the one that was the largest or the most important long ago, and it is in it that the government of the county centres. The names of many of the counties are derived from the names of their chief towns, and to distinguish them the little word shire is generally added; but this is sometimes left out for shortness, and there are several counties which are never called shire. You must notice these as you are learning them.

You should go over this list again and again; and try how many you can say without looking at the book, or how many you can mark in on a blank map without copying; and you may bear in mind that there are forty of them in all.

Six Northern Counties.

Northumberland .	Chief town,	Newcastle.
Durham . .	„	Durham.
Yorkshire . .	„	York.
Cumberland . .	„	Carlisle.
Westmoreland .	„	Appleby.
Lancashire . .	„	Lancaster.

Seven Eastern Counties.

Lincolnshire .	Chief town,	Lincoln.
Norfolk . .	„	Norwich.
Suffolk . .	„	Ipswich.
Cambridgeshire .	„	Cambridge.
Northamptonshire.	„	Northampton.
Huntingdonshire .	„	Huntingdon.
Bedfordshire .	„	Bedford.

Five Home Counties.

Middlesex . .	Chief town,	Brentford.
Hertfordshire .	„	Hertford.
Essex . . .	„	Chelmsford.
Surrey . .	„	Guildford.
Kent . . .	„	Maidstone.

You should notice here that though London is the chief town of all Great Britain, it is not considered the chief town of the county of Middlesex: the

business of the county government is carried on at Brentford.

Eight Southern Counties.

Sussex . .	Chief town,	Chichester.
Hampshire . .	„	Winchester.
Berkshire . .	„	Reading.
Wiltshire . .	„	Salisbury.
Dorsetshire . .	„	Dorchester.
Somersetshire .	„	Taunton.
Devonshire . .	„	Exeter.
Cornwall . .	„	Launceston.

Seven Western Counties.

Monmouthshire .	Chief town,	Monmouth.
Gloucestershire .	„	Gloucester.
Herefordshire .	„	Hereford.
Worcestershire .	„	Worcester.
Shropshire . .	„	Shrewsbury.
Staffordshire .	„	Stafford.
Cheshire . .	„	Chester.

Seven Midland Counties.

Derbyshire. .	Chief town,	Derby.
Nottinghamshire .	„	Nottingham.
Leicestershire .	„	Leicester.
Rutlandshire .	„	Oakham.

Warwickshire	Chief town,	Warwick.
Oxfordshire	„	Oxford.
Buckinghamshire	„	Buckingham.

Now let us count:—

Northern Counties	6
Eastern Counties	7
Home Counties	5
Southern Counties	8
Western Counties	7
Midland Counties	7
And all together	40

CHAPTER X.

WALES.

You will remember that I told you how the English, when they came into this country, drove the old inhabitants, the Britons, before them, in amongst the mountains. Wales, where many of them took refuge, is a very mountainous country; and some of the mountains are very high, much higher than any in England. The English called all people who did not speak their language, Welsh. They called the Britons Welsh, and the country in which the Welsh lived got the name of Wales; but the Welsh called themselves Kymri, and their country they called Cambria.

It was long before the English could overcome the Welsh, and they never could drive them out of their strongholds; but after many wars and fights, the Welsh were so far conquered, that they became subjects of the English kings, and were admitted to all the privileges of Englishmen. They now live in the same way as Englishmen, are subject to the same laws, and send members to the Houses of Parliament,

just as if they were English ; but they are of quite different descent. Their forefathers were Britons, not English; and in some out-of-the-way parts of their country, they still speak the language of the Britons, which we call Welsh. There are some places in Wales where English is not understood, and more especially by the old people; for the young men and women have generally learned English at school, even if they do not speak it.

Wales is now divided into counties, in much the same way that England is; and you must learn their names and whereabouts they are.

In the south there are six counties; Glamorgan, in which are many coal and iron mines, and therefore a good deal of trade and manufacture; and there are two towns, Cardiff and Swansea, on the coast of the Bristol Channel, where there is a great deal of merchant-shipping: then comes Caermarthen; and in the extreme west is Pembroke, which is the only county of Wales that is not very hilly. Pembroke is as level as most of the counties of England, and was therefore taken possession of by the English long before they could overpower the Welsh in the mountains; many English settled in Pembroke, so that, long ago, it was sometimes spoken of as little England beyond Wales. North of these three lie Cardigan on the west, washed by the sea, and Brecknock on the east, joining on to Hereford; and on the north of Brecknock is Radnor.

These six counties, Glamorgan, Caermarthen, Pembroke, Cardigan, Brecknock, and Radnor, form the southern division of Wales. Except Pembroke, they are all very hilly and in some places mountainous; but the mountains are not so high or steep as in the northern division, which also contains six counties. Of these, Montgomery is the largest of all the Welsh counties, and in it is the bold, grass-covered mountain, Plinlimmon. Plinlimmon was long a stronghold of the Welsh; it is very swampy, and therefore, even now, dangerous for strangers: from two separate patches of swamp near the top rise the two rivers Wye and Severn, which flow away into England some distance apart, but meet again in the Bristol Channel. Merioneth, which is next to the sea, on the west of Montgomery, has two or three large mountains, the most noted of which is Cader-Idris, a little south of the small town of Dolgelly. Next to Merioneth is Caernarvon, which is the most rugged and mountainous county of all, and has in it Snowdon, the highest mountain in all Wales; the name of Snowdon means a hill covered with snow; for these high mountains are very cold, and there is often snow there even in the middle of summer. East of Caernarvon is Denbigh and then Flint, which joins on to Cheshire, though near the sea it is separated from it by the estuary of the Dee. The remaining county, Anglesea, is really another island, quite by itself, for a narrow arm of the sea, the Menai Strait,

separates it from the mainland. Over this strait there are two bridges, at a great height above the water. The road goes over by one and the railway by the other, and so Anglesea is joined to Wales, of which it is considered to be a county.

Wales, being such a mountainous country, has but little room for manufactures. I have told you of Pembroke, where the land is well cultivated; and of the towns of Cardiff and Swansea, where there is a good deal of shipping: there are, besides, lead-mines on some of the mountains; and there are some valuable coal-pits: there are also a great many little sheep running almost wild over the hills, from which we get a most delicious mutton.

So now you must remember that in Wales are twelve counties:

In the northern division . .	6
In the southern division . .	6
In both together . .	12

and their names are:—

In the northern division—

Anglesea, Caernarvon, Denbigh, Flint, Montgomery, and Merioneth:

And in the southern division—

Radnor, Brecknock, Cardigan, Pembroke, Caermarthen, and Glamorgan.

Try and remember all these names, and learn to mark them on your map.

CHAPTER XI.

SCOTLAND.

I HAVE already told you that when the English came into Britain and drove the old inhabitants back into the more mountainous parts of the country, they occupied at first all the land along the east coast as far as the Frith of Forth, and that the large district extending from the Humber to the Forth was all called Northumberland. The Britons were driven into the west, where the country is much more hilly, and they kept themselves safely there for a long time; their territory reaching from Morecambe Bay to the Frith of Clyde, and being known at first as Strathclyde, that is the valley of the Clyde, and afterwards as Cumberland. The Scots or Scotch—a people kindred to, but not quite the same as, the Kymri who gave their name to Cumberland—were at that time confined to the country north of the Clyde; but they gradually spread eastwards, and occupied the land north of the Forth.

Scotland properly so called, that is, the land of the Scots, is, then, the country extending from the

Frith of Forth on the east side, to the Frith of Clyde on the west side, northwards; and the capital of Scotland was then Dunfermline, a town in the large county of Fife. For long afterwards, the kings of Scotland used to live sometimes at Dunfermline, and the ruins of their palace still stand there, and the Abbey Church, where several of them were buried. But Dunfermline is now only an ordinary town, where most of the people are manufacturers, and make linen, more especially table-linen, such as table-cloths and napkins.

If you look at your map you will see the county of Fife lying along the east coast, between the Friths of Forth and of Tay; and on its west side are two little counties, Clackmannan and Kinross, which lie between it and Perth, the largest county of Scotland, just as Yorkshire is of England; though Inverness, the county lying north of Perth, and the one next to it, Ross, are very nearly as large; but these are very mountainous and wild.

There is not much cultivated land in either Ross or Inverness; and the mountains, some of which are very high, are covered with heather, which can feed nothing but grouse. But walking about among the mountains and through the heather is so pleasant, and shooting grouse is such good sport, that this part of Scotland is the playground for a great many of the richest men in England, who pay large sums of money for permission to go there to shoot, during two or three months in the autumn.

North of Ross is Sutherland, to the east of which lies Caithness, the extreme point of Scotland. These two counties are also very wild, but the mountains are not nearly so high, or the scenery so fine as in the others.

You will see on the map, scattered all about the large county of Ross, patches differently coloured, marked Part of Cromarty; but you will not find any large county of Cromarty. The town of Cromarty is on a narrow tongue of land, which you will see stretching out on the east of Ross, between two large arms of the sea—the Frith of Cromarty on the north, and Moray Frith, which runs far into the land and gets the name of Inverness Frith, on the south, or rather south-east. A very small bit of country, close round this town, is really all the county of Cromarty, so that you might almost think Cromarty had been broken up into crumbs, and thrown all about Ross.

If you will now look to the east of Cromarty, along the south coast of the Moray Frith, you will see the three small counties, Nairn, Elgin,—which is also called Moray,—and Banff. Then you will come to Aberdeen, which fills up the corner sticking out into the sea: the extreme point of this is a rocky headland, called Peterhead, which gives its name to a little town where a great many of the men are engaged in catching or selling fish. To catch fish they go away to the sea far north, where they get whales and other large fish that they can sell for a great deal of money. Peter-

head itself is made of a stone which is very valuable for ornamental building; so a great deal of it is dug out and sent by ship to other places—to London and other large towns; it is a very hard stone, red, mottled with white and grey, and specks like shining glass: it is most commonly called Peterhead granite, and I daresay you may know it by that name; but its proper name, to distinguish it from all other sorts of stone, is syenite.

A little south of Peterhead is Aberdeen, the chief town of the county, and a seaport. It has a large trade, principally with London, to which it sends, amongst other things, a great deal of beef: there are also there many manufactories of paper, and of cotton, woollen, or linen cloths; and there is a large university; so that altogether it is the most important town in the north of Scotland. Near Aberdeen are large quarries of a grey speckled stone, which is the real granite: it is very hard and much used for building, and is sent to England in great quantities: the coarser kinds, in square blocks something bigger than bricks, are used for paving the streets of towns; many of the streets of London, especially where there is much heavy traffic,—where heavy carts are constantly going,—are paved with Aberdeen granite.

South of Aberdeen is Kincardine, and next to it is Forfar, with the large commercial and manufacturing town of Dundee, on the north coast of the Frith of

Tay; and then comes Fife, of which I told you before. But on the west side of Perth is Argyle, a very wild and rugged county, with long narrow creeks, or arms of the sea, running far into the land, some of which you will see named in the map, as Loch Linnhe, or Loch Fyne.

Loch is the name the Scotch give to a lake, which, you will remember, is a large sheet of water, with land all round it, like a very big pond. Loch Linnhe, Loch Fyne, and others that you will see marked on the map, are then not real lochs, for they are arms of the sea, and the sea-water flows in and out with the tide; but they are so closed in by land that they are very like lochs; and at any rate, the Scotch, who live near them, have chosen to call them lochs. Besides these long lochs, or arms of the sea, running into the land, there are several long narrow pieces of land, tongues they are sometimes called, sticking out into the sea. The strangest-looking of these is Kintyre, or Cantyre, which I want you to look at very closely on the map. You will see that the sea goes nearly all round it; all except a little bit, where it joins on to the mainland, which has been dug through so as to make a canal, by which steamers can pass from one side to the other; I daresay it is marked on your map by a black line, and the name, the Crinan Canal. Now I have to tell you that a piece of land which sticks out into the sea like this, and has the sea almost all round it, so that

it is very nearly an island, is called a peninsula; and the narrow bit of land, I may say the neck of land, which joins it to the main, is called an isthmus. You must remember these names; they do not belong to Kintyre alone, but to every piece of land which sticks out as it does, and has a narrow neck joining it to the main; and if you look along the coast of Argyle, and northwards along the west coast of Inverness and Ross, you will see many other creeks or friths, or lochs running into the land, and many tongues of land, or peninsulas, each with its isthmus, sticking out into the sea.

Next to Argyle is Dumbarton; and to the east of Dumbarton, lying you may think in its lap, and joining on to Perth, is Stirling, which extends, on the east side, to the Frith of Forth.

Now these counties that I have been telling you of make up the real Scotland. They are inhabited by Scotch, who used to speak a language of their own, something like the Welsh, though not quite the same: but this language has gradually given way before the English, just as the Welsh has done; and there are now only a few places where English is not spoken or understood by all except old people. The country throughout is extremely rugged and mountainous, and some of the mountains are very high. You should learn the names of some of the highest, and you should find them in the map. There are Ben Nevis, in Inverness, which is the highest mountain

in Great Britain; and second to it is Ben Macdhui, in Aberdeen: then there are Ben Lomond in Stirling, and Ben Ledi in Perthshire, and Ben Venue, which towers over the very beautiful Loch Katrine. I daresay you will by and by read a very charming poem about a lady who lived on a little island in Loch Katrine; and when you have read this poem, which is called *The Lady of the Lake*, you will know better than I can now tell you what a very beautiful place it is.

The country near the sea, all along the east coast, in Fife, Forfar, Kincardine, Aberdeen, Banff, Moray, and Nairn, as well as the south part of Stirling and Perth, is more or less level, not very different from most of England; and some of the English did, from the very first, spread along these parts: but they were not strong enough to maintain themselves there against the will of the Scotch, so they became subjects of the Scotch king, who then lived at Dunfermline; and I daresay they married Scotch women, and some of the Scotchmen married the Englishwomen, and their sons began to call themselves and to think themselves Scotch: and though they continued to speak English, they mixed it up with some Scotch words, and got to pronounce it in a very rugged manner, quite different from that of English people in the south of England, as perhaps you will hear some day, if you ever go to Aberdeen.

But inland, away from the sea, the people are really

Scotch; and if they speak English, it is that they have learned it as English, and speak it as they have been taught, not as they have picked it up from people who only know the peculiar dialect of the sea-coast, which an Englishman can scarcely understand; whilst the English, which the people who live in the mountain country speak, is very good, and indeed better and more correct than is spoken in many parts of England.

CHAPTER XII.

SCOTLAND—*continued.*

SOUTH of the Clyde is the county of Renfrew, in which a great many manufactures are carried on, and there are several manufacturing towns in it, the principal of which is Paisley, where very nice shawls are made. Close to the shore of the estuary of the Clyde is Greenock, where ships often call for part of their cargo, as they come away from Glasgow, which is farther up the river, in the next county, Lanark.

Glasgow, you will remember, is a very large town, where there is a great deal of business with other countries, which, you know, is called commerce. There is also in Glasgow a great deal of work of all kinds: much iron and lead is dug out in the neighbourhood, in Lanarkshire, and is brought into Glasgow to be manufactured: gold and silver have been found there too, but in very small quantities, so that they are not nearly so valuable as the coal, which abounds, and is very useful for melting the iron, and for making the great fires for the smiths, and for supplying the steam-engines which drive all

the machinery: and so Glasgow is an extremely busy town; and, with the exception of London and Liverpool, is the largest in Great Britain.

Next to Renfrew and Lanark on the south, is Ayrshire; and joining on to it and Lanark is Dumfries, which reaches to the English Border, where it joins Cumberland. West of this is Kirkcudbright, and still farther west is Wigtonshire, which ends in a long narrow peninsula, that you will see marked on the map as the Rhinns of Galloway; it is joined on to the mainland by an isthmus between two deep bays—Loch Ryan on the north side, and Luce Bay on the south. These counties have no manufactures nor commerce, but their trade is almost entirely in sheep, and cattle, and horses; though they grow a little corn. The horses which are called Galloways come from this part of the country, and a great many black cows. The country is very hilly and almost mountainous; for this reason it preserved its freedom when the more level country was overrun by the English; and though it was for a time subject to the English king, it never became part of England, but, as I told you, had a king of its own, whose territory was Strathclyde or Cumberland, and reached from the Clyde to Morecambe Bay. In course of time, this kingdom of Strathclyde came to belong to the King of Scotland, who was then subject to the King of England in a sort of way; but it was a very nominal sort of way, for he obeyed the King of

England only when he chose, or when he thought the English king was able to make him do so.

On the eastern side, the country from the Frith of Forth to the English Border was settled by the English, and was for a long time part of Northumberland. It was then called Lothian; but in course of long wars, the King of Scotland won it from Northumberland, and the English who lived there became his subjects. And afterwards, when there were troubles in England, and a new king brought in an army of people called Normans, strangers from a country beyond the sea, and made himself master of England, a great many English fled away to join the King of Scotland, and settled, some in Lothian, and some in Strathclyde, as his subjects. It was after this that the division between England and Scotland, which I told you was a political boundary, was agreed on; though, for a long time, there was bitter war, and much hard fighting between the two countries. But you see that, notwithstanding the division, the inhabitants of the country on the east side, which was then called Lothian, are of the same race as the English of Northumberland, and speak almost exactly the same language, though their pronunciation is perhaps a little broader.

The counties into which this is divided are Linlithgow, or West Lothian; Edinburgh, or Mid-Lothian; and Haddington, or East Lothian; south of Haddington, on the sea-coast, is Berwick; but the

town of Berwick, which is just at the mouth of the River Tweed, was considered as an independent place, with a little territory of its own, two or three miles across, which was called Berwick Bounds. Berwick Bounds did not strictly belong to either England or Scotland; and after the two kingdoms had become one, as you will read in your history, the King of Great Britain was spoken of as the King of England, Scotland, and the town of Berwick-on-Tweed. It is quite a little place, and its only importance was derived from its being on one of the main roads between Scotland and England.

Next to Berwickshire, on the south-west, and lying along the English border, is Roxburgh, a great part of which is very wild and hilly, with much moorland. Along the line of the border runs a line of mountains, partly in England, partly in Scotland, which are called the Cheviot hills; the highest of these, Cheviot, which gives its name to the range, is in Northumberland; but on each side of the border, the county for many miles is mountain, and moor, and bog, where a few sheep can with difficulty find grass enough to eat. So that you see there is here, between Roxburgh and Northumberland, a very real and natural boundary, just as between Berwick and Northumberland there is the river Tweed; and the same kind of wild country extends away west between Dumfriesshire and Cumberland, till it comes to the large arm of the

sea, which is marked on the map as the Solway Frith.

For very many years, this wild country was a separation between England and Scotland, and was called the Debateable Land; that is to say, it might be considered matter for debate whether it belonged to England or Scotland. In reality it belonged to neither; and the few people who lived in it were thieves, and robbers, and murderers, who called themselves English or Scotch, just as it best suited them, and gave them the best chances of plundering and robbing, under the name of fighting for their country. But all this was put an end to when England and Scotland became united under one king; and the border land is now as peaceful and quiet as any part of Great Britain.

Lying to the west of Roxburgh is Selkirk, and between that and Lanark is Peebles, both of which are, to a great extent, manufacturing counties, though they have no large towns. The most important is Galashiels, which is partly in Selkirk and partly in Roxburgh, with the river Tweed running through it; there, and at Selkirk, also on the Tweed, they make that kind of soft cloth for trousers and coats which is called tweed.

And now that I have told you of all the counties in Scotland, you must go over their names again and again, till you are sure you know them all quite well, and can lay your finger on each one, on the map;

not after you have groped about, looking for it for ever so long, but at once; just as if it were a sugar-plum or a chocolate-cream that you were to pick up and put in your mouth.

There are in Scotland thirty-one counties; and this is a list of them:—

Four in the north.

Caithness.	Ross-shire.
Sutherland.	Cromarty.

Four in the west, north of the Clyde.

Inverness-shire.	Argyleshire.
Perthshire.	Dumbartonshire.

Ten in the east, north of the Forth.

Nairn.	Forfar.
Elgin or Moray-shire.	Fife.
Banffshire.	Kinross-shire.
Aberdeenshire.	Clackmannanshire.
Kincardineshire.	Stirlingshire.

and these eighteen formed the original kingdom of Scotland.

Six in the west, south of the Frith of Clyde.

Renfrewshire.	Dumfriesshire.
Lanarkshire.	Kirkcudbrightshire.
Ayrshire.	Wigtonshire.

and these, together with the English counties of Cumberland and Westmoreland and a bit of Lancashire, formed the ancient kingdom of Strathclyde.

Seven in the east, south of the Frith of Forth.

Linlithgow or West Lothian.
Edinburgh or Mid Lothian.
Haddington or East Lothian.

Berwickshire.	Selkirkshire.
Peebles.	Roxburghshire.

and these, under the one name of Lothian, were formerly part of the great earldom of Northumberland, stretching from the Humber to the Frith of Forth.

Now let us count them—

In Scotland proper, north of the Friths of Clyde and Forth—

In the north . . .	4
In the west	4
In the east	10
In what was once Strathclyde .	6
In what was once Northumberland .	7
Altogether in Scotland . .	31

CHAPTER XIII.

THE SMALL ISLANDS.

BESIDES the counties of Scotland which I have just told you of, there are near to Scotland a great many islands, some big, some very little, some merely rocks peeping up above the surface of the sea. The most important of these islands are Bute and Arran, both of which you will find on the map near the entrance to the Frith of Clyde: they are considered as making up one county, which has the name of Bute, and contains not only these two larger islands, but also several quite little ones which are near to them.

Then, on the west side of the peninsula of Kintyre, you will see Islay and Jura, and a little farther north, Mull—three large islands which are considered to be parts of Argyle, as well as many much smaller islands near to them. One of these, Staffa, is a very remarkable little island: it consists entirely of pillars of a certain rock, called basalt, which forms itself into large crystals, in something like the same way that sugar-candy does; and these stand here in great columns, which look like the columns of a church, so as to make caves that you would almost fancy

FINGAL'S CAVE.

must have been built. One of these caves is called Fingal's Cave. There is an old story that a giant named Fingal lived in it long ago. Some one named Fingal may perhaps have once hid in it; but he can not have lived there, for the sea flows into it, and it can only be visited in a boat. Here is a picture of it, and you may see for yourself what a curious and beautiful place it is.

Farther north, close to the coast of Ross, is the Island of Skye, which is part of Inverness; and at a greater distance from the shore is a large group of islands, which are spoken of as the Western Isles or the Outer Hebrides. Some of these belong to the county of Inverness, and some to Ross; but they are all very poor. The country is barren; most of it is moor and bog; the climate is very bad; it is very cold, there is a great deal of rain, and the wind is often very strong, so that the people can grow no corn, and have to work very hard to get their living, either by fishing, or by catching sea-birds when they come on shore to build their nests amongst the rocks. These birds are not very nice to eat, though the people are so poor that they are glad to get them; but what they principally catch them for is their feathers, which, on the young birds, are very soft, and are used to make down quilts and beds.

Away to the north of Scotland, beyond Caithness, is another group of islands called the Orkneys, the largest of which is Pomona, and the chief town is

Kirkwall. There is not much trade or manufacture or commerce here, and what business there is, is almost all with fishing, for the climate is very cold and wet, and the country is very barren. Some distance north of the Orkneys is another group, the Shetlands, which are, like the Orkneys, very cold and wet; and in all these islands the people are very poor, and have but few comforts compared with what the country people have in other places where the climate is better.

Now I am not going to trouble you with the names of all these poor, wild, cold islands. They are not very important; but they belong now to the kingdom of Great Britain, and you ought to remember their position; so look again at them as I name them by groups:—

The Orkneys, north of Caithness, the largest island of which is Pomona, or the Mainland of Orkney.

The Shetland Islands, north of the Orkneys; and the largest of these is also called the Mainland.

The Outer Hebrides, to the west of Ross and Inverness, the largest of which is Lewis; and

The Inner Hebrides, the islands nearer the coast, the principal of which are Skye, Mull, Jura, and Islay.

And lastly, Bute and Arran, which together make the county of Bute.

Besides these and a great many little ones, which belong to Scotland, there is, some distance to the

west of Lancashire, an island all by itself, called the Isle of Man. This is subject to the Queen of England, but it has a Government of its own, and is not ruled directly by the Parliament that sits in London. It is, as you see on the map, not a large island; it is very hilly, and a good deal of the land is moor and bog; but some of the rest is well cultivated, and grows corn and potatoes. The fishing round about it is very good, and especially the herring fishing. The fish are now put on board steamers, almost as soon as they are caught, and carried away to Liverpool, where there are a great many people always wanting to buy them; and in that way the fish are sold at once, and the poor Manx fishermen get a good deal of money for them; but before this plan was found out, and when there were no steamers to carry the fish away, the fishermen had often more than they knew what to do with; and after salting down as much as they could keep through the winter, the rest was wasted, and was sometimes thrown about on the fields for manure.

There are four towns in the Isle of Man; Castletown, Douglas, Ramsey, and Peel; and near to Castletown, at the south end of the island, is a small rock called the Calf of Man; just as if the Isle of Man was the mother cow, and this little rocky islet was her calf.

CHAPTER XIV.

IRELAND.

BESIDES these islands which I have been telling you of, and which, by their position, belong either to England or Scotland, there is another island farther away, to the west of the Isle of Man, to the west of Wales, and Lancashire, and Cumberland, and the south of Scotland. It is a big island, rather bigger than all Scotland. Its name is Ireland. If you turn over the leaf, you will see a little map of it: you must copy this on your slate, and learn to draw it, just as you have learned to draw the outline-map of Great Britain.

If you draw Great Britain and Ireland both together, the south end of Ireland should come on the same line as Pembroke in Wales; and the north end of it nearly on a level with the Mull of Kintyre, which is the name of the south end of the Kintyre peninsula. You will find a map of the two drawn like this on page 71; I want you to copy this, and learn to draw it for yourself.

Ireland is, then, as you see, a very large island,

and a great deal of it is very fertile, so that it is very valuable; and the climate is warm,—rather warmer than that of England,—though it rains there more than in England; but this suits the grass, so that it is very rich in cattle; and on account of this excellence, it is often called the Green Island, and thence sometimes the Emerald Isle. Perhaps you know that emeralds are green stones which are of great value, and are set in ladies' rings and brooches and earrings: they are very precious; so when Ireland is called the Emerald Isle, it is meant not only that it is green with rich pasture, but is very valuable and precious.

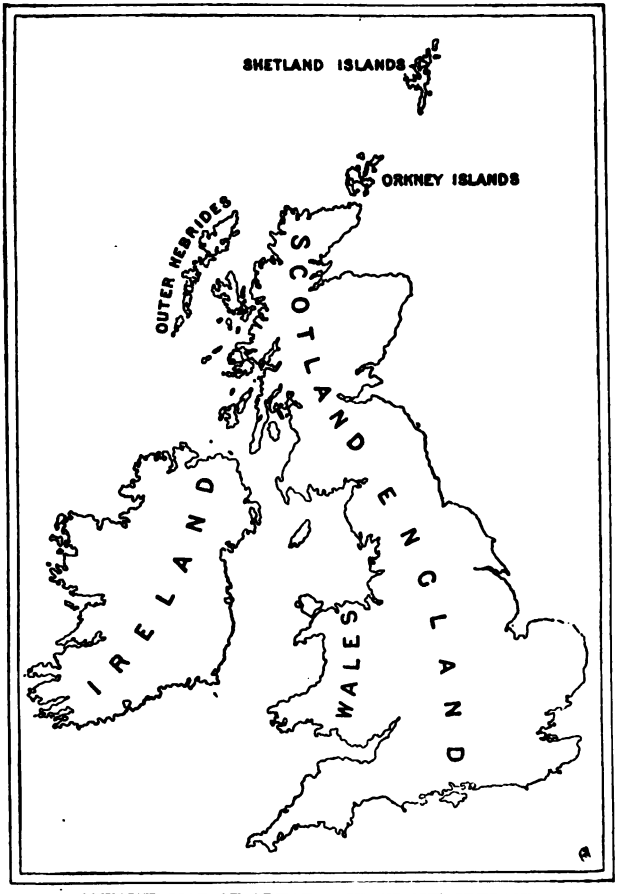
Long long ago, as far back as we know anything about it, Ireland was inhabited by a people kindred to the Britons, and speaking a language which was very like that of the Britons. These people were of different tribes, which had each names of their own; and they were very quarrelsome amongst themselves. About the time that the English came into England, one of the tribes of Ireland was obliged to go away to look for a home elsewhere: we do not know now why they had to do this; perhaps they had not sufficient land in Ireland, and their neighbours there were too strong and drove them away; but it is quite certain that a great many people of this tribe, who were called Scots, crossed over by the narrow passage, most likely to Kintyre, and gradually spread from there to the north and east, giving their name to the

country, which was afterwards called, and is now

OUTLINE MAP OF IRELAND.

called from them, Scotland. For before then its name was Caledon, or Caledonia.

But though a great many Scots were driven out



OUTLINE MAP OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

of Ireland, the people that remained still fought amongst themselves; and at last, one petty king, in

order to overcome the others that he was fighting with, asked the English king to help him. The English king did help him; he sent over the sea into Ireland an army of English, which was strong enough to conquer all the other Irish kings; but when they had done this, they thought the country much too good to leave to the wild Irishmen who could do nothing but quarrel. So they took it altogether for themselves; and though the Irish made several attempts to drive the English away, each attempt only gave the English a stronger hold over the country; and ever since then the King or Queen of England has also been King or Queen of Ireland. In course of time almost all the land came to be owned by English people, or by people of English descent. The native Irish were not driven out or killed, as the native Britons had been in England; for this conquest of Ireland was very long, seven or eight hundred years after the English had conquered England, and people were not so cruel; but all the same, the conquered people, the Irish, were gradually put down into lower positions; so that now, the gentry of Ireland are, as a rule, of English origin, and have, for the most part, English names.

Long after this time of conquest, about two hundred years ago, there was a very savage rebellion and much cruel fighting in the north-eastern part of Ireland, nearest to Scotland. The English Government had to send over a large army to put this down; and then they invited a number of men to come over from

Scotland, and bring their wives and families with them and settle there; so that, just as Scotland long before then, had been invaded and settled in by a tribe from Ireland, so, at this time, two hundred years ago, this part of Ireland was settled in by a people from Scotland; and so the people now living in that north-eastern part of Ireland are really not Irish, but Scotch; and as they came mostly from the south of Scotland, they are of the same origin as the English.

And now that I have told you who the people of Ireland are, I must tell you about the country itself.

It has four great divisions, which are now called provinces, but were formerly, before the conquest by the English, four independent kingdoms.

They are, in the north, Ulster on the east side, and Connaught on the west; in the south, Leinster on the east, Munster on the west.

These four provinces, Ulster, Connaught, Leinster, and Munster, are very nearly the four quarters of Ireland: try and draw them in, on your slate, in an outline map of Ireland; and when you can do that, I will go on to tell you something more about them.

CHAPTER XV.

IRELAND—*continued.*

THE provinces of Ireland are divided into counties, in much the same way that England is; but you must remember that in Ireland they are always spoken of as counties, and are not distinguished, as in England or Scotland, by adding shire on to the name: for shire is an old English word, and was the name given by the English to their counties very long ago; but the Irish counties were not fixed till many hundred years later, when the word shire had gone out of common use.

In the province of Ulster, there are nine counties:—Donegal in the extreme north, then Londonderry, and making the north-east corner, Antrim; south of that and on the sea-coast is county Down; inland of Down, that is to say on the west side of it, is Armagh; then Monaghan and Cavan; north of which is Fermanagh; and Tyrone lies to the north-east of Fermanagh, and east of Donegal, filling up the middle of the province.

Leinster has twelve counties: they are—Louth, on

the sea-coast, at the northern boundary of Leinster, and thus touching on Down in the province of Ulster; and following along the sea-coast southwards from Louth, are Meath, Dublin, Wicklow, and Wexford: you will notice on the map, how Meath turns round behind Louth, and so lies on its west side, as well as on its south, and reaches up to the boundary of Ulster. Next to Meath, on the west, is West Meath; and to the north-west, filling up the north-west corner of Leinster, is Longford. South of West Meath is King's County, and then Queen's County; to the east of these lie Kildare, and Carlow; and filling up the south-west corner is Kilkenny.

Munster has six counties: they are, beginning on the sea-coast, at the eastern boundary, and next to Wexford—Waterford; Cork, which is the south-western corner of all Ireland; Kerry on the west coast; and Clare, separated from Kerry by the estuary of the large river Shannon. East of Kerry, lying also along the south side of the estuary of the Shannon, is Limerick; and to the east of Limerick and Clare, forming the north-eastern part of the province, is the large county of Tipperary.

Connaught has only five counties, but two of them on the west coast, Galway and Mayo, are very big; Galway is the biggest county in all Ireland; next to Mayo on the east, but still on the sea-coast, is Sligo: and then comes Leitrim, which lies next to Ulster; and south of it, Roscommon, which joins on to Leinster.

Now then let us count; the number of counties—

In Ulster is . .	9
In Leinster is . .	12
In Munster is . .	6
In Connaught is . .	5
And in all Ireland is .	32

If you have found all these names on the map you will soon learn to remember them; only you must go over them, on the map, till you do remember them, and can mark in, on a blank map, where each one comes: and you may make a nice game to play at, trying how many of the thirty-two you can say, or who can say the most, and who can name any one that has been missed out.

CHAPTER XVI.

IRELAND—*continued.*

AND now then, let us look at the map of Ireland whilst I tell you about some of its towns. I will begin with Dublin, a town in county Dublin, which I hope you can point to at once. Dublin is very close to the sea, where the river Liffey pours its water into a deep bay, which is named, after the town and county, Dublin Bay. Dublin is the largest and most important town in Ireland, and is to some extent the capital; for though Ireland is governed, just as England and Scotland are, by the Queen and her Ministers and the Parliament which sits in London, there is a nobleman appointed by the Queen to act for her in Ireland, to take charge of the Government for her, and to see that all orders, sent from the Parliament and Ministers in London, are properly carried out. This nobleman is styled the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, and is of very great dignity, though, as you see, he has not much power. He lives in Dublin, and all the officers that are appointed to help him, and to see that the laws are obeyed, live also, for a great part of

the year, in Dublin, which is thus a very large and important town. It is not, however, very rich, for it has no commerce nor manufactures of any consequence; what trade there is, is almost all with England; and fast steamers run between Holyhead, the extreme point of a little island on the north-west of Anglesea, and Kingstown, which you will see marked on the map, a little south of Dublin, on the south side of Dublin Bay. The railway runs in a few minutes from Kingstown to Dublin; and as there is also a railway from London and all the large towns in England to Holyhead, the journey to Dublin is quite easy. Then other steamers run from Liverpool; but these are not so fast, and are meant to carry heavy merchandise, whilst the fast steamers from Holyhead are rather for passengers, and for letters, or small parcels which go by post, and make up what is called the Mail.

Belfast, which you will find on the map in county Antrim, at the bottom of a deep inlet or arm of the sea, named Belfast Lough, is the most important town of commerce and manufacture in Ireland. A great deal of flax is grown in this part of the country, and it is from flax that linen is made; there are, therefore, many linen manufactories in Belfast, and the sending away the linen in ships causes a good deal of trade, so that the people in Belfast are very busy. Londonderry, a much smaller town, but also very busy, is at the mouth of the river Foyle, near

where it falls into Lough Foyle, a large inlet on the north coast, between the counties of Donegal and Londonderry.

Then, far round, on the west coast, at the bottom of Galway Bay, is Galway; and farther south, near where the great river Shannon widens out into its estuary, is Limerick; and on the south coast is Cork, which is at some little distance from the sea; but a small town, now called Queenstown, is almost to be counted a part of it, and the ships which carry on trade with Cork really only go to Queenstown. Cork is the great butter market of the south of Ireland; and most of the butter and bacon which is sent over to England comes from Queenstown; and from all the other towns that I have named the trade is almost entirely with England or Scotland. Very few ships leave the Irish ports for foreign countries. There is thus not very much commerce in Ireland, and there are very few manufactures, with the exception of the linen works near Belfast, and others, here and there, in other places; and some woollen factories where blankets are made, and cloth, and more especially a coarse heavy cloth which is called frieze, and a finer sort, of which are made those long great-coats, coming down to the heels, which have been so much worn for these last few years, and which are commonly called Ulsters.

CHAPTER XVII.

ENGLAND, SCOTLAND, & IRELAND.

Now that I have told you something of the country in which you live, of the large towns, and of the people who dwell in them, I want to make you understand how big it is; and that is perhaps not very easy, for little boys and girls can scarcely know what is meant by any large number of miles; so that if I was to say that a line drawn from Berwick-on-Tweed, due south, so as to pass through the whole length of England, comes to the coast of the English Channel at St. Alban's Head in Dorsetshire, and is 354 miles long, I daresay you would only understand that it was a very long distance. To a little girl or little boy even one mile seems a long way, and 354 miles must be counted in some other way.

If you walk straight along the road, and do not stop to pick flowers, or to run after butterflies, or to play with each other, I daresay you can walk a mile in half-an-hour; and if you were to begin directly after breakfast, and walk straight on, without stopping and without playing, till dinner-time; and im-

mediately after dinner, were to begin again and go on till tea-time, you could hardly have walked more than fifteen miles.

I know quite well that no little boy or girl could walk fifteen miles in this way; for it is a long distance, and you would be quite tired out before dinner; but you will be able to understand that, if you could go on all day in the manner I have described, and did not get tired and footsore, you would still not go more than fifteen miles between breakfast and tea-time; and it would take you twenty-three days to go 345 miles; for if you multiply 15 by 23, the product is 345, and 354 is nine miles more.

So now, if you suppose that you could walk in a straight line from St. Alban's Head to Berwick-on-Tweed, and that you did not get tired and want to stay and rest, but walked on day after day, it would take you more than twenty-three days, and you would not get to Berwick until dinner-time on the twenty-fourth day; it would take you more than three whole weeks.

You will see on the map how very irregular the breadth of England is from east to west; but if we count Wales as part of England, the broadest part is across from Walton-on-the-Naze, on the coast of Essex, to St. David's Head in Pembrokeshire; this distance is 285 miles.

But if we measure not quite straight across, from

the North Foreland in Kent to the Land's End in Cornwall, the distance is 330 miles; and in a still more slanting direction, from the Land's End to Winterton Ness, a little to the north of Yarmouth, in Norfolk, the distance is 370 miles; and this is the longest line you can draw altogether in England; for a line from Berwick-on-Tweed to the Lizard, in Cornwall, which is sometimes said to be the length of England, and is 420 miles long, crosses the sea twice, once to the west of Lancashire, and again in the Bristol Channel; so that though 420 miles is the distance in a straight line from the northern to the southern point of England, it cannot be strictly called the length of England.

Scotland is still more irregular in shape than England, but we may call the distance from Cape Wrath in Sutherland to Burrow Head in Wigtonshire as its length from north to south. It is 285 miles. From east to west the greatest line is from Peterhead, in Aberdeenshire, to the west coast of Ross-shire, just north of Applecross, and this is 150 miles long; but from Alloa, on the Frith of Forth, to Dumbarton on the Frith of Clyde, the distance is only 32 miles.

The length of Ireland from north to south may be measured from Bloody Foreland, in county Donegal, to the Old Head of Kinsale, in county Cork, and is 240 miles. Its greatest breadth from east to west, from Quintin Point, in county Down, to Annagh

Head, in county Mayo, is 185 miles. But if we measure the length of Ireland in a slanting direction, from Fair Head, in county Antrim, to Mizen Head, in county Cork, it is rather more than 300 miles. And its breadth, measured slanting the other way, from Carnsore Point, in county Wexford, to Annagh Head, is about 210 miles.

PART II.—ABROAD.

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE CONTINENT.

You know now that Great Britain and Ireland are two large islands, the people of which are united together under one Government, subject to one Queen and one Parliament, and speaking, for the most part, one language, which is called English; and that round about these two large islands are a great many smaller ones, most of which are near the west coast of Scotland; though there is one, the Isle of Wight, on the south coast of England; another, the Isle of Man, about half-way between England and Ireland; and a few other little ones, that you may find for yourselves on the map.

Now, just in the same way as these smaller islands are near Great Britain or Ireland, so are these two large islands themselves near the coast of a much larger island, an island which is so large that it contains nearly three-quarters of all the land

that there is; an island which is so large that, for a very long time, people did not know it was an island, for they could not get to the farther parts of it; and they called it the Continent, because it contained all the land they knew of, except some islands of no great size.

This great Continent is divided into three parts, Europe, Asia, and Africa; and if you look at these on the map of the world, you will see that Europe and Asia are joined very closely together, though there is a range of mountains, the Ural mountains, running for a part of the way along the boundary; but Africa is almost separated from Asia, and only joins on to it in one place, where there is a very narrow neck of land. Africa is then itself almost an island, or, what I told you is called a peninsula; and this narrow neck of land which joins it to Asia is an isthmus: it is called the isthmus of Suez. And so, Africa, being so nearly separated from the others, is often spoken of as a Continent by itself; and indeed, Europe and Asia are sometimes spoken of as distinct Continents; and as the word Continent means nothing more than a very large tract of country, you may generally understand it to mean Europe, which, as being nearest to England, is the part of it we are most concerned with.

But the whole Continent is many thousands of miles across, much farther than you could understand at present, though by and by, when you are

older, you will be able to learn all about it; but you may find out this much for yourself:—from the extreme west of Europe to the extreme east of Asia is more than twenty times the length of England, from St. Alban's Head to the mouth of the Tweed; if you will do that little multiplication sum, you will have the distance in miles; and from the north of Asia to the south is about half as much as the length of the Continent from east to west. And you can measure, on the map, the length and breadth of Africa, and compare it, on the same map, with the length and breadth of Europe and Asia. It will not be exact, but it will give you some idea of the size of the two Continents.

You will then be able to understand that over such an enormous extent of country, there are many great differences. There are mountains, and rivers, and lakes, much larger than there can be in an island such as Great Britain, which is small in comparison; and the people are of different races, and speak many different languages, and form different nations, under different Governments. Some of these nations are separated from each other by natural boundaries, such as large arms of the sea, which, when they are so large, are called gulfs; or by lofty mountains, or by very broad rivers. Others have only political boundaries, and disputes about these are constantly occurring, and the people quarrel, and wage war against each other. About all this you

will read in history, which tells you how people are governed, and how they live, what they do, and why they go to war; and to understand that, you must know something about the countries they inhabit; and that is what I am now going to tell you.

CHAPTER XIX.

NORWAY, SWEDEN, AND DENMARK.

If you look at the map of Europe, you will find at the north-west corner of it a large peninsula, stretching down towards the south. This is sometimes called the Scandinavian peninsula, but it forms two countries, Norway on the west, and Sweden on the east, which are now united under one King, who lives at Stockholm, in Sweden; and has Ministers and a Parliament there to advise him about the government of Sweden, in very much the same way that our Queen has in London.

Between Norway and Sweden there is a mountain district, where the country is very wild and very cold, so that in the sheltered parts of it the snow and ice lie all the year round. There are very few people in this district, which thus formed a very natural division between Norway and Sweden, before they were united into one kingdom. The country altogether is much colder and wilder than England is; for you will see it lies a long way farther north than England does; and countries are colder as they

are farther north, and warmer as they are farther south. You will remember how I told you to distinguish the south from the north by looking to the sun at mid-day; and that, if you turn your back to the sun, you are looking towards the north. The places to the south of where you are, are nearer to the sun than you are, and get more of his warmth; and places farther north than you are, are farther away from the sun, and are therefore colder. And it is for this reason that the climate of Norway and Sweden is colder than that of England, and that the winters there are very severe.

You will notice how very rugged the coast-line of Norway is; these deep inlets of the sea, which are called Fiords, give the people of Norway,—the Norwegians,—good harbours for their ships; and thus the Norwegians have always been bold sailors. Long ago, they used to muster in these Fiords in great numbers, and then sail away to look for other countries farther south and warmer; and in this way the Northmen, as they were then called, settled in many other parts of Europe; for they were very brave and strong, and as good soldiers as they were sailors; so that wherever they came, they forced their way in, and drove back or subdued the people who were living there before.

I will tell you by and by of some of these settlements of Northmen; and when I do so, you will remember that they came out of Norway, and per-

haps out of Sweden; for the distinction between the two was not very marked, and they spoke nearly the same language, and could understand each other; or perhaps they came out of Denmark, a country which you will see on the map just to the south of Norway, and which is also a peninsula, pointing towards the north, though it is much smaller than the peninsula of Norway and Sweden.

Denmark is inhabited by a people we call Danes, but they are of the same race as the Norwegians and Swedes, and speak a language which is almost exactly the same as that of the Norwegians; indeed it does not differ from it so much as does the language spoken by the common people in the south of England from that spoken in the north of England, or in Scotland.

I told you before how people the English called Danes forced their way into our country, and made large settlements along the east coast, both in England and Scotland: most of these people came from Denmark; but with them, I daresay, were many Norwegians and Swedes; only, as they came in the same way, and spoke the same language, they were all called Danes. The language which they spoke was not very different from English, and the people could understand each other quite easily; so the Danes soon made themselves at home in England, and by and by began to consider themselves English; but still they were not quite the same; they were bigger,

stronger, bolder, cleverer, shrewder men, more active-minded, more energetic than the English; and even to this day, the common people in those parts of our country where the Danes settled, and more especially between the Humber and the Forth,—in Yorkshire, Northumberland, and the south of Scotland,—have these same characteristics, and are distinguished by them from the West Saxons who live in Hampshire or Dorsetshire, quite as much as by a certain difference in manner of speaking and pronunciation.

But now-a-days, that the country is better governed, and more peaceful, and men know better how to defend themselves against the severity of the climate, these swarms of settlers no longer leave Sweden, or Norway, or Denmark; but they find employment at home in different branches of trade or manufacture, or abroad as sailors; for they are now, as they always have been, very good sailors, perhaps quite as good as the English, though there are not so many of them.

The principal towns in Sweden, besides Stockholm, are Carlscrona and Gothenburg; and in Norway, Christiania, which is the chief town of Norway, just as Edinburgh is of Scotland, or Dublin of Ireland; and the Parliament of Norway, which is distinct from that of Sweden, sits there: then there are also, Christiansand, Bergen, Christiansund and Trondhjem, which you must pronounce as if it was printed Trŏn-yem. These are all seaports, and carry on a

good deal of commerce, principally with England or Scotland.

In Norway there are large forests of pine-trees; and from pine-trees are got tar, pitch, resin, and turpentine; all of which things come to us from Scandinavian ports. Then the trees themselves are cut down and trimmed, and sent as timber. Pine-trees, when they are cut up, furnish the wood called deal; and almost all the wood-work about a house is made of deal; the floors, and wainscots, and doors, and window-sashes, and I daresay the kitchen dresser, and the other tables in the kitchen, are all made of deal, much of which comes to us from Norway or Sweden.

The kingdom of Denmark consists of the peninsula I just told you of, which is called Jutland, perhaps, because it juts out into the sea; and also of two large islands, Funen and Zealand, lying just to the east of Jutland. The chief town of Denmark is Copenhagen; the King and his Ministers live there, and it is the seat of Government. You will find it marked on your map, on the east side of the island of Zealand.

You will see that between these islands and the mainland are three narrow passages, through one or other of which all ships must pass to go to the east of Sweden, or into that part of the sea which lies to the east of Sweden. This sea, which is almost a lake, is called the Baltic Sea: it is so shut off from the open sea outside, that its water is not nearly so salt: water

like this, that is not so salt as the sea, but is still salt enough to have a very nasty taste, and to be unfit to drink, is often called brackish.

There are in the Baltic Sea several islands, most of which belong either to Denmark or Sweden; Bornholm is Danish; Oeland and Gothland are Swedish; but Dagö and Oesel belong to Russia, the country which lies along the east side of the Baltic, and about which I will tell you more by and by.

CHAPTER XX.

GERMANY.

JOINING on to the south of Denmark, and stretching away from the salt sea on the west, far to the eastward along the south coast of the Baltic Sea, or, as it is sometimes called, the East Sea, is the great empire of Germany. This has been quite lately formed into one united empire; and only a very few years ago it was still divided into several independent kingdoms, each with its own king, or prince, or grand-duke, to govern it. But though the people of these several states were subject to different governments, they were all of the same race, speaking the same language, and considered the whole country as really one, which they spoke of as the German Fatherland.

Of all these independent kingdoms, the greatest and most powerful is Prussia, which, by the ambition and cleverness of its kings, has been extended, within the last two hundred years, from a petty dukedom to a very large kingdom; and some of the smaller kingdoms and principalities have been seized on, and added to it only a few years ago. The most impor-

tant of these is Saxony, the capital of which is Dresden, a large town, where much beautiful china ware is made—plates and dishes, and those pretty little china statuettes which I daresay you know as Dresden figures. Leipzig is another large town of Saxony, where a great many books are printed, and where a very large trade in books is carried on.

Another of these kingdoms is Hanover; and north of that is Holstein, beyond which, joining on to Denmark, is Slesvig. Holstein and Slesvig, until a few years ago, belonged to Denmark; but disputes arose as to whether Holstein was not German; for the people certainly were Germans, and did not like the Danes, to whom they were subject. So they asked the King of Prussia and the other Germans to help them; and a great German army came, and took Holstein away from Denmark, and made it, as it is now, a part of Germany. But after that, the Germans took also Slesvig, which was properly part of Denmark; and although the people were Danes, speaking Danish, they forced them to become subjects of Germany, and to learn to speak German. There is in Holstein a very fine harbour, Kiel, which the Prussians have since made into a harbour for ships of war; and have made large docks there, and built strong forts to defend them.

It was in this part of the country, Holstein, and farther south, near the great river Elbe, which falls into the sea at Hamburg, that the Angles and Saxons

lived, before they came across to Britain and settled in it, and gave it the name of England. The Angles and Saxons were thus of the same race as the Germans, speaking a language which was nearly the same as that of other Germans, though each separate tribe had a way of speaking peculiar to itself; and English, being cut off from German, and having been mixed a little with other languages, British and Danish, and, as I shall presently have to tell you, with French, has become very different from German: but a great deal still remains the same; and the country people in Holstein, and round about Hamburg, and farther south, speak very like the country people in some parts of England, though with so much difference that you would not understand them.

All this part of Germany is very flat and low-lying, and the language which the country people speak is called Low German, to distinguish it from High German, the language spoken farther south, where the country is mountainous. High German is now the language of all cultivated Germans; it is the language in which almost all their books are written; and it came to be so by the fact that the Bible was translated into High German; so that in learning to read their Bible, all little children learned to read and speak High German, or German, simply, as it is now always called.

Hamburg is the principal commercial port of Germany; and besides it there is Bremen, a little way

up the river Weser, at the very mouth of which is Bremerhaven, or the harbour of Bremen, where the largest ships have to stop; there is also Lübeck, on the coast of the Baltic, not very far from Kiel. A great many years ago Lübeck was a much more important and busy place than it is now, and all the German trade of the Baltic used to pass through it: it was then very wealthy, and the chief of a number of large rich towns which formed a very close league amongst themselves for purposes of trade and commerce, and also of defence. This league, which was very rich, gradually became very powerful; it was called the Hansa, or the Hanseatic League; and all the towns which belonged to the Hansa became independent, and were known as free towns. Lübeck, as I have just told you, was the chief of these; Hamburg was another of them; Cologne, on the great river Rhine, was another; and there were, altogether, nearly a hundred of them.

The Hansa thus grew to be very powerful, and had a great many ships of war to defend its ships of commerce, which were in all the neighbouring seas, but especially in the Baltic, where the Hansa was very strong, and waged war with the neighbouring kings of Denmark or Norway. But, in the course of centuries, their commerce began to leave these towns; they ceased to be busy, or rich, or powerful; they lost their freedom, and the Hansa, as a union amongst them, was

broken up. Many of these towns, which were once so powerful and rich, are now very quiet places, with nothing to distinguish them but the beautiful houses, and halls, and churches, and monuments, which were built long ago, in the time of their greatness.

But besides the towns of the Hansa, which were all in the north of Germany, or on the shores of the Baltic, there were several free towns in the south, which also, by the energy and industry of their people, became very rich. The most celebrated of these, the busiest, the richest, and the most beautiful, was Augsburg: it is still one of the most beautiful towns in Europe, but its business has gone, and with that have gone its riches. It is now almost deserted, and there is so little traffic in its streets, that in many of them the grass is growing green for want of people and horses to tread it down.

By and by I daresay you will read more about the Hansa and the free towns of Germany; and how they got to be so rich, and how and why their commerce died away; and you will be glad then to have learned to find the places on the map, and to know whereabouts they are.

Bavaria, the country in which Augsburg is, is an independent kingdom, though forming part of the empire of Germany. Its capital is Munich, where the King lives; a very beautiful, handsome town, which has some of the finest picture-galleries in the world, and also a very splendid library; but there is

not much commerce or manufacture there, or, indeed, in any part of Bavaria, and the people live a very quiet, industrious life—cultivating their land, and making what they want for their own use, but having very little trade with other countries.

I have already told you of Augsburg, which is now one of the Bavarian towns; there are, besides, many others, of which I will only ask you to look out Nürnberg, and Regensburg, or, as it is sometimes called, Ratisbon. These are both celebrated for their quaint, old-fashioned appearance, and are considered to be the most picturesque towns in all Europe.

There is another place in Bavaria, which I think you would like me to point out to you, and that is Hohenlinden. It is not a town, only a small village, and you will find it marked in very small letters on your map, a little to the east of Munich. In many maps it is distinguished by a little picture of two crossed swords, to show that a battle was fought there. There is, in truth, nothing else to tell you about it; for it is only a little place, and even the battle was only a little one; but to you it will be interesting, as it was of this place and of this battle that that beautiful poem was written, which I daresay you know by heart; but if you do not, you had better learn it as soon as possible. It begins—

"On Linden, when the sun was low,
All bloodless lay the untrodden snow;
And dark as winter was the flow
Of Isar, rolling rapidly."

Isar does roll rapidly, but the poet made a mistake in speaking of it as near Hohenlinden, or Linden, as he has called it. The Isar runs by Munich, and Hohenlinden is quite twenty miles off. You may probably never be able to write such a beautiful poem as Hohenlinden, but it is at least possible for you to avoid making such a mistake as that.

The southern part of Bavaria is very mountainous, and the people are mostly shepherds, or cattle-herds, or hunters. There is a peculiar sort of deer called chamois on the mountains; and as they are very shy and timid, and also very swift and active, they go away to the highest and roughest parts of the country, so that any one who wishes to shoot them has to climb after them over exceedingly steep rocks, and crawl along the brink of dangerous precipices. He must, therefore, be very strong, and agile, and stout-hearted; and it is in this way that the peasants of the Bavarian Highlands, and of the country farther south, called the Tyrol, have become distinguished as brave and clever mountaineers.

Bordering Bavaria on the west is the kingdom of Wurtemberg, the capital of which is Stuttgart, and next to it is the Grand-Duchy of Baden. By the west of Baden flows the river Rhine, and beyond is Elsass, which was taken away from Germany, more than two hundred years ago, by the neighbouring country, France, and which has been quite lately recovered by Germany, after a very bloody and terrible war.

Now all these German States, as well Prussia, and those which have been joined to Prussia,—or, as it is called, have been annexed by Prussia,—as those which are independent of that kingdom, are united, as I told you, into one empire, and the present Emperor is the King of Prussia. He lives at Berlin, which is the capital of Prussia, or a few miles from Berlin, at Potsdam, where he has a magnificent palace. Berlin, the chief town and capital of this great empire, is a very large town, but its size is principally due to its being the seat of Government, and also of a very distinguished university; for it has not many manufactures, and being a long way from the sea, or from any river up which ships can come, it has no commerce, except what comes by land, and even of that there is not very much.

CHAPTER XXI.

THE NETHERLANDS.

On the sea-coast, immediately to the south of Germany, is the little kingdom of Holland; and next to that is Belgium, which, as you will see on the map, is also a very small country. These two are very flat, low-lying countries, and are, therefore, very often spoken of as the Low Countries, or the Netherlands. Don't let the look of this, printed as a name, puzzle you. You know, I daresay, that nether is only an old-fashioned word which means low; and Netherlands is only another way of saying lowlands.

You will see on the map that the river Rhine, which runs for a long way through Germany, flows into the sea through Holland; and a very great deal of the land of Holland is made of the mud which the Rhine has thrown down where its stream is stopped by the sea.

Land made in this way of river mud is called alluvium or alluvial land. A great part of Holland is alluvium, formed by the river Rhine; and the southern part of Holland, as well as the northern

part of Belgium, is alluvium, formed by the river Scheldt. These two rivers, flowing through a wide extent of flat country, wash away a great deal of earth and mud, which drain into them from hundreds and hundreds of little streams, and after every shower of rain. In this way, every large river brings down mud to the sea; the Rhine and the Scheldt bring down a very great deal, and thus, in the course of time, have made most of these low-lying countries—the Netherlands. But as the land is so low, the sea would often wash over it, were it not that the inhabitants, the Hollanders, or, as we have called them, the Dutch, and the Belgians, have built enormous dykes to keep the sea out. These dykes, or dams, and the sluices, which are doors to shut against the sea, are a curious and distinct mark of the industry and energy and perseverance of the Dutch, and their names are given to many of the towns.

If you look at the map you will see a town named Sluys, which is the Dutch way of writing sluice; it is so called from the sluices, or doors, that were set up there long ago to shut in the water of the canals, or great ditches, that were dug to drain the land: and you will see Rotterdam, a town which is now very important, and has a great deal of commerce with other countries, and most of all with England; but the name Rotterdam tells us that the town was built at the dam of the river Rotte, a very little stream which runs into the river Maas, as that part

of the Rhine is called. And there is Amsterdam, the dam of the little river Amstel, which, as you will see on the map, falls into the Y, a broader, but very short river, almost like a long creek, or arm of the sea, making part of the great gulf, the Zuyder Zee.

Long ago, what is now the Zuyder Zee was cultivated land, with a large lake in the middle of it; but this land lay very low, lower than the sea; and the sea was kept away from it by large sandbanks, and by dykes made of earth or sods. About seven hundred years ago, the sea broke through these sandbanks, washed away the dykes, overflowed all this very low land, and made of it this great gulf which you see marked on the map. Near the mouth of the gulf you will see a row of islands, Texel, Vlieland, Terschelling, and some others: these are parts of the old sandbank that was broken away when the sea washed through; and inside them there are still several sandbanks only just under water, which are dangerous for ships, because they cannot be seen; but, indeed, the Zuyder Zee is everywhere very shallow, and large ships cannot sail over it.

Amsterdam is a very large and busy town, and a great many ships come there; but because the passage to it through the Zuyder Zee is so difficult, the Dutch have made a canal from the Helder, the extreme western point of the gulf, just opposite to the island of Texel. This canal is so broad and so deep that very large ships can pass through it; and it is

by it that they get into the Y, and so into the docks of the town.

Now when I tell you that Amsterdam is a large and busy town, with a great deal of shipping and commerce, and many manufactories, that is only what I have told you, or will tell you, of other towns, some in England, or Scotland, or Ireland, and some in other countries; but Amsterdam is unlike any other town in the world: for the land lies so low, that it is properly only a salt-water marsh; and the houses are all built on piles, which are great posts driven down into the mud, so as to reach the firm and hard bottom: then, great ditches have been dug, to drain the water away from the houses; and these are big enough for boats to go along; so that the principal streets of the town are canals; and boats are used, instead of carts and carriages and horses, as in other towns.

The capital of Holland is the Hague; you will find it near the sea-coast, a little to the south and west of Amsterdam. The King of Holland lives at the Hague, which is a very beautiful, nicely-built town, and very clean; but its importance is due only to the presence of the King, and the Ministers, and the Parliament; for there is no commerce, and very little trade of any kind.

Besides these, there are a great many other towns in Holland, but I will only tell you to look for Leyden, where there is a very celebrated university, as well as a considerable trade in wool and linen; and

Utrecht, where there is also a university. Utrecht is not a large or very important town, but I tell you to remember its name, because, by and by, when you read the history of the Dutch and of the English, you will find Utrecht very often spoken of. Many things of great importance have been done at Utrecht, and you must remember where it is.

Belgium, which joins on to Holland, was not very many years ago united to it, and the two had only one King; but it is now independent, and has a King of its own, who lives at Brussels, a large and well-built town, nearly in the middle of his country. And besides Brussels, there are in Belgium a great many other towns, the principal of which are Antwerp, on the river Scheldt, where there is much shipping and commerce; and Liège, a very busy town, which is sometimes spoken of as the Belgian Birmingham, because there are large iron and brass works there, and many steam-engines and a great deal of machinery are made there: and there is Mechlin, which gives its name to Mechlin lace, that I daresay your mother will tell you about; and there is Ostend, on the sea-coast, which is joined by a railway to Brussels, and so acts as a port to Brussels, though it is seventy miles, or more, distant from it. The railway from Ostend goes away right across Belgium into Germany, and on, beyond that, into the east of Europe; so that people going from England, not only to Belgium, but to Germany, or still farther away, very often go

first by steamer to Ostend, which has in this way a great deal of what is called passenger traffic; that is, the trade which passengers or travellers cause in a place; such as all that belongs to the steamboats or railways, or the hotels where the travellers have to stay sometimes.

And now I will only tell you one more name which you must remember. It is Waterloo. You will find Waterloo marked in very small letters on the map, a short distance to the south of Brussels. It is a little village of only two or three houses; but it is a place whose name ought to be familiar to every English little boy and girl; for the English fought a great battle there not very many years ago, and won a victory, which brought a long war to a glorious end. I cannot here tell you more about this great victory; but, as I said just now you might ask your mother to tell you about Mechlin lace, so now I will say you may ask your father, as you sit on his knee, to tell you the story of the battle of Waterloo, where perhaps his father, or his father's brothers, or his father's friends themselves fought.

CHAPTER XXII.

FRANCE AND SWITZERLAND.

To the south of Belgium is the great country which is called France. It reaches from the sea-coast, eastwards, till it comes to Germany; so that Germany and France join on to each other, and there have been many wars between the two countries to decide what should be the boundary between them. The map will show you what the boundary line is just now; but it has been altered a great many times; for the French people have been always very eager to make their country larger, so as to get more power; and they had by degrees obtained possession of a good deal of territory which used to belong to Germany, and where the people were of German origin; but a very few years ago, after another war, the Germans overcame the French, and recovered some of the territory which they had formerly lost.

The capital of France is Paris, a large and beautiful town on the river Seine, which runs away past Paris towards the west, and falls into the sea at Havre, which is the French way of saying Harbour;

for though the Seine is a broad and long river, it is not very deep, and large ships cannot go up it to Paris; so they stop at Havre, and the merchandise which they bring from foreign countries is taken from there to Paris, either in small steamers and barges up the river, or in waggons on the railway. Paris is thus very different from London, which is not only the capital of Great Britain, but a town with a great deal of foreign commerce; but Paris has no foreign commerce at all, and its importance is due almost entirely to its being the seat of Government.

The chief of the Government of France, who lives in Paris, is not called the King, but the President, and is chosen by the French people to preside over the Government. His office is different from that of King in many ways, but most of all in its not being hereditary, which means, that it does not go to his son or heir after him, and did not come to him from his father; but he is President, because he has been chosen by the people. When office is held in this way, it is said to be elective; but when it goes on from father to son, it is called hereditary. A country where the chief man of the Government is elected from amongst the people is called a republic; and where the chief of the government is an hereditary King or Queen, the form of government is called a monarchy, and the country itself is a kingdom. All the countries I have told you of before, Great Britain, Sweden and Norway, Denmark, Prussia, Bavaria, Wurtem-

berg, Holland, Belgium, are kingdoms, and the government of these kingdoms is monarchical; but France is a republic, and its government is republican.

It has not always been so. France used to be governed by a King; but nearly a hundred years ago the people rebelled against their King, and determined that they would not have a King any more. To make quite sure that the King, who was then reigning, should reign no more, they cut off his head, and the heads of everybody whom they thought likely to support him, or to try to bring back the kingly form of government. It is quite certain that the old Government had been very bad; but the new Government proved to be much worse; for the ignorant, low-born people, who had come to be chief men in the country, went mad with passion and rage, and killed so many who were, or were supposed to be, friends of the King, that this time came to be called the Reign of Terror.

The people were very glad when this was put an end to; and after a very few years, a soldier, who had distinguished himself very much in foreign wars, seized on the chief power, and declared himself Emperor. You will read all about this by and by; and how this Emperor, whose name was Napoleon Bonaparte, after ruling France, and carrying on war with all the rest of Europe, for several years, was at last overthrown by the English and Prussian armies at Waterloo, and a new King, a younger brother of

the one who had been beheaded, was put in his place; and how, after a time, other changes were made, until now there is a republic again; and very likely the people will change again, and perhaps determine to be ruled by an Emperor or a King; for they are very unsettled; and, indeed, they still seem to feel the effects of the Reign of Terror; for, though it is now nearly a hundred years since, it so thoroughly broke up all the old customs and laws, which had grown in the course of many centuries, that no form of government now seems to have any root.

It was at this terrible time, of which I have just been telling you, that France was divided, as it still is, into departments: of these departments there are now 86: they are something like the counties in England, or Scotland, or Ireland, but they are governed in a different way—by officers appointed by the chief of the Government in Paris. Before that time, France was divided into 32 provinces, which were very old divisions indeed; for they were the divisions of the country before the King of France had much power, when some of them were quite independent of him, or were only nominally subject to him, and were really governed by kings, or dukes, or counts of their own; and each province marked some interesting or important step in the history of France. But the people in almost all of these provinces spoke very nearly the same language, and were of the same race, so that they easily grew together into one king-

dom; and the old wars between them had been rather the quarrels of the kings and princes than of the people.

Of all these provinces the one that has most interest to us is that which was called Normandy, but is now divided into five departments:—Seine-Inférieure (which means Lower Seine, because it is at the mouth or lower end of the Seine), Eure, Calvados, Manche, and Orne. These, however, as I have just told you, are merely political divisions made at the time of the Revolution. They form what used to be the province of Normandy; and it was called Normandy, because long ago the Northmen—of whom I have already told you—out of Norway, and Sweden, and Denmark conquered it and settled there, and established their own government. These Northmen, or Normans, were not only brave and bold soldiers; they were also very clever and sharp-witted men; and as they found that the French, whom they had subdued, were more polished and more civilized than themselves, more skilful in the arts of peace, they learned from them all that the French could teach. They were baptized and became Christians, because the French were Christians; and they adopted the French language, partly because they thought it more polite than their own, and partly because the French women, that many of them married, and the poor people that they allowed to stay amongst them, of course all spoke French.

It was about 150 years after these Northmen had settled in Normandy, that Edward, the King of England,—whose mother was Norman by birth, who had himself been educated in Normandy, and who had a great many Norman friends and relations,—died, without leaving any son to succeed to the English crown. The succession to the crown was, at that time, very much in the choice of the people, and was not strictly hereditary, as it has since become; and the English people chose a great and powerful noble, named Harold, to be their King.

But the Duke of Normandy, whose name was William, laid claim to the crown, which he said had been promised to him by King Edward. The English people scouted this claim; but they were not united amongst themselves; and so Duke William, collecting a large army, not only of his own subjects, the Normans, but of men from all parts of France, crossed over to England, and landed with it at Pevensey, on the coast of Sussex, and marched from there to Hastings: a few miles from Hastings he was met by the English army under Harold; and there, on the side of a low hill which was then called Senlac, but has ever since been called Battle, was fought a great battle which decided the history of England. Harold was killed in this battle; his brothers, too, were killed by his side; and the English, who were left without any chief, gradually submitted to William, and elected him to be their King.

Now, this conquest of England by a French-speaking army, and the appointment of men, who spoke French, to offices of high command all over the country, was the cause of a great many French words getting mixed up with our language, and so making it very different from the German, which it was, till then, so much alike.

This conquest by the Normans brought many other changes into England, as well as the French words; it brought in changes in government, in manners, and in religion; it brought in a more advanced civilization, and a more cultivated style of building; but about all this you will read by and by in your history. I have told you this little bit about it now, to show you why we have such a great interest in Normandy; and why I tell you to look out on the map, Rouen, on the Seine, which was the capital of Normandy; and Falaise, where Duke William was born; and Dives, a little river, at the mouth of which his fleet assembled, before it crossed over to Pevensey; and Caen, where William, Duke of Normandy and King of England, was buried.

You will now understand how for many hundred years the connection between France and England was very close, and led to long wars, which the superior strength of our navy kept out of England. I cannot tell you more about that here; but I hope you will soon read about it; for though the state of both England and France is now very different from

what it was then, everything that has happened to a country in times past has produced a lasting effect on its customs and laws and government; and we owe it to our sailors and soldiers hundreds of years ago, that our forefathers were left free to make their own laws and to settle their own disputes in the way they found best, without the meddling of strangers; and the French have, on the other hand, owed to the weakness of their navy, that for hundreds of years France was overrun by English armies, and that her policy and government had to suit themselves to the requirements of war, rather than to the wishes of the people.

But the English do not now hold, and for more than three hundred years have not held any territory on the mainland of France: all that remains to us are a few small islands near the coast of Normandy, now known as the Channel Islands. The names of the three largest are Jersey, Guernsey, and Alderney; but there are, besides, some others which are mere rocks without inhabitants.

I have already told you of Havre, which, as you will see on the map, is in the province of Normandy, and is one of the principal commercial ports of France; you will find also in Normandy, Cherbourg, at the northern end of the department of La Manche, in what is called the Cotentin peninsula. Cherbourg is a port for ships of war, in the same way as Portsmouth or Plymouth is in England, or Kiel is in

Germany; but there is at Cherbourg no natural harbour, so the French have made an artificial one, by building an enormous stone dyke to keep out the force of the waves: such a dyke is called a breakwater. The breakwater at Cherbourg is more than two miles long, and at the bottom, below the water, it is more than 200 yards broad. It is built up above the water, from a depth of about 30 feet, and protects a large space, where ships can lie quite safely, even when it is blowing very hard.

In the extreme west of France, in the department of Finisterre, is Brest, another naval port, with a large harbour, and an inner harbour leading out of it: this is really the mouth of the little river Penfeld, which divides the town into two parts, joined together by a swing-bridge, the largest bridge of that kind that has ever been made. It opens in the middle, and swings back to each side, so as to let ships pass in or out; in the same way that small swing-bridges do over canals, or over the passages joining docks together, as you may perhaps see some day at London or Liverpool, or any other place where there are docks.

Farther south you will find a large estuary called the Gironde, which is formed by two rivers, the Garonne and Dordogne; and on the Garonne, a little to the south of where it joins the Dordogne, is a very important commercial port, named Bordeaux. In this part of the country there are a great many vineyards; and a great deal of wine is made, which

is often called Bordeaux, but in England we call it claret. There are many other things made at Bordeaux, and many ships go there; but the principal trade is in claret.

Now you must cross the map to the eastward, and you will see that there, in the south, France has also a sea-coast; on which are Marseilles, a great commercial port, that is sometimes spoken of as the Liverpool of France; and near it, a little to the east, is Toulon, a very important naval station, and second only to Brest; so that just as Marseilles may be compared to Liverpool, Brest and Toulon may be compared to Portsmouth and Plymouth.

Besides these seaports, there are a great many large towns, in some of which a great deal of business is carried on: the principal is Lyons, on the river Rhone, which is celebrated for its manufactures of silk. In the south of France, in the district between Lyons and the sea, a great many silk-worms are bred; and the care of these, and the manufacture of the silk, is the staple industry of that part of the country. Just to the north of Lyons is another wine-growing country, which used to be the province of Burgundy: the wine that comes from there is called Burgundy; and many of the little towns or villages, Nuits, Beaune, Macon, Chablis, and others, give their names to different kinds of it.

And now I will not tell you any more about the towns of France; but there are a great many, and

you will read about them, by and by, in your history: by that time you will have learned to use your map, and to find out the places you read about.

There are several small islands near the coast of France which belong to it, just in the same way that the islands near the coast of Scotland belong to Scotland, or that the Isle of Wight and the Isle of Man belong to England: I will not attempt to name all these, for there are a great many of them, but you may notice, on the west coast, Groix, Belle Isle, Rhé and Oléron, a little to the north of the estuary of the Gironde; and on the other side, south of Marseilles or Toulon, Corsica, which is the largest of all, but very mountainous and wild: this is considered one of the 86 departments of France, just as Bute and Arran together are considered a county of Scotland, or as Anglesea is a county of Wales.

And there are in France many large rivers; but just now I will only tell you to look out on the map, and remember the names of the Loire, which runs by the important towns, Orleans, Tours, where the kings of France used to live, and Nantes; the Seine, which runs by Paris, and Rouen, and falls into the sea at Havre; the Garonne and Dordogne, which join together and make the Gironde; and the Rhone, which is indeed the biggest of them all; but there is only a bit of it in France; a part of it is in a little country called Switzerland, which lies just to the east of Burgundy.

Switzerland is an extremely mountainous country, and has a great many large lakes. You will remember that I told you long ago, that it is very difficult for an enemy to push his way into a country where there are many mountains and lakes; and it is for that reason that the Swiss have kept their freedom, and have, over and over again, driven back the armies of neighbouring kingdoms, when they tried to subdue them. Some of the mountains of Switzerland are amongst the highest in Europe;—there are the Matterhorn, and the Weisshorn, and the Jungfrau, and several others, which are so high that their tops are always covered with snow; but the highest mountain in Europe is within the French border, in the department of Haute-Savoie; its name is Mont Blanc, which perhaps you know means White Mountain; it is more than 15,000 feet high—nearly three miles. If you think what three miles would be in a straight line along the road, and what that line would be if it was set up on end, you may imagine what a very great height this is.

CHAPTER XXIII.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

In the extreme south of France there is another mountainous district, which extends in a long line from west to east, and forms what is called a chain of mountains. Many of these mountains are very high, nearly as high as the mountains of Switzerland, and their tops are white with snow. They are called the Pyrenees; and they separate France from the country which lies next it on the south, whose name is Spain.

If you look at the map of Europe, you will see that Spain—together with Portugal, which is an independent kingdom, lying on the sea-coast, along the western border of Spain,—is surrounded by the sea on all sides, except where it joins on to France by the line of the Pyrenees. Now this line is not at all a short one; it is very nearly 300 miles long; but it looks short when compared with the great size of Spain; so that Spain and Portugal together are very often called a peninsula; and, indeed, they are often spoken of in England as the Peninsula, as if there was no other.

Spain is a very large country, and, many years ago, was a very important one; but bad government, and continual rebellions, and civil wars, have almost ruined it, and there is now not much to say about it. Its capital is Madrid, very nearly in the middle of it; and its other chief towns are Barcelona, Valencia, Cartagena, Malaga, Cadiz, and in the north-west, Corunna; these are all seaports, in which some commerce goes on, but only a little as compared with the busy ports of Great Britain or France.

Portugal, although a much smaller country, has been better governed, and is therefore richer. Its capital is Lisbon, at the mouth of the river Tagus; and north of Lisbon is Oporto, the principal commercial town in Portugal, and which gives its name to port wine, which comes from there. Portugal onions also come from there. Elvas plums, which some little boys and girls are very fond of, are grown and dried at Elvas, near the Spanish border, due east from Lisbon. They are sent from there, by carts or railway, into Lisbon, to be put on board ship and brought to England.

At the extreme south of Spain is a narrow tongue of land which ends in a lofty rock. This is Gibraltar. Low down, by the sea-shore, on the western side of the rock, is the town of Gibraltar; but the importance of the place is in its steepness, and the fortifications which have been built or dug out on the side

of the rock, so that it is almost impossible for any enemy to take it: it is considered one of the strongest places in the world. It used to belong to the Spaniards; but they let the fortifications stand without being repaired, and did not keep soldiers enough to defend it; so nearly 200 years ago, when we were at war with the Spaniards, one of our admirals, whose name was Sir George Rook, managed to get some of his men, sailors and soldiers, in, almost by surprise, and to drive the Spaniards out. Ever since then Gibraltar has belonged to England, and is very convenient and useful; for all English steamers and ships which pass by there can call, and get coals and provisions. The Spaniards have tried very hard to get it back again, but they have not been able to do so; and to hinder them from coming in by surprise, as Sir George Rook's men did, a great many soldiers are stationed there, and a careful watch is always kept.

A little to the west of Gibraltar is Cape Trafalgar, a name which you should remember; for it is a name that not only every English boy and girl, but also every English man and woman, should be proud of. It was there, in the long war between England and France, which, as I told you, followed the French Revolution, that the English fleet won a great victory, and saved England from a very great danger. For the Emperor of France wished to bring his army over

into England, to burn English houses, to destroy English property, perhaps to take possession of English land; and if he had got into England, he might have done a great deal of harm; but he could not cross over the sea, because the English ships were in the way, and prevented him. So he gathered together a large fleet of ships, both French and Spanish, for the Spanish were then friends with the French; and he gave this fleet orders to try and clear the English ships out of his way. In obedience to these orders, the French admiral brought his fleet out of the harbour of Cadiz; the English fleet met him close to Cape Trafalgar, and a great battle took place, the end of which was that almost all the French and Spanish ships were taken by the English, or were destroyed; some were burnt; some were sunk; and the French quite gave up the idea of invading England.

This great victory off Cape Trafalgar was won on the 21st of October, in the year 1805. You should remember the name and the date, and the name of the admiral who commanded the English: it was Horatio Nelson; and as a reward for his great services, the King had made him Lord Nelson.

Just as the battle was beginning, Lord Nelson gave out a signal which has become very famous, and you cannot do better than take it as your maxim through life. It ran—"England expects that every man will do

his duty." Every man did do his duty, and the English won a complete victory; but during the battle Lord Nelson was badly wounded, and he died at the end of it, saying, with his last breath, "Thank God, I have done my duty."

CHAPTER XXIV.

EGYPT AND PALESTINE.

If you will look at the map of the world, you will see that Spain, at its extreme south points—the easternmost of which is Gibraltar, and the other, the westernmost one, is Tarifa — comes very near to Africa, and is separated from it by a narrow bit of sea, which leaves a passage for ships. A narrow passage in the sea, such as this, is called a strait, or, perhaps, more often straits. You know, I daresay, that any narrow passage is sometimes called strait; it was once a very common word, and you will find it often in your Bible, but it is now rather old-fashioned and is seldom used, except for a narrow passage in the sea between two pieces of land.

The straits between Spain and Africa are called the Straits of Gibraltar, and they lead into a large sea, which, if you follow the coast-line on the map, you will find to be quite surrounded by the land, except in this one place, at the Straits of Gibraltar, where there is the passage through to the greater sea outside. This inland sea is called the Mediter-

ranean Sea, which means, the sea that is in the middle of the land.

All along the south coast of this sea is Africa, and except telling you to notice Algeria, which has been taken possession of by the French, I will not now say anything about it; but I will ask you to run your finger along till you come to the easternmost corner. Here you will see Egypt, the country over which, you know, Pharaoh was king, and into which Joseph was sold as a slave, and where the Israelites were kept in bondage, until the Lord brought them out with a mighty hand and a stretched-out arm. It is a very flat country, and is almost all alluvial—that is, it is made of the mud that has been carried down by the river Nile, which runs through it. This Nile is one of the largest rivers in the world, and every summer, when it is swollen by heavy rains in the interior of Africa, its waters rise many feet and flood the whole of the country. As this goes on year after year, and each year some more mud is thrown down all over the country, the land has been by degrees raised a good bit above the sea; differing in this from the alluvial land of Holland, which is only just on the level of the sea, so that the sea frequently breaks in over it. But Egypt is very dry, except when the yearly flood comes from the river; and as soon as this draws back, leaving all the country covered with fresh wet mud, the people sow their corn; and the muddy land is so fertile, and the sun is so warm,

that their crops grow up and ripen in a very short time.

Many many hundred years ago the Egyptians were a wise and great people, and their Kings were very powerful. It was amongst them that almost all the arts and sciences had their beginning; it was probably amongst them that writing, reading, and arithmetic were first found out; and they built some very large temples and monuments, which stand to this day. They had many curious customs, and a history full of interest; but you must wait till you are older, to read more about them.

At the present time they are very different: they are poor; they are ignorant; they have scarcely any trade or manufacture; and, beyond the cultivation of their land—which is done for them, without labour, by the Nile—their principal employment is to act as guides or servants to those Europeans, English, French, or Germans, who go there to see the relics of their past greatness.

If you follow the coast-line beyond Egypt, it leaves Africa and goes into Asia, as it turns sharp round to the north. The country here is Syria, and the southern part of it is Palestine, or, as it is called by all Christians, the Holy Land; for it was there that the Israelites settled after their escape from Egypt; and it was there that, eighteen or nineteen hundred years ago, our Saviour lived and taught; and if you look closely at the map, you will see marked the names of

a great many of the places you read about in the Bible: Jerusalem, where the Kings of Judah used to live, and where Christ was crucified; and Bethlehem, where He was born; and Jericho, and the river Jordan, and the Sea of Galilee, and a great many other places which you can find out for yourself.

And farther north, beyond Palestine, you will find many more places about which you read in the Bible; Tyre and Sidon, and, inland from these, Damascus; and, running along by the coast, the mountain chain of the Lebanon; and Antioch, where the disciples were first called Christians. Beyond this, the country which sticks out far to the west is Asia Minor, or Little Asia; on the coast of which you will find Ephesus, where St. Paul preached, and to whose people he wrote the Epistle to the Ephesians. The whole of this country, from Egypt to Asia Minor, is the country about which the Bible tells you; and you may find in the map the names of almost every place that is spoken of in it.

You should notice that it lies far to the south of England, and is therefore, as I told you before, much warmer: many fruits grow freely in it, which will not grow in England without a great deal of care; melons and grapes, oranges, pomegranates, and figs. Some of these are brought to England, but not very many, for they will not keep good for such a long voyage: large quantities of the figs, however, are dried; and when they have been packed in boxes or drums, they

are taken into Smyrna, and are there put on board ship. Nearly all the trade of this part of the country comes through Smyrna; figs and raisins, and some other dried fruits; sweetmeats, too, such as Rachat-lakum; and a good deal of silk. But notwith-standing the silk, and the sweetmeats, and the figs and raisins, Smyrna is not a nice place to live in; for it is very dirty, and has a very foul smell, so that it is very unhealthy.

CHAPTER XXV.

TURKEY AND GREECE.

IMMEDIATELY opposite to Asia Minor, which is part of Asia, is Greece, a part of Europe; and joining on to Greece is Turkey. You will see that Turkey is separated from Asia by two very narrow straits, which are, in places, not quite a mile across. The southernmost of these is the Hellespont, or, as it is now more often called, the Dardanelles; and the northern one is the Bosporus. The capital of Turkey is just at the entrance of the Bosporus; you will see it marked on the map in large letters, Constantinople.

The Turks are not properly a European people, but forced their way into this country between four and five hundred years ago. They were a very brave, and warlike, and fierce people; whilst the people who then lived in the country, and in Constantinople, were very cowardly and effeminate; and when the Turks attacked them, they had neither the courage nor the strength to defend themselves; so they let their country be taken away from them, and they became slaves to the Turks.

But though the Turks were brave and warlike, they have proved very bad rulers; they have never been able to govern their land in peace and quietness; and their slaves, who have very naturally hated them, have kept on rebelling against them; so that civil war has been almost always going on, with very great cruelty on both sides. They hated each other so much, that when the rebels got the better of the Turks, they killed every one they could lay hands on; and then, again, when the Turks got the better of the rebels, they put everybody to death—men, women, and little children—often without sparing any. And in this way, this country, which is naturally one of the most beautiful and fertile in Europe, has been, for centuries, a scene of anarchy and confusion, of battle and murder; its towns heaps of ruins, and its fields uncultivated.

Greece is now an independent little kingdom; but was for long a part of Turkey, and was very cruelly governed by the Turks; for the Greeks were more warlike than most of the Turkish subjects, and as they were more frequently in a state of rebellion, so the Turkish rule was more severe there than anywhere else. But rather more than fifty years ago the Greeks made up their minds that it would be better to die boldly as men than submit any longer to this most cruel tyranny; and after a war which lasted several years, they were helped by the English and the French, and won their independence.

They have now a king of their own, who lives at Athens, with his Ministers and Parliament; but the people had been so long enslaved, that they scarcely know what to do with their freedom, now they have got it; and the country has been very unquiet ever since.

But this little country of Greece, whose lot during these few last centuries has been so hard, has a very great and glorious history of times long gone past. It was here, amongst the Greeks, and especially amongst the Athenians, that civilization, such as we know it, first came into being. As far as we know, it was by them that writing was brought into Europe; and at a time when the greater part of Europe was inhabited by naked savages—whose idea of comfort was to wrap themselves in skins of beasts, and huddle, for warmth, in dark caves; or whose idea of art was to daub their naked bodies with blue paint — the men of Greece had attained a wonderful degree of perfection in all the arts which fill life with grace and beauty: and even now, the ruins of their temples, and the battered fragments of their statues, are models which the architect or the sculptor vainly tries to imitate or to equal; and their poetry, of which much still remains to us, is the ideal standard of excellence, even at the present time.

But more than all this, the Greeks were bold warriors; and though their country was so small, and the numbers of their men so few, they defended it

not only bravely, but successfully, against the half-savage hordes who attempted to pass out of Asia into Europe. That the Greeks fought as they did fight, and beat back their Asiatic assailants, is the cause of our now being as we are; and of our having received our civilization from them, instead of from the enemy who tried to crush them.

But all this you will read in Grecian history, much more fully than I can tell it you here; so I will only show you one reason why the Greeks became so great and so polished a people at such an early period. If you look at the map of Greece, you will see that it has an extraordinary extent of coast line: nothing that I have yet shown you on the map is anything like it, unless, perhaps, the west of Scotland. You will see that Greece is altogether made up of tongues of land, and peninsulas; that the southern part of it, which is now called the Morea, is a peninsula almost separated from the mainland, and joined to it by a very narrow isthmus, the isthmus of Corinth; and even this peninsula is broken into by several deep bays. But, besides this, all the islands which you will see lying between Greece and Asia, in the part of the sea which is called the Archipelago, and farther south, Rhodes, and Crete or Candia, and Cyprus, were Greek territory; and so, too, was the coast of Asia opposite, which is also very much broken up by bays and deep inlets.

Now, this peculiar extent of coast line, all these

bays and harbours, and the small islands, made it easy for the people to go about in boats and ships; and long ago, when there were not only no railways, but no roads of any kind, it was difficult to go about on land. Even now it costs much less to travel or to carry merchandise by water than by land; and then, to carry heavy goods by land was almost impossible. So the Greeks, by the advantage of their very irregular coast, and their numerous harbours, being bold men, became good sailors, and went about to all the places near, and picked up hints from all the people round, which they were able to make use of when they got home: and thus, by going about, and visiting other people, and learning new things wherever they went; and being, besides, very clever, sharp-witted men, they grew to be, as I have told you, the founders of European civilization.

But after a time they became lazy; they thought it too much trouble to work, or to fight, when they were called on to do so. They lost their freedom, and were conquered by other nations, and, last of all, by the Turks, who made slaves of them, and treated them very cruelly, until they rebelled and threw off the yoke, about fifty years ago, as I have already told you.

CHAPTER XXVI.

ITALY.

To the west of Greece, but separated from it and from Turkey by a large gulf, marked on the map as the Adriatic Sea, is Italy, a long narrow strip of land, which may be called a peninsula, though there is no narrower part where it joins on to the main. You will see it has very much the shape of a boot. Near the heel of it is Otranto, and the bay between the heel and the toe is the Gulf of Taranto; and near the toe is a little town, Reggio. Just opposite to the toe is the large three-cornered island of Sicily, which looks on the map as if Italy was going to kick it away.

The narrow passage between Sicily and Italy has the name of the Straits of Messina, because it is close to the town of Messina; farther west, along the north coast of Sicily, is Palermo, the largest town in the island; and round the corner, at the westernmost point, is Marsala, which gives its name to the wine that is made in that part of the country. On the southern side you will see Girgenti, which was once, long ago,

a large and important town, with a great many beautiful buildings, but is now a very little place, and known only for the ruins of its former greatness. The south point of the island is Cape Passaro, near which, in the year 1718, that is, about 160 years ago, a great victory was won by the English fleet over the Spaniards: and about a fourth part of the way along the east coast, as you go north, is Syracuse, which was once one of the largest and busiest towns in the world, but has now, like Girgenti, quite died away, and is little more than a village. About half-way between Syracuse and Messina, and some little way inland, away from the shore, there is a very remarkable mountain, named Etna.

Etna is a high mountain; it is more than 10,000 feet high; but there are many mountains much higher than that, and it is not its height that makes it so very remarkable. But it is a burning mountain; that is to say, that every now and then a hole opens, sometimes at its top, sometimes on its side, and fire rushes out, and streams of melted stones, and red-hot ashes, and a great deal of smoke. The melted stones make what is called lava; and this lava, as it comes out of the hole in the mountain, runs down the side, like a river, red-hot, destroying everything it meets; but after a little time the fire burns out, or gets low, and the hole closes up: and by and by another hole opens, and more fire, and lava, and ashes, come out. Etna is made up almost entirely of lava and ashes

that have been heaped up, in this way, in the course of a great many hundred years; and it still goes on, every now and then, sending out smoke and fire, and ashes and lava.

There are several other mountains like this, and they are all called volcanoes. There is one on a little island, very near Sicily, on the north side, which is itself called Volcano: and Stromboli, another island near to it, is also one, and the most constant of any; for though Stromboli does not now send out much lava, or ashes, its top is always flaming, so that it can be seen a long way off on dark nights, and serves instead of a lighthouse to ships that have to pass by it. The other islands round about Stromboli and Volcano, which form a group called the Lipari Islands, do not now break out in this way; but they are all volcanic; which means that they have been thrown up out of the earth either as lava or ashes, and perhaps have been themselves volcanoes long ago.

There are a great many other volcanoes in this part of the world. The largest of all, except Etna, is Vesuvius: you will find it a little way up, on the west coast of Italy, in the Bay of Naples, and very near the large town of Naples. Vesuvius is nearly 4000 feet high, and was, when the earliest accounts of it were written, very much higher; but about 1800 years ago, in the year 79 after the birth of Christ, its fire broke out with very great violence, and it poured forth an enormous quantity of lava and ashes, sufficient to bury

VESUVIUS.

two small towns, named Herculaneum and Pompeii, which had been built near its foot. At this time the top of the mountain was destroyed; perhaps it fell into the hole inside, where the fire was, and was melted; perhaps it was broken up and blown away: but when the violence of the outbreak, or eruption (as it is commonly called) came to an end, and people were able to see through the clouds of dust and smoke, the mountain was nearly as it is now, very much lower than it had been.

About 130 years ago, people began to dig in the place where Pompeii was said to have been, and they found, deep down beneath the earth and ashes, the remains of the town, the ruins of the houses, some pictures and ornaments, and a number of little things which had been in daily use. They have gone on ever since clearing away the dirt that covered up this old town; and almost every year some new thing is found, which shows us more clearly how people used to live long ago.

Italy is now one united kingdom, but it has been so for only a very short time. Until less than twenty years ago it was divided into many independent kingdoms or principalities, which still form the great provinces of the country. You will find them marked on the map: in the south, Naples, called so from its chief town, Naples, which is close to Vesuvius. To the north of Naples is the territory of the city of Rome, which is now the capital of all Italy; and then

comes Tuscany, the chief town of which is Florence; to the north and north-east the country was till lately held by a German people, who had pushed in and kept the Italians in a state of very unwilling subjection; and to the west of this German territory is Piedmont, the capital of which was Turin.

The father of the present King of Italy was, at first, King only of Piedmont and the island of Sardinia—which you will find on the map due west of Naples: but he succeeded in driving the German strangers out of Italy, and in persuading or compelling all the people of Italy to unite under one Government, so as to form a country which, when so united, would be strong, but which had been for many centuries weak, because it had been divided into many parts, each trying to stand by itself, without the help of its neighbours. If you remember the story of how the old man with the bundle of sticks taught his sons that "Union is Strength," you will understand how Italy has thus become, quite in our own time, a great and important country; in the same way that Germany, by uniting its several petty states and kingdoms under one Emperor, has also become strong.

Rome, the capital of this new united kingdom of Italy, was, many hundreds of years ago, the capital of all the known world. You will read in your history how, from very small beginnings, the State of Rome gradually increased until it extended all over Italy;

how the Romans conquered all foreign countries, one after the other,—all the northern part of Africa, and the western part of Asia, that I have just told you about; and Greece, when the Greeks became too lazy and cowardly to defend their country; and what is now Turkey, and Spain, and France, which was then called Gallia or Gaul; and a great part of Germany; and Britain: and how they ruled over all this with wisdom and strength, carrying to the farthest parts of their empire the arts and civilization which they themselves derived, in great measure, from the Greeks: and how in course of time, the Romans, spoiled by their prosperity and great wealth, became vicious and effeminate; and being no longer either brave soldiers or wise rulers, the empire which they had won fell away from them; and fierce warlike tribes from the north of Europe—Germans, for the most part—broke into the subject countries, and at length took the great and imperial city, Rome, itself. All this you will read about by and by, and I only speak of it now to let you know how it is that Rome has a great interest for us all, quite apart from its being the modern capital of Italy.

For the arts and refinement of civilization had been carried by the Romans, as conquerors, into Spain and Gaul; and when the German invaders overran these countries they found there a people more polished than themselves, and speaking the language of the Romans, which was called Latin.

The newcomers settled down amongst the old inhabitants and learnt their language; so that now the language spoken in France and Spain and Italy is directly descended from Latin, though it has changed very much in the course of centuries, and in passing through all these different nations. I told you how, when the Normans under Duke William conquered England, they brought in with them, not only many French words, but also French arts and manners: these were all formed from the old Romans; and from this, and the long wars and frequent trade between the English and the French, it has come about that our civilization, as well as that of all Western Europe, is based on that which the Romans long ago taught their subject people.

Besides Rome and the other Italian towns that I have already named for you, you should look for Genoa, on the coast of that part of the sea which is called, from it, the Gulf of Genoa, south of the old kingdom of Piedmont; and for Venice, which is built on a great number of little islands, lying clustered together near the north end of the Adriatic, not far from where the river Po runs into the sea. Venice is thus something like Amsterdam, of which I told you before; the passages between the islands serve as the streets of the town, and almost all the traffic is carried on by boats. These towns, Venice and Genoa, had once a very large commerce; they

became very rich, and powerful by sea, with many ships of war to protect their trade. Long ago, when ships were not so big or strong as they are now, and people did not know so much about other countries, and the way to go to them, almost all the commerce of the eastern part of the Mediterranean used to come to Venice or Genoa, and be carried from there all over Europe; but after a time, people began to find out that it was much cheaper for the ships carrying the merchandise to come direct to their own ports, and then Venice and Genoa lost a great deal of their commerce, and are now little more than memories of the past.

CHAPTER XXVII.

AUSTRIA AND RUSSIA.

THE boundary line between Italy and France passes through the most mountainous district of Europe. These mountains, which are called the Alps, continue all along the north border of Italy, forming the little country, Switzerland, about which I have already told you, and the Highlands of the south of Bavaria, and a province called Tyrol, which belongs to the empire of Austria.

Austria is a large and powerful empire, and consists of two distinct parts, Austria and Hungary. These are united together under one Emperor, but are, in many respects, independent of each other: they have different Parliaments, and many different laws, and, indeed, the only real union between them is that the Emperor of Austria is King of Hungary.

Austria is itself a German country; the people are Germans, and speak German; but lying, as it does, on the eastern edge of Germany, many of the provinces which now belong to it are not German, but are inhabited by people of a different race, who call

themselves Slaves. The name which takes in all people of German race, all nations who are of German origin, and who speak languages which are very like German, is Teutonic. The Scandinavians, that is the Swedes, Norwegians, and Danes; the English, who, as you must remember, came into England from the country near the river Elbe; the Germans, of the empire of Germany; many of the people of Switzerland, as well as those of the German provinces of Austria, are all included under the one name Teutonic: but the people who inhabit the northern part of Turkey—Bosnia, and Servia; a great many of the Austrian provinces—Croatia, Dalmatia, most of Hungary, Bohemia, Gallicia; and the Russian empire, which lies beyond this, away to the north, are of an entirely different race, and speak languages which, though not quite the same amongst themselves, are very much like each other, and are very unlike all Teutonic languages. These people are collectively called Slaves; and whatever is peculiar to them is called Slavonic.

The capital of Austria, where the King-Emperor lives, is Vienna; and the capital of Hungary is a double town, Buda-Pesth. Buda and Pesth are separated from each other by the river Danube, which runs between them. The Danube is one of the largest rivers of Europe; and you can trace it on the map from where it rises in the southern hills of Baden, past many large towns, some of which I have already

named for you,—Ulm, Regensburg, Vienna, and Buda-Pesth: you can see that, as it goes along, it receives the water of many smaller rivers, which, when they discharge into a bigger river, are called its tributaries, or sometimes its affluents;—the Lech, which runs by Augsburg; the Isar, which runs by Munich; the Inn, which marks the boundary between Bavaria and Austria; the Drave; the Save, which divides Hungary from Turkey; and a great many others of less note;—and that it falls at last into the Black Sea, which is a large sheet of water, almost a lake, shut off from the Mediterranean, in the same way that the Mediterranean itself is shut off from the great sea outside the Straits of Gibraltar.

If you follow the coast-line of the Black Sea, towards the north and east, away from the mouth of the Danube, you will see that many other large rivers, besides the Danube, discharge their water into it; the Dniester, the Bug, the Dnieper, and the Don, which last opens into the Sea of Azov, screened from the Black Sea by the rocky peninsula called the Crimea.

Now, these rivers all continually bring down fresh water to the Black Sea, which overflows through the Bosporus and the Dardanelles, so that water from the Black Sea is almost always running out to the Mediterranean; and in this way the Black Sea is not unlike a great lake which collects the water of all the rivers, and then pours it in one united stream

into the sea. You will thus be able to understand that the water of the Black Sea is very nearly fresh, but not quite so; it is brackish, like the Baltic, but not so salt as the Baltic is in its southern part.

If you trace back the course of these rivers that I have just been speaking of, you will see that they all, except the Danube, flow through a great country called Russia. Russia is, indeed, much the largest country in Europe: it is nearly as large as all the rest of Europe put together; but by far the greater part of it is barren, swampy, or covered with trees, so that the number of people that live in Russia is not nearly so great as you might expect from its great size. It is only in the south that the land is fertile and well cultivated: there corn and vines grow freely; corn more especially, and a great deal of it is sent away to other countries, such as England or France. The principal port for this commerce in corn is Odessa, on the coast of the Black Sea, a little to the north of the Dniester's mouth.

The capital of Russia is St. Petersburg, which stands by the river Neva, near where it flows into the Gulf of Finland, a large inlet of the Baltic Sea. At the mouth of the Neva is an island which takes the name of the town that has been built on it, Kronstadt; the passage for ships is on the south side of this island, for on the north side the water is too shallow: by the south only can the town be approached;

and on that side it is defended by very strong fortifications, past which an enemy's ship cannot go. Kronstadt is, first of all, the principal naval port of Russia; but many merchant ships also go there in the summer, carrying to Russia the products of warmer countries, and bringing away the things which Russia produces; such as hemp or flax, hides and tallow. During the winter, the sea near Kronstadt, and over a great part of the Gulf of Finland, and at the other Russian ports of the Baltic, Reval and Riga, is frozen, and all navigation is stopped.

During the summer Russia is a warm country; except in the most northern parts, it is warmer than England: but in winter it is very cold, and for months together the whole country is covered with snow. At this time, those who have to travel, do so in sledges, and go for days and days without seeing anything but snow, or here and there a small village, or a little town. And another peculiarity of Russia is that it is very flat; for hundreds and hundreds of miles there is no hill, or scarcely a rise of the land, but all is flat as the floor of a room. In all Russia proper there is not a mountain; it is only when the border of Asia is reached that the country begins to rise, and a range of mountains, known as the Ural mountains, runs along the boundary line. These are more celebrated because they are the boundary between Europe and Asia, and also because there are several mines in them, from which the Russian

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and other metals, including gold, and a few precious stones: perhaps, also, they are more thought of because they are in a country which is otherwise so flat; but they are not of any great height, and, as compared with the Alps, are mere hills.

There are several towns in Russia which are important as seats of inland and river trade; but none of them are large, as compared with the large towns of England, or France, or Germany. The principal, besides those I have named, are Moscow, which was formerly the seat of Government; and Nijni Novgorod, on the great river Volga, where a fair or market is held every year, to which traders come from all parts of Europe, and from the far east of Asia, to buy or sell different articles of merchandise.

The Volga, the largest river of Europe, is the great highway of Russia, and by it an immense amount of traffic is carried on. You should trace its course on the map; and when I tell you that steamers can go all the way from Tver, which you will find on the line between St. Petersburg and Moscow, past Nijni Novgorod, to Astrakhan, where the river runs into the sea, you can judge for yourselves what a great advantage it is, to a poor and thinly-populated country like Russia, to have such a ready-made road running through it.

The Caspian Sea, into which the Volga pours its waters, is really a large lake, but it is different from almost all other lakes in having no outlet; for most

lakes have several streams running into them, and one running out, by which the water escapes to the sea. But the Caspian has no river running out of it, and its waters are carried off by evaporation; which means that they dry up, just as a wet towel does when it is hung before the fire; the water is turned into vapour by the heat, and is blown away. I daresay you know that if you put a little water into a saucer, and leave it in a warm room for a few days, or if you set it on the top of the kitchen oven, so as to be kept warm, it will all dry up: this is exactly what goes on wherever the surface of water is exposed to warm air, and it is called evaporation.

It is by evaporation that the air is always taking up water from the seas, and lakes, and rivers, and swamps, and wherever water is; then the wind blows it away, and the vapour is carried by the wind to distant places; and in this way the air all over the world has in it a quantity of water in the form of vapour.

When this vapour touches any cold surface, it is at once turned back into water; it is then said to be condensed; and the water, so formed, stands on the cold surface in very small bead-like drops. I daresay you have seen this often enough on the window on a cold day. A very pretty way of seeing it is to watch it forming on the outside of a tumbler which you have filled with iced water; and you may see it on any fine clear summer night, when it forms very

freely on iron rails, or on stones, and, though not quite so freely, on your clothes. I daresay you know that this is called dew, and that you have often heard people say that the dew is falling; but it is not quite correct to say so; for dew does not really fall, but just settles wherever there is a cold surface, and may seem to go up, or sideways, quite as well as down.

But sometimes, and in England very often, the vapour, as it is carried away in the air, meets colder air, and is condensed at once, and falls heavily to the ground: when it does this it is called rain.

When the rain has reached the ground, a great deal of it soaks in, and goes to give moisture to plants and trees; but a great deal of it runs down the slope, and makes little tiny trickling streams, which meet together, and so get gradually bigger and bigger, till the streams become brooks, and the brooks become rivers, which keep on joining as they meet, till at last they make one great river, which runs into the sea; just as you have seen that the Thames, the Severn, the Rhine, the Scheldt, the Seine, the Loire, the Gironde, the Rhone, the Tagus, the Nile, the Po, and the Danube do, and, as I am now telling you, the Volga does.

You will now understand that all water comes really from the sea, and sooner or later gets back to the sea again, carrying with it not only a great deal of mud,—which settles near the mouths of large rivers, and in course of time makes alluvial land, such as I

told you was formed by the Rhine in Holland, or by the Nile in Egypt, or such as you will see marked on the map of Turkey, at the mouth of the Danube, where the country is very like Holland, and as you will see, too, at the mouth of the Volga,—but carrying with it also the salt, and substances like salt, which it has dissolved out of the earth, as it passed through. The quantity of salt which each river brings to the sea in a year is perhaps very little; but year after year, through hundreds and thousands of years, this goes on; salt is always going into the sea, and little or none is coming out of it; for you may see, if you put salt water into a saucer, and let it evaporate, as I told you before, that only the water goes away; the salt is left behind. It is in this way that the sea is salt; and every lake that has no outlet, but is kept from overflowing, by evaporation alone, is also salt; and as the Caspian is such a lake, it is salt.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

ASIA.

I HAVE already told you that the Ural mountains are the boundary between Europe and Asia; from them it continues south, following, for the most part, the line of the river Ural, till it meets the Caspian Sea; and from about the middle of the Caspian Sea it runs westward, along a chain of very high and rugged mountains, until it joins the Black Sea. This mountain range, which is called the Caucasus, is a real and natural boundary, and for a long time marked the extent of Russian territory; but during the last few years the mountain tribes who resisted the authority of the Tsar, or Emperor of Russia, have been subdued, and the Russian boundary is now at some little distance to the south of the Caucasus, extending therefore into Asia.

But north of the Caspian Sea the Russian territory was long since extended over Asia to the far east, where it meets the sea. You will see on the map what an enormous extent of country this is; but it is very barren; is, in winter, extremely cold; and there

are very few inhabitants in it. The country is thus very poor; and almost its only use is as a hunting-ground for animals whose fur is of value, more especially the sable, a little animal something like a weasel, which has very beautiful dark-brown fur.

In the extreme east of Asia, south of the Russian territory, is the empire of China, which stretches far inland towards the west, and is extremely populous, and well cultivated. The people of China are, in their own way, polite and well educated; though the whole manner of their civilization is so different from ours, that everything amongst them seems strange. But it is from them that we have got many of the refinements of life which we now have in common use. Silk-worms were first brought from China; and long before we found out that silk was made by caterpillars, the Chinese used to send silk to Europe, where it was sold for an enormous price. Tea is another thing that we have got entirely from the Chinese; but the best kinds of tea never come out of China; it is only tea of inferior kinds that is sent to Europe.

Tea-cups and all sorts of plates and dishes are called china, because it was from China that we learned the way to make them: even now, those which come from China are much valued for the fineness and delicacy of their make, as well as for the beauty of their colours; but their shapes are different

from ours, and their patterns are often curious rather than pretty, so that they are generally considered merely as ornaments, and are not used as cups and plates. Lacquer work also first came from China, and though a good deal is now made in France, it is coarse in comparison. There are a great many other things made in China, for the Chinese are very clever and very industrious; but I will not stop to tell you about them just now: by and by, when you are older, you will read more about this great country, and the people who live in it.

The capital of China is Pekin, near its north-eastern corner, and not very far from the sea. It is there that the Emperor of China lives. Pekin is one of the largest towns in the world; it is, perhaps, quite the largest, except London; but we do not know exactly, for the Chinese do not let strangers go there by themselves, and this makes it difficult to find out anything about them. For a long time they would not let strangers come to China at all; and what trade they permitted, was carried on at Macao, a little town in the south of China, where they allowed a few Portuguese merchants to settle. You will see that Macao is at the mouth of a large river, which we know as the Canton River, because it passes by the great town of Canton, about 70 miles from the sea; and thus Canton was the first great town in China that Europeans knew anything of.

The Chinese are not so exclusive now; and though

they do not like foreigners coming amongst them, there is a good deal of trade at many of their sea-ports, the chief of which, next to Canton, is Shanghai; this is on the little river Woosung, near where it falls into the Yang-tse-kiang, a very large river which runs from west to east across almost the whole of China. Higher up the Yang-tse-kiang is Nankin, which used, till about four hundred years ago, to be the capital of China; and still farther up is Han-kow. Large steamers go up this great river as far as Han-kow; and the country people bring their goods there by boat down the upper part of the Yang-tse-kiang, or its tributaries; so that Han-kow acts as a sort of market-place for all western China, and is a very busy place indeed.

There is another great river in China, the Hoang-ho, which falls into the sea a little to the north of the mouth of the Yang-tse-kiang. This, too, is navigable for a long way, and many of its tributaries are also navigable; and it is perhaps the fact of having in their country these two great navigable rivers that has helped the Chinese to become as clever as they are; just as in Greece, it was the fact that the sea broke up the country so curiously, that enabled the old Greeks to become so polished and civilized a people.

To the eastward of the northern part of China is a group of large islands which form the empire of

Japan. The Japanese are a people something like the Chinese, but they are even more clever, and are much more willing to learn. They also, like the Chinese, make very fine and beautiful cups and dishes, and lacquer work, — more beautiful, indeed, and in better taste than the Chinese; but these are not quite fit for European use, and are brought to this country only for ornaments.

South of China is Birmah, and then Siam, the capital of which is Bangkok. The people of these countries are also something like the Chinese, but much ruder, less civilized, less industrious. The southern part of Siam is a long narrow peninsula, called the Malay Peninsula. It is a very wild country, overgrown with trees and underwood, so that in many places it is almost impossible to pass: it is very hot, and the people, who are very savage, go nearly naked. There are here, also, a great many tigers and other beasts of prey, which keep the Malays in a constant state of terror, and do kill and eat a great many of them.

The English have two or three settlements in or near to the Malay Peninsula, the most important of which is Singapore, a small island at its south point. So many ships pass by Singapore, on their way to China or Japan, or come there for merchandise collected from all the neighbouring countries and islands, that it is a very rich and busy place. These islands

that you will see on the map, Sumatra, Java, Borneo, Celebes, and a great number of others, are sometimes called the Spice Islands, because it is from them that spices principally come; nutmeg and mace, cloves, cinnamon, pepper, and things of this kind, are almost all brought to us from Singapore, or from Batavia, which is a Dutch settlement in Java.

Immediately to the west of Birmah is a large bay, the Bay of Bengal, separating Birmah from India, along the greater part of its length; but near the north the two countries join on to each other. India is a very large, fertile, and important country, and now belongs to the English, who, about three hundred years ago, began to settle there to trade; but as the Indians sometimes treated the merchants very cruelly, it became necessary for them to defend themselves, to build fortifications, and, by and by, to take parts of the country, and compel the Indians there to obey them: and so, by little and little, they came to be masters of the whole country. It is not only of very vast extent, but is very thickly peopled; and though it was formerly divided into a great number of independent kingdoms, it is now all subject to the Queen of England, who is styled also the Empress of India.

You will remember that I told you that the Emperor of Austria is also the King of Hungary; but that is so because he happened to be the heir to

the two independent kingdoms; but the Queen of England is Empress of India, because India has been conquered by the English, and is subject to them; so that whoever is head of the Government in England is also head of the Government in India. But because India is so far away, the Queen appoints a great nobleman to carry on the Government for her. He is called the Governor-General, and he lives for a great part of the year at Calcutta, which is the capital of India; but during a part of the year, when it is very hot indeed at Calcutta, he goes about the country, both to see that everything is going on as it should do, and to make visits to the subject kings and princes, and to get away from the town during the very hot weather.

The northern boundary of India, separating it from Thibet, the western part of China, is a chain of very high mountains, which are called the Himalayas. These are the grandest and highest mountains in the world, some of them being nearly twice as high as Mont Blanc. Mont Blanc is, as I hope you remember, the highest mountain in Europe; it is more than 15,000 feet high. The highest peaks of the Himalayas are Dhawalagiri, Kinchin-junga, and Mount Everest: this last, which has an English name, and is therefore easier for you to pronounce, is believed to be the highest of them; but they are all nearly 30,000 feet high, and their tops are always covered with deep snow. Dhawalagiri, in the language of

India, means the white mountain, and Himalaya means the abode of snow.

From the sides of these mountains spring many large rivers, the chief of which are the Brahmapootra, the Ganges, and the Jumna; these all join together and run into the sea near Calcutta, where they have formed a wide tract of alluvial land; that is, you know, land formed of the mud carried down by rivers, such as is at the mouth of the Rhine, the Danube, the Volga, and a great many others. Besides these, there are the Sutlej and the Indus, which join together and run into the sea on the west side, near the north-west border of India. It was across this boundary that the Greeks in old times first came to the country; and most likely it was from the river Indus that they called it India; for the Indians themselves have never given it that name, but had a separate name for each separate kingdom.

Besides Calcutta, the most important towns are Bombay, on the west coast, and Madras on the east; but throughout this very large and populous empire there are a great many very large and populous towns, about which you will learn when you are a little older; for as India is governed entirely by the English, and has a great deal of trade with England, a great many Englishmen go to India; some as officers of the Government; some as soldiers to take care of and defend the country; some as engineers, to make roads or railways; some as merchants, to trade there; some

as sailors, with their ships; and in this way almost everybody has friends or relations in India, so that I daresay you will soon be anxious to know more about it than I can tell you here.

If you look at India on the map, and notice its shape, you will see that it is a sharp-pointed piece of land sticking out into the sea. The sea on the east side is the Bay of Bengal, and on the west side is the Arabian Sea. A large island named Ceylon, at the southern point of India, marks the division between these two great bays; for the Arabian Sea, though it is called a sea, because it is so big, is, in reality, a bay. India is, then, surrounded by the sea, except on the north side, and it is therefore sometimes called a peninsula; but as the word peninsula is only another way of saying almost an island, it is not quite right to apply the name to India, since the line joining it to the land is so great.

North of the Arabian Sea, India joins on to Beluchistan and Afghanistan, two very mountainous countries, where the people are very savage, and very poor. Turkestan, to the north of Afghanistan, is, for the most part, a bare, sandy desert, and is inhabited by only a few wandering tribes, who have no property but a few cattle, and these they drive from place to place, wherever they can find grass for them.

West of these three very poor countries is Persia, which was once a great empire, and you will read

some of its history in the Bible; but now it is neither great nor powerful, though it includes a wide extent of country. Next to this, and separated from it by a deep gulf, the Persian Gulf, is Arabia, a great part of which, like Turkestan, is sandy desert, excessively hot: it has not many inhabitants; and the few that there are have to wander about from place to place, looking for grass for their cattle and horses. But the northern part of Arabia, and near the sea-coast, is not quite so barren, and belongs to the Turks: so also does the country to the north of it—the Holy Land, Syria, and Asia Minor—which is often spoken of as Turkey in Asia.

CHAPTER XXIX.

AFRICA.

To the west of Asia is the great continent of Africa. This is a very large peninsula, joining on to Asia only at the north-east corner, where the isthmus of Suez connects Egypt to Palestine. A canal was dug through this isthmus a few years ago, and ships can now pass through it from the Mediterranean to the Red Sea.

Suppose you try to follow on the map the track of a ship going from the Mediterranean, through this canal, down the narrow Red Sea, which looks on the map like a creek, or arm of the sea, or a fiord or frith, such as you saw on the coast of Scotland or Norway; but that is only because the map of Asia has to be drawn on such a small scale to get it into the paper; for the Red Sea is a great deal longer than Scotland and England together; and a ship sailing from Suez with the coast of Arabia on the left hand, and the coast of Africa on the right, would have to sail more than a thousand miles before she passed through the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, and got into the Gulf of

Aden. Now, if she was a steamer, after coming all that long way down the Red Sea, she would have used all her coals, and would call at Aden on the coast of Arabia, where the English have a settlement, principally for the purpose of supplying ships with coals and other things that they want; and after coaling at Aden, the steamer would go away perhaps to India; to Bombay, perhaps; or to Calcutta, passing round the island of Ceylon; or, perhaps, through the Straits of Malacca, and after calling at Singapore, go on to China or Japan; and it is by this route that now a great deal of the commerce of the East is brought home to Europe.

Long ago, the merchandise of India and the Spice Islands, and of China, used to be brought either by the Indians, or Chinese, or Malays, or Arabians, up the Red Sea, and then carried across Egypt to Alexandria; or a great deal was carried by land to places on the coast of Asia Minor, or Syria; and there the Europeans got it, and carried it away to Europe. It was at this time that Venice and Genoa became so rich; for almost all this commerce between the east of Asia and Europe was in the hands of Venetian and Genoese merchants, and was carried on in Venetian and Genoese ships, which took their precious cargoes to Venice or Genoa, from whence the goods were sent by land through Germany, or France, or Spain.

But about four hundred years ago the Portuguese

found out that they could get to India by sailing round Africa, and so bring the eastern merchandise all the way back by sea, without having to carry it overland. This was a great saving of expense, for the goods could be carried much cheaper by sea than by land; and the trade with India passed almost immediately away from the Italians to the Portuguese.

Now look at your map, and see how the Portuguese ships would go; along the coast of Africa, past Cape Nun, where they would see the Canary Islands, and, if they landed there, would perhaps catch some little yellow birds about the size of sparrows, which I daresay you know very well by the name of canary birds; then they would go on past Cape Bojador, and past Cape Verde, which means the Green Cape, and is the westernmost point of Africa. If they were far enough from the shore, and if it was fine weather, they would see the Cape Verde Islands. Then they would keep still going south till they came to Cape Palmas, after which the line of the coast runs away to the east for a long way before it again bends to the south, forming the Gulf of Guinea. The river Niger falls into this, and, a little farther south, the Congo, which is one of the largest rivers in the world; and after passing this, and going on still to the south, the ships would come to the Cape of Good Hope, which was called so because, when they got as far as that, they had good hope of getting on to India; and a little to the east of this is Cape Agulhas, the

southern point of Africa. Then from this they would begin to go north; and if they kept on far enough they would get to the coast of Arabia, passing by the very large island of Madagascar; but when they got to Madagascar they knew where they were, for Arab sailors had been accustomed, long before that time, to come as far as that, from the opposite direction; and so they could cross over at once to India.

Now, in looking round the coast of Africa, as you have just done, you can scarcely have helped thinking what a close, solid piece of land it is. There are no seas like the Mediterranean or Baltic in Europe, breaking it up, giving it a longer coast line, and so making it easier to get at; but all is close packed and solid, like a huge leg of mutton. Even the rivers do not break it up; for though the Congo is nearly the biggest river in the world, and the Nile, which passes through Egypt, is also a very big river, neither of them have been navigable for any great distance; for ships are stopped by great rocks, over which the water rushes, and tumbles, and foams, just as you may see it do over stones in a small brook. Places where the water is broken in this way are called rapids, or cataracts, or waterfalls.

A great part of Africa is dry, sandy desert; there is there no water, and nothing will grow; and for miles and hundreds of miles nothing is to be seen but sand. This sandy desert is called the Sahara, and you will see it marked on the map, spreading

over the northern part, just south of the Mediterranean. But near the coast, and farther south, Africa is very wet, and very unhealthy. The water lies, and makes enormous swamps; and drains from them into large lakes, about which we do not know very much; for the country is so difficult to travel in, and the people, who are quite black, are so savage, that there are not more than three or four Englishmen that have ever travelled through it; and, of course, there is a great deal that they have not seen.

The climate is, in most parts, very hot, and, in many places, the black savages wear no clothes; but in the wet country, the trees and grass grow very thickly; and all sorts of wild beasts are to be found, such as in England you only see in the Zoological Gardens;—elephants, rhinoceroses, and hippopotamuses; lions and hyænas; giraffes and antelopes; monkeys; and a great many others that you will read about by and by.

But there are no civilized people in Africa, except at places on the sea-coast, where the English, and Portuguese, and some other Europeans, have settlements. The coast near the mouth of the Congo belongs to the Portuguese; and on the east side, the coast opposite Madagascar also belongs to them. But all the south, near the Cape of Good Hope, belongs to the English; they have also other settlements near the Gulf of Guinea, where they trade with the negroes for ivory, and for palm oil, from which is

made that thick yellow grease that you may see the workmen at railway stations putting on the carriage wheels to prevent their squeaking. They used to get gold here too; and when it was brought to England it was made into coins which were called guineas, after the place the gold came from. But there are no guineas made now, and the few that have not been melted down are kept as curiosities.

PART III.—ROUND THE WORLD.

CHAPTER XXX.

THE WORLD IS ROUND.

ALL the countries that you have yet read about are called the Old World, because they have been known, in a sort of way, for a very long time. The Greeks and Romans, that I told you of, were well acquainted with all the countries that border on the Mediterranean; and by going to them, and wandering away far inland, they knew a great deal of the countries a long way off. They did not really know of the passage round Africa; and though there was an old story that some ships had once gone round, nobody quite believed it: they supposed that Africa did come to an end somewhere, but fancied that it was much too hot for any man to live in; and they invented stories, that seem very silly now, of inhabitants without heads, and of all sorts of monsters, and ogres: in the same way, though they never got far into India, or into China at all, they knew of these

countries, and used to trade with them, through the people that lived between. It is very difficult to say now what they did or did not know; but any stories they had about China or India, and, in the opposite direction, about Russia, were very vague, and not much to be trusted. All that they really did know about these distant countries, was that the land came to an end, and had the sea all round it. They believed that the earth was quite flat, lying in the water, just as if it was so much bread or porridge in a plate, with milk all round it.

Now, it is very natural to suppose that the earth is flat, just as the table is flat, or the floor, or a flagged courtyard. Of course there are mountains and valleys, and ups and downs; but these seem only like wrinkles in the table-cloth or carpet, or the little heaps of stones, or little hollows, which do not hinder the place from being called flat. And the sea—would not any one say that it is flat; quite level, just as the water in a pond, or in a saucer?

This seems so natural, that it was a very long time indeed before people found out that it is not so; that the earth is not flat, but is round; that it is, in fact, a ball, a big ball, a very big ball, but still a ball. And I will tell you one way in which they found out that it is so.

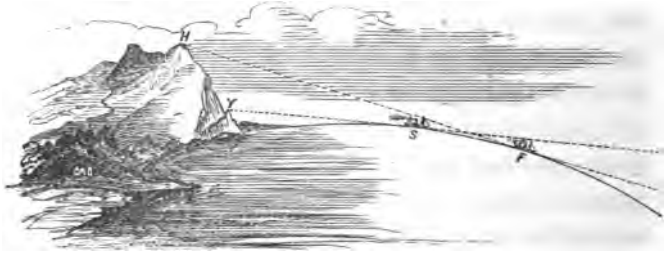
You know that if things are a long way off, you don't see them so well as if they are near to you. If you have been talking to any one, and he goes away,

you see him less and less distinctly, and at last can't make him out any longer; but some children, or grown up people, can see, in this way, for a much greater distance than others; and there are glasses, called telescopes, or spy-glasses, through which you can see even still farther; and with bigger and stronger glasses you can see farther still. Now, I want you to bear this in mind: if you see a man, or a horse, or a dog, you can watch him going away, and fading out little by little; and when he has faded out, you can still see him through a telescope, and can watch him again fading out. When you can no longer see him, it is that he has got to a great distance off. But if he turns a corner, if he goes behind a house, you lose sight of him at once, even though the moment before you saw him quite plainly. Your not seeing him has, in that case, nothing to do with the distance he is off; it is only that there is a house, or something between you and him. Suppose you watch him going up a hill; when he gets to the top, you see him clearly against the sky beyond; a minute later, and you can see him no longer; he has gone down behind the hill.

Now, when we watch ships at sea, they go out of sight in exactly the same way. It is not that they are too far off; for if we are on shore, and climb a hill, we can see the ship again that we lost sight of before, when we were lower down; and quite clearly too, though she is farther off. When we lose sight of

the ship then, it is that she has gone down behind something: but behind what? for there is no hill at sea. She has gone down behind the bulging-out, or, as it is called, convex surface of the water. I will show you how this is by a little picture.

I will suppose you are standing on the shore at the place I mark Y, for you, and looking at a ship. When she gets to the place I mark S, for ship, you can see her quite clearly; but when she has got to



the place I mark F, farther off, you can only see the top of her masts, for the ship herself has gone out of sight. You can see the fine tapering masts and yards, and the ropes; and yet you cannot see the huge hull of the ship: but if you go up the hill, to the place marked H, for hill, you may see the ship again.

In whatever part of the world you may be, the same thing always happens, if you stand on the shore and watch a ship sailing away. Her hull goes out of sight first of all, then the thick lower masts; and you can see the light upper spars long after: and whether

she is sailing away towards the east or the west, towards the north or the south, it is always just the same; the ship goes out of sight, exactly in the same way, behind the round swelling bulge of the water.

It was by thinking about this, that, long ago, clever men found out that the world is round, not flat. There are many other things which prove it quite as surely as what I have just told you. I will tell you some of these a little farther on, and others you will learn when you are older; but for the present, I have told you enough to help you to remember that the world is not flat, as it seems to be when you first think about it, but is round like a ball.

Now, about four hundred years ago, just at the same time that the Portuguese were trying to get to India by sailing round the south end of Africa, a certain Genoese sailor, whose name was Christopher Columbus, thought to himself that as the earth was round, he might get to India by sailing away to the west, and so coming to the east coast of China or India.

If you take a ball, or an apple, or an orange, and, holding it steadily, make a mark on it to stand for Spain; and then a long way round to the right, another mark to stand for China; and if you draw the line from what you have called Spain to your China, that will be the way, going east, all across Asia; but if you draw a line round the other way, to your left, you will find that you will also come to your China; and the farther away you have placed your China to

the east, the nearer to you it is, if you go round towards the west.

This is just what Christopher Columbus understood; and as he knew that, going east, China was a very long way off, he thought that it would be much nearer to go to it towards the west. But he had a great deal of trouble in making anybody else believe this; and for a long time no one would trust him with a ship to go and see if it was so. At last he persuaded the King of Spain to send him with three very small ships; and he sailed from Palos, a small seaport town in the south of Spain, very near the Portuguese border, on the 3rd of August, 1492.

Now, I am not going to tell you here of this wonderful voyage; nor of all the difficulties which Columbus had to contend with; nor how his sailors thought that the world was flat, and that if they continued sailing to the west, they would come to the edge and tumble over; nor how they were in a great fright about this, and wanted to turn back; nor how Columbus managed to keep them in a good humour, and to go on, until at last they came to land. All this, and a great deal more, you will read about by and by. I am now only going to tell you that this land which Columbus discovered, and which he thought was part of India, was not India, nor any part of Asia, but was first of all a group of islands, which were, by mistake, called the West Indies; and then a little farther on, he, and others who followed

him, discovered a very large country which afterwards got the name of America. It was not for many years that it was known what a very large country this is, as you will now see it on the map, stretching almost all the way from the top to the bottom, from the extreme north to the extreme south.

CHAPTER XXXI.

AMERICA.

AMERICA, then, is a very large continent; but it is often spoken of as two continents, North America and South America; and between the two, there is a narrow part which is called Central America. Strictly, South America is a peninsula, joined on to North America by the Isthmus of Panama; and the whole American land, North, Central, and South, being surrounded on all sides by the sea, is an island.

After discovering the West Indian Islands, and the mainland of America, the Spaniards sent over a great many of their people to settle there; and after some years, they took possession of all the Islands, of Central America, and of a large part of both North and South America. You will, some day, read the story of this settlement, and of the cruel wars which the Spaniards waged against the native kings, and of the treasures of gold and silver that they got possession of. I cannot now tell you anything more than that, in course of time, the Spaniards have lost almost all these islands, which now belong either to England or France, or other European countries, or have become, once

again, a tangled wilderness, inhabited only by savage negroes, who were first brought over from Africa as slaves, but have killed off their incapable masters, and have seized on the country. And on the mainland, the Spanish settlers have declared themselves independent, and have formed themselves into free states, which are nominally republics, but have really very little government at all, and are very wild, lawless places.

There are in Central America,—Costa Rica, Nicaragua, Honduras, Guatemala, and Yucatan; all independent republics, and all in a state of anarchy and lawless confusion. North of these, the southern state of North America is Mexico, which was also formerly Spanish, and is now as lawless as the states of Central America.

North of Mexico, and stretching from sea to sea, lie a number of states, which are united together under one government, and are called the United States of America. Most of these were settlements or colonies of English; but some were formed by other people; some were Dutch, some were French, and some were Spanish; but the English gradually became masters of all; and then, thinking that England was such a long way off, and that the English Government did not take enough care of their interests, they determined to govern themselves; and just one hundred years ago, on the 4th of July, 1776, they declared themselves independent.

The English in England did not like this, and tried

to compel the American States to continue subject to them; but after a long war, in which the Americans were helped by the French, the Spanish, and the Dutch, who all made war on England at the same time, the English were obliged to give way, and acknowledge the independence of the United States.

Since then, these have grown into a very powerful country; their people have spread farther west, to the western shore of the continent. They have taken some of the disordered territory which belonged to Mexico—the very large state of Texas, for instance, and California; and with a good, strong, free government, the States will, no doubt, increase rapidly, in the numbers of their people, and in their riches; but at present the population is very small as compared with the vast size of the country; and great numbers of poor or discontented people go every year from the different countries of Europe, especially from Ireland, to settle there; and though there are very many Germans, and some Norwegians, they all become citizens of the United States; and learn to speak English, which is the language of their new country.

The Government of the United States is republican; but it is not at all like that of the disorderly and lawless republics of Mexico or Central America: it is a good and settled Government, and is, in reality, not very different from our own, though the chief person is not a King or Queen, but is called the President. His office is not hereditary; he is

chosen by the people to be President, and then, only for four years: every four years a new President is chosen; for the Americans think that, in this way, they can prevent their President from becoming too powerful, and making them do things they do not like. But the duties of the President are very much the same as they would be if he was called King: and, to assist and advise him in the government of the country, there is a Parliament very like ours; for though, in America, it is called the Congress, the members of it are chosen in much the same way as the members of our Parliament are chosen: and altogether, there is a very great similarity between the Government of the two countries, the United States and England; as indeed you might expect, since the Americans are, for the most part, just as much English as we are ourselves.

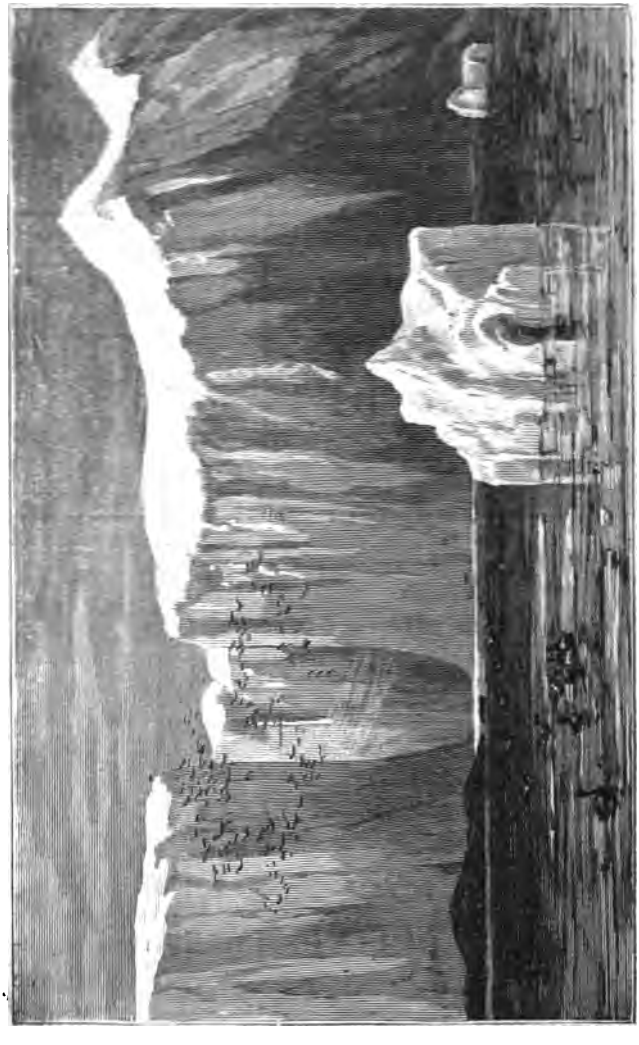
The capital, or chief town of the United States is Washington: the President lives there; and the Houses of Congress are there, and the different offices of the Government. But besides Washington, there are a great many other towns, some of which are very busy and rich. Of these, the largest and most important is New York, which has a very great trade with England, and principally with Liverpool. Then there is New Orleans, also a busy commercial town, near the mouth of the Mississippi, one of the largest rivers in the world. And there are Boston, and Philadelphia, and Charleston; and

Norfolk, which is the principal port in the United States for ships of war; and many more that I will not stop now to tell you of. You will be sure to learn more about them by and by, for there is a very great deal of commerce between the United States and England; so that the people of the two countries, having the same language, and having so many interests in common, being descended from the same ancestors, and having nearly the same laws, are very closely connected together; and almost everybody you know has friends or relations living in America, perhaps citizens of the United States, perhaps only there on business or on pleasure; and you yourself, when you get older, will, in the same way, know people living there, or will perhaps go and travel or have business there; but before then you must read a great deal more about the country than I can tell you here.

North of the United States is the territory which is still English. It is often spoken of in England by the one name of Canada; but you will see on the map that Canada is really only a part of it; and Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Canada, Rupert's Land, or, as it is sometimes called, the Hudson's Bay Territory, and British Columbia, in the far west, are all distinct colonies, though now united under one confederate government, and one governor, who is appointed by the Queen.

Canada is separated from the United States by a chain of very large lakes—Lake Superior, of which Lake Michigan is almost a part, Lake Huron, Lake Erie, and Lake Ontario; from this last the water runs away to the sea past the two chief towns of Canada, Montreal, and Quebec, by the river St. Lawrence. The river Niagara, that runs from Lake Erie into Lake Ontario, is, as you will see on the map, a very short one: it is only 35 miles long; but about half-way between the two lakes, there is, in its course, a tremendous precipice, over which the water falls: the river is, at this place, nearly half-a-mile wide; and the depth of the fall is about 160 feet, or more than twice the height of a large house in London or Liverpool, or any other English town. There are many other large waterfalls both in America and in different parts of the world; but this, which is known as the Falls of Niagara, is the largest of all, and is very celebrated, both because it is so very grand, and also because it is in a place where travellers can easily get to it: for there are railways on both sides of the river, so that passengers can come without much trouble or expense, either from New York or from Quebec, or from any of the other large towns near to it.

The extreme north of North America, beyond Rupert's Land, belongs to England, and the north-west corner belongs to the United States; but the country is so cold that no one lives there except a



THE ARCTIC SEA.

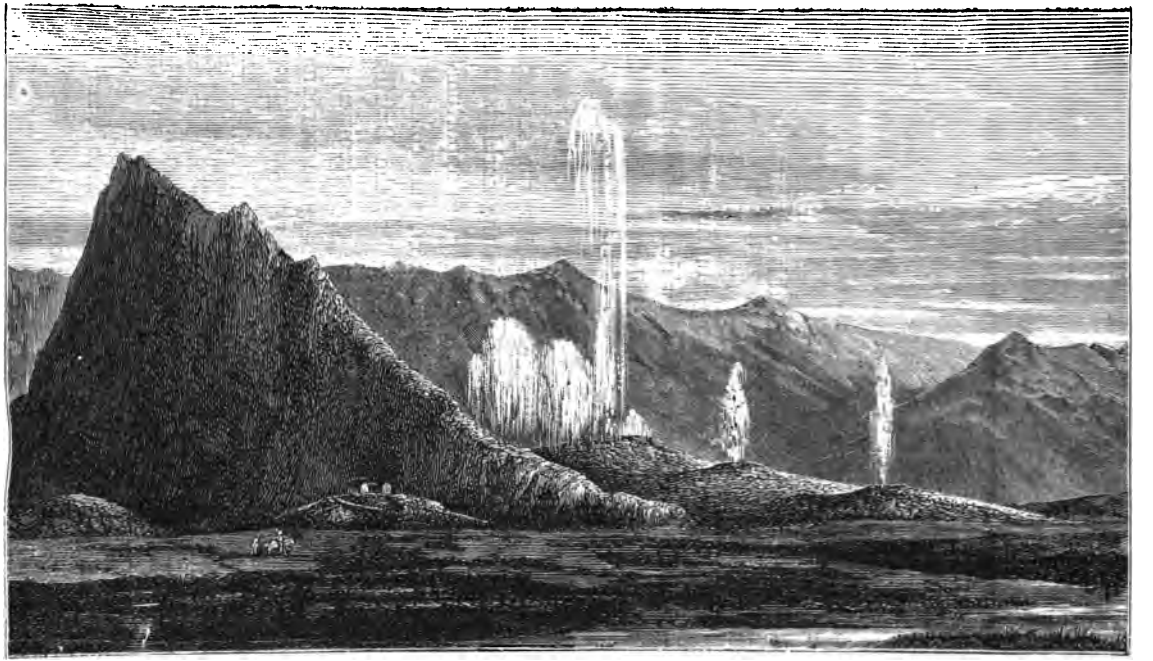
few hunters, whose business it is to trap or shoot animals that have skins valuable for fur. Most of the pretty furs that are used to trim ladies' dresses and cloaks, and sometimes gentlemen's cloaks too, are brought either from this very cold country, or from the northern part of Asia, where it is as cold.

In winter the sea farther north is frozen, so that it is quite covered with ice and snow; and in summer, though some of it opens, it is never clear. No ship has ever yet passed along from the east to the west of America, or from the west of Europe to the east of Asia, though a great many have tried to do so; and their officers have seen and marked down on the map a great many islands, where nothing grows, and where there are hardly any inhabitants; only here and there a few wretched savages, called Eskimos, who live by catching fish and water-animals, seals and whales, walruses and white bears.

The largest of these islands is at some distance to the north-east of America: it is called Greenland, but it is almost as barren and desolate as the smaller islands farther west, though there are, near the south and south-west coast, a few patches where the snow melts away during a short summer, and which look green, as compared with the rest of this part of the world. Here the Danes have established a few small trading stations, where they collect whale-oil, and other such-like things, the sole produce of this inclement region.

Greenland was first settled nearly a thousand years ago, from Iceland, a large island in mid-ocean, about half-way between Greenland and Norway, but nearer to Greenland. Iceland itself was settled only just before that time, by adventurers from Norway, who were discontented with the King of Norway, and sought a home where they would be still more free. But it is a very barren wild country, with a climate of excessive rigour: much of it is under snow for the greater part of the year; and on the rest, the people manage to get only a scanty supply of grass for their cattle. The island is principally remarkable for a volcano, named Hekla, which at times is very active; and also for a number of hot springs, called there Geysers. These Geysers every now and then throw up water to a great height, just as you may have seen fountains do in Trafalgar Square, in London, or at the Crystal Palace, or at many other places in England; but the fountains you see in England are worked by pumps some little way off, whilst the Geysers work of themselves, and the water they throw up is almost boiling. They belong to the same volcanic district as Hekla, and are in reality little volcanoes, only of a somewhat different kind.

Whilst Rupert's Land and the country and seas beyond are so exceedingly cold, in Central America, on the other hand, it is exceedingly hot; and between the two there is great variety of climate, just as there is in Asia, between the extreme cold of Siberia and the intense heat of India and the Malay peninsula.



GEYSERS.

In South America the country is, for the most part, broken up into so-called Republics, which have thrown off their allegiance to Spain, and have never since been able to get a settled government. You will see on the map Granada, Venezuela, Ecuador, Bolivia, Peru, La Plata or the Argentine Confederation, and Chili. Patagonia, the extreme south of South America, with a cold wet climate, has never been settled by Europeans, and is inhabited by filthy savages.

The only country in South America that has at all a stable government is Brazil, which was colonized by the Portuguese. It is now independent, under its own Emperor, and is in a little better order than the countries bordering on it; though it, too, is in a very wild state, except in the towns near the sea-coast. The Amazon, the largest river in the world, is navigable for thousands of miles, and gives opportunities for carrying trade, and civilization, and comfort to the very heart of the continent; but the Brazilians do not avail themselves of these opportunities, and the country remains still almost quite barbarous. And yet nature has been extremely bountiful; the climate is warm, but not too warm; the soil is fruitful, and needs but the slightest pretence at cultivation; and even as it is, great quantities of mahogany, dye-woods, indiarubber, cotton, coffee, and sugar, and many other things, are exported; that is, are put on board ship and sent to other countries.

Running the whole length of South America is a chain of very lofty mountains, known as the Andes. Next to the Himalayas, these are the highest mountains in the world; they are very steep, and several of them are volcanoes—that is, you remember, they burst out, every now and then, in fire, and lava, and burning ashes. And like other lofty mountains, near the top they are covered with snow; so that from the low country of Peru or Brazil, where it is very hot, one may ride in a few days into a land where the snow lies all the year round.

Amongst these mountains, more especially in the higher part of Peru, and in Bolivia, there are many valuable mines: gold and silver are found there in great quantities; other metals, such as quicksilver and copper, are also found there; and precious stones, diamonds, rubies, and emeralds. The country is thus, by nature, extremely rich; but the idleness and lawlessness of the people have prevented their deriving from it the advantage that they might have done: the mines are not properly worked, the land is not cultivated, and there is but little commerce at the seaports.

The mountains, which die out in Central America, rise again in Mexico, and run in a continuous line to the far north: these are not so high as the Andes, but are still high; and amongst them are many rich mines of different metals—lead, copper, and quicksilver: there is also a good deal of gold both in

California and farther north, in Oregon and British Columbia: this was discovered only about thirty years ago, and has drawn a great many people there from almost every country in the world. San Francisco, the chief town of California, has grown within a few years, from a petty village, to one of the largest towns in the States; Victoria, too, the chief town of Vancouver's Island, which belongs to the English, has grown into a large town, and the population all along the coast has increased very quickly.

At the extreme south of South America are several wild, rugged, and barren islands, which have perhaps the worst climate in the world: a fine day is almost unknown: it is almost always blowing hard, and often violently; it is generally raining, but it sometimes snows. The largest of these islands is Tierra del Fuego, which means, in Spanish, the Land of Fire: it is so called from some volcanoes which were noticed by the early Spanish discoverers, but are not of any great size or importance. South of all is a little isolated rock, which is known as Cape Horn: it is the most southern land belonging to America, and is generally spoken of as the south extremity of America; but, as you see, it is really some distance farther south, the southernmost of all these islands.

CHAPTER XXXII.

THE PACIFIC OCEAN, AUSTRALIA.

WHEN Columbus and the Spaniards that followed him first got to the West Indian Islands and the mainland of America, they quite thought that they had got to the extreme east of China and India; and they gave to their new discoveries the one general name of the Indies. This name the islands have kept, distinguished from the true India by the adjective West; whilst India itself is since often spoken of as East India, or the East Indies.

After some few years, the Spaniards, in exploring along the east coast of South America, found the passage through between the mainland and the island of Tierra del Fuego: through this passage they sailed, and it has ever since been known by the name of their captain, Magalhaens, or Magellan, who was a Portuguese in the Spanish service.

When Magellan got clear of the islands at the south end of America, he found himself in a wide open sea, which no ship was ever known to have crossed before: he had very fine weather, and called

the sea the Pacific Ocean: and, still with the idea that India must be very near, he sailed away westwards. After a voyage of nearly four months, he arrived at a group of islands, to which he gave the name of Ladrones, or Thieves' Islands; and on one of these, in a quarrel with the natives, he and the greater part of his men were killed: but a small number escaped, and these, still keeping towards the west, and passing through the Straits of Sunda, then across the Indian Ocean to Madagascar and the Cape of Good Hope, at last reached Spain.

Magellan's ship, then, with the survivors of his crew, had sailed right round the world. She had left Spain and gone west to America; she had passed through the Straits of Magellan and gone west across the Pacific Ocean: and when Magellan was killed, she was almost within reach of the Portuguese, who had got to the coast of China some years before. When she got to places that the Portuguese had come to, round the Cape of Good Hope, of course her officers knew their way home; so, still sailing west, she crossed to the Cape of Good Hope, and then northwards along the coast of Africa, till she arrived at Spain.

If there had been any doubt about the world being round, this voyage of Magellan's would have ended it; for a ship sailing round it, and by always going west, coming back to where she started from, was a very clear proof. But what Magellan's voyage

did, besides that, was to give men a better idea of how large the world was; for you may think how little they knew, when a man like Columbus supposed that the short distance from Spain to America would bring him to the coast of India; whereas, as we now know, there was all the width of America and of the Pacific Ocean still to traverse.

After Magellan's time, many other voyages were made across the Pacific Ocean, and a great many islands were discovered, which you will see marked on the map; but most of them are very small. There is, however, one very large island, so large that it is often called a continent, and which you will see on the map, at the southern end of the Indian Archipelago. It is now called Australia, which has been shortened from Australasia, a name given to it as meaning South Asia.

It is, as you see, a very large island indeed; and has been colonized, at many parts of the sea-coast, by the English, who have built several towns; and, spreading into the interior, have established themselves as farmers, and for the most part as breeders of sheep and cattle. The principal towns are Sydney, which is the chief town of the district called New South Wales, and the seat of the colonial Government; and Melbourne, which, in the same way, is the seat of the Government of Victoria. And there are other colonies, each with its distinct Government, independent of each other, and subject only to the

home Government in London. These are South Australia, with the chief town, Adelaide; Western Australia, with the chief town, Perth; and Queensland, which has only lately been made into a separate colony, with the chief town, Brisbane.

New South Wales is the oldest colony of all these; and, in fact, all the others are off-shoots from it, as they increased in size, and gained commercial importance. In the year 1851 gold was discovered in the territory of Victoria; and this caused a very rapid increase in the wealth and population of Victoria: Melbourne grew almost immediately to be the largest and richest town in the whole of Australia; and it has been so ever since. And besides gold, other metals, but especially copper, are found in great quantities, not only in Victoria, but also in New South Wales, and in the territory of South Australia.

This great island has been so lately settled, that the population is still very scanty, and is confined almost entirely to the neighbourhood of the sea; the interior has been only partially explored, and it is difficult to travel through it for want of water and food. There is but little game; there are kangaroos, and other curious animals, but there are no large wild beasts, as in Africa or America; there are no large rivers; and a wide tract of the country is dry stony desert. Still, from what we know of it, there is a great deal which will furnish good pasture for cattle, and will certainly be occupied in the course of

time, as the population increases: at present, even the land that is better known is very thinly peopled.

Both Sydney and Melbourne have a large commerce with England; ships that carry on this commerce sail from London or Liverpool, and going far south, pass the Cape of Good Hope, and keep away east till they come to Melbourne; very often not seeing land from the time they pass the Lizard, or the Tuskar Light, at the south-east corner of Ireland, till they sight Cape Otway, the southern point of Australia, a little to the west of Melbourne. From there they go to Melbourne; or perhaps they go on, passing Tasmania, an island which lies a little way to the south of Australia, and belongs to England, and then turning north, go to Sydney, or Brisbane; or perhaps they go still farther east to New Zealand, a group of three large islands, which have also been colonized by the English; and when they have done all their business in Australia or New Zealand, and start to come home again, they do not turn and come back by the same way they went out, but keep on towards the east, across the South Pacific Ocean, and past Cape Horn; and then to the north, the whole length of the Atlantic Ocean, till at last they get back to England.

Now if you trace this voyage on the globe, which is round, as the earth is round, and represents it more correctly than the map does, you will see that every ship that makes it goes round the world; and as a great many ships do make this voyage every

year, there are a very great many people who have been round the world, and are therefore so much the more sure that the world is really round.

And now, before I finish this chapter, I will ask you to make believe to go on a voyage round the world with me: so take your globe, and as we go along, be sure that you really see where we are; and that you find the places on the map, if they are not marked on the globe.

Very well then: we go on board the steamer at Southampton, and as soon as she is ready, she steams down Southampton Water, and out to sea, past the Needles, some sharp rocks at the west end of the Isle of Wight. We are fairly off; and so down the English Channel, with the coast of England on our right hand, which we can see every now and then, if it is clear; the white cliffs of St. Alban's Head, and the Bill of Portland, and the Start, and then the Lizard, the last English land we shall see till we get home again. By and by we see the lighthouse on Ushant, and the French coast, near Brest, like a distant cloud behind it; and then across the Bay of Biscay, where, if you are not sea-sick, you may see the porpoises rolling about, and romping, and tumbling each other over, as if they were playing leap-frog. Now we come to Cape Finisterre, the north-west point of Spain, and with a fair wind go southwards, along the coast of Portugal, just passing near enough

to the mouth of the Tagus to signal to the telegraph station, and by it to our friends at home, that we are getting on bravely; and so, past Cape St. Vincent, and past Cape Trafalgar, where we remember that we too are English, and arrive at Gibraltar.

We have now been about four days from England, and our steamer wants coal; so, while she is getting it, we will post that letter for your mother, which you have been writing ever since we left Southampton, and which you sealed up just as we were coming round Tarifa Point, and will hurry on shore to run through the galleries that have been tunnelled in the north face of the rock, and see the big guns which are pointing out through the holes cut for them—embrasures, they are called—frowning defiance to all England's enemies.

But the steamer will have got her coals on board, and we must hurry off to her, or we shall miss our passage. There! we have just saved it, and away we go into the Mediterranean.

Look here! far away on your left; don't you see the white points glistening in the sunlight? they are the snowy peaks of the Sierra Nevada, a high range of mountains in the south of Spain; and beyond them, if we could only see it, is Granada, where the Moors, who had crossed over from Africa, reigned for many centuries before the Spaniards could drive them out; and where they built a wonderfully beautiful palace, called the Alhambra, which we must go and

look at some other time. For now we cannot get on shore; and the steamer is hurrying us on eastwards, past Cape Gata, and away into the broad Mediterranean.

It is four days since we left Gibraltar, and we have just sighted Gozo and Malta: we are going to stop at Malta to coal, and will have an hour or two to run through the town, and see the fortifications.

See how massive they are, how deep the ditches, all cut out of the solid rock: all this belongs now to the English, but it was once the stronghold of a body of stout soldiers, who pledged themselves, as knights of St. John, to wage war against the infidel who had seized on the Holy City of Jerusalem. The infidel Turks were too strong for the knights, and drove them out of the Holy Land; and then out of Rhodes, to which they retreated; and then attacked them in Malta; but from Malta the knights repelled them, and held their own, and during more than two hundred years waged unceasing war against the Turks, and made slaves of all they could catch, and compelled them to dig these ditches and to build these walls.

No; we won't buy any Maltese lace; I daresay your mother would like some, but she can buy it quite as good in London, and as cheap, if not cheaper: the Maltese would be sure to overcharge us, for they know that we have come by the steamer, and are strangers; and, besides, there! our time is up, we must go on board at once. And now, see! just as we get outside the harbour, far away, as far as you

can see, is the top of Etna: we are in luck, for it is a great way off, and can only be seen when the afternoon is very clear.

As we go along, I may tell you that it is at the bottom of the sea, near Malta, that coral, and especially the pretty pink coral, is found; and near Crete, sponges. These are cut or broken off by men accustomed to go down in a great depth of water, and work there; but they cannot stay down for more than a few seconds, and the work is exceedingly hard.

And now that it is four days since we left Malta, we arrive at Port Said, where the steamer goes into the canal: we will leave her to pass through, and will hurry off to Cairo, and have a look at the pyramids, that I daresay you have often seen pictures of: they are the biggest and oldest buildings in the world, and are really the monuments erected over the graves of some of the Egyptian kings long ago. It is very hot, and we might like to bathe in the Nile, but it would not be safe to do so, for there are a great many crocodiles in it, and a little boy or girl would be to them just as a nice spring chicken or turkey poult would be to you or me.

We rejoin our ship at Suez, which must be very close to where the Israelites crossed over the Red Sea, as they were escaping from the land of bondage: and now we are off again, steaming away for Aden. Oh! it is very hot! it was hot enough in the Mediterranean, all the way from Gibraltar, but this is

too terrible: and not a breath of air; what are we to do? Well, yes, it is very hot; the Red Sea during the summer is almost the hottest place in the world; let us console ourselves with the thought that we shall soon get out of it, and in three or four days more shall pass through the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, by the little island of Perim, and get to Aden.

We won't go on shore at Aden, for there is nothing to see, and it is hotter there than it is on board; it is quite hot enough where we are; so we'll stay, and keep quiet. Now we are off again, and, with a fresh breeze, the heat is not so oppressive; we shall get to Point de Galle in a week or so, and it will be more pleasant there. Here you may see that Ceylon is a well-wooded and fertile country; there are peacocks flying about in the woods, and there are elephants, and many strange animals; but we have not time to go and look for them; but the boatmen will bring us all sorts of delicious fruits, such as you never saw or tasted before—fresh cocoa-nuts, and custard apples, and I don't know all what. You remember that the hymn says—

—— the spicy breezes
Blow soft o'er Ceylon's isle.

Now, just in the cool of the evening, you can smell them: for a great many spice-bearing trees grow here—nutmegs and cloves; and a great deal of coffee is grown here, and sent home either from Galle, where we are lying, or from Colombo, a little farther north.

And now, when we leave Point de Galle, and pass away from the island of Ceylon, we go straight across, nearly due east, to Acheen Head, in Sumatra, and then down the Straits of Malacca, breathing, as we go along, the sweet spicy breezes, which are more strongly scented here than even at Ceylon; and so we arrive at Singapore, which is, you know, one of the great markets of Eastern commerce. While the ship is coaling, we can go on shore and take a little drive out into the country: it is quite safe, for though there are tigers, and very savage tigers, too, on the island, they do not come so near the town. Here are some plantations of nutmeg and clove: if you pick a leaf and rub it in your hand, you will understand how the wind carries such a strong perfume. And there are cocoa-nut trees, with big green cocoa-nuts: we'll get some presently, for the fresh juice is a most delicious drink in this dreadfully hot weather. And see! the beautiful little birds flying about amongst them, like crumbs of a rainbow, but much more brilliant: they are called sun-birds: I daresay you have often seen them at home, dead, and stuffed, and under glass cases, or perhaps glittering in ladies' hats; but how much more beautiful they look here! And as we go back, we'll get some fruit to take on board; mangosteins, and mangoes, and pine apples, and custard apples, and cocoa-nuts; I declare the man's filling the boat for a couple of shillings! Here's another man wants us to buy a cockatoo: no, thank

you, we can't take him; we're going on, round the world: but what a glorious creature! why, he's nearly as large as a goose; white, with a rose-coloured crest: and there are others, smaller ones, with canary-coloured top-knots; but I don't like those, for they have nasty treacherous tempers. These cockatoos are not found wild in Singapore, but are brought here from some of the islands farther east, Timor perhaps, or New Guinea.

And now we are off for Hong-Kong, a little island at the mouth of the Canton River, which belongs to the English, and is a very busy market of the Chinese trade. But we have no time to get Chinese curiosities, and there is nothing to see half so curious as the Chinamen themselves, with heads shaved all but a lock at the crown, which is plaited up with silk till it reaches nearly to the ground; and then their slanting black eyes, and smooth faces, and their long robes, and their shoes with white soles nearly two inches thick: I don't think you ever saw such queer-looking people before.

But the steamer is just ready to start for Japan: she will take us to Yokohama, the port of Jeddo, the chief town of Japan; and if we only had time, we might make an excursion to Fusi-Yama, a very celebrated volcano not very far off. The Japanese are not Christians, and they think Fusi-Yama is the dwelling-place of evil spirits; and that when the volcano breaks out in fire and lava, it is the evil spirits being angry and

raging: they have a great respect for Fusi-Yama, and you may see pictures of it in gold, or silver, or copper, on a great many pieces of Japanese lacquer.

And now we are to start across the Pacific for San Francisco. It is a very long voyage, quite 5000 miles, and will take us more than three weeks; but we have got north, out of the very hot countries, and the time will pass pleasantly enough. Now, we have got to San Francisco, and the train will start in a few hours for New York: it is a long journey; it takes a week; and the railway crosses some very high mountain passes, and goes through a very wild country: sometimes in winter it is blocked up by heavy falls of snow; but just now there is no danger, and we shall get a hurried look at the splendid mountain scenery, as we rush past in the train.

But there is no time to stop, for your mother has written out to say that you must come home at once, for you have been away long enough: it is three months since we left England, and I am sure she is wearying to see you. So, as we have got to New York just in time to catch the steamer for Liverpool, we go straight on board, and away across the Atlantic Ocean, which lies between America and Europe: after nine days, we get to Queenstown, in the south of Ireland, and the next day to Liverpool; and there I must put you in the train, and send you away home.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

THE ROTATION OF THE EARTH.

I HOPE that all this time you have remembered how I told you to distinguish north from south, by looking at the sun; and also that I told you how, as we go farther north, we go farther away from the sun, and get into a colder climate; and by going south, we get into a warmer climate. If you remembered this, you would understand how it was that in our voyage round the world we found the Mediterranean, and the Red Sea, and Aden, and Singapore so hot; and how, on the other hand, it is that the northern parts of America and Asia are so cold, and the seas beyond are icebound.

But if we go still farther south, away beyond Singapore, or Point de Galle, or Central America, this rule does not hold; it is not nearly so hot at Sydney, or Melbourne, as it is at Singapore; in Granada, Venezuela, or Guiana, on the north coast of South America, on the Orinoco, or in the valley of the Amazon it is swelteringly hot; but it gets cooler as we go south, and in Tierra del Fuego it is often

bitterly cold. And the rule which I gave you for telling north from south is also changed; for in these countries so very far south, the sun at noon is in the north, and your shadow, of course, would point to the south, just as in England, or Scotland, or France, or any part of Europe it points to the north.

Now, if you think about this, you will know what it means almost before I tell you: it means that though the sun is far to the south of England, you get nearer and more nearly underneath him as you go towards the south; that if you went on going south, by and by you would have the sun right overhead, and your shadow at noon would no longer point to the north, but would be straight down between your legs, or trying to get into your boots: and that if you went still farther south, you would have gone past the sun; so that as before, he was in front of you at noon, he would now be at your back; and your shadow, which must always point away from the sun, would point to the south.

Think this over by yourself, and be quite sure that you understand it; for I don't want you to say it is so, merely because you read it, or are told it. That is the way a parrot learns things; and a little boy or girl should try not to be like a parrot: you should try and understand everything you read; and though there must be some things that you will find it very difficult to understand, still, if you really try, you will be sure to master them after a while.

Now, if you have been thinking of what I told you about the earth and the sun, and how we can pass under the sun, so that our noon-shadows, which here in England point to the north, may fall exactly underneath us, and then, as we go on, point to the south, you will, I hope, want to learn more about the sun, and how it is that he seems to rise every morning in the east, and to set every evening in the west.

Bear in mind, then, that the earth is a large round ball: you can see for yourself that the sun is also round; but you cannot see that he is a very great deal bigger than the earth; for he is such a long way off, that he looks only the size of a large football: in reality, he is more than a million times bigger than the earth, and is a great many millions of miles away from us.

The sun is an enormous ball clothed with fire: from him come our light and heat; when we are turned away from the sun, we are in darkness, and it is night; when we are turned towards the sun, we have his light, and it is day; when the sun comes directly overhead it is hotter than when he shines only slant-wise; and in any place, according as his rays fall more or less slant-wise, it is colder or warmer; when they are most slanting it is winter; when they are most nearly up and down, or, as it is called, vertical, it is summer.

When you are a little older, you will learn how the sun appears to move, so as to make these changes;

and how it is, in reality, the earth that moves, only you think it is the sun; just as, when you are in a railway carriage, you think that the houses and trees are moving, when it is you, in the train, that are hurrying past them. But at present, I will only tell you that the earth turns round once every twenty-four hours; so that, for a part of the time, you are turned towards the sun, and it is day; and the rest of the time, you are turned away from the sun, and it is night.

Now when the earth turns round, it is just as if it was turning on a spindle or axis running right through it; there is not any spindle really, any more than there is through a top when it is spinning; but even in the top you will see a spot in the middle, which looks as if it was fixed, and as if the top was turning round it: well! there are two such spots on the earth, one at each end of where we might suppose the spindle was. These spots are called the poles of the earth; and the line through them, passing right through the earth from one side to the other, is called the axis of the earth.

When the earth is represented by a globe, it is made to turn round on the poles, so as to show you how the earth really does turn round; and it is only by looking at the globe, as it turns round, that you will be able to understand what is meant by the poles; and will learn to distinguish them as the north pole and the south pole. The north pole,

you will see between the northern coasts of Europe, Asia, and America, which lie round it; and the south pole is beyond Cape Horn, at the southern end of South America.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

LATITUDE AND LONGITUDE.

HALFWAY between the two poles, you will find a line drawn right round the globe. This is called the Equator, or, very often, simply the Line. It marks very nearly the position of the sun; not quite, because besides turning round, the earth also moves so as to put the sun sometimes to the north of this line, that is in our summer; and sometimes to the south of the line, that is in our winter. The position of the sun when he is farthest north, in the middle of our summer, is marked by a line going round the globe, called the Tropic of Cancer; and another line, at the same distance from the Equator, on the other side of it, marks where the sun is when he is farthest south, in the middle of our winter: this line is called the Tropic of Capricorn.

You will see, then, that between these two extreme positions, the sun goes backwards and forwards; he is always overhead somewhere between these lines, and is never overhead anywhere outside or beyond them; it is therefore hotter there than

anywhere else; and that hot belt of the world is commonly spoken of as, between the tropics, the tropical zone, or shortly, the tropics.

At exactly the same distance from the poles that the Tropics of Cancer and Capricorn are from the Equator, you will see two circles drawn on the globe, called the Arctic and the Antarctic Circles; when the sun is at his farthest north, on the Tropic of Cancer, that is, in the middle of summer, the whole of the Arctic Circle is, at all times through the twenty-four hours, in the half of the earth which is turned towards the sun; and at that time, within the Arctic Circle, the sun never sets: at the north pole, the sun does not set for six months. On the other hand, the whole of the Antarctic Circle is, at the same time, turned away from the sun, and is in constant darkness: at the south pole, the sun does not rise for six months. But in the middle of our winter, when the sun is at his farthest south, on the Tropic of Capricorn, then the south pole has a day of six months, and the north pole is six months without seeing the sun.

You must look at the globe to make quite sure how this can be. Suppose the sun to be in the ceiling; and bring the point where the Tropic of Cancer passes under the brass circle to the top, so as to be highest: then, for all the part of the world above the wooden circle it is day, and for all below it is night: if you turn the globe round and round, you will see that all

the part within the Arctic Circle is always above, and all the part within the Antarctic Circle is always below.

And if you change, and bring the Tropic of Capricorn, where it passes under the brass circle, to the top, you will see then that the whole of the Antarctic Circle is always above, and the whole of the Arctic Circle is always below the great wooden circle, which marks the boundary betwixt day and night.

And you will see, at the same time, that in any one part of the world, and in the place exactly opposite to it on the other side, the times and seasons are exactly opposite; when it is day in the one, it is night in the other; when it is noon in the one, it is midnight in the other; when it is summer in the one, it is winter in the other; when it is midsummer in England, it is midwinter in New Zealand or Australia; and our friends in Sydney or Melbourne eat their Christmas plum-pudding in the middle of summer.

You will now be able to understand how important it is, in speaking of any place, to know which side of the Equator it is on, and how far it is from the Equator; for if you know that, you know pretty nearly whether it is hot or cold, when it has summer or winter, how long its day or night is; and you can compare it at once with the country you live in, and think how far it is nearly the same, and in what respects it is different. It is in this way that places

have come to be known by their distance from the Equator, which is called their latitude.

You will see on the globe a number of fine lines drawn from pole to pole, going right round the globe: these are called meridians: you may draw as many more as you like; every line which you can draw on the globe from one pole to the other, is a meridian: the heavy brazen circle always covers a meridian, and is therefore called the Brazen Meridian. The part of every meridian from the equator to either of the poles, whether north or south, is divided into 90 degrees; and each degree is divided into 60 minutes. You will see these degrees and minutes marked on the brazen meridian; and if you turn the globe round, so that the place you are thinking of comes under the brazen meridian, you can read off its latitude: you may find in this way that the latitude of London is 51 degrees 31 minutes north of the Equator; which is written 51° 31′ N.: or, that the latitude of Sydney is 33 degrees 52 minutes south of the Equator; that is, is 33° 52′ S. In the same way you may find that the latitude of

Edinburgh	is	55° 57′ N.
Calcutta	„	22° 34′ N.
Cape Town	„	33° 56′ S.
Cape Horn	„	55° 58′ S.
Monte Video		34° 53′ S.
New York	„	40° 42′ N.

and as many more as you like.

And if you want to know what places are in the same, or nearly the same, latitude, you can turn the globe round, and read every name that comes to the same mark on the brazen meridian. Thus you may find all the places that have nearly the same latitude as New York; you will see that amongst others, Madrid, Naples, and Constantinople have very nearly the same; Lisbon and Pekin have also nearly the same, but not so nearly; you can write the latitudes of these places down on your slate, and find out how much they differ from each other.

From the equator to either of the poles, is just the quarter of a meridian; so that if that distance is divided into ninety degrees (90°), the whole meridian is divided into four times ninety, that is three hundred and sixty (360°). Now the equator is very nearly the same length round as any of the meridians; if the earth was exactly round, it would, of course, be quite the same; but in reality the equator is a little longer, but only a very little: and just as the meridians are divided into 360 degrees, so also the equator is divided into 360 degrees; and each degree is divided into 60 minutes. In this way we can measure the distance from where any one meridian crosses the equator, to where some other meridian crosses the equator; and if through any place we draw a meridian, and look where that crosses the equator, and then draw a meridian through another place, and see where that crosses the equator, we

can find the difference between these two crossings; and that is called the difference of longitude; it measures the distance of the two places east or west of each other, in much the same way that the latitude of any place measures its distance north or south of the equator.

But whilst the equator, from which all latitudes begin, is a line fixed by the rotation of the earth and by the sun, there is no meridian fixed in any way, from which all longitudes must begin: the people of different countries begin where they like. The English count from the meridian which passes through Greenwich, a suburb of London, where the great English Observatory is: for the Observatory is a place where the sun is observed; and all calculations of latitude and longitude depend on the sun. The French, for the same reason, count the longitude from the meridian of Paris; and the Germans sometimes count from the meridian of Berlin: but more frequently the Germans, like the Dutch, Danes, Swedes, and all the other people of Europe, and the world, follow the English example, and count from Greenwich, as being the most convenient.

The longitudes on your globe are counted from Greenwich; so when you want to find what the longitude of any place is, you turn the globe round till the place just comes to the edge of the brazen meridian, and then you look along it till you come to the Equator; there you see the degrees and

minutes of longitude marked east or west of Greenwich. You may in this way find the longitude of London to be 0° 6′ W., that is, west of Greenwich; or of Sydney to be 151° 14′ E., that is, east of Greenwich. And in the same way you may find that the longitude of

Edinburgh	is	3° 12′ W.
Calcutta	„	88° 26′ E.
Cape Town	„	18° 23′ E.
Cape Horn	„	67° 21′ W.
Monte Video		56° 13′ W.
New York	„	73° 59′ W.

and as many more as you like.

CHAPTER XXXV.

THE SIZE OF THE EARTH: MAPS.

SINCE the earth is round like a ball, it is properly represented by the globe, on which we can show the poles, and the equator, and the tropics, and the Arctic and Antarctic circles, and the parallels of latitude, and the meridians in their real positions, only of course a very great deal smaller; and then by marking places with their proper latitude and longitude, we can draw in the different countries of the world, each in its proper place. We can then measure the distance from one place to another with a bit of string or tape, or with a thin slip of brass, which is very often made for the globe, and is marked off in degrees of the same length as those of the equator or of the meridians. For the length of the degree is different on different globes: on little globes it is a very little bit, and on bigger globes it is much longer, and on the earth itself it is a very great deal longer still.

The equator or the meridians are divided, you know, into 360 degrees; and each degree is divided

into 60 minutes. A minute is called by sailors a knot, and often a sea mile: it is very nearly 2029 yards long: an ordinary mile, such as we measure by on land, is 1760 yards long. So now we can calculate how many miles the earth is round. If you multiply 2029 by 60, you get the number of yards in a degree: and if you multiply that product by 360, you get the number of yards in the equator, that is measuring right round the earth: and then, if you divide by 1760, you reduce that number of yards to miles. Let us try:—

```
      2029
        60
    ------
    121740
       360
    ------
   7304400
  365220
  -------
1760)4382640(24901
     352
     ---
     862
     704
     ---
     1586
     1584
     ----
      240
      176
      ---
       64  remainder.
```

So the earth is 24,901 miles round, or a little less; very nearly 25,000 miles; you see what a very little bit of it is England, which is only 354 miles from north to south, and 285 from east to west.

Now try and measure the length of Africa or America on the globe with a bit of string; when you have got the length on the string, you can lay it along the equator and see how many degrees it is; you will not be able to see the minutes unless your globe is a very large one indeed; then, when you have found how many degrees it is, you can reduce it to minutes or sea miles, and then to English miles, just as we did before. Let us try:—

If you measure on the globe from the extreme north to the extreme south of South America, from Point Gallina to Cape Horn, you will find it to be equal to 68 degrees on the equator. Multiply 68 by 60, and you find that the length of South America is 4080 minutes, or sea miles; to reduce this to land miles you multiply by 2029, and divide by 1760; and if you do that, without making a mistake, you will find that the length of South America, from Point Gallina to Cape Horn, is 4703, or a little more than 4700 miles.

And you can measure any other distances in exactly the same way.

When we try to draw the countries of the world on a flat sheet of paper, so as to make a map, we

cannot do it so exactly as on a globe: for it is not possible to draw the marks of a round surface on a flat sheet, without making some of them too big or some too little. On a globe everything is, of course, made small; but the exact shape, or proportion between the parts, is unchanged: on a map, this proportion cannot be always preserved; and the change of shape, or, as it is called, the distortion, is sometimes very great; so that we cannot measure distances on a map so easily as on a globe.

By and by, you will learn how maps are drawn exactly, but I do not think you would understand it just now; so I will only tell you of two ways in which the outline drawn on a globe may be projected on a flat screen.

Suppose you have a globe made of glass, or of something that light can shine through: if you were to cut it into two halves, down the axis, along the meridian which passes a little to the westward of Cape Verde; and were to set these two halves up behind a screen such as is used for a magic lantern, with the round part towards the screen; and in the middle, behind each half, a little way back, were to place a lighted lamp: you would then see, on the screen, all the marks on the globe—the equator, and the tropics, and the circles of latitude, and the meridians, and the outlines of the different countries, and the positions of the different towns—projected, or thrown forward, just as I daresay you have seen pictures

thrown forward, or projected, on such a screen, by a magic lantern. You would see a representation of the world on a flat screen; and it would be very like the map which you will find at the beginning of your atlas, called the World in Hemispheres—that is, in half spheres, or half globes.

In the other way I want to tell you about, you must suppose that the lighted lamp is put inside the globe, exactly in the middle; and the screen is rolled round, so as just to touch the globe all the way along the equator, but nowhere else; you would then see the shadow of the markings on the globe projected on the screen, so that they might be traced on it with a pencil. If you were to do this, and then unrol the screen and let it lie flat, you would find that you had a map very like the one that is called, in your atlas, the World on Mercator's projection: it is called so because a Dutchman, named Mercator, was the first who made maps of this kind.

There are many other different ways of drawing maps so as to show the marks of the globe on a flat surface, but I will not try now to explain them to you. They all distort the country shown, more especially near the edges of the map: you will notice this distortion, that is the change of shape, if you compare the Mercator's map of the world with the globe, and see how very different all the northern part of the world appears, how widely it is stretched out: but Mercator's map and all the others are very nearly

correct in the middle; you will see that Africa or India is very nearly the same on the Mercator's map, or in the World in Hemispheres, as it is on the globe. And so, by making any small country correspond to the middle of the projection, whatever it is, we can draw maps of different countries, which are very nearly correct, and in which the distortion is not of much consequence.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

RECAPITULATION.

AND now, before I finish, I will remind you of some of the more important things you have been reading about, and which you should try to remember.

The earth is a very large round ball; so large that at any place where we may be it seems flat, for we can only see a little bit of it at a time; but by considering the way in which ships at sea went out of sight, people began long ago to think that its surface must be everywhere curved, not flat; and we now know certainly that it is so; for many thousands of people have been round it, in many different directions. And by the journeys which have been so made round it, we have learned its very great size; it is about 25,000 miles round. To go round it in the way we did a few pages back, with fast steamers, and railway from San Francisco to New York, would take more than three months. If it was possible to make a railway right round it, a train, going at the rate of the fast trains between London and Liverpool, or

London and Edinburgh, would take nearly a month to go round; and that, though never stopping, but going on night and day.

The surface of this enormous ball is partly water and partly land; the globe, which is meant to represent the surface of the earth, shows you the way in which the land is distributed, and how it is broken up into pieces, some very large, some very small, with the water, which is called sea, running in between.

England, where we live, and which perhaps seems to you as if it was all the world, is really but a very little bit of it: it is smaller than Germany, or France, or Spain; and each of these is but a little bit of Europe, which is the smallest of all the great divisions of the land. But though England is such a very little place, the territory of England is very large: it includes not only Great Britain and Ireland, but India, a great part of Africa and of North America, the whole of Australia, and a great many islands, some of which are large; these are Ceylon, Tasmania, the three islands of New Zealand, Vancouver's Island, and many of the West Indian Islands — Jamaica, Trinidad, and several others; then there are others smaller, but very important, either as strong forts or as busy markets for all kinds of commerce—Malta, and Singapore, and Hong Kong; and there are stations which are of consequence, as being places where our ships can get supplies of coal or provisions, such as

Gibraltar or Aden: the only countries which have a wider extent of territory are Russia and China; and China alone has a greater population. This vast British Empire, which is governed by the Queen of Great Britain and the British Parliament, consists of countries scattered all over the world, which have been conquered or colonized by our forefathers, and are held by us as long as we continue a brave and busy, and industrious people. But in the history of the world we read of other nations, once rich and powerful, and ruling over vast empires, which are now poor and weak; and it behoves us therefore to remember that as the courage, and energy, and industry of Englishmen have made our country great, so these qualities alone can keep it so: and you, little English boys and girls who read this, must bear in mind that some day you will be English men and English women; and that, together with the English name and the English glory, you inherit the duty of maintaining the power and the empire of England, the duty of being bold and true, energetic and industrious.

The surface of the sea altogether is about three times as great as the surface of the land; and just as the land is broken up and divided by the sea into distinct countries, so the sea is broken up and divided by the land. The different parts of the sea are known as—oceans, seas, gulfs, bays, creeks, friths or fiords, channels, straits; and by other names which

belong to particular places, and which you will learn from the map.

The principal of these parts of the sea, which you should find on the globe, or on the maps, which are bits of the globe drawn larger, are :—

The Atlantic Ocean, between Europe and Africa on the east side, and America, North and South, on the west.

The Pacific Ocean, between America on the east side, and Asia, the Eastern Archipelago and Australia on the west.

The Indian Ocean, between Australia and the islands to the north and west of it, which form the Eastern Archipelago, on the east side, and the coast of Africa on the west.

In addition to these, the sea which stretches away towards the South Pole, south of Cape Horn, south of Cape Otway, south of the Cape of Good Hope, is often called The Great Southern Ocean.

You may see for yourself, on the globe, that these four oceans are the bulk of the water surface of the earth; the other parts, by whatever names they are distinctively known, are, even all together, small in comparison. You should note, amongst these, the Mediterranean Sea, joining on to the Atlantic by the Straits of Gibraltar, and in it the smaller divisions—the Sea of Marmora, the Black Sea, and the Sea of Azov, joined to each other by the Dardanelles, the

Bosporus, and the Straits of Kertch; the Archipelago or Ægean Sea, between Asia Minor and Greece; the Adriatic Sea, between Turkey and Italy; and the Sardinian Sea between Italy and Spain.

Then, north of Spain, and on the west side of France, is the Bay of Biscay; and on the north of France, between it and the south of England, is the English Channel, which joins on, by the Straits of Dover, to the sea that separates England from Holland, Germany, and Denmark. This is called the North Sea; and from it, through the Skager Rack, and the Cattegat, and the Sound, we get into the Baltic Sea, in which are the smaller divisions—the Gulf of Riga, the Gulf of Finland, and the Gulf of Bothnia.

Between England and Ireland the sea is called the Irish Sea; and outside, to the west of Ireland, is the Atlantic Ocean.

Then, on the American coast, you should notice the Caribbean Sea, which is shut in by the West India Islands and the coast line of South and Central America; and the Gulf of Mexico, which fills the corner between Central and North America.

In the Pacific Ocean there are the Japan Sea between the islands of Japan and the coast of Asia; and the China Sea between the coast of China and the Philippine Islands; and in the Indian Ocean you should notice the Bay of Bengal, on the east of

India, the Arabian Sea, on the west, between India and Africa, and the Red Sea, between Asia and Africa.

All these, and a great many more, have different names, so that we may readily distinguish them when we speak about them; and as the names are generally those of the countries near them, or of some large island in them, you should not now have any difficulty in finding them on the map, whenever you read about them.

But there is always a difficulty about finding on the map the name of any place you have never heard of before. You may not know what country it is in; you may perhaps not know what great division of the world it is in, whether it is in Europe, Asia, Africa, North America, South America, or Australia: or whether it is a little island; and then you don't know what sea or ocean it is in, whether it is in the Atlantic or Pacific Ocean, whether it is in the Mediterranean Sea, or the Bay of Bengal. Now all this is told at once, by telling the latitude and longitude: if you know the latitude and longitude of a place, you can at once look on the globe or on the map of the world and see where that latitude and longitude is; and however small the place may be, and whether its name is marked on the map or not, you know exactly where it is; and you can then look at the map of that particular country or sea, and there, at the latitude and longitude, you will find it, unless, of course,

it is such a little place that it can not be marked in maps that are not on a very large scale indeed.

By the scale of a map is meant the length that is supposed to represent, on the paper, a mile on the earth. Some of our large maps of counties are drawn on the scale of one inch to a mile; that is, each mile of the country is represented on the paper, by one inch. But you may easily understand that a large country cannot be drawn on such a scale; even the map of England would be more than 354 inches, or ten yards long; for you remember that England is 354 miles long, in a straight line drawn from Berwick to St. Alban's Head, and the difference of latitude between Berwick and the Lizard is a good deal more. You may find out for yourself what it is, how many miles it is, and how long your paper would have to be if you drew your map on the scale of one inch to a mile; and in the same way, it would have to be broad enough to take in the width between the meridians of Lowestoft and of the Land's End, which would be very nearly as much. No room in your house would hold such a map when it was opened out; and of course a map that you have to keep folded up is of no use. And if we cannot use such a scale as even one inch to a mile for the map of England, still less can we use it for the map of Europe, or Asia, or Africa, or any of the other continents.

Most maps have marked on them, generally just

under their title, the scale on which they are drawn. The map of England, in the largest atlas published, is on a scale of one inch to fourteen miles; and in smaller atlases it will be on a scale of one inch to thirty or forty, or fifty or sixty miles, or perhaps on a scale still smaller: in the same way, in the large atlas, the scale of the map of Europe is one inch to 150 miles, but in smaller atlases it is much less—perhaps one inch to 300 or 500 miles. And you may easily find out for yourself what scale your globe is on; for if you measure with a tape how big the globe is round, you may make a rule-of-three sum, and say, If 24,900 miles is represented by the number of inches in the tape, how many miles are represented by one inch?

Now on all the maps, whatever scale they are on, the latitude and longitude are marked along the sides, and the top and bottom; and lines are drawn right across the map for each ten or twenty degrees, or sometimes for every degree, or every two degrees, just according as the map is on a very small scale, or a very large one. So it is very easy, on any map, to find the exact spot where the lines of latitude and longitude cross.

Suppose, for instance, you hear people talking of Kars, and you are told it is a town in Turkey in Asia, near the Russian border, you may look in your map and find it; or you may have some difficulty in finding it; perhaps even, it may not be marked on

your map: but if you are told that it is in 40° 37′ north latitude, and 43° 7′ east longitude, then you can find it at once, without any difficulty at all; and even if the name is not marked on your map, you can still find where it is; and if you can write very neatly, and get a very nice pen, you may write the name in for yourself.

And now I must stop. I have told you something about the world, but not nearly all; for the world is a very large thing, and many large and heavy books have been written about every part of it, both the sea and the land. I have told you something about these, about the different countries, and their climate, and the people that live in them. All this is called geography. Some little boys and girls say that geography is nothing but a lot of hard names that nobody cares about; but the names have really very little to do with it, not more than the names of your friends have to do with them. What geography means is the study of the world and all that belongs to it; it teaches about our own country and about any other country; what people do there; what animals, what wild beasts or birds live there; what fruit or flowers grow there; whether it is hot or cold, whether it is wet or dry; whether it is hilly or flat; whether it is a nice country to go to and live in, or whether it is a country you would rather keep clear of. This is what geography really is, and the hard names that go with

it will not be very hard if you only pay attention. If they do seem at first a little difficult, try and get hold of them. Bear in mind that the great secret of doing anything and doing it well, is wrapped up in the one little word TRY.

THE END.

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