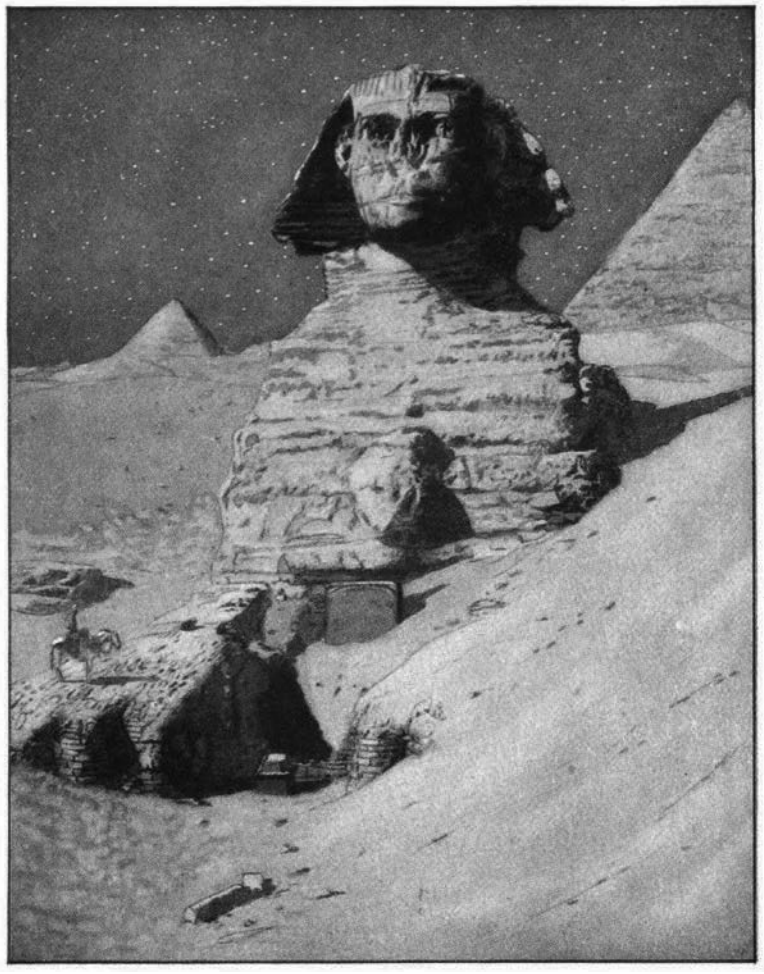
AFRICA, AUSTRALIA, AND THE ISLANDS OF THE PACIFIC



For thousands of years the Sphinx has stood, serene and silent, gazing out over the desert sands. If it could speak, what marvelous tales it could tell of this ancient land!

AFRICA, AUSTRALIA, AND THE ISLANDS OF THE PACIFIC

Nellie B. Allen

YESTERDAY'S CLASSICS

ITHACA, NEW YORK

This edition, first published in 2022 by Yesterday's Classics, an imprint of Yesterday's Classics, LLC, is an unabridged republication of the text originally published by Ginn and Company in 1924, with editing of the text to conform to modern sensibilities. For the complete listing of the books that are published by Yesterday's Classics, please visit www.yesterdaysclassics.com. Yesterday's Classics is the publishing arm of Gateway to the Classics which presents the complete text of hundreds of classic books for children at www.gatewaytotheclassics.com.

ISBN: 978-1-63334-160-9

Yesterday's Classics, LLC
PO Box 339
Ithaca, NY 14851

PREFACE

Africa is a great commissary for future generations. The highly developed countries of temperate zones are calling each year for additional markets for their manufactures and for increasing amounts of raw materials. Many of these materials—rubber, coffee, sugar, cotton, and cocoa—must come from tropical and semitropical regions. The forests of the torrid zone are the main source of the world's hard-wood supply and of the oil nuts and seeds, gums, resins, and bark, which are used in ever-increasing quantities.

Africa is the greatest land mass which can yield these tropical and semitropical products. It has also vast pastures for flocks and herds which will furnish meat, wool, hides and skins, and dairy products for crowded manufacturing nations.

Because of these reasons the study of Africa is important for our future merchants, manufacturers, and bankers who are at present in our schools. Their attention should be directed to the future of this rapidly developing continent and the place which it will occupy in the economic world. Because this place depends largely on its natural regions and its climate, these

points have been emphasized throughout the book. Because the strength and economic wealth of European nations depends to a large extent on their colonies the book is based on colonial interests.

Our young people should have first-hand information regarding our relations with Africa, the products which we receive, the goods which we send, and the demand for men and materials to develop its rich resources. Much valuable material concerning these points can be obtained from government sources. By its use the pupils will gain not only the information they need but also a better idea of the many lines of work carried on by our government. The Department of Agriculture and the Department of Commerce furnish material which may be used in arithmetic classes as well as in geography lessons. The pupils may write letters asking for such material, file this as a part of their library, and prepare and use a card catalogue, work which makes for independence of thought and action.

The ever-changing statistics regarding industries are not given in this book. More permanent figures, of areas, populations, etc., are supplied, with thought-provoking questions regarding them. Teacher and pupils should suggest many more. A review of continents already studied can be carried on through the use of these figures. They are also of much help in problem work. Constant comparisons develop the judgment and tend to make clearer and more permanent the mental pictures of the pupils.

This book is not a mere description of places and people such as might be written by a traveler. The text, maps, and studies are planned and written by a student of geography and an instructor of long standing who knows children and schoolroom problems and the pedagogic principles which underlie the work of the teacher.

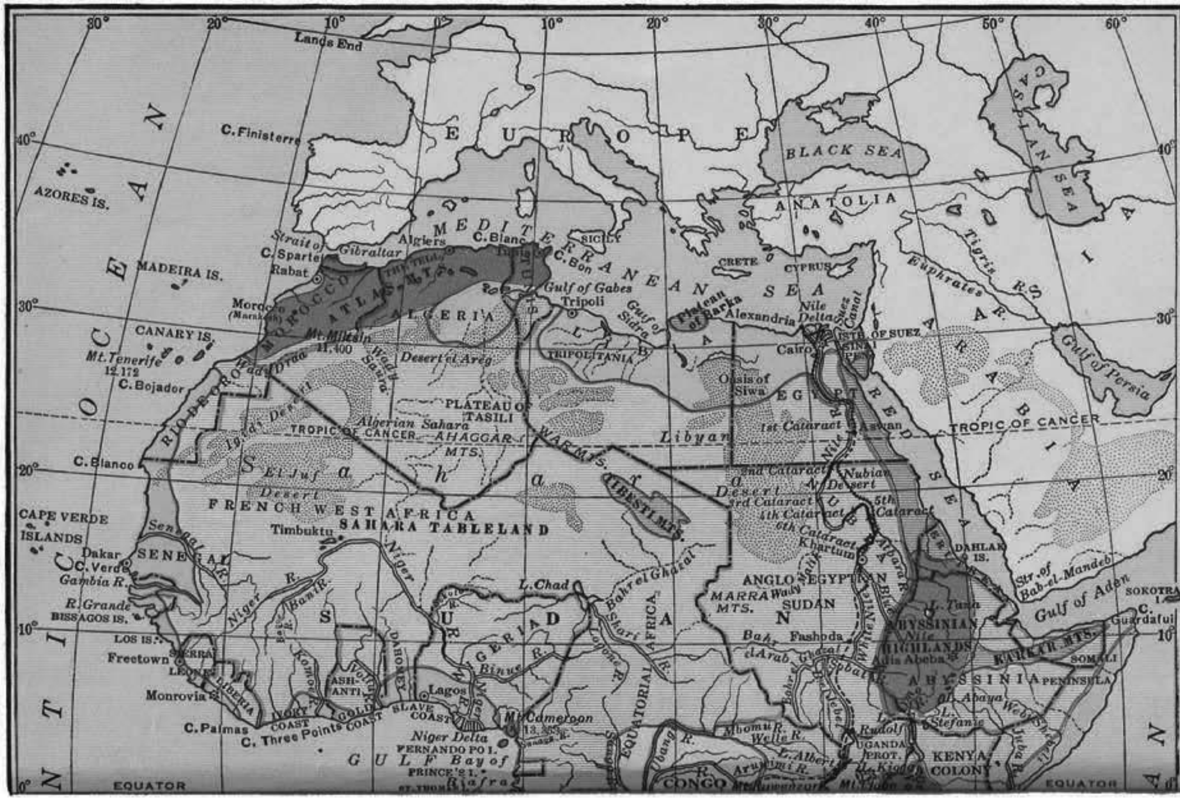
That the book may be of great help to both teacher and pupils and may serve to stimulate in both a broader knowledge and a more sympathetic understanding of their world neighbors is the earnest desire of the author.

NELLIE B. ALLEN

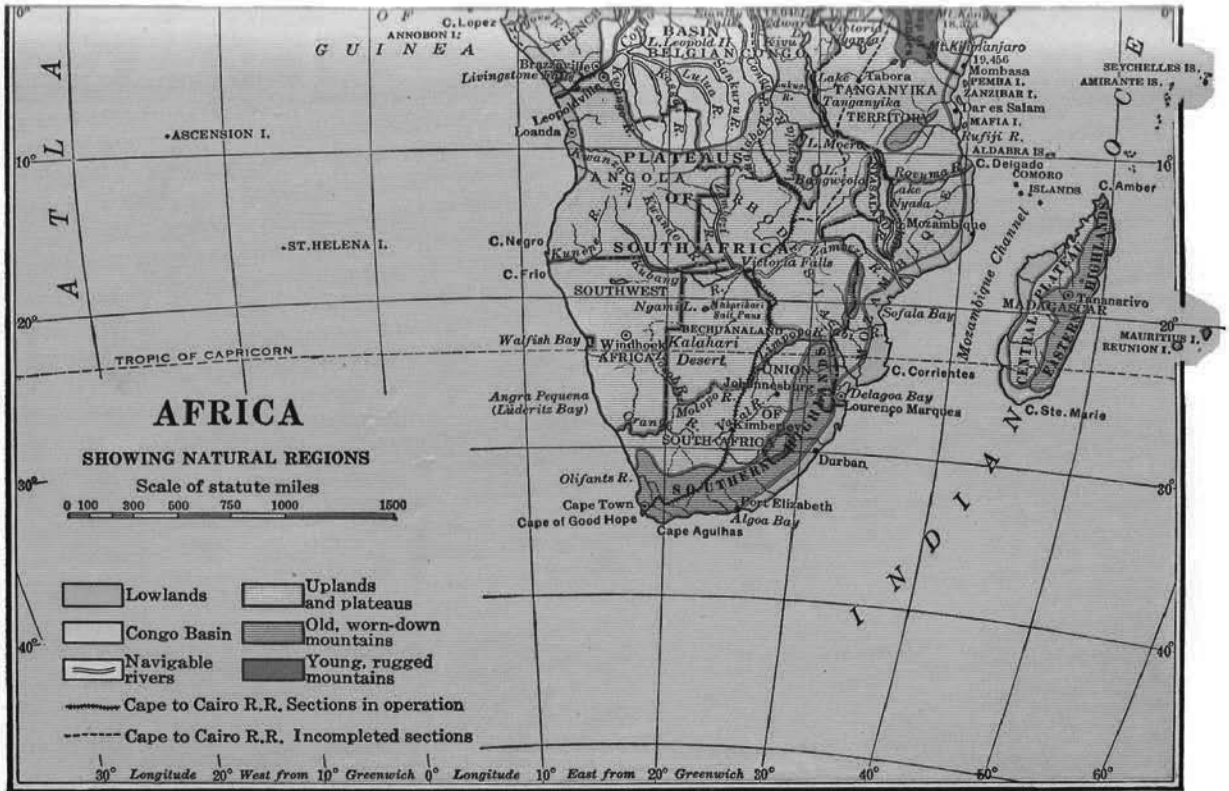
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Thanks for many valuable suggestions, criticisms, and photographs are due to the following people: Mr. Augustin William Ferrin, formerly Trade Commissioner for the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce in Australia; Mr. Samuel W. Honaker, formerly Consul in South Africa; Mr. J. H. Muurling, Netherland Indian Government, New York City; Professor C. C. Nutting, University of Iowa; Dr. James A. Robertson, Chief of Near Eastern Division, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Department of Commerce, Washington, D.C.; Dr. H. L. Shantz, United States Department of Agriculture; Mr. Addison E. Southard, formerly Consul at Aden, Arabia, and Jerusalem, Palestine; Mrs. Helen G. Thomas, Clark University School of Geography.

CONTENTS



EUROPE
Lands End
C. Finisterre
AZORES IS.
MADEIRA IS.
CANARY IS.
Mt. Tenerife
12,172
C. Bojador
C. Blanco
CAPE VERDE ISLANDS
Dakar
C. Verde
Gambia R.
R. Grande
BISSAGOS IS.
LOS IS.
Freetown
SIERRA LEONE
LIBERIA
Monrovia
C. Palmas
C. Three Points
IVORY COAST
GOLD COAST
SLAVE COAST
ASHANTI
DAHOMEY
Lagos
Niger Delta
FERNANDO PO I.
PRINCE'S I.
Bay of Biafra
GULF
Mt. Cameroon
13,353
EQUATOR
Strait of Gibraltar
C. Sparte
Rabat
Morocco
MOROCCO
ATLAS MTS.
Mt. Miltsin
11,400
Algiers
C. Blanc
ALGERIA
Desert el Areg
Wady Saura
Wady Draa
RIO DE ORO
TROPIC OF CANCER
Algerian Sahara
PLATEAU OF TASILI
AHAGGAR MTS.
El Juf Desert
FRENCH WEST AFRICA
SAHARA TABLELAND
Timbuktu
Senegal R.
SENEGAL
Niger R.
Bani R.
L. Chad
NIGERIA
Binue R.
Shari R.
Logone R.
Bahrel Ghazal
EQUATORIAL AFRICA
TIBESTI MTS.
WARM MTS.
SICILY
C. Bon
Gulf of Gabes
Tripoli
TRIPOLITANIA
Gulf of Sidra
Plateau of Barka
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
CRETE
CYPRUS
Alexandria
Nile Delta
Suez Canal
Cairo
ISTH. OF SUEZ
SINAI PEN.
Oasis of Siwa
EGYPT
Libyan Desert
1st Cataract
Aswan
2nd Cataract
3rd Cataract
4th Cataract
5th Cataract
6th Cataract
Nubian Desert
Khartum
Atbara R.
Blue Nile
White Nile
ANGLO EGYPTIAN SUDAN
MARRA MTS.
Fashoda
Bahr el Arab
Sobat R.
Bahr el Jebel
Mbomu R.
Welle R.
Ubangi R.
CONGO
Aruwimi R.
L. Albert
UGANDA PROT.
L. Kioga
L. Rudolf
L. Stefanie
L. Abaya
KENYA COLONY
Juba R.
Webi Shebeli
ABYSSINIA
ABYSSINIAN HIGHLANDS
L. Tana
Adis Abeba
KARKAR MTS.
SOMALI PENINSULA
C. Guardafui
SOKOTRA I.
Gulf of Aden
Str. of Bab-el-Mandeb
DAHLAK IS.
ERITREA
RED SEA
ARABIA
Gulf of Persia
Euphrates R.
Tigris R.
ANATOLIA
BLACK SEA
CASPIAN SEA
OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN



Map Plate, Patented July 5, 1921 • Method of Making Maps, Patented July 5, 1921

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

We are going to travel in Africa, a continent of great things. It contains some of the largest rivers, lakes, and waterfalls in the world. We shall find there the greatest deserts, the densest tropical forests and jungles, the widest plateaus and grasslands, the richest deposits of minerals, and the largest and fiercest animals. It contains more blacks than any other continent and the smallest people that live anywhere on earth. It is a "colony continent." Almost all its vast area is divided among European nations, who find here room for people from their crowded cities, markets for their manufactured goods, and a rich source of many raw materials for their mills and factories.

For long, long centuries only the northern part of Africa was known, and the rest of the continent was a land of mystery. The great Sahara Desert formed a boundary beyond which few people penetrated. The land to the south was known only along the coast lands and was visited chiefly by slave traders.

What shall we call Africa? It has long been known as the Dark Continent; but today the darkness of ignorance

is disappearing before the light of knowledge, which is slowly creeping through the forests and grasslands, into the jungles, and over the deserts.

Vast regions of Africa have been called the Great Thirst Lands; but, though dreary deserts still cover enormous areas, we shall find many places where water is brought in pipes for hundreds of miles for the crops and animals, where thousands of wells have been dug, and where mighty dams and huge reservoirs have been built to store up the surplus water of the rainy season.

Africa is sometimes called the Land of Blinding Sunshine, yet we shall travel for weeks in regions where it rains nearly every day of the year and where the forests are so thick that the sun's rays never penetrate to the shaded, tunnel-like paths which connect the scattered villages.

Another name which has been given to Africa is the Land of the White Helmet. These light head coverings which most of the white men wear in Africa are seen there today in larger numbers than ever before. Protected from the sunshine by their white helmets, men are sailing up the rivers, crossing the deserts, penetrating the forests and jungles, hunting in the grasslands, starting plantations, developing mines, building roads and railroads and bridges, establishing wireless stations and airplane routes, and carrying with them everywhere a knowledge of modern industry and better ways of life.

When we are studying ancient countries, like Egypt, Greece, and Rome, it is well to look back and see what

they have contributed in industry and science, in art and literature, in laws and government, and in other fields to the civilization of the world. But when we are studying new or undeveloped lands, such as make up the most of Africa, it is well to look ahead and learn if we can of what value the region may be in the future and what it may contribute to the welfare of the world.

Many of the leading countries, especially in Europe, are very crowded, farms are small, and most of the people live in the big cities. Larger and larger amounts of fruits and vegetables, cotton, sugar, grain, and animal products, such as meat, wool, hides and skins, and dairy products, must be supplied each year to feed and clothe the increasing population. More minerals must be produced; we need coal, copper, tin, and many others. As the world grows richer more gold and diamonds are used.

Figure 1. This is one of our friends in Egypt. If you visit Cairo, he would like to have you ride on his donkey to see some of the interesting sights in the narrow streets.

Then, too, the countries of the greatest development in Europe and America are located in the temperate zone. On account of the climate it is not possible to produce here many articles needed in the mills and

factories, such as rubber, cotton, coffee, cocoa, hard woods, and many gums, oils, and resins. For these the world is dependent on tropical and semitropical lands such as compose large parts of Africa and many Pacific islands.

Figure 2. Boys and girls in northern Africa, where these children live, cannot turn faucets in their houses and get water as you do. They have to go to the fountain.

Much of Africa is an undeveloped region. It has very rich resources, but its exports at present are small compared with what they will be in years to come. The needs and desires of her people and their ability to buy from other countries are small also. In the next half-century you will see wonderful changes in the parts of the world with which this book deals. There will be more roads, railroads, bridges, and motor trucks by

which the people will be able to transport their products cheaply and easily to a market or seaport. Then they will start more plantations and ranches, open mines, and get out lumber and other products from the forests. These industries will vastly increase the amount and value of the exports. The needs of the settlers, their tools, machinery, food products, and building materials, and the materials needed for road-building, bridge-building, and railroad equipment will cause a similar increase in the imports.

The future value of Africa to the rest of the world depends on the work of Mother Nature and the gifts which she has bestowed here. Therefore, before we begin our trip through the continent let us look at these natural features on which the occupations of its people and the value of its products largely depend.

The map which will be of the most help in such a study is the one preceding page 1, showing the natural regions of Africa. As you look at it, notice first of all what an even coast line the continent has. How different is the coast line of Europe, where large gulfs and bays and seas penetrate so far inland that no part of any country except Russia is far from the ocean and from ocean-going vessels. Africa has no indentations which run far inland, and the early explorers who wished to get into the interior received no help from Nature in this direction.

If you will look again at the map, you will see that the most mountainous part is in the east. West of these high lands is a vast crack in the earth's crust beyond

which lie other mountains. Nature's mountain-building is not always firm and strong, and here, as in some other parts of the earth, some of the rock strata began to crack and then to slip. Probably it was only a little at a time, but through the long, long ages the crust sank thousands of feet, forming what are called rift valleys. The long chain of lakes which you will find on the map in eastern Africa lies in one of these. Are most valleys formed in this way?

Figure 3. If you should travel in British East Africa, this man might help to carry your baggage. He lives in Uganda. Can you find this on the map on page 68?

Doubtless this breaking of the rock, or faulting, as a scientist would call it, and the slipping and sinking of the crust have been accompanied by earthquakes, for this is one of the chief causes of such catastrophes. The earthquakes in Japan and in Chile, South America, were caused in the same way. This is why earthquakes usually occur in mountainous areas.

The shape of the lakes lying in the rift valley causes them to appear smaller than they are. They really are very large bodies of water. Lake Nyasa is three hundred and fifty miles long, and Lake Tanganyika is

four hundred miles in length and from twenty to forty miles wide. To what place would this lake reach from your home town? If your schoolhouse stood on one side of it, what place would lie on the opposite bank? The Red Sea is the largest body of water that lies in the rift valley. From the scale of miles on the map find out how long it is. Look on page 506 in the Appendix and see how these bodies of water rank in size among the large lakes of the world.

Let us look again at the regional map; this time we will study the surface. You will notice that Africa contains comparatively little lowland, most of which lies around the coast. How does the map tell you this? The Congo Basin, though lower than the surrounding land, lies on the average about a thousand feet above the sea. With the exception of the land in the extreme north and south of the continent, the coastal low lands are hot, damp, and unhealthful. This was another hindrance to explorers in getting into the interior of the continent.

Figure 4. This happy girl lives in French Equatorial Africa, in the part called Cameroons. What does the map of the French possessions on page 188 tell you about this region?

The shading of the regional map tells you that most of Africa is a plateau from one thousand to three or four thousand feet high and that mountains rise from the edge of the plateau near the margin of the continent. Was this arrangement of the surface a help or a hindrance to the explorers? The surface is high in the east and north in the regions of the Abyssinian and Atlas mountains, lower in the south, where the Southern Highlands are, and still lower in the west, where you find Mt. Cameroon.

The rivers of Africa, cutting their way through the high lands and the hard rocks of the plateau down to the lower coast lands, have falls and rapids, making them unnavigable. This hindered for many years the exploration of interior Africa.

The even coast line, the unhealthful coastal lowlands, the marginal highlands, the unnavigable rivers, and the great deserts and jungles were the chief reasons why the exploration of Africa was so long delayed.

One of the chief factors in determining what help Africa can be in supplying other parts of the world with needed materials is the climate. More than anything else the temperature and rainfall influence the products of a region. More of Africa than of any other continent lies in the hot part of the world. You will notice that the equator crosses it near the center, that only comparatively small areas lie in the temperate zones, and that these portions are in the warmer rather than in the cooler parts of those belts.

The low coastal regions in and near the torrid zone

are hot all the year round. You remember, however, that much of Africa is a plateau, higher and therefore cooler than the low coastal plains. Before we can decide what the people do who live in the coastal regions and on the higher plateaus, how they live, and what products they raise we shall have to notice the winds of Africa, for these are among the most important of Mother Nature's workers.

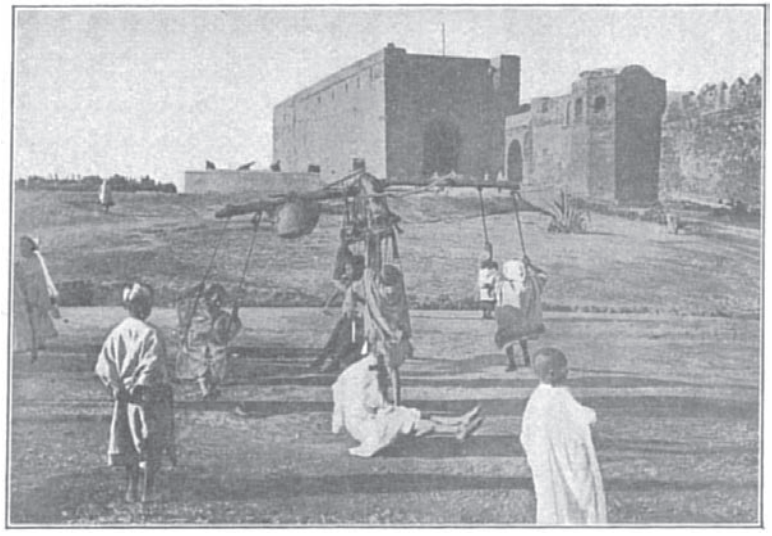


Figure 5. These children of Morocco are having just as much fun as if they were riding on flying horses. Where is Morocco?

You know that in the torrid zone easterly winds prevail. North of the equator they blow from the northeast, and south of the equator they come from the southeast. Before reaching the part of Africa which lies in the Northern Hemisphere these winds have been blowing for thousands of miles over the dry lands of inland Asia, and consequently they contain little moisture. Moreover, as they are coming from cooler

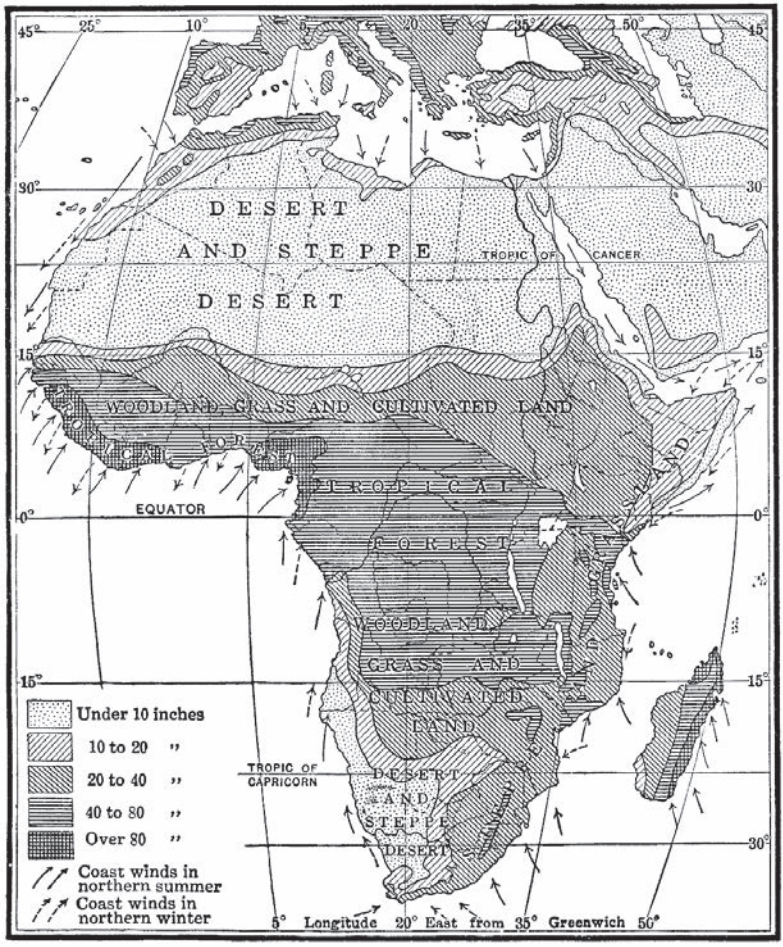


Figure 6. Rainfall map of Africa. Where is the heaviest rainfall in Africa? What grows here? Why are there few forests in other parts of Africa? Which coast of southern Africa receives the greater amount of rain? Why? (See page 12.) Along which coast of this part of the continent do the greater number of people live? (See map on page 11.) Why? What kind of a region is much of the northern part of Africa? Why? (See pages 9 and 12.)

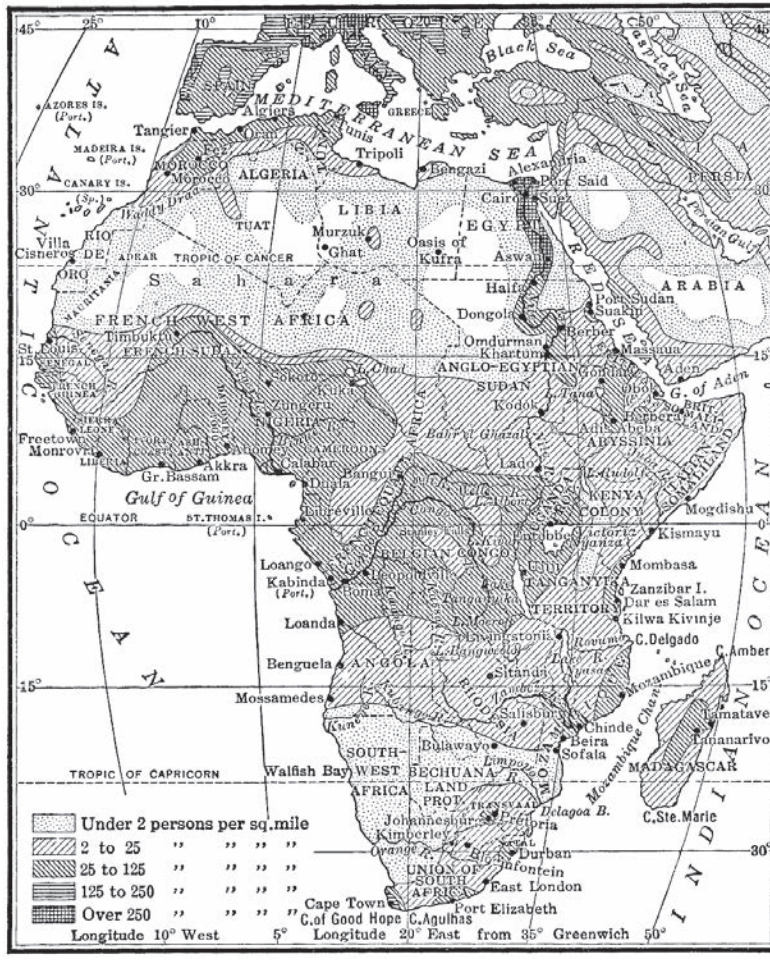


Figure 7. Population map of Africa. In what part of Africa is the densest population? Of what region is this area a part? (See map on page 10.) Why do more people live here than anywhere else? In what part of the continent are there the fewest people? Why? How dense is the population in Central Africa? What kind of a region is this?

to warmer regions they are constantly increasing their capacity to hold their moisture, and unless they are chilled by passing over mountains they give no rain to the thirsty land. Therefore in northern Africa we have the great desert of Sahara. In the interior of Sahara there are some mountain ranges high enough to chill the winds as they blow over them, and here some rain falls.

The moist winds from the Mediterranean are shut out from the Sahara by the Atlas Mountains, and the local winds which come from the Atlantic do not blow very far inland.

In parts of the desert sharp, heavy showers occur once in a while. These last but a short time, and the water quickly sinks into the ground. When the snows melt or the rains fall on the Atlas Mountains or on the ranges in the Sahara, rivers flow down their slopes. The water which they contain soon evaporates in the dry air, or sinks into the loose soil where it flows along as underground streams. It is this underground water which furnishes the supply for the wells and springs which make life possible on the oases and enable caravans to travel over the desert.

Similar wind conditions prevail to form the desert in the south. The trade winds from the Indian Ocean are chilled by the highlands along the eastern coast of the continent and drop their moisture on their seaward slopes. Therefore this part of Africa receives more rain than the western portions. You will see this by looking at the rainfall map on page 10.

Central Africa is located in the equatorial rain belt.

Here the warm, light air, full of moisture, becomes chilled as it rises, and drops its vapor in heavy rains. As the sun moves north in summer the rainy belt follows it nearly to the border of the Sahara. In winter the rains follow the sun southward. Thus, as the map shows you, Central Africa receives a heavy rainfall throughout the year. This grows lighter toward the Tropics, where little or no rainfall occurs.

Because of the heat and the heavy rainfall in Central Africa we shall find there deep forests and jungles. On both sides of the forest region, where the rainfall is lighter, there are vast areas of grasslands, and still farther north and south, where there is little or no rain, are the two great deserts. Beyond these we come to mountain ranges,—the Atlas in the north and the Southern Highlands in the south. Climbing these we find on their coastal slopes well-watered, fertile lands, which are among the most productive areas of Africa.

Figure 8. Abyssinia is one of the few independent countries of Africa. The people there do not fight with other countries, but some of the tribes often have war with others. Could you use such a long spear?

What we have learned about the position, surface, and climate of this great continent teaches us many very interesting things about its products. In its hot, tropical regions millions of natives are raising peanuts, gathering coconuts and drying the meat, and collecting seeds and nuts. These products and the oil which they yield are exported from tropical Africa in enormous quantities and are manufactured into many useful articles, such as butter substitutes, soap, candles, glycerin, and cosmetics.

In the hot part of Africa there are many large cocoa plantations, the product from which is fast outstripping that of South American countries. We shall find hundreds of natives tapping rubber trees and carrying the hardened sheets and biscuits on their backs to the nearest trader's station. In places we shall wonder if we have not been suddenly transported to Louisiana or Texas, for the sights on the cotton and sugar plantations are very similar to those in our Southern states.

As we go from village to village we shall notice the people gathering beeswax and honey, for the sweet tropical blossoms attract immense numbers of bees. We shall see the natives also collecting gums and resins, which are useful in making druggists' supplies, varnishes, and other articles. In the forests we shall find them felling African mahogany trees and loading them on ships bound for European ports.

The grasslands of Africa will some day be ranked among the most important grazing lands of the world. The natives here are raising millions of cattle, sheep, goats, and camels, and in the future their numbers will

be greatly increased. The climate of these grasslands, particularly on the southern plateau, is pleasant and suitable for light-skinned people, who do not thrive in the lower, hotter regions.

In the northern part of Africa, between the Atlas Mountains and the Mediterranean Sea, are fine farms, vineyards, and orchards which remind us of those in southern European countries. On the well-watered slopes of the Southern Highlands we shall see splendid farms where grain and fruit are raised.

Figure 9. These Arab children live in the desert part of Tunis. What things in your city do you think would seem strange to them?

Mother Nature has hidden in the ground in many parts of Africa rich mineral treasures. Africa produces 95 percent of the world's supply of diamonds and more

than half of its gold. It has coal beds covering an area almost twice as large as that of our states which border Mexico and the Gulf of Mexico. Its copper deposits equal those of Europe and North America combined, while its beds of iron are several times greater than those in the United States. Besides these there are beds of tin, graphite, lead and zinc, phosphates, manganese, and chrome ore.

The waters of Africa form another tremendously valuable resource. On its navigable rivers and lakes one could sail twice the distance around the earth at the equator. Its falls and rapids will yield an almost unbelievable amount of water power, from which can be generated enough electricity to light its cities, run its cars, and propel the machinery in its mills and factories.

In spite of its large cities, its flourishing industries, and the great undertakings going on there, Africa contains many miles of grasslands as yet unoccupied, large forests and jungles where no foreigner has ever set foot, and great stretches of desert as yet unirrigated where water can be supplied.

To help in its development Africa will have everything that Europe and America did not have in their early days, such as locomotives, steamboats, motor trucks, tractors, airplanes, machinery of all kinds, and telegraphs and telephones and wireless telegraphy.

All these things will cause the growth of industries, cities, and communications in Africa to be much more rapid than has ever been possible in the development of any other continent. Changes are taking place very

rapidly in this great land mass, and you will have to read papers and magazines if you wish to keep your knowledge accurate and up-to-date.

In this chapter you have seen the pictures of some of our African neighbors. In our journeys we shall see many others at work and at play in the forests and deserts and grasslands. As we travel through the continent we shall understand better the necessity for a greater knowledge of these people who are already supplying us with large quantities of raw materials and who in the future will send us enormously greater amounts. As the years go by and their knowledge of other countries and peoples increases, their desire for foreign products will increase also, and we shall send to them larger and larger quantities of manufactured articles from our mills and factories and foundries.

SUGGESTIONS FOR STUDY

I

1. The wonders of Africa.
2. Appropriate names for Africa.
3. Future importance of tropical and semitropical lands.
4. The coast line and its influence.
5. Natural regions.
6. Effects of the surface on the rivers.

7. Winds and rainfall.

8. Resources and products.

9. Aids in the development of Africa.

II

1. How does Africa rank in size among the continents (see Appendix, page 504)?

2. Where is the region of greatest rainfall in Africa (see map on page 10)?

3. Why does the eastern coast of southern Africa receive more rain than the eastern coast in the northern part of the continent?

4. Name the three largest rivers of Africa (see Appendix, page 506). Into what waters do the lakes in the great rift valley flow?

5. Among the early explorers of Africa were Mungo Park, David Livingstone, and Henry M. Stanley. What do cyclopedias tell you about these men? What other African explorers do they mention? Have you ever read any of the books which these men have written?

6. Can you find out the use of chrome ore? phosphates? graphite? manganese? These are all important minerals.

III

QUESTIONS ON THE REGIONAL MAP

1. Of what does most of the surface of Africa consist? What two divisions of this plateau region do you find given on the map? What nations control these? To whom does most of the Congo Basin belong?

2. What highland region is in the north of Africa? What countries are included in it? To whom do they belong? What divisions of Africa are included in the Southern Highlands? They are a part of what commonwealth? What great highlands lie in East Africa? In what divisions are they located?

3. What divisions are included in the widest part of the coastal plain? In what divisions is this plain so narrow that it does not appear on the map?

4. What hindrances to navigation do you notice on the Nile? on the Congo? on the Zambezi? Explain why these falls are located as they are.

5. How can you tell on the map that only a small part of Africa lies outside the torrid zone?

CHAPTER II

LIFE IN ANCIENT EGYPT

Long ages ago, even thousands of years before Christ was born in Bethlehem, a great nation lived in the valley of the Nile River. The name of this part of Africa is Egypt. The history of the Egyptians extends back for seven thousand years, and even before this they had an art, a religion, and a literature of their own. While Europe was still peopled with barbarians, the Egyptian priests had a knowledge of science, of mathematics and astronomy, and of sculpture and architecture. The workers of the nation possessed a mechanical skill which enabled them to build temples and monuments, palaces and tombs, at which the world still wonders. At Memphis and Thebes, the two chief cities of ancient Egypt, are ruins of buildings so wonderful that stories of their size and beauty seem almost like fairy tales. The ruined city of Karnak across the river from the plain of Thebes was a city of temples. The oldest building there was begun more than two thousand years before the birth of Christ. It grew for centuries, as each successive ruler in adding to its beauties did his best to outdo anything that any king before him had done. Gateways, courts, chapels, halls,

sacred lakes, rows of giant columns, lines of massive statues, and avenues of sphinxes were added year by year and century by century to the original temple. The gateway to the main building is a hundred and fifty feet high and three hundred and fifty feet wide. Compare this with the size of your school building and you will have some idea of the size of this pylon, as the gateway is called. The pylon is only the entrance to courts so vast that large temples stood in them and to halls so great that it seems impossible to find adequate words to describe them.

Figure 10. This is a little Egyptian village which now stands on the sands where once rose the temples and palaces of the ancient city of Memphis.

The early Egyptians were governed by rulers who lived in luxury in beautiful palaces. Indeed, the royal

palace was more like a small town than a house. In one building dwelt the king and his many servants; in another were the rooms of state, where councils of high officials were held, and the banqueting halls, where feasts were given; a third, surrounded with beautiful trees and lovely lakes, was the home of the queen and

Figure 11. These men are tending sheep on the plains near Cairo. See the great pyramids in the distance. Why were they built? How old are they (see page 28)?

the young princes and princesses. There were also the stables, where were kept hundreds of splendid horses, and the buildings which housed the royal chariots. The storehouses for the grain and provisions stood in long rows. All these buildings and many more were needed, for if we may judge by the titles of the officials and servants, there were hundreds of people attached to the royal house. Among these were guards, councilors, gatekeepers, chamberlains, lords in waiting who received visitors, and waiting women for the queen

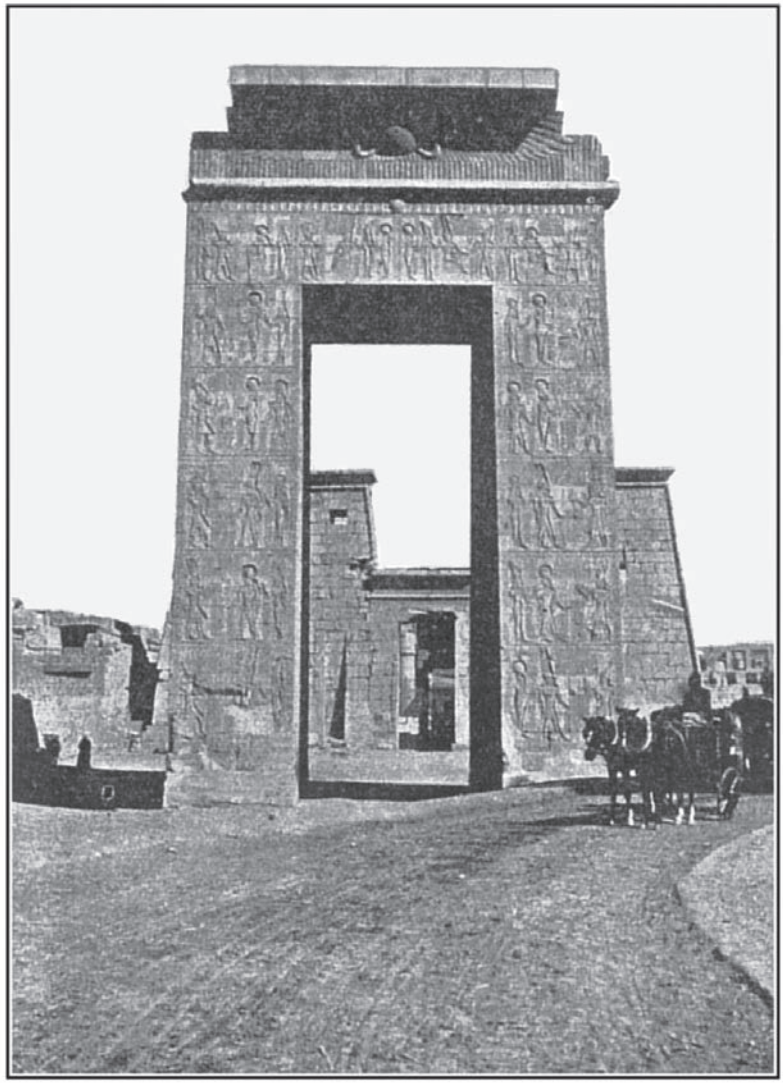


Figure 12. This is the gateway to the temple of Karnak. Can you see the carvings which cover it? What was said about this gateway, or pylon, on page 21?

and the royal children. There were spinners and weavers, bleachers, washers, wigmakers, metal workers, keepers of the diadem, lords of the bedchamber, fan bearers, cupbearers, scribes, physicians, wine-makers, cooks, and scores of other "butchers and bakers and candlestick makers."

When the ruler left his palace it was in a beautifully ornamented sedan chair borne on poles resting on the shoulders of courtiers clad in beautiful garments, or in a golden chariot drawn by prancing horses. Fan bearers on either side waved enormous fans, and runners with long staves in their hands ran ahead to clear the way through the crowd which had gathered to see the display. Perhaps behind the king's chariot came those of the queen and the royal children. These in turn were followed by gorgeous carriages filled with court ladies.

Now let us go inside the royal palace, a thing that the common people of these ancient days never dreamed of doing. The great rooms were beautifully furnished and decorated. The walls were covered with tiles or draped with rich hangings of wonderful tapestries. Costly rugs woven by women in far-away Turkish tents lay on the floors. Couches were covered with material embroidered by slaves. Chairs and tables were of ebony wood inlaid with ivory and had feet and legs carved in imitation of those of a lion. On tall stands of carved ebony were golden vessels of incense, which was burned to perfume the air.

The poorer people of Egypt were the slaves of the nobility. They had to labor at whatever work their

masters assigned. They built temples, palaces, and tombs; they worked in the quarries, cutting the stones which were used in these buildings; they mixed the mud of the Nile River with straw and made bricks, which they dried in the sun.

The Egyptian peasants lived in little mud huts with earth floors in much the same way as many of them do today. They raised barley, wheat, and corn, and ground the grain by hand into coarse flour. Out of this the women made little flat cakes just as we may see them doing today in many parts of Egypt. The vine was very carefully tended, for otherwise there would be no wine to fill the great stone jars in the royal palaces or to offer to the gods in return for their protection. The flax fields were irrigated and cultivated, and the women spun and wove the fiber into fine linen for the garments of the priests and the nobility and for the wrappings of the dead. The people molded their dishes from the clay near the river, and coppersmiths in their little booths hammered copper into pans, jars, and vases just as we shall see them doing in the bazaars of Cairo. In parts of the country the men hunted the elephant and the giraffe, and killed the awkward hippopotamus on the banks of the river. Most of the traffic was carried on the Nile River or along its banks, as the desert which lay on either side of the narrow valley was desolate and dangerous.

The papyrus plant, which grew by the river, was very useful to the ancient Egyptians. The tender new shoots were eaten, and the stalks were used for building the little huts and for making canoes. The fiber was used

for paper. The possession of this writing material was a great advantage to the Egyptians. Other nations had to carve their records and accounts on heavy stone tablets, which were difficult to move. The Egyptians made wide use of the papyrus scrolls which, when rolled, were easily carried from place to place.

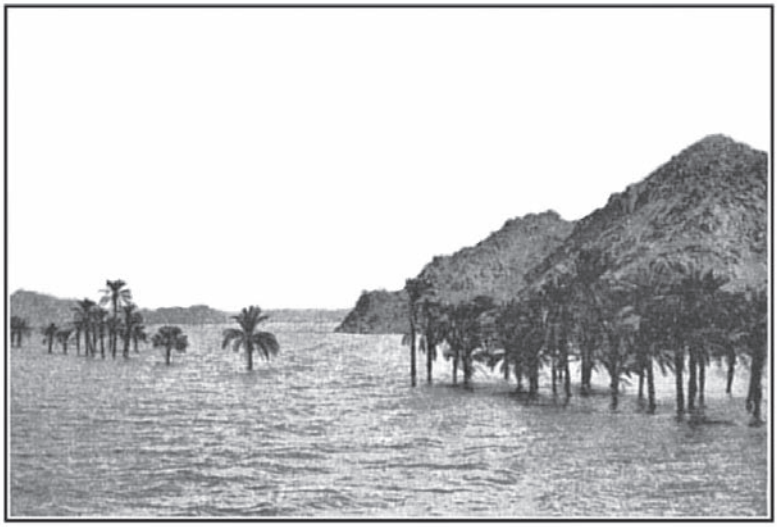


Figure 13. At flood time the river overflows the land so that the trees rise out of the water. What causes the floods of the Nile (see pages 26 and 40-41)?

The whole life of the ancient Egyptians centered around the Nile River. Then, as now, the tropical rains poured down on the mountains of Abyssinia, and the swollen branches, thick with the mud scoured from the hills, rushed down the steep slopes into the valley. The Nile rose higher and higher. Soon the banks were covered; and the water spread farther and farther over the land, dropping there the rich soil which it carried.

The people anxiously awaited the rising of the river and rejoiced as the flood covered the valley. Their very life depended on it, for without this life-giving water the fertile valley of Egypt would be like the bare, brown desert which stretched away on either side.

Egypt was so densely populated that land not reached by the flood waters of the Nile had to be irrigated in order that food crops might be raised. All day and day after day, in the heat of the Egyptian sun, the peasants lifted the heavy skin buckets of water from the canals and emptied them into ditches to flow to the thirsty land.

When they could be spared from the crops the Egyptians had to perform other hard labors for their rulers. If the king wished to make a record for himself as a conqueror of nations, the common people made up his army. If he wished to outdo any previous ruler in the magnificence of his palace or in the size and beauty of his royal city, the peasants quarried stone and built the houses, the palaces, the temples, and the city walls. If the king wished a safe tomb in which his body might lie, the peasants labored by thousands to haul the stones and pile them in place.

The Egyptians believed that the soul or spirit of a person existed after death and would at some time wish to return to the body which it had occupied. Therefore the bodies, especially those of the rulers and nobles, who were then thought to be much more important than the common people, were carefully preserved. They were treated with spices and ointments and wrapped

in bandages and cloths dipped in certain preparations. In the museums of several countries we can see these mummies, as they are called. Is it not wonderful to think of actually seeing the body of a person who lived four or five thousand years ago and knowing how he looked?

In order to keep his mummified body safely, each monarch built the strongest tomb possible. In very early times these were pits in the sand. Later, tombs were made in the rocks and cliffs. But the most wonderful tombs—in fact, the most wonderful buildings in the whole world—are the great pyramids which stand in the desert near Cairo.

Of the hundred pyramid tombs in Egypt the three on the opposite side of the Nile from the great city of Cairo are much better known than the others. The largest of these was built by old King Cheops, who ruled over Egypt nearly three thousand years before Christ was born. It covers more than thirteen acres, is about four hundred and eighty feet high, and each one of its four sides is more than seven hundred feet long. Compare this area and these distances with something near your school and try to imagine what the Great Pyramid would look like and how much ground it would cover if it stood there.

The four corners of the Great Pyramid point exactly north, south, east, and west. By means of the shadows the priests could determine the exact noon, the longest and shortest days, the date of the beginning of each season, and other things which helped in the daily lives of the people. Can you tell when it is noon by the

Figure 14. Large jars fastened to the rope dip up the water in the ditch below and pour it into the ditch which you can see on the surface. The oxen, driven by a woman, lift and lower the buckets. Thousands of years ago one might have seen Egyptians watering their fields in just the same way.

direction of your shadow, or the date of the shortest day by the length of your shadow?

Not far from the Great Pyramid is the Sphinx, another monument of ancient Egypt. It is a statue with the head of a man and the body of a lion. It is so enormous that if you should stand on one of the huge ears you could not see over the top of the head. The body is more than a hundred and seventy feet long. How does this compare with the length of your schoolhouse? The sphinx has stood for centuries, calm and majestic, looking out over the lonely desert. Do you not wish that its stone lips could move and tell us the story of its life?

None of the rulers or great men of ancient Egypt wished to be forgotten or to have their great deeds, their wars, and their conquests pass out of the minds of the people. Every where on the walls of temples and tombs, on pillars and gateways, are pictures carved of the gods whom the Egyptians worshiped and of the kings and their courts, their slaves, their wives, their journeys, and their victories. Men have spent their lives in studying these pictures, and from them they have learned much about the life and the most important deeds of each monarch.

Besides the pictures which appear on many Egyptian ruins, there was found on walls and tablets a curious kind of writing which for a long time no one was able to read. At last a tablet of black stone inscribed with hieroglyphics, as the characters in this writing are called, was found in some ruins near the Rosetta mouth of the Nile River. This Rosetta stone also bears an inscription in demotic, the writing used by the Egyptian people, and beneath the Egyptian writing the same text is repeated in Greek, which, as you know, many people can read. This furnished a key to the Egyptian writing, and by studying both languages the text of the hieroglyphics was translated. Then some scholars found that they could read other inscriptions where the same characters appeared. With this as a beginning great progress has been made in translating Egyptian inscriptions and through them learning more and more of the life and customs of this ancient and interesting people.

Much information has also been gained from tombs

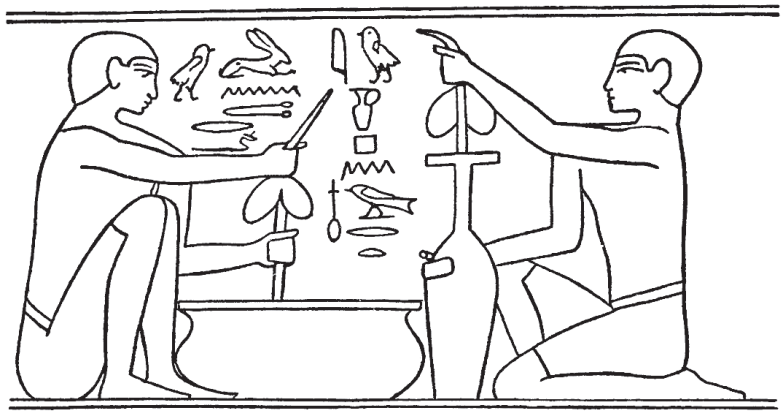


Figure 15. These workmen are drilling out stone vessels. The hieroglyphics between them record their conversation. One says, "This is a very lovely vase"; the other replies, "It is, indeed."

in which the kings were buried. In these tombs not only the bodies were placed but also many articles which the royal family used. Can you find in magazines printed during 1923 and 1924 what were some of the things found in the tomb of King Tutankhamen which was opened at that time? Many rolls of papyrus have also been preserved. One roll, the largest document ever found, is a hundred and thirty feet long. It contains an account of the doings of the great King Rameses and gives a description of the wealth and income of the temples in his time.

Not so many years ago most of the ruins, carvings, and tablets which tell us so much about ancient Egypt were unknown. Many of them were buried deep in the sands of the desert or hidden under the villages of the present inhabitants. Under the dust and dirt and the mud houses of the people there are doubtless other

ruins which some day may tell us even more about these ancient people of the Nile valley. It seems wonderful to read the very writing, handle the tools, and see the people who lived thousands of years ago.

When we examine the beautiful things which were made by these people, see the buildings which they built, and read descriptions of what they did, it makes us wonder what we are doing which will last six or seven thousand years. What do you suppose that people living thousands of years from today will find still standing in our country? What will our records tell them about us? Are we doing greater things than did these ancient Egyptians? Will our records show us to be of a finer character than were these people who lived so long ago in the Nile valley?

SUGGESTIONS FOR STUDY

I

1. History of Egypt.
2. Ancient cities and buildings.
3. Life in ancient Egypt.
4. Historical records.
5. The Nile River.
6. The pyramid tombs and the Sphinx.
7. Picture writing and hieroglyphics.

II

1. The flooding of most rivers is a cause of sorrow because of the damage which results. Why have the Egyptians always regarded the flooding of the Nile as a blessing?

2. How old is our nation? The recorded history of England may be said to begin with the invasion of the famous Roman general Julius Cæsar, in 55 B.C. How many years is it since then? The Chinese claim that their history dates back to 2800 B.C. According to this how old is the Chinese nation?

3. How does the age of each nation mentioned above compare with that of Egypt?

III

Make a list of the places mentioned in this chapter. From it select the ones which you think are so important that you should always remember them.

CHAPTER III

LIFE IN MODERN EGYPT

DURING the long centuries that the Egyptians have lived and worked in the Nile valley they have been ruled by many nations. Today, for the first time in two thousand years, they are once more independent. The British, the last nation which ruled Egypt, made many improvements in the country. They levied just taxes, built dams and canals and enlarged the irrigated area, increased crops, extended railroads, improved sanitary conditions, and did many other things to make the life of the people more comfortable. We must wait and see whether the country under native Egyptian officials will continue to prosper.

We shall begin our journey through Egypt at Alexandria, a great seaport of nearly half a million people and, next to Cairo, the largest city of Africa. In many ways Alexandria is a modern city, and the scenes at the busy docks are much like those which we might see in large commercial cities in other continents.

Compared with some of the ruined cities of Egypt this is a very young city, but compared with the cities of the United States it is very old, for it was founded

when Alexander the Great conquered Egypt, more than three hundred years before the birth of Christ. It once was a magnificent place with palaces, gardens, public baths, and temples. It was a center of learning, and scholars from all over the known world came here to study. When the Arabs conquered Egypt, Alexandria contained the world's largest library, in which were thousands of papyrus rolls filled with Egyptian records. All these were destroyed by order of the Arab general, and thus was lost a means for learning much about the ancient Egyptians.

The trade of Alexandria is very important. On the wharves are the ivory tusks of elephants, killed far to the south, and ostrich feathers from the Sudan. There are quantities of grain and sugar also and great numbers of bales of cotton. Cotton is the chief export of Egypt, and we shall see it growing in many places as we ride through the country.

The great city of Cairo is about a hundred miles from Alexandria, across the low delta lands of the Nile River. From the car windows we see here and there villages of little mud huts, cotton fields white with bolls of fiber, tall, waving sugar cane, and the soft green of the growing rice. All the fields are connected with one another and with the river by canals and ditches which carry the water necessary for the crops.

Cairo is situated at the head of the Nile delta, where the river separates into several branches through which it makes its way to the sea (see map on page 219). Let us take a donkey ride through old Cairo. The donkey

boys soon recognize us as Americans, and we hire donkeys with good American names, such as George Washington, Teddy, Uncle Sam, and Yankee Doodle. If we were English or German or French, the same donkeys might be called Wellington or Bismarck or Napoleon.

Each donkey boy runs beside his animal and with whip and voice urges it continually to a better pace. The trip is interesting, but we are almost glad when it is over. The streets are so narrow that we are frequently crowded against the wall by porters with great bundles on their backs and by heavily loaded donkeys and camels. At every turn beggars cry for gifts, and venders of fruit and water carriers with their goatskin bags advertise their wares with loud voices. How should you like to wear turbans instead of hats, like those tall Arabs? Do you think that you could carry a great water jar on your head without spilling a drop, as those straight graceful girls do?

The bazaars are more crowded even than the streets through which we have come. What odd little stores line the narrow alleys! They are much like those which we have seen in western and central Asia (see Allen's "Asia"). Each store is so small that the proprietor, sitting cross-legged in the center, can reach everything around him. Many of the little places are workshops also, in which the men make the things which they sell. In one street all the men are making brass dishes, and the noise of the hammers is deafening. In another street the jewelers are at work. In a third the leather workers are making slippers, saddles, bridles, and bags.

Figure 16. This is an old street in Cairo. See how narrow it is! Notice the tall minarets of the mosque on the corner. On the high balcony of the nearest one a priest calls the people to prayer.

The merchants are very polite. They see that we are foreigners, however, and put high prices on all their goods. We bargain with them for some time before they

come down to a reasonable figure so that we can buy. While the bargaining is going on, some of them offer us coffee which is very sweet and thick.

Cairo is a Mohammedan city and contains many Mohammedan churches, or mosques. Each has its tower, or minaret, from which the priest calls the people to prayer several times a day, and its court containing water, where the Mohammedans wash their hands and feet before they enter to worship. If we go into a mosque, we must either take off our shoes or put over them slippers which the guide provides so that we may not defile their sacred place. We may not believe as the Mohammedans do, but it is well for us to respect their customs, as we should wish them to do if they were visiting our country.

In the newer part of Cairo the wide boulevards, beautiful parks, and modern shops are very attractive. Our hotel is as fine and has as many conveniences as hotels in our country. The scenes from our windows, however, are very different from anything which we could see in a European or American city. Dark-robed Bedouins from the desert ride by on their silent-footed camels, covering with a cloud of dust a splendid automobile standing near. Here is a group of American tourists, and just behind them is a turbaned sheik on his donkey. Nearly run over by the carriage of that Egyptian official is a juggler crouched in the dust doing some wonderful tricks for the group watching him. There goes a snake charmer with his bag of snakes, and behind him comes a traveling salesman introducing some articles manufactured in Birmingham, England

(See Allen's "New Europe"). Truly Cairo is a place of contrasts, and not only Cairo but Egypt as well, and not only Egypt but other African countries. Always with the old we shall find the new. So rapidly are changes taking place in these lands that side by side with ancient customs we find those which are modern.

Figure 17. This is a modern street in Cairo. Contrast it with the previous one. Note the sidewalk, curbing, and up-to-date buildings.

All around Cairo stretches the brown desert. The life, the noise, the activities of the great city, are a sharp contrast to the emptiness and the silence of the vast sea of sand which surrounds it. The great Sahara stretches from the Atlantic Ocean on the west to the Red Sea on the east. Egypt is a part of it. In all this immense desert area there are no permanent towns and cities and farms except on the scattered oases and in the narrow valley watered by the floods of the Nile River.

Egypt is nearly as large as the states of Wyoming, Colorado, Utah, and Idaho. Its settled, cultivated part is only about as large as four Yellowstone Parks. Look at the map of the states mentioned above and see what a small fraction of their area would be covered by four parks the size of Yellowstone. All the rest of Egypt belongs to the desert and is peopled only by wandering tribes. The wonderful history of the ancient country of which you read in the last chapter belongs to the Egypt of the Nile valley.

Egypt is often called the Gift of the Nile. Were it not for the great river and its annual floods, the country would be like the rest of the Sahara, bare and brown. We do not wonder that the ancient Egyptians looked on the yearly flooding of the Nile as a miracle and worshiped the gods who controlled it. They knew nothing of the source of the great stream and of the heavy tropical rains which poured down the slopes of Abyssinia and changed into torrents the small streams which make up the branches of the Nile.

During the spring and summer months the sun shines vertically over the part of the torrid zone north of the equator. The heat becomes very great, and as heat hastens evaporation, enormous quantities of vapor are taken up into the air from the warm surface of the Indian Ocean.

The easterly trade winds which prevail in the torrid zone blow in from the ocean over the land, bringing this moisture with them. Much of Abyssinia is covered with high mountains, whose cool tops chill the winds

and cause them to drop their moisture. Thus heavy rains pour down the steep slopes of the Abyssinian highlands into streams which later join the Blue Nile. This river, rushing along with its floods of water and its tons of soil scoured from the hills, joins the White Nile at Khartum (see map on page 68). Below this point no tributary enters the Nile in its long journey to the sea except the Atbara, which runs nearly dry during part of the year, but which in the rainy season helps to flood the main stream.

Other rivers are as useful as the Nile for navigation; others have an equal or a greater amount of water power; others water the land in their valleys; but no other river in the world has for thousands of years turned a desert into a prosperous farming country supporting one of the densest populations on earth.

In early June the Nile begins to rise and continues to increase in height during July and August. In September the water reaches its maximum height at Aswan (see map on page 68) and about a month later at Cairo. In an unfavorable year the Nile rises about twenty-one feet at Cairo and in an average year about twenty-five feet. If it rises twenty-eight or thirty feet, the embankments are in danger and have to be watched day and night.

During the flood season the tall palms grow out of the water; boats sail over fields which a few weeks later will be green with waving corn or dotted with vegetable gardens; mammoth gateways of ancient ruins and colossal statues stand in still waters which reflect below other gateways and statues as large and beautiful.

If for some reason the tropical rains in Abyssinia are less plentiful than usual and the river fails to rise to its usual height, some fields will be left dry, and no crops can be raised there until another season. Eagerly the people watch their river. Plenty or starvation depends upon its height. Even in very ancient times means of measuring it were devised and records were kept of its height. These were very necessary, for the tax rate depended on the height of the waters. Can you see why this was the only fair way in which the taxes could be adjusted? In several places we can still see the old Nilometers used centuries ago by the Egyptians. On an island near Cairo there is a circular building containing a well in which the water rises to the height of the river outside. Thus the amount of the flood could be determined with accuracy.

For thousands of years in the Nile valley irrigation from the natural flooding of the river has been practiced. On either side the land is divided by earth banks into low fields or basins. During the floods, water covers them from three to five feet deep. The silt in the water gradually settles, and a thin layer of rich soil is spread over the soaked ground. This coating of soil is nearly as valuable as the water itself, for it enables the farmer to raise his crops year after year without other fertilizer.

It is November before the land is dry enough for planting. Then the seed is sown, and so well has the ground been soaked that it sprouts and grows until harvest time.

The people who depend on Nature's flooding of

the land can raise crops only in the winter, for in the summer the fields are baked and hardened and cracked by the drying heat of the sun. These winter crops are chiefly grains, cereals, and vegetables, and clover for the cattle. None of Egypt's most famous crops, such as cotton, corn, rice, and millet, are produced to any great extent by this method of irrigation. These more important products are raised in the summer or autumn, and in order to produce them the ground is irrigated in other ways.

To irrigate fields not reached by the floods, the ancient Egyptians lifted water from the river by means of water wheels turned by oxen, and many peasants today follow the same method. At every turn of the wheel a series of earthen pitchers are raised and, one after another, empty themselves into a trough through which the water flows to the thirsty land. Sometimes other contrivances are used. A common one which you see in Figure 18 consists of a long pole weighted at one end and supporting a bucket at the other. When the weighted end is raised, the bucket sinks into the water; when the heavy

Figure 18. For thousands of years Egyptians have watered their crops in just such ways as this. Describe other methods.

end is pulled down, the bucket rises and its contents are emptied into a small trough or ditch.

Sometimes the farmers irrigate their fields by even simpler methods. A man standing in the water fills a bucket by hand and empties it into a higher canal. All over Egypt thousands of men and boys are working all day long and day after day lifting water from the river and canals by these and other methods.

Only small areas can be irrigated by such handwork as this. To enlarge the amount of cultivated land and to increase the crops which can be produced, great dams have been built in several places on the Nile. The

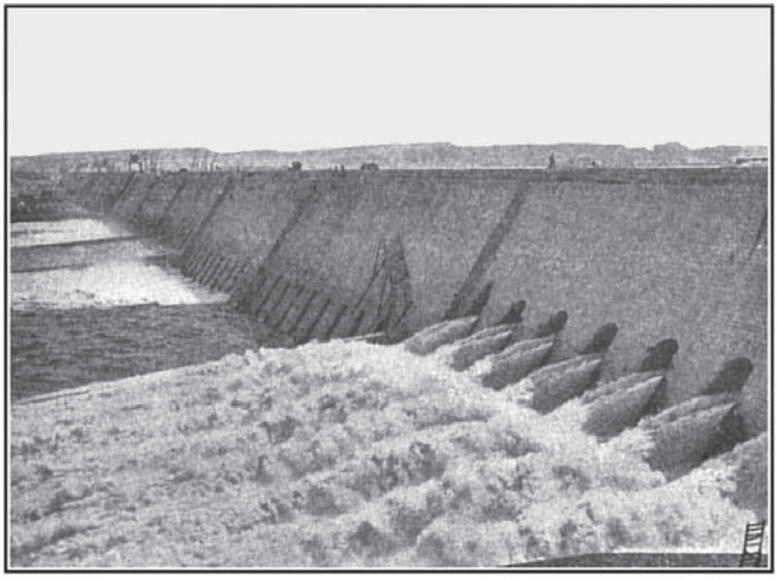


Figure 19. Behind this Aswan dam a great lake of water is stored. There are 180 sluices in the dam such as you see in the picture. Each one is 20 feet high. They can be opened or closed by means of huge sliding doors operated by electricity. What is the use of the sluices?

water collects behind these dams, or barrages, in large reservoirs, and from these it flows in canals and ditches to the farmers' fields. In the flood season the canals and ditches are filled naturally from the overflow of the river. When the Nile is low the water in the reservoirs is let out and used.

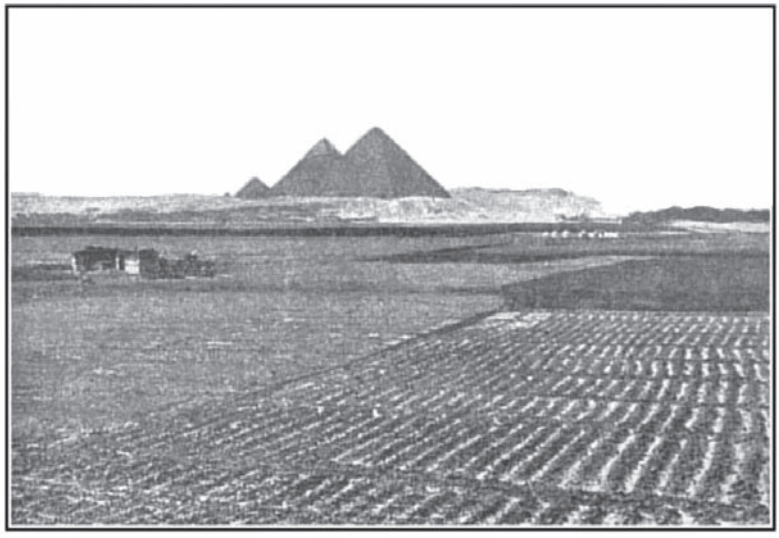


Figure 20. Why is the land which you see in this picture green with growing crops, while that on the other side of the great pyramids is a part of the desert?

One of the oldest barrages on the Nile is located near Cairo, where the river separates into its delta branches. The canals leading from this barrage irrigate large portions of the low, rich delta lands.

The dam at Aswan, farther up the river, is the finest of its kind in the world. It is as wonderful as some of the ancient temples and tombs and far more useful to

the Egyptians. It is built of stone and cement and is more than a mile long and sixty feet high. At its base it is eighty feet thick, narrowing slightly toward the top, which, however, is broad enough for a road. Imagine the dam in the street before your school building. To what place would it reach? How high would it be compared with your schoolhouse? How wide would it be compared with the width of the street?

Figure 21. Three thousand years ago one might have seen Egyptians dressed like these in the picture and using the same kind of plow and yoke, driving their slow, patient oxen over the fields watered and fertilized by the Nile River.

At the time of low water the Nile flows peacefully through the sluices (Figure 19). When the floods come the sluice gates are arranged so that only a certain amount of water is allowed to flow through, and the rest is stored in the great reservoir. When the river has

become low again this water is let out and distributed over the land, irrigating many thousand acres which formerly were soaked only at flood time or were a part of the great desert. The water held up by the dam drops its muddy load to the bottom of the reservoir. The sluices were built in the bottom of the dam so that mud and water might flow out together and thus fertilize as well as irrigate the land.

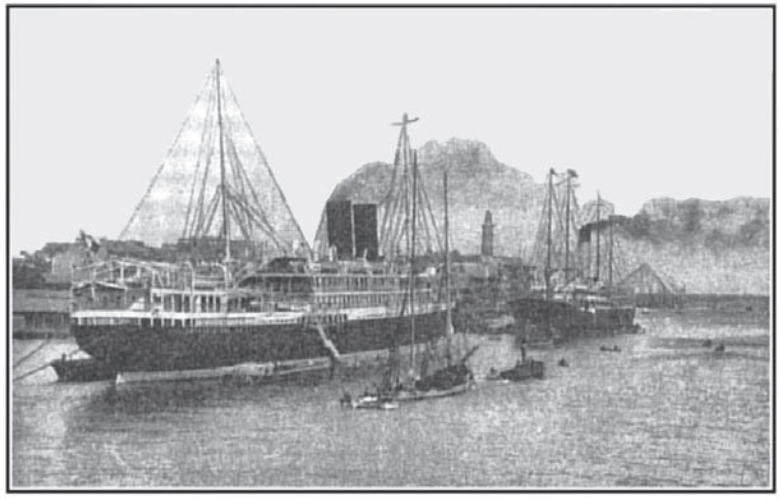


Figure 22. This picture shows you some of the shipping at Port Said. Where is this place? Why should there be so many vessels here?

In the thousands of villages in the Nile valley everyone is busy, and all the work is in some way connected with the great river. As we ride over the land and see the fields where camels, donkeys, water buffaloes, sheep, and goats are feeding, we must remember that without the Nile these fields would be a sandy waste and the people could raise no flocks and herds. As we

meet droves of donkeys laden with grass, and camels piled high with loads of grain, we must not forget that were it not for the Nile there would be no such loads for them to carry. As we wander through the villages made up of little houses of sundried bricks, we notice the groves of date palms. We know that these trees, from which many of the people derive their only income, are also the gift of the Nile. As we watch the women at work in the villages, grinding the grain and making the flat, round cakes which serve as bread, we realize that there would be no bread, no women grinding grain, no children playing in the dirt, and no villages of little huts were it not for this wonderful African river.

In our trip through the Nile valley we have been astonished at the number and size of the fields where cotton is growing. The dry air, the continual sunshine, the Nile water, and the rich soil all combine to produce a long silky fiber which is very valuable in manufacturing. Next to the United States and India, Egypt produces more cotton than any other country in the world. As you have read, the Egyptians cultivate also large grain and vegetable crops and much sugar, but the cotton crop exceeds all of them in value.

Before we leave Egypt for other parts of Africa we must take a look at the Suez Canal, that most important artificial waterway which forms a part of the main route between western Europe and eastern Asia and Australia.

The Isthmus of Suez, across which the canal was cut, is a neck of land about seventy-five miles wide, low and sandy, without vegetation or fresh water. Several

dry lake beds, some of which were thirty feet below the level of the sea, lay in the route of the canal. The water of the Red Sea was let into these lakes, and they now form a part of the waterway.

It is a hundred and one miles from the lighthouse at Port Said to the Red Sea at Suez, and the lakes occupy about a third of this distance. The canal proper is much narrower than the part through the lakes. Every few miles wider sections were built so that vessels can safely pass one another. In order that the wash of the water from the ships may not injure the embankments along the sides of the canal, vessels go slowly; and though we start in the early morning the lights will be twinkling along the route long before we reach Suez, at the southern end.

It was difficult to carry on such an undertaking as the building of this canal in the desert, where everything necessary for the thousands of laborers—food, water, tools, and machinery—had to be brought long distances. What a wonderful thing it is that men could cut a trench through this isthmus, separate two continents, join two seas, and shorten the trip from western Europe to southern and eastern Asia by thousands of miles!

The Suez Canal is so important to their trade that the British feel that they must always be in a position to protect it. In the Anglo-Egyptian treaty made in 1922, regarding the independence of Egypt, regulations concerning the protection of the canal were included.

Our visit to Egypt has been most interesting, but we must leave it for other lands, for Africa is a large

continent, and it will take us a long time to visit all its divisions and see what the people in them are doing. An old Egyptian proverb says, "Who drinks the Nile waters will return." We may not care to drink the water of the famous river, but we hope that we may at some future time return to this ancient land and learn more of its former greatness and its present-day importance.

SUGGESTIONS FOR STUDY

I

1. The port of Alexandria.
2. The old city of Cairo.
3. Egypt, a part of the Sahara Desert.
4. The Nile floods.
5. Irrigation and the Aswan dam.
6. Products of Egypt.
7. The Suez Canal.

II

1. Alexandria was named for Alexander the Great. Who was he? What did he do to earn his title? When did he live?

2. With what city in the United States does Alexandria compare in size? Cairo? (See Appendix, pages 501 and 504.)

3. How does the Nile River rank in length among great world rivers (see Appendix, page 506)?

4. Why is the Suez Canal of great importance to England? Find out who built it. What other canal did he attempt to build?

5. On what waters should you sail in going from London to Bombay, India?

6. Why was the Panama Canal more difficult to build than the Suez Canal (see Allen's "North America" and "South America")?

III

Make a list of the places mentioned in this chapter. Arrange them by countries, cities, rivers, mountains, etc. From these places select those which you think are so important that you should always be able to locate them and know something about them.

CHAPTER IV

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA

It will take us a long time to visit all the lands which are under the control of the British, for they cover an immense area (see map on page 55). The British possessions in southern Africa are half the size of the United States, while the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan alone would cover an entire third of its area. British East Africa would cover the rest of the country and make a second layer over Texas, while other British lands in the east and the west would continue the second layer over several other states.

Study Table I in the Appendix. How many people live in British Africa? How does the number compare with the population of the United States (see Table IV, page 503)? Which division of British Africa contains the most people?

We shall find nothing monotonous in our journey in British territory, for the colonies are very different one from another. Some are high and some low, some are wet and some dry. In them we shall see tropical

forests, cool, grassy plateaus, and hot, swampy coast lands. We shall find miners getting gold, copper, and diamonds from some of the richest mines in the world. We can watch wild animals feeding on the high plains and domestic flocks and herds in the pastures. We shall travel through lands uninhabited save for wild creatures, visit villages of native tribes who live as they did before Europeans landed on the African shores, and rest in cities as modern and as cultured as any in our own country.

STUDIES ON THE BRITISH POSSESSIONS

1. Sketch an outline map of Africa and show on it the British possessions (see map opposite). Write the name of each of the divisions.

2. Which British possessions lie in the north of Africa? in the east? in the south? in the west? Name some British islands.

3. Which possessions lie in the torrid zone? Which lie in two zones?

4. Which divisions are largely included in the low coast lands (see regional map preceding page 1)? Which consist largely of plateaus? Which have extensive grasslands? Which extend into the tropical forests?

5. Referring to Table I in the Appendix, write the names of the British possessions in the order of their size. Which is the largest? Which is the next in size? Which is the smallest?

6. Using Table I in the Appendix, find the total area of the British possessions in Africa. How does this compare with the area of the British Isles?

7. Using the table mentioned in question 6, find the total population of British Africa. How does this compare with the population of the British Isles?

8. Which division of British Africa is the largest? How do you account for the fact that fewer people live in this division than in the larger colonies of British East Africa or Nigeria?

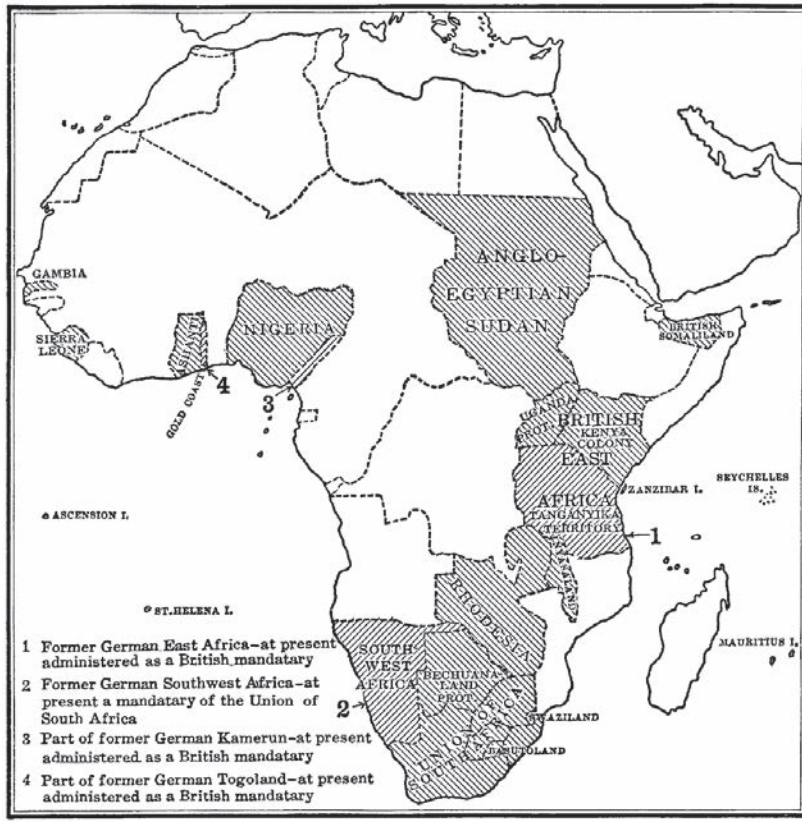


Figure 23. British Africa. Compare this map with the regional and rainfall maps. Which of the British possessions are in the temperate zone? Which have considerable rainfall? Which are partly deserts?