Ambleside Geography Series, Book II

THE BRITISH EMPIRE

AND THE GREAT DIVISIONS OF THE GLOBE

Ambleside Geography Series

by

Charlotte M. Mason

BOOK I	*Elementary Geography*
BOOK II.	*The British Empire and the Great Divisions of the Globe*
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PREFACE

CHILDREN should be familiar with the Map of the World before the geography of any division of the earth's surface is studied in detail, and perhaps the year in "Standard III." is a good time in which to lay this foundation for geographical knowledge.

"The situation of the several parts of the earth is better learned by one day's conversing with a *map,* than by merely reading the description of their situation a hundred times over in a book of geography."—*Dr. Watts, 'On the Improvement of the Mind.'*

It is hoped this little book may prove of use as a "Child's Guide to the Map of the World." The object of the reading lessons is to associate ideas of interest with the various States and regions of the world, with the situation of which the children are made familiar; and, at the same time, to convey in simple language a few of the leading facts and principles of Geography.

The parts of the British Empire are treated in detail; these, being widely scattered, are best studied in connection with the divisions of the earth to which they belong.

It is proposed that only the chapters relating to the British Empire should be studied for examination purposes, the rest of the book being read by the class to promote intelligence in their special work.

C. M. M.

CONTENTS

LESSON I

THE SEAS AND SHORES OF EUROPE[1]

PART I

The seas which bound Europe are branches of the Atlantic, excepting on the north, where the cold waters of the Arctic Ocean wash the coasts. The Atlantic is a much smaller ocean than the Pacific, but it is much more used by the ships which carry on the commerce of the world. It lies between the west coasts of Europe and Africa, and the east coast of America.

The bed of this ocean is unlike that of the Pacific; the high places do not often rise into mountains that appear above water as groups of islands, but they are long, level heights, or plateaus, a great way under water, although much higher than the rest of the ocean bottom. The low parts of the ocean floor lie at a depth of about five miles.

Cables by which telegraphic messages are sent from Europe to America extend from the island of Valencia

[1] For a notice of the general distribution of land and water, see Book I.


EUROPE
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 400 600
R - River
ARCTIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Iceland
Hecla
Faroe Isles
BRITISH ISLES
NORTH SEA
HELIGOLAND
NORWAY
SWEDEN
FINLAND
Baltic Sea
Klar R.
R. Duna
R. Dwina
R. Petchora
Ural Mountains
R. Obi
R. Kama
R. Volga
R. Ural
Aral Sea
RUSSIA
R. Don
R. Dnieper
R. Dniester
GERMANY
R. Elbe
R. Rhine
R. Vistula
R. Danube
FRANCE
R. Loire
R. Rhone
Bay of Biscay
Alps
AUSTRIA
Pyrenees
R. Ebro
R. Tagus
PORTUGAL
SPAIN
GIBRALTAR
Corsica
Sardinia
Vesuvius
Stromboli
Sicily
Etna
MEDITERRANEAN
MALTA
GREECE
SEA
TURKEY
Black Sea
Sea of Azov
Caucasus
R. Kuru
Caspian Sea
CYPRUS
AFRICA
ASIA

(off the west coast of Ireland) to Newfoundland, along the floor of the sea at a depth of three miles, in some places, below the surface of the water.

A strange fact about the Atlantic is the movement through its northern basin of a mighty river of warm sea-water. This river is larger than all the freshwater rivers of the world together; and instead of having banks of solid earth, it is walled in on either side by the ocean waters.

This river is the *Gulf Stream,* and its waters keep thus distinct because warm water does not mix readily with cold: it consists of ocean-water which has been heated under the burning sun of the tropics, that is, in the hottest part of the world. This stream flows towards the west, into the Gulf of Mexico, where it is shut in for a while under a hot tropical sun, and when it comes out through the Strait of Florida, it is the broad river of very warm water we have spoken of. Because it has come out of a gulf, it is known as the *Gulf Stream.*

Having swept out of the Strait of Florida, the Gulf Stream flows nearly as far north as Newfoundland; then it crosses the ocean, and one part of the stream passes Britain and Norway. The water loses much of its heat as it flows towards the cold north, but it is still warm enough when it reaches England to keep our harbours from being frozen, and to warm the westerly winds which blow from off the sea over our own country and the maritime countries of Western Europe.

Not only this warm stream, but all the waters which wash the shores of Europe help to make its climate

pleasant. Water does not become so hot as dry land in summer, nor so cold in winter. Hence the winds that blow over seas and become filled with watery vapour are cool and pleasant in the summer, and mild and moist in the winter. It is plain, then, that if the winds which reach a country have come across wide waters, that land must have a more pleasant, *temperate* climate than another land which has no sea-breeze to cool it during summer heat, nor warm it during winter cold.

LESSON II

THE SEAS AND SHORES OF EUROPE

PART II

Look, now, at a map of Europe; you will find it is broken into by the ocean in a remarkable way,—much more so than any other continent. The Atlantic is an ocean of *inland seas* that enter into the very heart of the land, and most of these are in Europe. To the south, there is the large, blue, beautiful Mediterranean, with the Black Sea and the two small seas connected with it,—the Sea of Marmora and the Sea of Azof; the Archipelago, so full of islands that its name is given to any sea which contains many islands; and the Adriatic. These form a chain of seas, some of which are connected by straits. The burning winds which blow from the African Desert cross the Mediterranean and become somewhat cool and moist before they reach the pleasant lands of Southern Europe. The long name belonging to this sea has a curious history; it means middle of the earth; and was so called because the ancients, to whom a great deal of the world was unknown, thought that the Great

Sea, round which lay all the famous countries of the Old World, was indeed the middle of the earth.

Now, look at the west; see how the Bay of Biscay and the English Channel, the Irish Sea and the North Sea, and the Baltic, with the various straits and belts which connect them, break into the very middle of the continent. Notice how, here, as in the south, these inland seas form many peninsulas. In the Mediterranean there are the Spanish peninsula, Italy, and Turkey; and, in the north, the Scandinavian peninsula, and the little northward pointing peninsula of Denmark; to say nothing of Britain, which is not almost, but altogether an island.

Even the cold Arctic serves a kindly purpose; the bitter winds which blow from the icy regions round the pole are a little less keen than if they had come overland. But what is to be said for Eastern Europe? The whole broad continent of Asia stretches between it and the eastern ocean. The consequence is what you might expect, the air is bitterly cold and dry in the winter, and hot and dry in the summer; and never moist and pleasant as are the winds which blow towards Europe across the Atlantic.

The Atlantic with its inland seas benefits Europe in another way; this continent has, for its size, more land bordering on the sea than any other. This long *coast-line* is a great advantage, because countries which have a *seaboard,* or coast-line, can trade far and near with their ships; and as almost every country in Europe has some seaboard, this continent, placed nearly in the middle

of the world, is able to carry on a wide *commerce* with the other continents, east and west.

The countries of Europe have not all an equal share in this commerce; those that have much coast-line, like Britain, can most readily become great sea-faring nations. But, for this purpose, the coast must be broken with inlets, which make snug harbours for the ships; an unbroken coast, like that of much of Africa, for instance, is of little use.

Examine the map of Europe to see which countries have the longest and most *indented* coast-lines, and you will find that these either were at one time, or are now, great *maritime,* or sea-going, nations.

By looking at the map you will see that the Atlantic is a highway which carries ships westwards to America, or, southwards, to Africa. By rounding the southern point of Africa, vessels may make for the south and east of Asia. But this, you will see, is a long and roundabout way; if it were not for the little neck of land which separates the Mediterranean from the Red Sea, how easy it would be to sail through these two seas, and out into the Arabian sea, and so across to India! To make this short passage possible, a wonderful piece of work has been finished quite lately; a water-way was dug a hundred miles long, and wide and deep enough for ships to sail in. Then the sea waters rushed in and filled this channel, which is called the Suez Canal, because it cuts through the isthmus of Suez; and ships for India or China, or for any part of the south or east of Asia now go by this most useful canal.

LESSON III

COUNTRIES OF EUROPE

A GLANCE at the map shows that the countries of Europe are very unequal in size. The eastern half of the continent is occupied by one huge country which reaches from the Arctic on the north to the Black Sea on the south, and as far west as the Baltic. Our own land only extends through five degrees of latitude, but Russia stretches through thirty degrees from north to south. For this reason, various climates prevail in the different parts of Russia; in the north there are wide frozen plains upon which the sun never rises for weeks during the long Arctic night; while in the south there are warm sunny regions where the vine grows freely.

This large country is an empire. The people are very unlike those of the rest of Europe in their ways, their language, and their religion. St. Petersburg, the capital city, has so many fine houses and other handsome buildings, that it is sometimes called a city of palaces.

To the north-west of Russia are the two countries of Norway and Sweden, which form a peninsula pointing south, and are washed by the sea everywhere except where they join Russia.

The west of Norway is exposed to the strong Atlantic waves; the ocean reaches into the land by many narrow inlets, called *fiords,* and countless islands fringe the coast.

These countries, also, stretch beyond the Arctic circle into the frigid zone, and have, therefore, long winter nights; but as the people are fond of books, they spend many of these dark hours in study. Stockholm, the capital of Sweden, is built upon several islands joined together by bridges, and is a very clean and beautiful town.

To the south of this is another smaller peninsula, the only one in Europe which points towards the north. With the islands off its eastern coast, it forms the kingdom of Denmark. Copenhagen, the capital, is built upon an island.

The tiny island of HELIGOLAND, which lies off the south-west coast of the peninsula, belongs to Britain.

Still to the south-west, upon the North Sea, are two small, but busy, countries. Holland, the most northerly of these, lies so low that the people are obliged to build strong embankments called dykes to keep the sea from bursting in upon their neat, well-kept towns and carefully tended fields.

Belgium, the small country to the south, is so busy, so full of towns and people, that the whole country looks like one huge city. Beautiful lace and handsome carpets are made in Brussels, its chief town.

These two countries are kingdoms.

The next country to the south-west is a republic. It is the gay and pleasant land of France, with which England had, in old days, many long wars; but English people now go there in crowds to see the country, and Paris, its beautiful capital.

France is washed by the Bay of Biscay on the west, and by the English Channel on the north. The pleasant Channel Islands, Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark, belong to England, though they lie off the north coast of France.

Crossing the English Channel, we come to our own country, which, with Scotland to the north, and Ireland (which is an island) to the west, forms the kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. London, the capital of this kingdom, is the largest and richest city in the world; it does not look so bright and gay as Paris, however, because the smoke from the enormous number of coal fires makes the buildings dingy.

In the south of Europe is a large peninsula, which points southward, and contains the countries of Spain and Portugal. The people of these countries were at one time famous sailors who explored and conquered many lands; but now they have become a rather idle people. Spain and Portugal are kingdoms. A little bit of this large peninsula belongs to England—the rocky fortress of Gibraltar, which stands exactly at the opening into the Mediterranean.

The next southern country of Europe is also a peninsula, of a curious shape, something like a boot with a large island off the toe. This is a beautiful land

where grapes and oranges grow freely, and where you might live nearly always in the open air. Rome, its capital, was once the greatest city in the world, and had large armies of brave and obedient soldiers who conquered nearly every country known in their day, including our own. But all this glory has long since passed away.

To the south of Sicily are three small islands which belong to Britain—Malta, Gozo, and Comino. Malta is the largest and most important of these; it has a delicious climate, and grapes and oranges and other southern fruits grow here as in Italy. British soldiers are stationed here to protect the British merchant ships which trade in the Mediterranean.

The beautiful little country of Switzerland lies, all among the mountains, to the north of this peninsula; it is a republic, inhabited by a brave people. Switzerland is sometimes called the playground of Europe, because crowds of people from other countries go every year to keep holiday among its mountains and lakes.

Separated from Italy by the Adriatic Sea is another peninsula pointing south, containing two countries. Turkey, the northern of these, is held by the only European nation which is not Christian. Constantinople, its capital, stands on a lovely spot upon the Bosphorus.

The little country of Greece, to the south, was, like Italy, at one time the greatest country in the world. It is pleasant to know that Saint Paul travelled about here and taught the people, and wrote to some of the towns letters, which we may now read in the Bible.

The rather large island of Cyprus, which lies in what is called the Levant—that is, the eastern part of the Mediterranean—has fallen quite lately into the occupation of Great Britain. It is a pleasant island, containing many mountains, and large forests of oak and walnut trees. Delicious fruits and various kinds of corn grow on the open plains.

The centre of Europe is occupied by two large empires: to the north-west is Germany, where the people of the various provinces and principalities speak one language, and have, on the whole, a friendly feeling towards each other; and to the south-east is Austria, in which there are two or three countries, between the inhabitants of which little friendly feeling exists, as they speak different languages.

LESSON IV

PLAINS AND MOUNTAINS OF EUROPE

PART I

By looking at the map of Europe we may learn a good deal about the appearance of the countries in it. We see which are mountainous, and therefore likely to be beautiful, and whether there are lakes among the mountains to add to their beauty. We see which are the dull, level lands or plains, and if there are lakes in these flat plains. We learn in what part of Europe the mountains lie, and in what directions the various chains run.

The direction of the mountain chains is one of the first things that persons who understand geography notice when they examine a map, because the climate of a country may be a good deal affected by the position of its mountains. These may stand like a huge sheltering wall, to shield the land from the icy north wind, the bitter east, or the burning south; or, while rising as a barrier against all pleasant moisture-laden winds, they may leave the land exposed to the biting blasts

off frozen plains. Then, again, the mountains rear their heads so high among the clouds that they cause the watery vapour of which these are composed to drop in frequent showers; so that a mountainous country has generally a good deal of rain, excepting in dry, hot lands, where clouds seldom gather.

We must consider one more fact about mountains. Trace the river lines upon a map to the spot where they begin, and you will find that rivers generally have their sources in mountains. Also, you will notice that several rivers rise in the same range of mountains, and flow in the same general direction until they reach the sea. Look again, and you may see that other rivers rise in these same mountains, and flow in quite an opposite direction, perhaps to empty their waters into another sea. The reason of this is easy to understand. The rain which falls upon a mountain either streams down the slopes in little runlets, or sinks through crevices in the rock deep into the mountain-side. By-and-by the underground crevices become so filled that they can hold no more, and the water is forced out as a *spring*. The waters from many runlets and springs collect and form a *stream,* and the stream makes its way steadily downwards to the lowest land it can reach, and, at last, to the sea, because the sea lies lower than any land. On its way seaward, the mountain stream is joined by many other streams, and fed by many springs, until it becomes a *river,* wide and deep enough in some cases to carry big ships.

Notice two points in this little history of a river: in the first place, runlet, stream, river, are constantly

flowing *downwards.* Try to imagine a river rising in land as flat as a table and flowing towards a distant sea, always over quite flat land. You cannot. The water would cease to flow, and would spread into stagnant ponds. A river can only flow so long as it finds some little slope in the land down which it can run. If the slope be great the river rushes along with a headlong course, like a hoop trundled down a hill; the more level the land is, the slower is the current of the rivers, and very sluggish are the streams which creep over wide plains. Knowing that every river must run down a slope, a glance at the map will show in what direction the land slopes—to the west here, to the north there; in whatever direction a river runs from its source to the sea, the general slope of the land must be in that direction.

Notice, in the second place, that it is not upon one side only of a mountain that rain falls and springs rise. If the streams we have been considering have their sources on the southern slope, we may be sure that the same thing takes place on the northern slope also. Now as the streams which rise on the north side cannot possibly flow up the mountains to unite with those which rise on the south side, they must flow down and make for themselves courses in the opposite direction, perhaps towards a far-distant sea. Thus the mountain's ridge divides the streams which rise upon one slope from those which rise upon the other: and, in this way, mountains often form a water-parting; that is, a division or parting between streams which flow in contrary directions. As the direction in which the rivers flow depends thus upon the position of the mountains and

the direction of the slope, and as vessels trade upon the rivers, and towns grow up upon their banks, we have here a second reason why the direction of its mountain chains is an important fact in the geography of a continent.

LESSON V

PLAINS AND MOUNTAINS OF EUROPE

PART II

Turning now to the map of Europe, we notice that the three southern peninsulas are well covered with mountains, while they are marked thickest in Switzerland, the beautiful little country lying to the north of Italy. In fact, the Swiss mountains seem to be the centre of those in the south-west of Europe, and several ranges branch from them into France, Germany, and Austria, as well as into the three peninsulas.

Hungary, a country which forms part of Austria, has a chain of mountains named the Carpathians, curving round its eastern side.

There is also a range, quite away from the rest, stretching from the north to the south of Scandinavia. These are called the Scandinavian Mountains.

All the rest of Europe is very flat, and forms a great plain which takes in the whole of Russia, as well as the countries to the south of the Baltic Sea and the German

Ocean. Nearly half of Russia is covered with immense forests, some of them much larger than all the British Isles put together.

Holland, where the sea is kept out by embankments, is one of the lowest parts of the great plain. The other very low part is at the south-east end, round the Caspian Sea; here, a high wind drives the sea-waters over the land; and not only the waters, but the vessels upon them are at times driven upon shore.

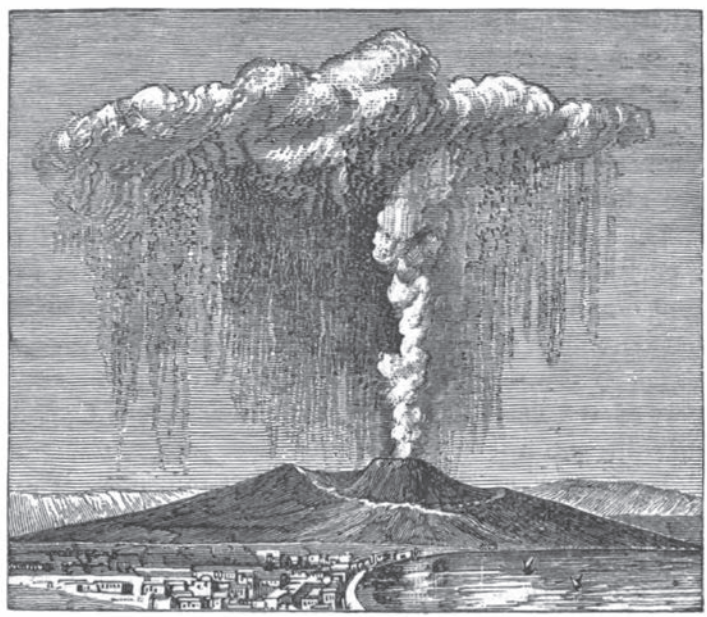
In the north of this plain, in Russia, are Ladoga and Onega, the two largest lakes in Europe. Lakes are common in mountain valleys, but sometimes, as here, they fill up the lowest parts of a plain. The long range of Scandinavian Mountains runs close to the Atlantic coast; the sea rushes in between these mountains and fills the narrow valleys which are called *fiords*. The summits of this range are, in the north, covered with perpetual snow and ice, but the sides are clothed with great forests of pine; indeed, these pine forests cover more than three-quarters of the peninsula. There are several large lakes in Sweden, Wener and Wetter being the largest.

The Alps, the highest and grandest of all the mountain ranges of Europe, nearly fill up the little country of Switzerland; whichever way you look, their snowy summits rise, range behind range, further than the eye can follow. We can only get into Italy from Switzerland by crossing a chain of these high Alps, and several passes lead from the one country to the other, as the Splügen Pass, the Simplon Pass, and others. Mont

Blanc, the highest point in the Alps, is also the highest mountain in Europe; it falls within the boundary line of France, and is 15,781 feet in height. Many lovely lakes fill up the Alpine valleys; of these, Geneva is the largest.

The Apennine chain, which is a spur of the Alps, runs through Central Italy from north to south, reaching into the heel of the boot, and down into the toe, and under the water, and out again into Sicily. These mountains are mostly covered with forests of chestnut trees, the nuts of which are a common food of the people.

This range contains two volcanoes, or burning mountains, Vesuvius in Italy, and Etna in Sicily. These mountains do not always emit fire, but at times strange rumblings are heard from within them, and smoke and flame may be seen rising from an opening at the top



called the *crater.* Then streams of melted matter, called lava, pour down the sides of the mountain, and showers of ashes are shot up into the air and fall upon the plain below. Many centuries ago, two towns which stood at the foot of Vesuvius were buried, the one under ashes, and the other under lava.

Mount Heck, in Iceland, is also a volcano.

The Balkan Peninsula is full of mountains, the valleys between which are often only deep dark gorges. The Balkan range, which runs through the middle of the country from west to east, is sometimes called the back-bone of Turkey.

Spain is another mountainous peninsula. The Pyrenees Mountains separate it from France on the north, and several ranges cross the country from east to west. All the centre of Spain, that is, nearly half the peninsula, is a high table-land where all green things are parched up in summer for want of rain.

Both the Carpathians and the various mountain ranges of Germany are rich in mineral treasures, and many men are employed in the mines. Gold and silver, quicksilver, copper, lead, and iron are found in these rich mountains.

LESSON VI

RIVERS OF EUROPE

The map of Europe shows many river lines, for the whole continent is *well watered.*

The frozen plains of Northern Russia have, plainly, a northward slope, because the river Dwina flows in that direction into the White Sea. During the short, hot summer of these regions, Archangel, which stands at the mouth of the Dwina, is the great seaport of the north; but for more than half the year no ships can sail in those frost-bound seas.

Look, now, at the Scandinavian peninsula. The mountains which form the *waterparting* of the country run from north to south, so the land has an eastern and a western slope, down each of which the rivers flow. As the mountains run close to the sea on the western side, the rivers have very short courses, and are, for the most part, mountain torrents hurrying to the ocean. The Swedish rivers have a rather longer slope to run down, but as they only cross the country from the mountains to the Baltic Sea, where they empty themselves, none of these are large or important rivers.

The central plain of Europe, which lies along the southern coasts of the Baltic and North Seas, has a northward slope, for four or five large rivers empty themselves into these seas after a northward course. The Vistula and the Oder flow into the Baltic; the Elbe into the North Sea; and further west, the Rhine, coming out of Holland, enters this same sea. The Rhine is a wide, and, in its earlier course, a rapid river, which has its sources in the high Alps. It is more beautiful than any other river in Europe. Most of its course is in Germany, and the Germans love it well and sing songs in its praise.

The Seine, which is spanned by beautiful bridges and has the fair city of Paris on its banks, is another northward flowing river which empties itself into the English Channel.

Our own Thames, upon which London stands, flows down a slight eastward slope from the Cotswold Hills to the North Sea. Though much smaller than many of the rivers of the Continent, it is as famous as any for its great city, and for all the ships upon its waters. It has a wide mouth, into which the tide wave of the sea rushes. This kind of river mouth is called an *estuary.*

Now we come to the westward slope of the Continent, which we can easily discern, as half a dozen rivers in France and Spain flow in a westerly direction.

Flowing into the Bay of Biscay, is the Loire, a large French river which often overflows its banks, to the great distress of the people, whose houses and crops are thus destroyed.

Further south, the Gironde also opens into the Bay of Biscay. This is an estuary into which two French rivers flow.

The chief rivers of Spain, the Douro, Tagus, Guadiana, and Guadalquivir, flow down a westward slope towards the Atlantic, into which they empty themselves. Each of these rivers has its course between two of the mountain chains which cross the country.

The Ebro, another large Spanish river, enters the Mediterranean after a course down an eastward slope.

When we reach the southern shores of Europe, we expect the land to slope and the rivers to flow southward, as the land usually slopes towards the sea. This is the case with the Rhone, which rises among Alpine snows, flows through "Geneva's blue waters," makes a few turns upon entering France, and then flows southward with a wonderfully straight and rapid course to the Mediterranean, where it empties itself. Rising at so great a height, this river has a very rapid current; it tears up the ground in its hasty course, and brings with it much earth and stones, which it lays down at its mouth. Land formed at the mouth of a river by the mud which it brings down is called a *delta,* from its resemblance to the Greek letter (Δ) so called; and most rivers divide, as the Rhone does, into several mouths when they reach the deltas they have formed.

The direction of the mountains which fill the two peninsulas of Italy and the Balkan prevents the rivers from having a southern course, wherefore we find that the Po and the Danube both flow down eastward slopes.

The Po, rising like the Rhone in the Alps, is also a very rapid river which flows across Northern Italy and into the Adriatic. As both the Po and its tributaries rise in high mountains, they tear along so fast that they bring much earth with them; so this river, also, has made a delta which stretches more than ten miles into the sea.

The wide and beautiful "blue Danube" flows into the Black Sea. You will see on the map that at one part of its course, near where it first forms the boundary between Roumania and Bulgaria, the mountains on either side of the river nearly meet. The narrowest part of this ravine is called the Iron Gate, where the river flows through a deep and narrow gorge more than a mile in length.

No mountains divert the courses of the slow rivers which flow through the flat steppes of Southern Russia; therefore these, the Dniester, the Dnieper, and the Don, creep down a slight southern slope to the Black Sea. So also does the Volga, which is the largest of all the rivers of Europe, and flows into the Caspian Sea. It is a slow, full river, which has never been near a mountain in all its course, and which never reaches the real sea; for the Caspian, though called a sea, is only a salt-water lake, as it does not open into the ocean.

Questions on the Map of Europe

1. Name the empire which occupies the east of Europe.
2. What two northern countries form a peninsula?
3. What country is a small peninsula, pointing to the north?
4. What country is washed by the Bay of Biscay and the English Channel?
5. How many large peninsulas are there in the south of Europe?
6. What two countries form the most western of these?
7. Name the central peninsula. What small country lies to the north of it?
8. What two countries form the eastern peninsula?
9. Name the two great central countries.
10. What countries of Europe are washed by the Mediterranean? By the Bay of Biscay? By the North Sea? By the Baltic? By the Arctic Ocean?
11. Which are the mountainous countries of Europe?
12. What countries belong to the great plain partly or altogether?
13. What are the Swiss mountains called?
14. Name the mountains of Italy.
15. What mountains divide France from Spain?
16. What mountain-chain crosses Turkey from west to east?

17. Where are the Scandinavian mountains?
18. What mountains divide Europe from Asia on the east? On the south?
19. Name three rivers that flow into the Baltic.
20. Three that enter the German Ocean.
21. The river on which Paris stands.
22. A river which flows into the Bay of Biscay.
23. The two largest rivers which flow through Spain and Portugal.
24. A French river which flows into the Mediterranean.
25. An Italian river which falls into the Adriatic.
26. A large river which enters the Black Sea from Turkey.
27. The two largest rivers which enter the Black Sea from Russia.
28. The large river which flows into the Caspian.
29. Through what countries does the Danube flow? The Rhine? The Rhone?
30. In what countries are the Po, the Thames, the Elbe, the Volga, the Seine, the Don, the Loire?
31. What four seas open into each other on the south? How are they connected with each other and with the ocean?
32. Name the countries of Europe which are most broken into by the sea.
33. Name the largest islands in each of the seas of Europe. With what oceans are these seas connected?

LESSON VII

THE BRITISH ISLES

PART I

WHAT do we mean by the "British Isles"? The large island which contains the countries of England, Scotland, and Wales; and Ireland, the smaller island to the west. These are certainly *the* British Isles, in every way the most important of them; therefore the larger island is called *Great* Britain by way of distinction. But the two or three large and the numerous small islands off the coast of England, and the hundreds of islands off the Scotch coast, and the thousands of islets off the coast of Ireland, are also British isles. These are not *great* Britains by any means; some of them are very small indeed, being merely rocks, rising out of the sea, the wild haunts of swarms of sea-birds; others are large enough to be the homes of a few fisher folk; others, again, are large islands with farms and villages and busy towns upon them.

These British Isles keep on the whole close together, clustering round the large island of Great Britain; that, again, is only separated from the Continent by


BRITISH ISLES
SCALE OF MILES
0 20 40 60 80 100 120
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
SCOTLAND
ENGLAND
IRELAND
IRISH SEA
St. GEORGE'S CHANNEL
ENGLISH CHANNEL
FRANCE

the narrow North Sea and the still narrower English Channel. If this narrow sea could be drained away we might go by rail to France and Holland and Belgium—a delightful idea to persons who wish to travel on the Continent, while they dread the miseries of sea-sickness.

So narrow are the Straits of Dover, which connect the English Channel with the North Sea, that a man might walk in a few hours the 21 miles which here divide England from France.

If the North Sea were to disappear, the slope to the bottom of its bed would be so slight that we should hardly know we were going down-hill. Imagine any of the low green hills of Southern England to be suddenly lifted from their bases, and set in the midst of this sea; they would not be covered, but would rise as islands, often high above the waters. Indeed, if the churches in your town could be taken up as they stand and placed on the sea floor, the spires would most likely rise above water; for the seas between Britain and the Continent are in few places more than 150 feet deep.

The fact is, that at one time, ages before "History" began, there were no British Isles and no North Sea, but the Continent stretched into the ocean a good way beyond the furthest coast of Ireland. Now, the eastern shores of England lie so low in some places that huge banks have been raised to keep out the sea; still lower do the opposite coasts of Holland and Belgium lie; wherefore these are called the Netherlands, or lowlands, while "Holland" merely means "hollow land." It is supposed that the land which once lay

between these two opposite shores was also low, and that it sank at a slow rate, say a few inches in a year, until a sunken bed was formed. Then the waters of the Atlantic rushed in and filled the hollow, which thus became a narrow, shallow sea; and in this way the land we call Great Britain was cut off from the Continent and surrounded by water. In the same way, the ocean may have rushed into another hollow bed on the west, and so made another sea, cutting off the island which we call Ireland. And how are all the small islands which cluster round the great ones to be accounted for? Most likely these were at one time mountains, rising round the ancient shore; and when the sea covered the lowlands, the mountain tops remained above water, and now appear as islands.

Are you inclined to think it is a pity we should have been thus cut off from the Continent? It is, on the whole, a good thing for us; we Britons like to have our island home to ourselves, just as every English family likes to have a separate dwelling; while on the Continent it is usual for many families to live in a single large house. Being thus divided from them by the sea, we need never be disturbed by the disputes of other nations.

LESSON VIII

THE BRITISH ISLES

PART II

It would be inconvenient for us, however, if we were cut off altogether from intercourse with foreign lands. British people are accustomed to make use of so many things which come from abroad that we should be badly off if the supply were stopped. For instance, what should we do without tea, coffee, and sugar, rice and treacle, or cotton to make our calico? Worse still, what should we do without *bread?* How sad it would be if there were not bread enough to be had for money to feed everybody in our swarming towns! You think, perhaps, it is only fruits, and spices which will not flourish in our climate that we need to fetch from abroad, but that wheat and rye, oats and barley, grow freely in the British Isles. But the fact is, there are a great many more people in Britain, in England especially, than there is room to grow food for. If we were not a clever, industrious people, able to make things which other nations are glad to have instead of corn, we should be badly off.

But we make cotton stuffs and woollen stuffs, and every kind of article made of iron, besides many other

useful things; and large countries, like parts of America and Russia, which have room to grow more corn than their people can eat, are glad enough to send us some of it in return for our manufactured goods, coal, and other things.

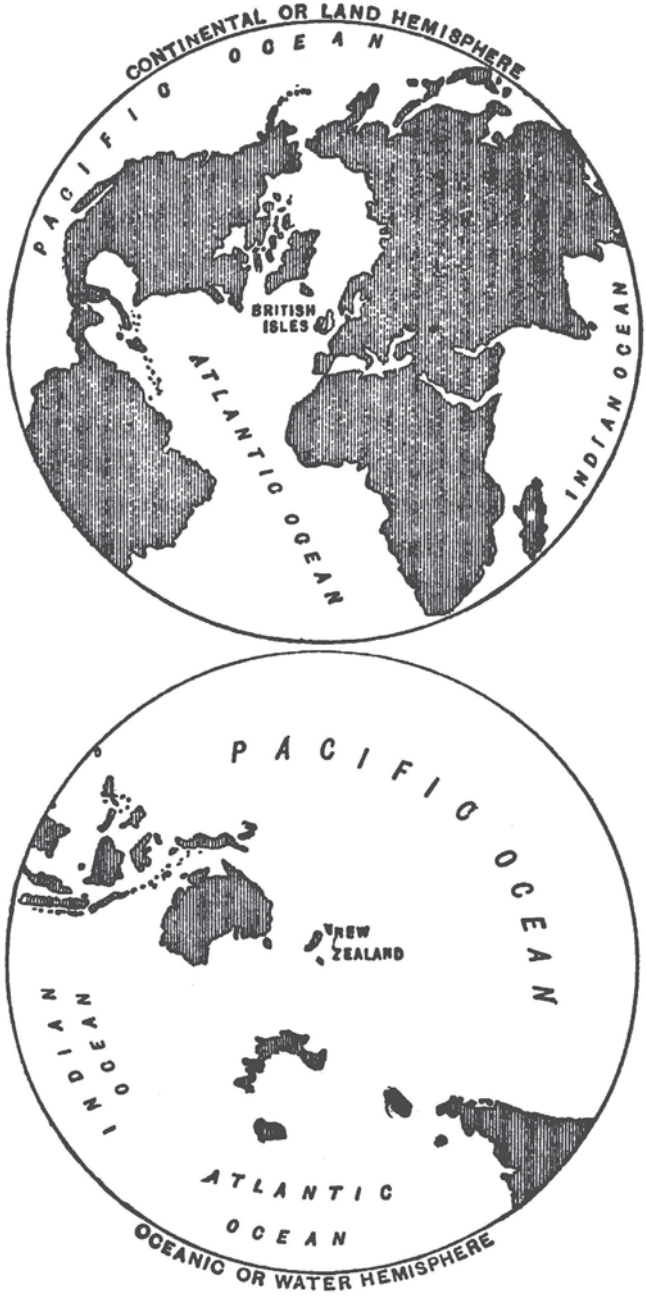
Thus you see the British Isles depend a great deal upon this kind of exchange, which is called *commerce*. As Great Britain is an island, it can only trade with the rest of the world by means of ships; ships must carry out whatever British traders want to sell; ships must bring in such things as they wish to buy. Now, it is really a great deal easier and cheaper to fetch and carry on the sea than on land: the sea belongs to everybody, so it is free; while, if there were no water-way, it would be necessary to pay some foreign ruler for leave to pass through his country. Again, no rails need be laid down, nor roads kept in order, for the ships to go upon. That breaking-in of the ocean which made Britain an island prepared the way for her to become a great nation; for the waters which divide her from all other lands are but highways for her ships. Then, the British seamen are hardy and brave, often brought up within sound of the sea, and come of forefathers who lived aboard ship; the blood of the hardy Norsemen—Saxons and Danes—runs in British veins.

There is perhaps no other country in the world quite so well placed for carrying on wide traffic on the seas. Fix a globe in such a position that one half will show nearly all the land in the world, the other half nearly all the water; the map on page 34 shows you these hemispheres of land and water. Notice how

Britain lies—in the centre of the land hemisphere, with open sea-way to every country in the world that is not shut up in the middle of a continent Across the narrow seas are various countries of Europe; to the west, across the broad Atlantic, lies America. A ship sailing south skirts the African coast. Rounding the point of Africa, she may either sail north to the countries of Southern Asia, or eastward to the great island of Australia.

It is a happy thing, also, that the seas round Britain are always open, and neither frost-bound, so that ships cannot enter them, nor made dangerous by floating icebergs. This is due partly to her *latitude,* her place in the north temperate zone; but no other lands which lie between 50° and 60° N. lat. have quite so pleasant a climate as Britain. One reason for this is that soft, moist winds blow from the south-west, across the ocean, and these winds make our winter days warmer, and our summer days cooler, than they would be if ours were an inland country. The influence of the warm Gulf Stream is also, as we have seen, among the causes which temper the climate of Britain.

In point of size, the British Isles, important as they are, form only a very small part of the vast British Empire, upon which "the sun never sets." To begin in the east, and go round with the sun, our sovereign's dominions include the whole of Australia; the great country of India and two or three small possessions in Asia; the countries at the southern end of Africa, and some settlements on the West Coast; Gibraltar and some islands in the Mediterranean in Europe; all the northern lands of North America, and some small


CONTINENTAL OR LAND HEMISPHERE
PACIFIC OCEAN
BRITISH ISLES
ATLANTIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
NEW ZEALAND
INDIAN OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
OCEANIC OR WATER HEMISPHERE

possessions in South America; the large islands of New Zealand in the Pacific, and several important islands in the Atlantic. Thus we see there are *British Possessions* in each of the Continents, and in every region of the globe.

LESSON IX

THE CRUISE OF THE *SEAGULL*

PART I

The *Seagull* is a yacht, which, we propose, shall skim with white sail right round Great Britain; shall *circumnavigate* that island, in fact, with ourselves on board. In this way we shall make sure if the maps are right, and if Great Britain is an island indeed.

The first person we read of who made this coasting voyage was Julius Agricola, a great general who did much to subdue Britain for the Romans. It was all new to him; he went round the island that he might see the country, for he could not learn all about it from books of geography, as we may.

We shall start from Spithead, which is not a cape, as you might imagine, but is a broad, quiet harbour, where many ships may lie at anchor; it is the eastern half of the channel which divides the Isle of Wight from Hampshire, and so it is sheltered by the island from the rough sea-winds. We stop a little in this harbour, or *roadstead,* as it is called, to look at the beautiful green


ENGLAND
SCALE OF MILES
0 20 40 60 80
R - River
MTS - Mountains
SCOTLAND
R. Dee
R. Clyde
Berwick
R. Tweed
Holy Isle
CHEVIOT HILLS
R. Tyne
Newcastle
NORTH SEA
Solway Firth
CUMBRIAN
Ullswater
R. Tees
YORKSHIRE MOORS
Windermere
Isle of Man
R. Ouse
Flamboro' Head
R. Ribble
York
Leeds
R. Aire
IRISH SEA
PENNINE CHAIN
Liverpool
R. Mersey
R. Humber
R. Dane
R. Derwent
R. Trent
R. Witham
The Wash
CAMBRIAN MTS
R. Dee
R. Soar
R. Welland
Norwich
St. George's Channel
Cardigan Bay
R. Severn
R. Teme
Birmingham
R. Nen
R. Avon
Gt. Ouse
R. Wye
COTSWOLD HILLS
CHILTERN HILLS
R. Stour
R. Usk
Milford Haven
London
Bristol
R. Thames
Bristol Channel
R. Kennet
Dover
EXMOOR
Hartland Point
Southampton
R. Medway
Dover Strait
Exeter
DARTMOOR
Portsmouth Harbour
Isle of Wight
Portland Bill
Land's End
Start Point
ENGLISH CHANNEL
Lizard Point
FRANCE

island, the "garden of England," where the white houses nestle among green trees, and spreading branches overarch the lanes. It is no wonder that Ryde and Cowes and the other pretty towns of the island are generally full of visitors.

Let us cross the water and enter Portsmouth Harbour, which is a large, still haven, with stately men-of-war lying at anchor. Portsmouth is what is called a *naval* port—that is to say, the ships of the navy come here to be repaired after stormy voyages, or after fighting some enemy on the open sea. Here too, war-ships are built, and here they are supplied with beef and bread, and blankets, and whatever else is needed for a long voyage.

Our "gull" shoots forward, past Selsea Bill, past the low, shingly Sussex coast, where there are three or four warm, pleasant, bathing-places, of which Brighton is the gayest and most fashionable. Crowds of fishing-smacks swarm about us, all out for the mackerel fishing. They will be out all night, and early in the morning boatloads of beautifully marked, shining fish will be emptied for sale upon the beaches of the fishing towns.

That great, white headland stretching out before us is Beachy Head, whose cliffs of white chalk rise 600 feet from the sea.

After passing a bit of low shore, we come again upon white cliffs—

"The white chalk cliffs of Dover."

That is Dover Castle upon the cliff, and yonder is a

passenger-boat crossing to Calais, for we are in the Strait of Dover.

Rounding the point called the South Foreland—*Fore*-land, because it comes forward, comes to the fore—we are careful to keep close to shore, and find ourselves in strangely still water. We are in the *Downs,* which is another roadstead or harbour. But what shuts it in? We see land on the left, but nothing save open sea on the right. There is land on this side also, though we cannot see it;—a high sandbank ten miles long rises nearly to the surface of the water, and shuts in these *roads* for the ships. These Goodwin Sands form a friendly haven for vessels within the Downs; but outside, the mariners dread the treacherous banks, for many a good ship has struck upon them.

We pass the North Foreland, and turn towards a great opening on our left. There are busy towns on the shores, and much shipping is around us; and the further we go up this opening, the more do we seem to be sailing through a forest of masts. We are going up with the tide, and at the same time a river is forcing itself down to the sea. We are in the broad estuary of the Thames, the chief of English rivers. The ships have all come to bring merchandise to London, the greatest city and the greatest port in the world; or to carry away the goods which the London merchants send all over the globe. There are large docks—quiet pools, walled round—built on each side of the river to hold the ships.

LESSON X

THE CRUISE OF THE *SEAGULL*

PART II

We sail out of the Thames, and northward, past the low, flat shores of the eastern counties. Again, we find ourselves amongst a host of brown-sailed fishing-smacks. We are in a herring fishery this time—the great Yarmouth fishery, and the silvery herring will be carried into this pleasant seaport-town, to be salted and dried and made into "Yarmouth bloaters."

Rounding the eastern shoulder of England, we find ourselves in the Wash, and into this opening four slow, dull rivers empty themselves—the Witham, the Welland, the Nen, and the Great Ouse. The *Fens* lie all round the Wash, and stretch far inland. These Fens are quite the lowest part of the eastern counties, and lie so very low that in some places the sea is only kept out by means of embankments and sea walls.

To look at it on the map, one would think the Wash would be a capital place for ships, but it is full of shifting sandbanks, and is not at all safe.

The Humber, the next large opening we enter, is also full of these dangerous sandbanks. It is the estuary of two rivers—the Trent, the great middle river of England, and the Ouse, which flows through Yorkshire. Upon its northern shore stands the large seaport town of Hull. A glance at the map of Europe will enable us to judge with what countries Hull trades. Across the North Sea, and through the narrow channels which lead into the Baltic, do her ships go, and from the countries round the Baltic they bring corn, timber, flax, tallow, and hides.

No cape upon the east coast stands out to sea so boldly as Flamborough Head. A lighthouse rises from its cliffs of white chalk; and upon these cliffs in ages long gone by the Danes kept up huge bonfires to light their black ships over the stormy sea. Thus this cape came by its name, the headland of the *flame*.

As we sail northwards we pass the mouths of the Tees, the Wear, and the Tyne, all full of shipping, because there are busy seaport towns upon each of these three rivers. The chief of these ports is Newcastle on the Tyne. "Coal to Newcastle" people say when you give them more of what they have too much of already. He would be indeed a foolish merchant who sent coal to Newcastle; for it stands upon a wide coalfield, and sends out thousands of vessels every year, which carry Newcastle coal to London, to France, to the Baltic, and to the countries round the Mediterranean.

Passing many *colliers,* we sail by the little Farn Islands, upon one of which Grace Darling lived, and by Holy Island, the home of holy men in days when

much of Britain was pagan. You are wondering, perhaps, who Grace Darling was. She was a brave girl, whose father took care of the lighthouse on Farn Island, and who saved some shipwrecked mariners in a terrible storm at great risk of her own life. At last we come in sight of Berwick, the border town where England and Scotland meet.

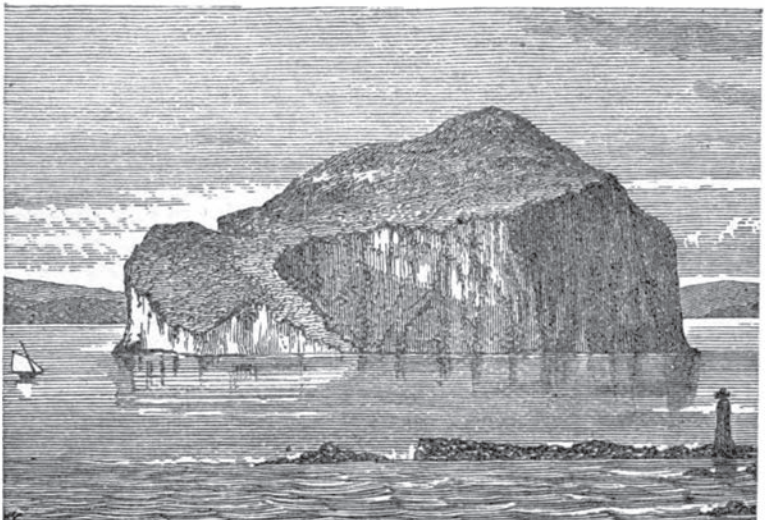
And now we have sailed up the whole of the eastern side of England. We have seen some dreary-looking sandy wastes here and there. We have passed a few busy seaports and some pleasant-looking bathing-places. But nearly everywhere, at a little distance from the shore, we have seen farmlands—green meadows or pasture-fields, with cattle feeding in them; corn-fields, or turnip- or clover-fields. Farming is the chief work carried on in the eastern counties; and the land lies so low nearly all along the coast that from the deck of our boat we are able to see a good way inland. We catch sight of many snug farm-houses in pleasant spots; and we see the labourers abroad in the fields, and the scattered villages where these farm-labourers live.

LESSON XI

ROUND NORTH BRITAIN

"N.B." people usually put on letters addressed to Edinburgh or Glasgow; and in this case "N.B." means, not *Nota Bene*—"Take Notice"—but "North Britain." Scotland is North Britain, and South Britain consists of England and Wales.

We still make steadily northwards, keeping as close to the shore as we can, in order to see if there is anything to mark the fact that we have left England behind and are coasting Scotland. Long ranges of rather bare rounded hills, with sheep feeding on the short turf upon their slopes, stretch nearly to the coast. One range, the Lammermuir Hills, ends in St. Abb's Head. What is that curious mass of rock rising like a sugar-loaf steep out of the sea? That is the Bass Rock, 400 feet high, and so steep that only on one side is it possible to land upon it. And now we are in the broad, beautiful Firth of Forth. This name shows we are in another country; there are no *firths* in England, but you will find many on the map of Scotland. Firth (fiord) is the old Norse name for an estuary or opening; and the Firth of Forth is the estuary of the river Forth.



BASS ROCK, FIRTH OF FORTH

A sail up the Forth is full of interest; there are pleasure-boats and fishing-smacks and a few merchant-men upon the waters, but not many of these last, for there are no good harbours in the Forth. Even Leith, the seaport of Edinburgh, cannot give comfortable quarters to the ships that ply her trade. We pass busy towns on either shore, and pleasant bathing-places, standing among trees and gardens; and we see the fisher-wives come down to the boats to get their stock of "caller herrin'" (fresh herring). In what a curious way they carry their fish! Those huge, deep baskets on their backs, supported by means of a leathern strap passed round their foreheads, are quite new to us.

We must land to see the beautiful city of Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland. The old town and the new town are built upon two opposite hills, facing each other, and the valley between them is laid out in pleasant gardens.


SCOTLAND
SCALE OF MILES
0 10 20 30 40 50 60
R - River
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Orkney Islands
Cape Wrath
Duncansby Head
Hebrides
The Minch
Loch Shin
Moray Firth
Kinnaird Head
Skye
Glass R.
Loch Ness
R. Findhorn
R. Spey
R. Deveron
R. Ythan
R. Don
R. Dee
Rum
Grampians
R. Esk R.
S. Esk R.
Ben Nevis
R. Tummel
Coll
Mull
R. Tay
Isla R.
Firth of Tay
R. Earn
Fife Ness
R. Teith
R. Forth
Firth of Forth
Jura
Islay
R. Garron
Loch Lomond
St Abbs Head
EDINBURGH
R. Clyde
Glasgow
R. Tweed
Firth of Clyde
R. Ayr
R. Nith
Mull of Cantyre
NORTH CHANNEL
R. Ken
Cheviot Hills
IRELAND
Mull of Galloway
Solway Firth
ENGLAND
Isle of Man

The tall, quaint old houses of the old town—eight or nine stories high sometimes—rise on the steep hill-side, street above street, in the strangest way. And at one end of this hill is the castle of Edinburgh, which looks so like the great rocks on which it is built that you might take it for part of the mountain pile.

At the other end of the old town is the beautiful palace of Holyrood, the home of the Scottish kings when Scotland had its own sovereign: and not only to ancient Holyrood, but to half the houses in the old streets, strange tales of other days belong.

Edinburgh is not a busy trading or manufacturing town like London; it is quite small in comparison; and perhaps the printing and publishing of books is the chief trade carried on there.

Sailing out of the Forth, and up the North Sea, we are warned that there is danger ahead by the lighthouse which stands opposite to the mouth of the Tay. As it is high water, this lighthouse seems to rise sheer out of the sea; but we know it must be built upon the Bell Rock, that famous Inchcape Rock to which belongs the story of the Abbot of Aberbrothok and his bell.

We have not time to go up the silver Tay, not even to see the seaport town of "bonnie Dundee."

Continuing northwards, we pass a rock-bound coast with huge caverns in the cliffs in which are swarms of sea-birds; and we row into one of these caverns with lighted torches, to the terror of the birds, which flap about us and scream in an alarming way. The Bullers of Buchan are famous arched rocks upon this coast.

Before reaching Buchan-Ness, we should have stopped on our way to see Aberdeen, a seaport town at the mouth of the Dee, as its name might tell us, for *Aber* means river mouth. We may see ships being laden at its wharves with a heavy freight—pillars, slabs, fountains, and other objects made of polished granite. There are granite quarries near the town; and much of this beautiful stone is brought here from the Cairngorm mountains also, to be polished in the famous granite works of Aberdeen.

Rounding the great eastern shoulder, a straighter shoulder than that of England, we go by a low straight coast towards the Moray Firth. If we enter this Firth, we may sail right through Scotland by the Caledonian Canal, which cuts the country in two, but we have yet much to see before we make for the west.

Northward still, up to Duncansby Head and across the boisterous Pentland Firth, we go, for we are bound for the Orkneys. How our little boat is tossed about in this stormy channel, and how thankful we are to near land! There is not much to repay us for our rough voyage. We land upon Pomona, the largest of the islands, and from there cruise about among the dozen or so of larger islands which are inhabited. There are over sixty of these Orkney Isles altogether, but of these, some forty barren and desolate islets are left altogether to the sea-fowl and rabbits. Those which are inhabited are dreary enough, consisting of little but wide heather wastes, huge boulders, sandhills full of rabbit warrens, swamps, and lakes. Occasionally, in a sheltered spot, a patch of corn is to be seen; and there are many fishing

villages on the shores. The people live upon fish, and trade with fish, and very fishy their villages smell. Cod-fish, lobsters, and herrings are sent hence to the London markets.

A sail across a channel nearly fifty miles wide brings us to another group of which we know something beforehand. We are familiar with the shaggy little Shetland ponies; and every one has seen the fine, beautiful knitting of the Shetland women, in veils and shawls and other woollen garments. Is it our fancy, or are these islands really more rainy and misty and desolate, more swampy and rocky than the Orkneys? Again we see rabbits disappearing in the sandhills; the islands swarm with them, and the Shetlanders make a good deal by selling their skins. These are a larger group of islands than the Orkneys, and as many as forty are inhabited. Mainland is the largest.

LESSON XII

THE OCEAN SHORES

Look at the map and you will see that the *Ocean* shore is the western shore, for much of Western Scotland is washed, not by some narrow sea, but by the broad Atlantic itself. Did you ever see such a ragged and broken coast, bordered by a perfect fringe of islands? There is one other country on the map of Europe with such another jagged edge—Norway, further to the north; and the shores of Norway, also, are ocean-washed.

Western Scotland is full of mountain ranges which end close to the shore, and between these ranges are long valleys, up which the ocean rushes, filling them, and thus we have the long deep "lochs" which cut up this coast.

A LOCH

Let us round Cape Wrath and sail down the western coast to explore some of these lochs. We need not enter more than two or three, for they are all much alike,—narrow mountain glens with a floor of sea. We are impressed by the stillness and strangeness of the scene, the awful height of the cliffs, and the clear depths of the loch, which reflects every bush, almost every blade of grass. Yet there are sounds in the stillness,—the endless calls of the sea-birds and the roar of the waves beyond the loch. Signs of life there are, too. Those white dots as big as mushrooms are sheep which have straggled high up the cliffs in search of the scanty herbage they yield. See! there is one now making for "fresh fields and pastures new." These mountain sheep become as nimble and sure-footed as goats. In another loch, not even a leaping goat disturbs the stillness; so sheer and steep do its mountain walls rise from the sea that there is no foothold for the surest-footed creature.

How is it that, being on the Atlantic, we do not see the sun set in the sea, but behind mountainous land which lies to the west? Those are the heights of the Hebrides, the Western Isles, several of which stretch in a long row that is sometimes called Long Island.

We are in the channel called the "Minch," and may either sail across to those *Outer* Hebrides, of which Lewis is the largest, or we may keep close to the mainland and explore Skye, the largest of the *Inner* Hebrides. These islands are not like the rather flat and dreary groups to the north-east. Many of them, Skye especially, are wild and beautiful, with mountains, waterfalls, and lakes;

and many summer visitors come to fish in the lochs or to shoot over the moors.

The islanders are busy enough, both in summer and winter; they fish, rear large herds of black cattle, and, in every house, they make enough cloth for their own clothes, and tables and benches for their use.

We must visit Iona, the Holy Island of Scotland, a bare little isle, where good missionaries lived and taught in days when Scotland was a pagan land.

Staffs, too, we must see, for the sake of its famous cavern, which looks as if cunning workmen had built its walls of countless regular columns of polished stone. It is about seventy yards long, and is one of the most remarkable caverns in the world.

We are anxious to get into the Firth of Clyde, and as there is a shorter way, we shall not round the curious long tongue of land called the Mull of Cantyre. We must be content to miss Jura, and Islay, the "Queen of the Hebrides." A canal has been cut across the top of the long "Mull," through which we go, and soon find ourselves in the lovely Firth of Clyde. It is a broad, beautiful estuary, with islands rising out of it; its banks are high and wooded; and handsome houses, and pleasant bright watering-places stand among the trees. As we sail up the river we leave trees and pleasure places behind and find ourselves between long lines of building yards, where there are vessels in every stage of progress. Higher still, and we are among wharves full of sea-going ships, and presently we arrive at the large and busy seaport of Glasgow, the busiest town in Scotland.

Sailing down the narrow North Channel which divides Scotland from Ireland, we come out so close to the Isle of Man that we may as well run across. It is 30 miles long, and has two or three pleasant bathing-places on its shores. There is a range of hills in the middle of the island. The people are called Manx, and had formerly a strange language of their own. The herring fishery occupies many of the inhabitants, and others work in the lead mines and slate quarries of the island. One odd thing that everybody knows about the Isle of Man is that the Manx cats have no tails.

We have not time to explore the north-west coast of England, nor even to see the red headland of St. Bees. We make direct for Liverpool, the great seaport of the west, and one of the most famous in the world. What crowds of ships there are in its long line of docks!—ships from every part of the world. Many of these have come from America with cargoes of cotton, for Liverpool is the port to which all the raw cotton is brought for our great Lancashire manufacture.

LESSON XIII

THE PRINCIPALITY

WALES is "the Principality" now, because the eldest son of the English sovereign is Prince of Wales. At one time Wales had a prince of its own who spoke the native Welsh language. But these wild Welsh princes and their wilder people were troublesome neighbours to the English. They were constantly breaking over the border, and carrying off crops and cattle.

To put an end to this state of things the English king, Edward I, came with an army, conquered Wales, and had the last of the Welsh princes put to death at Shrewsbury. Most likely you know what followed; how the Welsh were so sad to lose their chief that the king promised them another native prince who could not speak a word of English, and brought out his own little baby son, born in Carnarvon Castle, at least so the story goes.

English is spoken in some of the towns now, but the country people understand only their native tongue. Follow a group of market-women as they trot along the road, knitting in hand and chattering fast in Welsh, and you feel you are really in a foreign country; and

quite foreign these women look in their tall beaver hats, something like the tall hats worn by men in England, and their handsome cloaks.

The word "Wales" means "foreign," land of the foreigners. This name was given to the country by the Saxons who conquered England, because they looked on the people of Wales as foreigners. But, in fact, the Welsh should have been a great deal more at home in England than these Saxon conquerors, for they were the old British people to whom all Britain once belonged. They were driven westward to take shelter in this mountain land by these strangers from over the sea; and there they have remained ever since.

To turn them out of Wales was too hard a task for any English king; for the country is full of mountains and ravines and wild hiding-places, where the natives were safe, because no English army could find them out.

Now, however, Wales is quite a part of England, and numbers of English people go every year to spy out these secret hiding-places. For many parts of this mountain country are exceedingly beautiful, and there is no pleasanter way of spending a summer holiday than in exploring the lovely valleys and majestic mountains of North Wales.

Tourists generally enter Wales by way of the city of Chester; we may follow the Dee valley as far as the lovely Vale of Llangollen, or we may go by the north coast, where there is much to be seen. First, we stop at Holywell, a rather large and busy town, to see the well of Saint Winifred. This is a wonderful spring which is

always pouring out an immense stream of water; and for centuries it was believed that whoever drank of this water would be cured of whatever disease he had. Saint Winifred was a holy maiden whose head was struck off by a cruel knight; and where the head fell, says the legend, this beautiful spring gushed out; wherefore it was a *holy* well with power to work miraculous cures. But people are too wise nowadays to believe these pretty legends.

We walk out upon Great Orme's Head and are nearly blown away by the strong wind; and we go over the old castle of Conway; and then go on to Bangor, to see the huge Penrhyn slate quarries, in which hundreds of men swarm like so many ants. From Bangor, we cross the Menai Bridge, a wonderful suspension bridge hung so high above the Menai Straits that the largest ships can pass full-sail underneath. Or we may get by rail into the island of Anglesea, across the famous Britannia Bridge. It was found necessary to make this railway bridge, which is more than a quarter of a mile long, because many persons go from Chester to Anglesea, in order to take the Dublin packet from Holyhead. These used to be ferried over to the island; but in stormy weather no boat could cross the strait, and the passengers ran the risk of missing the steamboat which should take them to Ireland. We see the copper-mines of Anglesea, and return by one of the bridges, for we wish to get to Carnarvon, that we may go over the castle where the first English Prince of Wales was born.

And now we are near one of the great sights of North Wales, the mighty Snowdon, the monarch of

British mountains; or, at any rate, the highest south of the Clyde (3590 feet). There he stands, with his three great summits of nearly equal height, surrounded by other lofty mountains, as a king by his noble courtiers. Indeed, nearly the whole of Wales is full of mountains: towering heights, and deep glens, and lovely vales, and waterfalls, meet us everywhere.

Going almost due south from Snowdon, through the beautiful mountainous county of Merioneth, we reach Cader Idris, another of the giants of the land. And, further south, almost in a line with the other two, is the huge mass of Plynlimmon, which, like Snowdon, has three summits. We must climb this mountain and search in its bosom for the source of the Severn, the queen of our English rivers.

A good deal of Central Wales, though mountainous, is not beautiful: it is a dreary waste of craggy height and moor and marsh. And the black mountains of South Wales receive their name from the dark and gloomy appearance they present—especially when the heather is not in bloom.

There is a very large coalfield in South Wales, and at Swansea there are great smelting works to which the copper ore of Cornwall is sent to be *smelted,* that is, to have the copper melted, and so separated from the earth it is mixed with.

We have not had time to visit Dolgelly and Welshpool and the other flannel-making towns of North Wales. Nor can we see St. David's Head, nor Milford Haven, the fine harbour in Pembrokeshire.

LESSON XIV

THE WESTERN HORN

Just because the coast of this strangely shaped horn is the most beautiful and interesting part of our English seaboard, we must not linger now to explore it. This western horn begins at the mouth of the Severn and stretches westward to the Land's End, pushing boldly forth into the stormy ocean, and nearly every mile of the way has some beauty or interest.

We start from Bristol, the second great seaport of the west, in whose harbour are crowded ships from the south and east, ships from the warm countries round the Mediterranean, and ships from Ireland; and these have brought in stores of good things, dried fruits and wine, butter and bacon. On we go, past the lovely cliff-coasts of North Devon, where shrubs and flowering plants grow down to the water's edge. The towns and villages are perched upon the high cliffs, or nestle in snug green valleys with rocky walls. The Cornish coast is more rugged than that of Devon, but nothing can be more beautiful than the little *porths,* or inlets where the broken cliffs let in the sea.

As we sail towards the Land's End, we can see the

Cornish heights swelling, rugged and bare, all through the middle of the peninsula. Barren as they look, we know that these hills and moors are really rich; that thousands of miners are constantly at work, digging out the veins of tin and copper ore which run under this rough crust.

LAND'S END

How the people are swarming upon the beach! and what are those boats about? We are below the town of St. Ives, and the *pilchards* are coming; we can see the great shoal darkening the waters in the distance. The fishers are letting out the huge *seine* net, with which they catch millions in a single taking. And now we are at the Land's End itself—a good name for this lofty granite table, round which the furious ocean dashes and roars! *Land's End* indeed, for between it and far distant America is nothing but the wide Atlantic waters.

Past Mount's Bay, and round to the Lizard we go; and here we must see the caves, the Parlour and the Drawing-room, whose walls are of a beautiful striped rock of various colours.

We pass the Eddystone, and wonder how it was possible to build a lighthouse so far out to sea. As a storm is rising, we make for Plymouth Sound; for once within the *Breakwater,* we know we are safe. This huge stone wall, rising from the sea-bottom, keeps out the breakers, and the waters within the Sound are still as a lake. Plymouth is a busy town, being a large *naval* port to which the ships of the navy come and go. There is a famous dockyard here where these ships are built or repaired and supplied with everything necessary for a long voyage.

We must not stop to look at the beautiful *combes* of South Devon; these are valleys between hill ranges, where the villages nestle amongst apple orchards. Nor can we go up the Exe, to see the city of Exeter, the "Queen of the West." As we pass the Dorset coast, we notice Portland Point, a curious long narrow tongue of land which stretches far into the sea. Presently, we are once more in Spithead, the spot we started from; and we *know* that Great Britain is an island, because we have sailed round it.