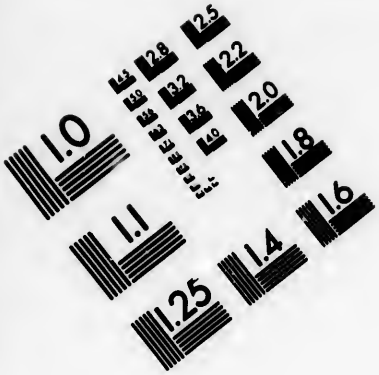

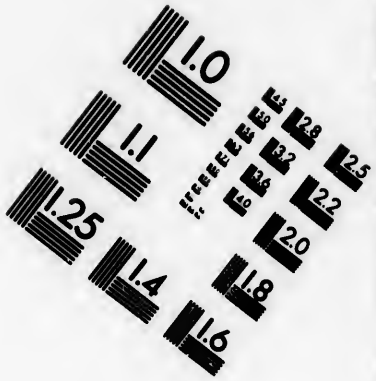

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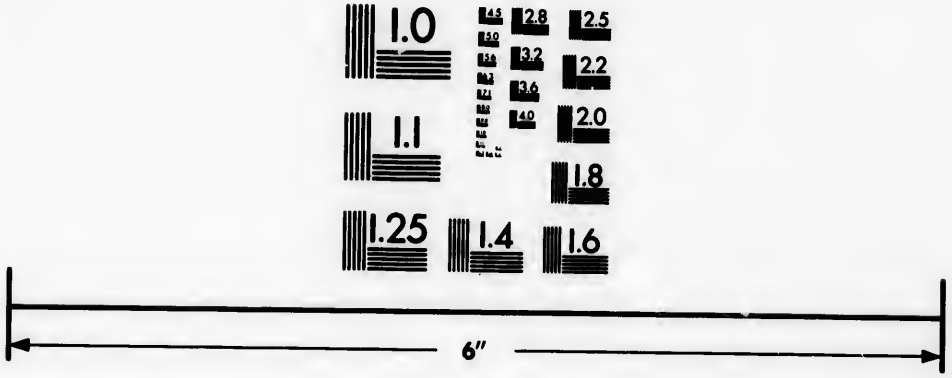

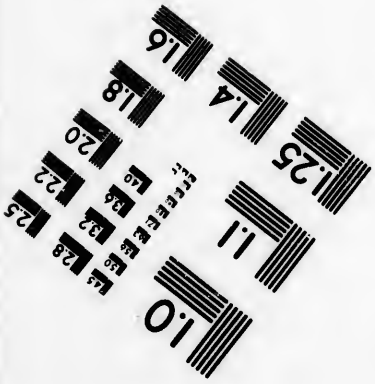

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THE

GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY

OF

NOVA SCOTIA,

WITH A GENERAL OUTLINE OF GEOGRAPHY AND A SKETCH OF THE BRITISH POSSESSION

IN

NORTH AMERICA.

BY

J. B. CALKIN,

HEAD MASTER OF THE PROVINCIAL MODEL SCHOOL, TRURO.

HALIFAX, N. S.:

A. & W. MACKINLAY.

1859.

PREFACE.

"Of making many books there is no end", is a statement which has lost none of its force by the lapse of time, and it is especially appropriate, when applied to the unlimited tendency to multiply school books.

To every thinking and practical mind, the appearance of a new book suggests the question *cui bono*—what benefits will accrue? And an additional question is involved in the call to discriminate between competitors for the same honors.

It can be no breach of modesty to state what are the excellencies claimed by this work above those already in the field, as such a claim is sufficiently implied in its publication.

The attention of educationists is invited to the Introductory Outline, as an important peculiarity. Nova Scotia ought most assuredly to be the first country of special attention to the pupils of our schools; but it is maintained that a general view of the whole globe is essential to the attainment of a complete and clear idea of any part of it. Hence the importance of the outline. To prevent any misapprehension, it may be proper to state that this part of the work, is not by any means designed to bring the book into competition with a general geography; it is merely preparatory to the Geography of Nova Scotia.

A second feature distinguishing this book from the Geography of Nova Scotia in general use, is the arrangement of things of the same kind, as rivers, lakes, &c., under their respective heads. This plan is much better adapted to facilitate the progress of the learner.

Whilst in the departments of Geology and Natural History it is but due to the learned Author of "the

Hand Book of Nova Scotia", to state that valuable information has been obtained from that little book, yet it is believed that these subjects are, in this work, presented in a form better suited to the capacities and tastes of children.

Without condescending upon particulars, it may be added that the historical facts interspersed throughout the work, as well as the historical sketch of Nova Scotia, give it a peculiar adaptation to the wants of our schools. History and Geography are counterparts of each other and ought, at least to some extent, to be studied simultaneously. The history of our Province has been greatly neglected in our schools, and it is apprehended that a great cause for this neglect is the want of a suitable text book.

In preparing the work, the best authorities attainable have been consulted. Special acknowledgment is due to Dawson's Geography of Nova Scotia, and Acadian Geology, Hodgin's Geography and History of British America, Gesner's Industrial Resources, Haliburton's History of Nova Scotia.

SUGGESTIONS TO THE TEACHER.

The Author would introduce this little work to the Teachers of the Province by a few preliminary remarks on the age at which the study of Geography should be commenced and the initiatory course to be pursued.

According to the old regime, this study was not entered upon until the pupil had been at school several years and had made considerable progress in reading, writing, and arithmetic. Pursuing this system, which is not yet by any means extinct, when the child could read pretty well, he commenced the study of geography by committing to memory several pages of definitions. If he recited the lesson verbatim as in the book, all right;—it was not for a moment supposed that anything else was necessary on the part of the teacher than to ask the questions at the bottom of the page, or on the part of the scholar than to answer such questions.

Such a system cannot be too strongly condemned, nor too soon abandoned. It is as tedious to the child, as it is unadapted to develop the germs of intellect. To make all the exercises of young children at school consist in enunciating a few words, or it may be letters, three or four times a day, is to treat them like parrots, only capable of imitating sounds, and to require them at a more advanced age to enter upon a study like geography, by committing to memory some hundred or more dry definitions which they repeat as so many familiar sounds, with no distinct idea of their meaning, is equally unsuited to the nature of the children, and calculated to give them a distaste for the study.

Geography contains milk for babes, as well as stronger aliment for those of riper years. Hence before the child can read a word—aye, before he knows the alphabet, when he first crosses the threshold of the schoolhouse, let him commence the study of this branch of learning. Of course he commits no lesson from a book. The teacher introduces him to this study, as he should do to all others, by simple oral lessons, and in doing so he must remember that it is his grand attainment to descend to the level of his pupils. He must ever be on his guard that he become not a *barbarian* to the children, by speaking to them in an unknown tongue. Let him always bear in mind that words usually have no natural resemblance to the ideas they represent and cannot be understood but through some object of sense, or through some word previously understood. Hence a new word or technical term should always be accompanied with a familiar illustration, or be pictured out in language quite intelligible to the child.

It may also be well to notice here that by oral lessons is meant, not lecturing to the children, or telling them a great many facts in familiar language, whereby the receptive intellect alone shall be exercised; but such a combination of telling, ellipsis, and question, that the suggestive mind shall be awakened, the latent powers of thought shall be aroused, and the child taught experimentally and practically that he possesses within himself an ability to acquire knowledge;—in short a training of the mind, that is an exercising of its various powers.

For the benefit of such teachers as have not been trained at the Provincial Normal School, and are unacquainted with the Training System, subjoined is an example of the proper mode of conducting an oral lesson.

ORAL TRAINING LESSON.

THE MOLE.

"Tell me, children, where the Mole lives. *In the earth.** Under† . . . *the ground.* How may feet has it? *Four.* And it is therefore called . . . *a quadruped.* Where do most quadrupeds live? *Above the ground.* Right. Now, since animals live in such different situations, what should you expect them to be? (No answer.) Do you remember the lesson on birds? *Yes, Sir.* Well, what was said about land and water birds? *The water ones had webbed feet.* And why? *That they might swim.* But besides the swimming ones, there are some that go to the water and . . . *wade.* And what have they? *Long legs.* And besides they have very . . . *long necks*, and . . . *short tails.* What would a pheasant's or a peacocks tail be to them? *It would trouble them.* It would be . . . *cumbersome.* Without such a tail they are much more . . . *comfortable.* When you look at a land bird and a water one, and compare them, what do you notice? *A great difference in the way in which they are made.* What was the word that was formerly given, instead of the way in which they are made? *Structure.* Quite right; and they are made differently, or have a different . . . *structure*, because they differ in their . . . *ways of living*, or their . . . Who remembers the word that means ways of living? *Habits.* Now, all sit upright and attend. When you find an animal of a particular structure‡, what will you be led to think about. *That it has particular habits.* And if you are told that an animal lives in an uncommon place, or has particular habits, such as the mole, what will you expect it to be? *Of a particular structure.* All will now answer me. The form or structure of the animal is al-

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* The words in italics are answers of the children or ellipses filled up by them.

† The dots mark the ellipses.

‡ This word has, in some preceding lesson, been pictured out.

ways well fitted . . . *to its way of living*. All again. The habits and structure of the animal always . . . *agree —suit one another very well*. We will now hear this boy in the lowest seat repeat it . . . . Quite correct. Many of you, I dare say, have seen what the mole makes in the fields? *Molehills*. If you take away the earth, what will you find below? *A round hole*. What size? *Like the hole in our water pipe*. And out of this hole it has . . . *thrown all the earth*. In what direction does the hole go? *Downwards*. Yes for a little, and then it goes far . . . *along*. I perceive most of you have seen mole-hills. Now hands up, all who have seen a mole. Only two or three have seen the animal itself Let us try to find, then, what kind of body would be best . . . *fitted* for its . . . *place of living*—and its . . . *way of living*. What does it feed upon, do you think? *Worms and insects*. And what must it do to get them? *It must dig in the earth*. Just like a . . . *miner*—or a . . . *collier*. But then the miner, when he makes his way under ground, has . . . *picks and shovels*. What will the mole use? *Its feet—its nose*. When this boy speaks of its nose, what other animal is he very likely thinking of? *A pig*. And which uses its nose for the . . . *same purpose*—for the purpose of . . . *digging*. It digs for . . . *roots*. But as the mole has more digging than a pig, besides its nose, what will it also use? *Its feet, its legs*. Which? *Its fore feet*. It will chiefly use its . . . *two fore feet* for the purpose of . . . *digging*. What do you observe on the toes of animals? *Nails, claws*. Since the fore feet have so much more work than the hinder ones, you would expect them to be . . . *stronger*. Yes they are very . . . *strong*, and you would say, such strength is . . . *very necessary*. What kind of legs do you think will be most convenient under ground? *Long—short*. Whether will a tall or a short man get along a coal mine more easily? *A short one*. But the mole, if it had long legs, might make its hole . . . *larger*, (says a little girl.) That is quite true, and in a large hole or gallery, a long-legged mole would go

along as . . . *easily* as a *short-legged one* would do in a. . . *small one*. But if the mole were to make a large hole, it would have more . . . *work*, and if more work, it must take a . . . *longer time*. Now if moles are like children, they will be anxious to save their . . . *time* and . . . *labor*. Which legs, then, will best fit the mole to save labor and time? *Short ones*. Short ones will be more . . . *convenient*. With short legs their work . . . *will be less*.

When a dog scrapes away the earth where does he put it? *He throws it under his body*. Yes—between his body and the ground there is plenty of . . . *room*, because his legs are . . . *long*. But with legs very short, the lower part of the mole's body almost . . . *touches the ground*. And if it touches the ground, in what way will it be better to throw the earth? *Away by the sides*. All will repeat. The earth will be . . . *thrown back*—not under its . . . *body*, but . . . *by the sides*. And why? *Because of its short legs*. As it throws the earth back with its feet, what do they answer for? *A shovel*. Right; and a shovel is . . . *broad*. When it digs, it uses its . . . *feet* like a . . . What do laborers use to break up hard ground? *A pick*. Therefore its feet must be . . . *sharp* and . . . What else? *Strong*; and when the earth is loosened, it uses them for a . . . *Shovel*—therefore the mole's feet should be . . . *broad*.

You told me before that the nose was . . . *sharp*, and round the shoulders how do you think it will be? *Thick*. How will the body be towards the hinder parts? *Smaller—Thicker*. Some say thicker, and one says smaller. Let us see. If this were the hole (drawing it on the black-board), and the body of the mole were large behind in this way—if it were to throw the soil back what would happen? *It would not get past*. What would not get past? *The earth would not get past*—past the . . . *hinder part of the mole*. Surely; and then the mole could not . . . *get forward*. When it has got a quantity of soil past its body, what will it do with it? *Push it all back*. Yes out of the . . . *mouth of the hole*. All will now tell me the shape the

mole should be of. You have heard that its nose should be . . . *sharp and strong*—its feet . . . *broad*—its shoulders . . . *thick*—and its body growing rather . . . *smaller behind.* What do you think the body is covered with? *Fur.* And whether should it be soft or stiff. Suppose an enemy of the mole to meet it in front, what would the mole do? *Run away.* But before it could run, what must it do? Turn in the hole. But you remember the hole is just about the width of its body —what must it do? *Go backwards.* Yes, it will run backwards till it comes to some . . . *opening* or . . . *hole below*, and then it will run . . . How? *Forwards.* When it runs backwards, the hair would . . . *rub against the sides of the hole*, and the hair would be . . . *raised* or . . . *ruffled.* And if it were stiff, it would be just like a . . . *brush.* What, then, would be done if it were to be brushing all the way backwards? *The earth would tumble in.* Right; and it would get into . . . *a heap* , and the poor mole would be . . . *stopt*, and . . . What would happen to the mole? *It would be caught.* Now, what kind of hair would be best? *Soft fur.* Right ; and if very soft when you draw your hand along the head, it will be nearly as smooth as when you . . . *draw it the other way.* Besides, if it were stiff, when the earth is moist, the animal would become . . . How? *Dirty*—the soil would stick on the . . . *stiff hairs* ; but if it were soft, the soil or earth would . . . *fall off again*, and it would still be . . . *clean.*

When earth or dust is falling all around us, as when the mole is digging, what are we afraid of? *Our eyes.* Quite right ; our eyes are very . . . *easily hurt.* There are some animals, like the hare, that have very large eyes, but besides being large, they are very . . . *they stand out.* Another word for standing out? *Prominent* All will repeat the word that means standing out. *Prominent.* The hare's eyes are large and . . . *prominent.* And if the mole had such eyes, what would you say? *They would be hurt—they would be in the way.* What must we have besides eyes that we may see?

Light. And where does the mole chiefly live? *Under ground.* And under ground it is . . . *very dark.* When a collier goes down into the pit, he takes a . . . *lamp*; but as the mole has no lamp, having eyes in the dark . . . *would be useless.* Will it have any need of eyes at all? *No, Sir.* This boy perhaps remembers hearing people say to others, You are as . . . *blind as a mole.* I must tell you that sometimes the mole comes above the ground, then eyes will be . . . *useful.* But as it is oftenest under ground among falling earth, you say they should not be . . . *large*, and especially they should not be . . . *standing out* or . . . *prominent.* All will now repeat; the eyes should be . . . *small and low*, that is sunk in . . . Where? *a hollow place.* And if sunk in a hollow place, what would happen? *They would not be easily hurt.*

We shall now go over the chief points once more, all answering. You think it should have its nose . . . *sharp* and . . . *strong*, its legs . . . *short*, feet . . . *broad* —to make its way . . . *through the earth.* Its body thick at . . . *shoulders*—towards the tail rather . . . *smaller*—that earth may get . . . How? *Easily past.* Its fur would require to be . . . *very soft*, and its eyes prominent or how? *Small and sunk.*

Now, look at this stuffed mole and compare it with what you have told me. Everything that you could think of, and a great . . . *deal more*, has been given by . . . *God* to make the mole . . . *happy*, and to add to its . . . *comfort.* At once, you see here the Creator's . . . *wisdom*, and . . . *power*—and . . . What else? Goodness to suit it for the kind of life God desired it should . . . *lead*"—*Stow's Training System.*

It would be impracticable to give here more than a brief outline of this introductory course of oral lessons on Geography. But a hint to the wise is sufficient. Indeed the skilful teacher before a class of children, would not restrict himself to anything more than a general outline of a previously formed plan. Even if he is himself the author of that plan, he will in the school

room, be irresistibly drawn away in the details, to new illustrations and new trains of thought, not entering into his original scheme, drawn up in the study. The illustrations he had chosen perhaps fail in presenting the subject in a clear light to the children, or to some of them, he must look about for new illustrations; he discovers dark spots in their minds, not anticipated in his preparation, he must furnish an extempore light to dispel the shadows;—he is excited by the presence of the children, hanging upon his words, to a brilliancy of thought and a clearness of expression, unattainable in other circumstances. By no means, however, does this preclude the importance of preparation on the part of the teacher. He should clearly understand his subject and have distinctly delineated in his mind, the main features of the course to be pursued.

In commencing a course of oral lessons in geography with young children, a good idea to fix in their minds first, is the cardinal points of the compass. They will obtain this easily from the position of the sun at different times of day, and will at once be able to point out the north, east, south, west sides of the school room. They may then be required to point out everything in the room, and name various qualities of the room as well as the furniture, &c. The teacher having taken some object, as the desk, and drawn from the children an account of everything pertaining to it,—size, form, qualities, uses, etc., he may tell them that such an account of the desk is called a *description* of it, or that they have *described* it—that a description of the desk is a writing or telling of all we know about it. Various objects before them may then be described, until they attain the clearest conceptions of the meaning of the term. The teacher may next picture out the word *surface*, by reference to the outside and inside of his desk, and show them the difference between a description of the surface and the interior. This should also be extended to other objects, until all fully comprehend the meaning of *a description of the surface*. The character

and uses of a map may be illustrated by drawing upon the black-board a representation of the school room, as it would appear to one looking down through the ventilator. Or the attention of the children may be called to the appearance which the village or adjacent district would present from the top of a high tree, the summit of a hill, or the tower of the church. If the teacher have not a map of the locality to lay before the children, he should draw one upon the blackboard. The children may then be asked to give a description of the territory delineated on the map.

All may now be invited to take an imaginary journey to the adjoining neighbourhood or village. And in order to enlist the attention and interest of the children, the place chosen may be the residence of the grandfather, uncle, or brother of some of the pupils. The forests, cultivated fields, plains, valleys, hills, streams, &c., met with on the way, will form proper objects of notice and description. In this way the whole country for a few miles around should be brought as vividly as possible before their minds, and represented to them by a map. Within this space, objects will be met with, affording the teacher ample opportunity of illustrating many principles of Geography as well as the terms usually given to the pupil at a more advanced age, to be committed to memory as geographical definitions. Let us suppose for instance, that their attention is called to the inequalities of the earth's surface. When the children look upon the floor, or perhaps upon the playground, they see all smooth or level; not so when they look abroad upon the surrounding country. Here is a depression—a valley, there an elevation—a hill; yonder is a little hill, in some other place a great one, and away in the distance, they see a very high one,—a *mountain*, not differing from the small hill in kind, but in degree. Suppose twenty or thirty such mountains piled up one upon the other; what a vast mountain! How little this one beside it; but far away there are mountains of such greatness.

Or a stream of water, a brook or a river is the subject of the lesson. As they stand upon the bridge, they see the waters moving forward, they throw in a stick, it is carried along by the water. Why does the water flow? or why in one direction, rather than another? Water poured upon the floor, remains stationary, upon the slope of the desk, it seeks the lower part. How shall we find the highest spot upon the desk? It is that point to which no water will flow,—the water runs away from that point with all speed. So on the land. Follow up the stream and search out from what quarter the waters proceed. Here is a little brook, there another, and farther up a third, all pouring in their waters to make the large stream;—the little streams *give*, or *bestow*, or *contribute* their waters to the large one; they are *givers*, or *bestowers* or *tributaries*. But the little streams get their waters from some source. Search it out. Away back in the country, on some rugged mountain's side, the little stream issues forth from the gushing spring, and the gushing spring gets its waters drop by drop as they trickle down among the stones from the surface. Here then the moral lesson, "Despise not the day of small things." Good beginnings, however feeble, lead to great results, and so with bad ones.

But here is a stream which flows from a large pond. The children know what a pond is. They have seen the frog pond, or the mill pond. The waters here do not seem to be so restless as in the river, they are still. But why does the water remain here? Let the teacher form a gentle inclined plane with a board containing a deep indentation. Water poured into this, is held there as in a basin, until it rises to the level of the lowest side, where it flows out and forms a stream. If all sides have the same elevation, when the basin is full, the waters will overflow all sides at the same time. The basin of the frog pond was formed by the removal of the earth, or it is some naturally low spot, surrounded on all sides, by higher ground. The miller made

his basin by raising an embankment of earth. But the pond from which the stream flows is a very large one ; it is called a *lake*. Its basin was formed naturally by low ground surrounded by that of greater elevation. One side is lower than the others, here the stream takes its rise. The children may then be led to the enquiry, after the source from which the lake derives its waters and may be told that in some places there are lakes vastly larger. They have now seen the origin of the river, but to what place is it hasting away? If the locality is inland, the teacher must picture out the sea ; but at this stage, it will be sufficient to represent it as simply a vast expanse of water ; it will not be necessary to go into particulars. Of what use is the river will now form a proper subject of investigation. Thus one feature after another can be brought before the class, the teacher ever aiming to lead the children by a way which will enable them to find out things for themselves, rather than to tell them the facts, and let him bear in mind that his ultimate aim in these first lessons is not so much to impart information respecting the localities around him, as to exercise the minds of the children, to give them a clear idea of the nature of the objects with which Geography deals, and to make them acquainted with geographical terms, thus laying a foundation for a subsequent superstructure.

Having thus prepared the way, the pupils are ready to begin their specific work, Geography properly so called, which they do by contemplating the earth as a whole, for no complete idea of a part can be obtained until they know the grand outlines of the whole globe. They should be taught the form of the earth, its magnitude compared with some known object, its motions, its great divisions, &c. ; they should be made to understand also that every little spot on the surface has its peculiar features and admits of a description similar to that which they had already given of the locality around them ; that a description of the surface of the earth is called Geography, something written or said about the Earth.

In order to give the children an idea of the form, motions, &c., of the earth, verbal descriptions and even maps are insufficient. There must be something presented to the eye so like the thing to be illustrated, that the idea can be acquired without much demand upon the imagination. Every school should be provided with globes; but in the absence of these the best spherical bodies that can be obtained must supply their place. The whole future course should be a system of outline and gradual filling up, taking the physical features first, then the political. Of course in these oral lessons, a great amount of important matter is omitted altogether, as too difficult for the comprehension of young children, and remains for that second or third course when a book is placed in their hands.

Whilst such a system of oral lessons is being pursued, as well as in a more advanced stage, much geographical knowledge can be, and ought to be conveyed in an incidental manner. The name of some country or city is by some circumstance brought before the class. The teacher fixes upon this place, making it the subject of an oral lesson. For instance in the reading lesson, the sentence occurs, Ivory comes from Africa. Here ivory, the elephant, his nature and habits, and the country in which he lives, are made the subject of an oral lesson.

When the child is sufficiently advanced to use a text book, he should first be shown the earth in its more obvious relations to the heavenly bodies; then he should pursue a system of outline more full than in the course of oral lessons, until he come to his own country which he ought invariably to make the first object of particular investigation.

If the preparatory oral lessons have been faithfully followed out, it will be found, when the child takes the book, that the learning of geographical definitions and technical terms, has been, in a large measure, anticipated. With respect to new terms that may occur, let the same plan of picturing out, be pursued. No one would think of giving to a pupil about to commence

the study of Greek, the lexicon to commit to memory in order to prepare him for translating. The scholar learns the words as he finds them in his reading lesson. Why not pursue the same course with the student in Geography. The proper time to get the meaning of a technical term or difficult word, is on the first occasion when its use becomes necessary; then it is the teacher's duty to picture out the term or word so that its meaning can be apprehended by all.

At the end of this work a vocabulary of geographical terms and other difficult words with their roots and meanings, is given. To this the pupil can refer as in his progress he meets with words which he does not understand. Difficult words have not been shunned in any case. They afford the teacher an opportunity of picturing out orally, which conveys the idea more forcibly than any circumlocution of words in a book. Such words too when fully understood are like the apothecary's essences,—*multum in parvo*—far more convenient and effective than a bundle of herbs.

INTRODUCTION.

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL OUTLINE.

THE EARTH.—When children look out upon a clear night and see the moon and stars which stud the vault of heaven, they think, "What pretty bright things these are",—never supposing all the while that the earth upon which they are standing is just like many of these distant heavenly bodies—that if they could get away to the moon and look back, the earth would then appear just as bright and beautiful as the moon does now, and very much larger.

The earth is a large globe or ball which is ever moving along through space and whirling around as it moves along. It belongs to a class of heavenly bodies called planets which revolve round the sun, as their common centre, deriving from it light and heat; the sun and its attendant planets are called the solar system.

The earth is 95,000,000 of miles from the sun, around which it revolves in about 365 days.

The immense distance of the earth from the sun can be the more easily realized from the fact, that if there was a railroad all the way, a car going at the rate of a mile a minute, would be 180 years in travelling from the one body to the other. Some of the planets are very much larger than the earth and some are a great deal farther from the sun.

The earth is a ball nearly 8000 miles in diameter, and nearly 25,000 miles in circumference. We live upon the outside or surface of the earth, and of course are whirled around with it, as it turns upon its axis and carried forward with it, as it moves around the sun.

The axis of the earth upon which it turns is an imaginary line passing through the centre of the earth North and South. The ends of the axis are called the poles—the North pole—and the South pole.

A circle equidistant from the poles, passing round the earth East and West dividing it into two equal portions, called Northern and Southern Hemispheres, is called the Equator. The distance from pole to pole is called breadth or latitude, the distance East and West longitude.

Latitude is measured from the Equator to the poles, north of the Equator is north latitude, south of it—south latitude.

Longitude is measured from a line passing from one pole to another, through Greenwich in England. East of this line, half way round the world, is east longitude, and West half way, West longitude.

Around the Earth East and West are five belts or zones, covering its whole surface, and differing in climate and productions:—the torrid zone, embracing the middle or warmest portions of the earth, the North and South temperate zones—the intermediate portions, and the North and South frigid zones—around the poles, the coldest.

The two most obvious divisions of the earth's surface are land and water, in the proportions of about one-fourth land and three-fourths water.

But the land is not all in one place and the water

in another; here we find a patch of land and there a sheet of water, scattered over the earth's surface.

There are however two portions of land much larger than the others, situated upon opposite sides of the globe, these large portions of land are called continents,—the Eastern and the Western continents.

The Eastern continent is much the larger; it contained all the ancient empires and indeed comprised all the civilized world until about 200 years ago, and is often called the Old World. It includes three great divisions: Europe, Asia, and Africa.

The Western continent was entirely unknown to the rest of the world until the year 1492 when it was discovered by Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa. Its inhabitants were then in a savage or half-civilized condition, from whom have sprung the present Indian tribes of America. It comprises two divisions, North America and South America.

In addition to these two continents there are many smaller portions of land called islands. The greater part of the insular land surface of the globe is situated to the South-East of the Eastern continent, and is called by the general term Oceanica.

Thus we have the principal land surface of the earth included in these six divisions;—Europe, Asia, Africa, North America, South America and Oceanica.

EUROPE has the greatest extent of coast in proportion to its size and hence possesses the greatest facilities for commerce;—here also are found the most powerful nations, the most celebrated institutions of learning, and the most extensive cultivation of the arts and sciences.

Europe was the seat of two of the great ancient empires, Greece and Rome.

The former occupied the Eastern peninsula still known by the name of Greece and was distinguished for poetry, science, and architecture.

The latter occupied the central peninsula now called Italy; it extended its conquests over a large part of Europe, and from its ruins have arisen many of the modern European nations.

The most powerful nations of Europe are Great Britain, France, Russia, Austria and Prussia.

ASIA is the largest of the six divisions, and contains the loftiest mountains in the world; it is noted as the cradle of the human race, as the place in which was transacted most of the events recorded in the Bible, also, for its ancient empires, particularly the Assyrian, Babylonian and Medo-Persian.

AFRICA is distinguished for the regularity of its coasts, its extensive deserts, hot climate, the barbarism of its inhabitants, and the size and ferocity of its wild animals; its ancient empires were Egypt and Carthage, the former noted for its civilization and learning, and the latter for its commerce.

AMERICA is noted for its high mountains, its large rivers, and fresh water lakes. Shortly after its discovery the English, French, Spaniards and Portuguese came across the Atlantic, subdued the native Indians and established colonies in the country. The colonists were for some time subject to their respective Governments in Europe; but the greater number of them have subsequently thrown off their allegiance to European powers, and organized independent governments. America is about 9000 miles in length extending from the Arctic ocean about 75° N. Lat. to Cape Horn 56° S. Lat., and about 3,500 miles in breadth at the North—becoming narrower towards

the South until it is reduced to about 40 miles at the isthmus of Panama ; then it suddenly expands and forms another large territory, similar to that in the north. Its entire area is about 15,000,000 square miles, and its population about 55,000,000.

OCEANICA consists wholly of islands in the Pacific and Indian Oceans, the largest of which is Australia, celebrated for its rich gold mines. Oceanica is usually divided into Malaisia, Australasia, and Polynesia.

OCEANS.—The water surface of the earth is divided into five great oceans: Atlantic, Pacific, Indian, Northern, and Southern.

The Atlantic lies between the old and new world having Europe and Africa on the East and America on the West, it is about 3,000 miles in breadth.

The Pacific also separates the great continents having America on the East and Asia on the West, it is three times as broad as the Atlantic.

The Indian ocean lies to the South of Asia and between the Pacific and Africa.

The Northern or Arctic lies around the North pole and the Southern or Antarctic around the South pole.

CHAPTER II.

NORTH AMERICA.

North America contains about 8½ millions of square miles, and it possesses almost every variety of climate and vegetable productions.

The following are the principal political divisions;

Russian America 500,000 sq. m. in the N. W.

British America 3,600,000 sq. m.

Danish America or Greenland 380,000 sq. m.

United States 3,000,000

Mexico 830,000 sq. m.

Central America 200,000 sq. m.

In addition to the above there is a number of islands between North and South America called the West Indies, noted for the rich tropical produce with which they have supplied the civilized world during the last two centuries. They consist of four large and many smaller islands.

The four large islands, known as the Great Antilles, are Cuba, Hayti, Jamaica, and Porto Rico.

The smaller islands are subdivided into the following groups: Bahamas, Carribbee Islands, Little Antilles and Bermudas.

Russian America is a frozen region abounding in seals and fur-bearing animals to which it owes its principal importance. New Archangel on Sitka island is the chief town.

Greenland is also an inhospitable country similar in climate and products to Russian America. It has belonged to the Danes for several centuries. The inhabitants, called Esquimaux, are of a dwarfish size and filthy in their habits. There are no towns. The Moravian missionaries have a few stations on the West coast.

British America extends from about 42° to 72° N. Lat.; it is about 3,000 miles in length from East to West, and nearly 2,000 miles in breadth. Its population is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions. The northern part is in the temperate zone and possesses a climate and vegetation similar to other temperate regions.

The western coast is much colder in the same latitude than the Eastern. A large portion of this territory was wrested from the French who originally colonised it,—and many of the inhabitants are of French extraction.

United States.—This is a large and highly important division of North America, situated between 25° and 49° N. Lat, and hence is wholly in the North Temperate zone. The length from East to West is 2,400 miles and the breadth 1,600 miles. The population is 24 millions.

This country possesses many grand and beautiful natural features such as lofty mountains, large rivers, majestic waterfalls, extensive lakes, and wide spreading plains. Its great river, the Mississippi, is the largest river in the world; the lakes between British America and the United States are the largest fresh

water accumulations. The climate and soil are very varied, being in the east adapted to grazing and esculents, in the middle and west, to wheat, indian corn &c., in the south, to rice, cotton, sugar cane, and the choicest fruits. In the southern states the labor is performed principally by African slaves. The manufactures and commerce are very extensive. The inhabitants are distinguished for their activity, enterprise, and general intelligence.

There are many large and beautiful cities as New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Boston, Cincinnatti and New Orleans. Washington on the Potomac is the capital. This country was colonized by the British; but became independent in 1776. The Government is republican.

Mexico, contains nearly a million of square miles and a population of about 7 millions. The interior is elevated table-land; the coasts are low and unhealthy; vegetation is varied according to the elevation; Indian corn, sugar cane, cotton, tobacco, indigo &c., grow luxuriantly.

The silver mines are valuable—although not so rich as formerly.

Mexico city, the capital, has a beautiful situation on the interior table land, 7000 ft. above the level of the sea.

When America was discovered the natives of Mexico were far more civilized than those of the north, they had large towns and possessed great wealth. The Spaniards, led on by Cortez, conquered them, treated them very cruelly, in order to obtain their riches, and at length took possession of their country.

Mexico revolted from Spain and became an independent republic in 1821.

CENTRAL AMERICA occupies the narrow part, in the south of North America, embracing several political divisions. The surface, climate, and productions are similar to those of Mexico; volcanoes are numerous, and the country is subject to violent earthquakes.

The states of Central America, including Guatemala, San Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica, were formerly subject to Spain; they gained their freedom in 1824, and are now independent republics. In addition to the above states are Yucatan and Balize or British Honduras. The latter is noted for its forests of mahogany and logwood, of which large quantities are exported.

CHAPTER III.

BRITISH AMERICA.

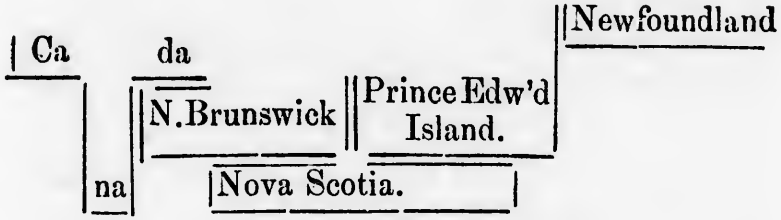
This portion of America forms a part of the widely extended BRITISH EMPIRE on which "the sun never sets." The British isles or Great Britain and Ireland form the centre of the Empire, and its colonial possessions are found in every part of the world. In respect to power, commerce, wealth, literature, and civilization, Great Britain ranks first among the nations of the earth. Its revenue is nearly one-third of that of all the states of Europe.

London with a population of $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions is the capital.

The British possessions in America are claimed by

the crown of England in right of discovery, settlement and treaty. They comprise:

The Territories
of
HUDSON'S BAY AND LABRADOR,
in the North,
and
The Provinces, or Colonies.



in
The Temperate Regions.

In addition to these colonies Great Britain owns
Balize in Central America,
British Guiana on the northern coast of S. America,
The Bermudas,
The Bahamas,
Jamaica, Trinidad, and several other important West India islands.

LABRADOR AND HUDSON'S BAY TERRITORY constitute about five-sixths of British America.

Labrador consists of the peninsula in the north east, between Hudson's Bay and the Straits of Belleisle. So short is the warm season here that even where the climate is mildest, it is with the greatest difficulty that a few vegetables can be brought to maturity. In

the southern parts and in the valleys, are found forests of birches and firs; as one goes to the north, these trees dwindle into shrubs, and at length, near the 60th parallel, even the shrubs disappear. The inhabitants are principally Esquimaux who subsist by hunting and fishing.

HUDSON'S BAY TERRITORY comprises all the British possessions west of Labrador and north of Canada and the United States. The 49th parallel of north latitude forms the boundary between this territory and the United States from the Pacific ocean nearly to Lake Superior. The climate and products of Hudson's Bay Territory are similar to those of Labrador, except an extensive country in the south-west called,

NEW CALEDONIA, situated between the Rocky mountains and the Pacific.

Here the climate is much milder and more like that of Canada. This is considered a fine country; but its resources have not yet been developed. Near the Fraser River, a large stream 500 miles in length, valuable gold mines have recently been discovered.

The British government in 1858 formed a new colony consisting of New Caledonia and

VANCOUVER'S ISLAND. This island is separated from the main land by the Gulf of Georgia. It lies between the parallels of 48° and 51° N. Lat.; it is about 290 miles long and 55 broad. It has a fine climate, there is but little frost, the spring is early, and the island is well adapted to agriculture.

The exports of Hudson's Bay Territory are furs, fish, oil, walrus-ivory, &c. The Hudson's Bay Company, organized about 200 years ago, enjoys, by Roy-

al charter, the exclusive privilege of trading with the natives.

The Company's charter expires in 1859.

CANADA is an extensive and important province including Canada West and Canada East. It lies between Hudson's Bay Territory and the United States and is separated from the latter by the great lakes. It is situated between the parallels of 42° and 51° N. Lat., containing an area of 35,800 sq. miles and a population of about $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions.

The climate is liable to the extremes of heat and cold, especially in the east; in the south-west it is more equable and temperate.

The soil is generally very fertile; the common cereals grow to perfection, and large quantities of flour are exported.

In 1856 the total value of exports was £8,000,000, to which agricultural products contributed £3,750,000, and produce of the forest £2,500,000. The revenue for 1856 was about 1,500,000.

The principal cities are:

CANADA WEST.

	Pop.
Toronto on lake Ontario	50,000
Hamilton " "	28,000
Kingston " "	15,000
London, on the river Thames	10,000

CANADA EAST.

Montreal on the St Lawrence	70,000
Quebec " "	45,000

Ottawa on a river of the same name is the capital—population 10,000.

This country was colonized by the French who retained possession of it until 1759, when Quebec was captured by Gen. Wolfe, and the whole country fell into the hands of the British. The French language, laws, and customs still prevail to a large extent in Canada East.

New Brunswick lies between 45° and 48° N. Lat., and 63° 50′ and 67° 50′ W. Lon. Its area is 27,620 sq. miles and its population 220,000.

This country is beautifully diversified with hill and dale but not mountainous. The soil is fertile and well watered. The river St. John, 450 miles long, is the most important river. It is navigable for large vessels to Fredericton, 84 miles from its mouth, small steamers ply to Woodstock 60 miles further up, and occasionally even to the Grand Falls 220 miles from the sea. Dense fogs prevail along the coast, but the climate is more temperate than in Canada East. Iron and coal are found in abundance. Timber and fish are the chief articles of export. Ship-building is extensively carried on and much facility for commerce is afforded by its extensive sea coast and excellent harbors.

The exports amount to about £1,750 000. St. John at the mouth of the river, is the principal city—population 35,000. Fredericton is the capital. Like Canada, this country formerly belonged to the French, it formed a part of the country called Acadia. It was finally ceded to the English in 1713, and became a separate province in 1784.

Nova Scotia is a valuable portion of British America, it consists of Nova Scotia proper or the peninsula, and the Island of Cape Breton. On the north are the Bay of Fundy, Chiegnecto Bay, a narrow isth-

mus connecting it with New Brunswick, Northumberland Strait, and the Gulf of St. Lawrence. On all other sides are the waters of the great Atlantic.

The province lies between 43° 25′ and 47° N. Lat. and 59° 40′ and 66° 25′ West Long., it has an area of about 18,600 sq. miles, and a population of about 300,000.

The surface is agreeably diversified with hill and dale; valuable minerals abound, especially coal and iron. The climate and soil are well suited to agriculture; the fisheries are very profitable; and no country in the world possesses greater commercial advantages. Halifax on the Atlantic is the capital—population about 30,000.

Nova Scotia was colonized by the French who called it, together with New Brunswick and the Eastern part of the United States, by the general name Acadia.

Prince Edward Island is a small but fertile island in the Gulf of St Lawrence. to the north of Nova Scotia from which it is separated by Northumberland Strait. It is between 45° 50′ and 47° 7′ N. Lat., and 62° and 64° 27′ minutes West Long. Length 130 miles; breadth 30 miles, including an area of 2,173 miles. The climate is temperate and salubrious. Agriculture is pursued successfully and the fisheries are productive. The population is about 72,000, nearly one half of which is Roman Catholic. The revenue is about £16,000. Charlottetown—the capital, is the only city; population 7,000.

It was discovered by Sebastian Cabot in 1497 on St John's day whence it derived the name St John's Island which it retained until 1800, when it received its present name, in honor of Prince Edward. It

was alternately in the hands of the French and English until 1758 when it was captured by the British.

NEWFOUNDLAND is a large island in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, distant from Cape Breton about 50 miles, from Labrador about 12 miles. It is between 46° 40′ and 51° 39′ N. Lat. and 52° 44′ and 59° 31′ W. Long.,—extreme length 419 miles, breadth 300, area 36,000 sq. miles.

The climate is severe, dense fogs prevail in the spring and early part of summer, grains do not ripen well, but vegetables and grasses flourish. The island is important on account of its position, forming a sort of stepping stone between the old and new world. It is nearer to Europe than any other part of America, the distance to Ireland being only 1,650 miles.

To the east and south of Newfoundland is a celebrated sub-marine plateau of great extent, called the banks of Newfoundland, forming the most celebrated cod fishery in the world. The inhabitants reside chiefly along the coasts, they number about 100,000. St John's, the most Eastern port in America, is the capital,—population about 15,000.

Newfoundland was discovered by Cabot in 1497.

1583 Sir Humphrey Gilbert visited the island and took formal possession of it in the name of his sovereign Queen Elizabeth. It was afterwards partially colonized by the French, but finally ceded to the English in 1713.

BRITISH HONDURAS, or BALIZE in the south-east of the peninsula of Yucatan has a hot and moist climate, —the products are sugar, cotton, coffee, mahogany, logwood, &c. Balize is the capital.

It has been occupied by the British for nearly 200 years.

British Guiana extends about 200 miles along the north coast of South America, it has an area of about 100,000 sq miles and includes three divisions, Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice.

On the coast the country is low and alluvial, in the interior it is more elevated. The climate is hot and unhealthy to Europeans.

The staple products are sugar, rum, and coffee.

Georgetown in N. Lat. 6° 49′ 20″ is the capital.

Guiana was taken from the Dutch in 1803.

The Bermuda Isles situated about 580 miles from the United States' coast, are said to be as numerous as the days in the year. They are small, rocky, and nearly surrounded by coral reefs; only eight are inhabited.

Long Island, or Bermuda Proper, and Saint George are the most important.

The climate is delightful; the products are arrow-root, tomatoes, potatoes, &c,

A species of cedar furnishes valuable timber. The population is about 11,000. Hamilton on Long Island, is the capital.

The Bahamas are about 500 in number, many of them are very small and are mere rocks. Providence, Bahama, Guanahomi or St. Salvador, are the most important. The latter is supposed to be the first land discovered by Columbus in 1492. Turk's Island is noted for its salt. The population of the Bahamas is about 25,000.

Owing to the rocky and dangerous character of the coasts, shipwrecks are frequent; and hence many of the inhabitants are wreckers.

Jamaica is about 150 miles long and 50 broad,

containing an area of 6,400 sq. miles, and a population of nearly 400,000.

The exports are sugar, molasses, rum, coffee, pimento, &c

Kingston is the largest city. Spanish Town is the capital.

Jamaica was discovered by Columbus in 1494; it was colonised by the Spaniards in 1509. The natives had been wholly extirpated in 1558.

During the protectorship of Oliver Cromwell in 1655, the island was conquered by the English.

THE CARRIBBEES include the Virgin, Leeward, and Windward Isles.

The principal of these belonging to the British are the following:

Antigua	area	93	miles	pop,	37,000
St Christopher	"	70	"	"	22,000
Dominica	"	275	"	"	19,000
Montserrat	"	78	"	"	7,119
Trinidad	"	1,700	"	"	61,000
Barbadoes	"	166	"	"	123,000
St. Vincent	"	131	"	"	27,000
Tobago	"	140	"	"	14,000
Grenada	"	109	"	"	29,000
St. Lucia	"	225	"	"	21,000

GEOGRAPHY OF NOVA SCOTIA.

With the exception of the frozen peninsula of Labrador, Nova Scotia extends about 200 miles further east than any part of the Western Continent. Hence to one coming across the Atlantic from Europe, it may be, not inappropriately, styled The Front Door of North America.

The province is situated near the centre of the north temperate zone and comprises two great natural divisions: Nova Scotia Proper or the Peninsula, and the Island of Cape Breton. These two divisions are separated by a strait about a mile in breadth, called the Strait or Gut of Canseau.

The Province of Nova Scotia is a mere point when compared with the whole world, and even when it is viewed in comparison with North America, it is, in respect to size, like a small closet off a large room. Its length, stretching along from south-west to north-east, is about 355 miles, and its greatest breadth does not exceed 100 miles. Its area is estimated at 18,600 sq. miles. Thus it would take 460 Nova Scotias to make a North America. Although Nova Scotia is but a corner of the world, it is well stored with useful things;—its soil is fertile, its minerals are rich and inexhaustible, its climate is healthful and genial, its inhabitants are industrious, enterprising, generally intelligent and moral.

Owing to the maritime character of the country and its general facilities for trade, many small towns

and villages have grown up in all parts of the Province, whilst the same causes, by dispersing the trade and population, have prevented the growth of large cities.

Halifax, the capital, is the only city important on account of its size.

The whole province is divided into 18 civil divisions called counties;—14 in Nova Scotia Proper, and 4 in Cape Breton.

They are

Nova Scotia.

1. Cumberland,
2. Colchester,
3. Pictou,
4. Sydney,
5. Guysborough,
6. Halifax,
7. Lunenburg,
8. Queens,
9. Shelburne,
10. Yarmouth,
11. Digby,
12. Annapolis,
13. Kings,
14. Hants.

Cape Breton.

15. Inverness,
16. Victoria,
17. Cape Breton,
18. Richmond.

Each of these divisions possesses a considerable extent of sea coast and several harbors.

The counties are subdivided into townships.

Nova Scotia was discovered by the Cabots, in 1497, visited by the French in 1598, and again, in 1605, by De Monts who established a French colony at Port Royal—Annapolis.

In 1613, the Virginian colonists destroyed the French settlements; soon after the British began to colonise the country and named it Nova Scotia. In 1632, Charles the First ceded it to France. In 1654,

it was again conquered by the English, but conveyed back in 1667.

In 1690, the British colony of Massachusetts conquered it, and it was once more ceded to France in 1696.

In 1710, Massachusetts again captured Port Royal and gave it the name of Annapolis; the whole country was, in 1713, finally ceded to the English.

In 1749, Governor Cornwallis landed at Chebucto Harbor and founded the city of Halifax.

NOVA SCOTIA PROPER.

Nova Scotia is a peninsula connected with New Brunswick, on the north, by an isthmus about 12 miles in breadth. It is situated between 43° 25′ and 46° North Lat., and extends from 61° 10′ to 66° 25′ West Long.

Its length, from the west coast of Digby to the most easterly point of Guysboro', is about 260 miles; and its breadth, from Bay Verte to Point Pennant on the Atlantic, is 100 miles. Its area is 15,600 sq. miles.

The Surface of Nova Scotia is generally undulating; high hills are common, but they scarcely attain to elevations worthy of being designated mountains. The highest are

The Cobequid Mountains, extending from Cape Chiegnecto, in Cumberland, to the borders of Pictou county, and rising, in some places, to the height of 1100 feet. They contain iron ore of a superior quality.

The principal elevations, in the western part of the Province, are

The North Mountain Range, extending along the margin of the Bay of Fundy;

The South Mountain Range, running nearly parallel to the former, through the centre of Kings, Annapolis, and Digby. This range also contains good iron ore. Between these two ranges, is a well watered and beautiful valley, varying in breadth from 8 to 15 miles, and containing some of the best soil in the Province.

The Lakes of Nova Scotia, though not large, are very numerous, usually occurring in chains, extending north and south. We may enumerate six chains or systems.

The first is in Halifax county, between Halifax harbour and the Shubenacadie river. The largest is Grand Lake, about 9 miles in length.

The second, in Hants and Halifax, forms the source of the St. Croix.

The third, in Hants and Lunenburg, gives rise to the Avon.

The fourth is found in Kings and Lunenburg; Sherbrooke lake is the largest of this chain.

The fifth, the most extensive system, is in Annapolis and Queens Counties. It gives rise to the Liverpool river, flowing into the Atlantic, and the Allan, into Annapolis Basin. Lake Rosignol, the largest of the group, and the largest lake in Nova Scotia, is about 20 miles in length;—studded with islands and diversified with numerous coves, alternating with rocky projections, it furnishes a most picturesque scenery.

The sixth chain extends through Digby and Yarmouth; LakeGeorge, in the latter county, is the largest.

Besides these, there are several smaller chains, and

single lakes, the largest of which is Ship Harbour Lake, 15 miles long, in the eastern part of Halifax county.

RIVERS.—Nova Scotia is truly a well watered garden. As no part of the peninsula is very far distant from the sea, the rivers are not large or extensive; but they are numerous, of great utility, and add much to the beauty of the scenery.

The following are the principal:

Shinimicas, Philip, Pugwash, and Wallace, in Cumberland; French and Waugh, in Colchester; John, West, Middle, East, Sutherland, French, and Barney, in Pictou;—flowing into Northumberland Strait.

Right's, West, South, and Pomket, in Sydney;—flowing into St. George's Bay.

Country Harbor, East Branch, West Branch St. Mary's, in Guysboro'; Middle, Musquodoboit, Salmon, and Sackville, in Halifax; Gold, LaHave, and Petite, in Lunenburg; Port Medway and Liverpool, in Queens; Jordan, Roseway, and Clyde, in Shelburne; Tusket, in Yarmouth;—flowing into the Atlantic.

Sissiboo, in Digby;—flowing into St. Mary's Bay.

Bear River, between Annapolis and Digby; Allan and Annapolis, in Annapolis;—flowing into Annapolis Basin.

Habitant, Canard, Cornwallis, and Gasperaux, in Kings; Avon, St. Croix, Kennetcook, and Petite, in Hants; The Shubenacadie, between Hants and Colchester; Stewiacke, Salmon, North, Chiganois, Debert, Folly, Great Village, and Portapique, in Colchester;—flowing into Minas Basin and Cobequ i Bay.

Hebert, Maccan, Nappan, and LaPlanche, in Cumberland;—flowing into Cumberland Basin.

The largest and most important rivers in Nova Scotia are the St. Mary's, LaHave. Liverpool, Annapolis, Avon, and Shubenacadie.

Bays.—Nova Scotia is indented on all sides with numerous bays and inlets. The following are the most important:

Verte, Tatamagouche, St. George's, Chedabucto, Chebucto, Margaret's, Mahone, St. Mary's, Fundy, Cobequid, Chiegnecto.

Basins.—There are several smaller bodies of water, called Basins, as:

Bedford Basin, Annapolis Basin, Minas Basin, Cumberland Basin.

Straits.—These are Northumberland, Canseau, Grand Passage, Petite Passage, Annapolis Gut, Minas Channel and Gut.

Harbors.—The harbors are very numerous upon all sides of Nova Scotia, many of them affording convenience and security to ships of the first class.

The following are the principal:

Pugwash, Wallace, Tatamagouche, River John, Merigomish, Antigonish, Pomket,—on Northumberland Strait.

Milford, Canseau, White Haven, Country Harbor, St. Mary's, Beaver, Sheet Harbor, Ship Harbor, Halifax, Margaret's Bay, Mahone Bay, Lunenburg, LaHave, Port Medway, Liverpool, Shelburne, Barrington, Pubnico, Yarmouth, Grand Passage, Annapolis Basin,—on the Atlantic.

Margaretville, Givan's, Blackrock, Hall's Harbor, Scott's Bay,—Breakwaters on the Bay of Fundy.

The harbors on Minas Basin and Cobequid Bay

are merely the estuaries of the rivers flowing into these waters.

The Bay of Fundy, an arm of the Atlantic, between New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, and noted for its high tides, its fogs, and its sudden and violent storms, is the most important of the bays. After extending from the Atlantic about 100 miles, with a breadth of about 40 miles, it divides into two smaller portions of water. The portion to the North, called ChiegnectoBay, continues to form the boundary between New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, and terminates in two subdivisions, Cumberland Basin and Chepody Bay. The other division, the larger and much the more important to Nova Scotia, is gradually narrowed for about 25 miles, forming Minas Channel; after being reduced to about 6 or 7 miles in the Gut, it suddenly expands into Minas Basin, which, with a breadth of about 20 miles, extends 30 miles further. The shores then again gradually converge, forming a triangular sheet of water called Coboquid Bay. The whole distance from the Atlantic to the head of Cobequid Bay is nearly 200 miles.

On either side of these waters, the shores are usually rocky and precipitous, the massive and rudely sculptured rocks, towering far above the raging sea, form a scenery as inhospitable and terrific to the navigator, as it is sublime and beautiful to the lover of nature.

Near the head of the Cobequid and Cumberland Bays the tide rises from 50 to 70 feet. During the flood, the waters rush in with astonishing velocity, heralded by a perpendicular wave from 3 to 6 feet in height. This phenomenon is called the *bore*.

The best harbors in Nova Scotia are upon the

southern or Atlantic coast. Many of them are capacious and deep, and open to navigation throughout the year.

Halifax Harbor, or Chebucto Bay, is one of the best harbors in the world.

Whitehaven, Country Harbor, Ship Harbor, Margaret's Bay, Mahone Bay, Lunenburg, Liverpool, and Shelburne, are also superior.

On the northern coast most of the harbors have a sandbar lying across their entrance, which obstructs navigation at low water, and they are inaccessible, in consequence of ice, during a large part of the winter season.

With the exception of Annapolis Basin there are no natural harbors on the coast of the Bay of Fundy.

At numerous places, where the shore forms a recess at the mouth of a small stream, a breakwater is erected, which affords safety to small trading vessels, under ordinary circumstances.

Capes.—The most important are:

Malagash, John, St. George,—on Northumberland Strait.

Porcupine,—on the Gut of Canseau.

Red Head,—on Chedabucto Bay.

Canseau, Sambro, Pennant Point, Crown Point, Point Enragé, Cape Negro, Sable, St. Mary,—on the Atlantic.

Digby Neck, Cape Split, Blomidon, Economy Point, Cape D'or, Chiegnecto,—on the Bay of Fundy.

Cape Porcupine is 500 feet in height.—Crown Point is situated at the extremity of a high promontory, called Aspatogœn, between Mahone and Margaret's Bays. Its height is 500 feet.—Cape Blomidon is also a bold promontory about 400 feet in height.

ISLANDS.—The principal are:

Pictou and Carriboo,—in Northumberland Strait.

St. George's, Cranberry, Cape Canseau,—East of Guysboro'.

William, Cape Philip, Goose, McNab's, Tancook, Cape LaHave, Coffin's, Mouton, McNutt's, Cape Negro, Sable, Cape Sable, Mud, Seal, Tusket's,—along the Atlantic coast.

Long Island and Brier Island,—West of Digby.

Haut, Spencer, Partridge and Five Islands,—in the Bay of Fundy, &c.

Sable Island, to the South East of Halifax, is a low sandy island about 25 miles in length. It has been the scene of many shipwrecks, in consequence of which a Lighthouse has been erected and men have been stationed upon the island, to afford relief to shipwrecked mariners.

CAPE BRETON ISLAND.

THIS valuable Island is situated to the North East of Nova Scotia; it is between 45° 27′ and 47° N. Lat., and 59° 40′ and 61° 40′ W. Long., extending 1° further North and 1° 30′ further East, than Nova Scotia.

Its greatest length is about 110 miles, breadth 85, containing an area of 3,000 square miles. The population in 1851 was 54,878.

Cape Breton is very irregular in its outline, and is nearly divided into two parts by an inlet of the sea, called Bras D'or. The two Divisions

are connected by the Isthmus of St. Peter's, about half a mile in width.

It was first colonized by the French, who gave it the name Breton, from Bretagne, their native place in France. They prized it very highly, both for its fisheries and its commanding position, as the key to the Gulf and River St. Lawrence. At a great expense, they built a strong fort on the South, called Louisburg. The English captured and destroyed this fort in 1758, from which time they have owned the Island. Cape Breton was politically incorporated with Nova Scotia in 1819; previously, Sydney was the capital.

Surface.—The Southern division of the Island is low and undulating, sometimes rising into hills of moderate elevation. The Northern is more elevated and mountainous. In the north of Inverness and Victoria are the greatest elevations in the Province.

Lake Ainslie, in Inverness, is the principal fresh water reservoir in Cape Breton. It is about 12 miles in length, and is the source of the Margaree river.

Rivers.—The rivers are necessarily small. The following are the principal:

Inhabitant, Mabou, Margaree, and St. Denis, in Inverness; Baddeck and Middle, in Victoria; Miré and Salmon, in Cape Breton; Grand River, in Richmond.

Bays and Inlets are very numerous on the East coast The principal are:

Aspé Bay, St. Ann's Bay, Great Bras D'or, Little Bras D'or, Sydney Harbor, Miré Bay, Gabarus Bay, St. Peter's Bay.

Inland Seas and Basins.—Bras D'or Lake, Why-

kokomagh, Basin St. Denis, West Bay, East Arm, The Narrows.

STRAITS.—Canseau, Great Bras D'or, Little Bras D'or, St. Patrick's Channel, Barra Strait, Lennox Channel.

HARBORS.—The most important are:

St. Ann's Bay, Great Bras D'or. Sydney, Cow Bay. Miré Bay, Louisburg, Gabarus Bay, Fourchu, Arichat, Ship Harbor, Plaister Cove, Port Hood, Mabou, Margaree, Cheticamp.

DESCRIPTION OF WATERS.—Aspy Bay is broad and deep, and has a bold shore. The coast continues rocky and elevated, presenting bold headlands, for about 30 miles, to St. Ann's Bay. This is a narrow sheet of water penetrating several miles into an elevated country. Great Bras D'or and Little Bras D'or are two narrow channels, communicating with the interior waters. The former, to the North of Boulardarie, is about 25 miles in length and one mile in breadth, allowing passage to large vessels.—Little Bras D'or is much narrower at its entrance and is not navigable for large vessels; until recently it was spanned by a bridge; seven or eight miles from its mouth, this channel becomes much wider and deeper The two channels unite at the West of Boulardarie, forming a basin called Little Bras D'or Lake; thence a portion of the waters extends to the North West, in an arm called St. Patrick's Channel, and still farther on, into the Basin of Whykokomagh. The larger portion of the waters passes to the South West, through the Strait of Barra, 12 miles from Boulardarie, and spreads out, forming the inland sea called Bras D'or Lake. This is a very irregular expanse of water, sending out an

arm to the North West, called Basin St. Denis, one to the West called West Bay, one to the South, to the Isthmus of St. Peter's, called the Narrows, and a fourth to the East, called East Arm. The greatest length of the lake, from the extremity of West Bay to that of East Arm, is about 50 miles. These waters are generally navigable for large vessels.

Sydney Harbor is a Basin about 2 miles in breadth at its entrance, extending several miles inland. Four miles from the entrance, it divides into North West and South West Arms.

The Strait of Canseau is a deep channel, about a mile in breadth and 15 miles in length; it is the great thoroughfare between the Atlantic and the Gulf and River St. Lawrence.

The coast on the Gulf of St. Lawrence, from Cheticamp around to Aspy Bay, is rocky and precipitous.

Capes.—Many of these are bold and elevated.—The principal are Mabou, St. Lawrence, North, Egmont, Enfumé, Dauphine, Aconi, Murgain, Breton.

Islands.—These are Boularderie, Scatari, Madame, Janvrin, and St. Paul's.

Boulardarie, between the Great and Little Bras D'or, is about 25 miles in length and 3½ in breadth. The soil is fertile.

Isle Madame is the most Southern land in Cape Breton. It is quite irregular in its form; its greatest length is about 12 miles. It has many harbours, of which Arichat ranks among the first of Cape Breton. These give shelter to the fishing vessels, which resort thither in great numbers.

St. Paul's Island, a precipitous rock, 13 miles to the north of Aspy Bay, is the scene of many disasters to mariners.

NOVA SCOTIA AND CAPE BRETON;

OR,

THE PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA.

The two natural divisions of the Province having many features in common, it will be more convenient to notice them together.

GEOLOGY AND SOIL.—Below the soil, varying in depth from the surface, solid rock is found over all parts of the earth, which may be divided, according to its origin, into two classes—*aqueous* and *igneous*.

The aqueous rocks are sedimentary, having been deposited in the bottoms of lakes or seas, in which their materials were once held in a state of solution or suspension.

The igneous rocks, whether of earlier or later origin, have been formed by the agency of heat.

When aqueous rocks have been changed by the action of fire, yet not reduced to a state of fusion, they are called *metamorphic*.

The soil consists partly of decayed vegetable and animal matter, but mainly of disintegrated rocks; hence its character depends very much upon that of the underlying and circumjacent rocks.

Rocks admit of a much more detailed classification, according to the period at which they were formed, and their contents.

We may consider the soils of Nova Scotia under six heads.

I. The metamorphic district of the Atlantic coast. This division occupies a large area in the South, extending from Digby to Cape Canseau, varying in

breadth from 50 miles, in the West, to 7 or 8, in the East.

The surface is rugged and uneven, but not mountainous; it abounds in lakes and bogs.

The rocks of this region are chiefly slate, quartz, and granite; in many places the surface is covered with large boulders and much of the soil is barren; grains do not grow well, owing partly to the character of the soil and partly to Atlantic fogs; but many districts are well adapted to vegetables and fruit trees.

II. Metamorphic hills of the interior. This division comprises the South Mountain range—the Cobequid Mountains, and the hills of Pictou and Sydney, in Nova Scotia Proper; and in Cape Breton, the highlands in the North of Inverness and Victoria, and much of the country South of Bras D'or Lake.

These sections, including the most elevated land in the Province, contain shales, grits, and limestones, which are often scattered on the surface in great abundance.

The soil is deep, generally fertile, and adapted to the growth of grains.

III. Carboniferous districts. These cover much of the Eastern part of the Province. They occur in the East of Kings, North of Hants, principal lowlands of Colchester, Pictou, and Sydney, in that part of Cumberland North of the Cobequid Mountains, and in a narrow strip in Guysboro; in Cape Breton, they occupy the South of Inverness and Victoria, the West of Richmond, and the East of Cape Breton county, covering a very large part of the Island.

The varieties of rock belonging to this system, are sandstone, gypsum, limestone, and coal. The surface is generally undulating. The soil varies from light loam to stiff clay, and is for the most part fertile.

IV. New Red Sandstone. This district embraces the valley between the North and South Mountains, and the lowlands bordering upon Cobequid Bay.—The soil varies from fertile loam to barren sand.

V. Trap district. The North Mountain is composed of a dark coloured stone called *trap.* The soil is usually fertile, especially when mingled with that of the sandstone at the base of the mountain.

VI. Alluvial Soils. Besides the above, there are large quantities of alluvial soil along the banks of many of the rivers. Of this there are two kinds, *marine* and *river* alluvial. The former, commonly called marsh, is formed by deposits left by the tide at the estuaries of the rivers, and is reclaimed from the sea by artificial embankments, called dikes.*—The marshes upon the borders of the Bay of Fundy and its branches, are the most extensive and valuable. Marsh is generally a very rich soil, having, without any fertilizing application, retained an extraordinary productiveness since the settlement of the country.

The river alluvial soil, called interval, is composed of materials brought from the higher grounds, by the rivers, and deposited along their banks. It is very fertile.

CLIMATE.—The winters of Nova Scotia are severe and long. The extreme of cold is 24° below Zero (Farenheit), and cattle require to be fed and housed seven months in the year. Vegetation is very rapid, and the summers are, in general, sufficiently hot for the ripening of Indian corn. The hardier varieties

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In some Counties, the term dike is also applied to the soils protected by these embankments.

of the grape also come to maturity in the open air. The extreme of heat is 96° in the shade, and the mean annual temperature is 43°. There is usually a rainy season in the spring and autumn; throughout the year, the weather is somewhat variable; yet the climate is salubrious and well adapted to promote bodily and mental vigour.

MINERALS.—Nova Scotia is rich in those minerals which contribute most to the prosperity of a country; coal, iron, lime, and gypsum are abundant; copper, manganese, sulphur, sulphate of barytes, salt, and ochres are also found, some of them in considerable quantities.

Coal is found at various places in the counties of Cumberland, Colchester, Pictou, Inverness, Richmond, and Cape Breton. The mines most extensively worked are the "Sydney Mines," Cape Breton, "Albion Mines," Pictou, and "The Joggins" in Cumberland.

The most important iron mines are at Londonderry in Colchester, and Nictaux in Annapolis. The ore is of a superior quality.

Lime and gypsum are abundant in Hants, Colchester, Cumberland, Inverness, and other carboniferous districts; building materials are plentiful, including granite, sandstone, slate, clay, and some marble.—Sandstones are found in Cumberland of a rare grit required in grindstones.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTS.—These are such as grow in the Northern States and in Canada. The following are the most important native trees, shrubs, and herbs:

Oak, beech, hazelnut, ash, maple, birch, elm, willow, poplar, pine, hemlock, spruce, fir, larch, cedar; wild gooseberry, wild currants, wild rose, raspberry,

blackberry, dogwood, elder, tree-cranberry, bush-honeysuckle, shrub-birch, alder, ground-hemlock, ground-juniper, blueberry, whortleberry, labrador tea, mayflower, laurel; mints, heal all, lily, solomon's seal, strawberry, spikenard, sarsaparilla, ginseng.

There are extensive forests in the Province, yielding valuable timber; such as oak, beech, ash, maple, birch, and elm;—pine, spruce, and hemlock are much used for lumber. Larch or Hackmatack is highly prized for its durability, and is much employed for ships, railways, posts, &c.

The cultivated plants include the cereals, potatoes, turnips, &c.; and among the fruits, apples, pears, plums, cherries, and currants. Wheat is most extensively raised in the eastern counties, and fruit, in the western. The best hay districts are the marine and river alluvial soils. According to the census of 1851, Pictou produced more than one-fourth of the wheat and a fifth of the oats in the Province; Annapolis and Kings, nearly two-thirds of the Indian corn; Kings more than one-fourth of the potatoes and more than one-third of the rye.

WILD ANIMALS.—Many of the wild animals have disappeared, or are becoming very rare. The most important are included under the classes Mammalia, Birds, Reptiles and Fishes. These four classes are distinguished by their form, habits, and internal structure.

The Mammalia comprise the bear, wolf, wildcat, lucifee, fox, raccoon, seal, weasel, bat, mole, and shrew mouse, which live on the flesh of other animals and are hence called *Carnivora;* the hare, woodchuck, porcupine, beaver, squirrel, muskrat, and fieldmouse,—these are furnished with a peculiar kind of teeth with

which they *gnaw*, rather than cut or tear their food and other substances, hence they are called *gnawers* or *Rodentia;* the moose and carriboo, which live upon grass, leaves, twigs, &c., and chew their food twice, or *chew the cud*, on account of which they are called *Ruminantia;* and the whale, which, although it resembles fishes, possesses the characteristics of Mammalia, and is therefore properly classed with them.

The bear is the largest carniverous animal in Nova Scotia; though very destructive to sheep, it seldom attacks a man; it passes the winter in a partially torpid state in some hollow tree or secluded den.

The wolf is rarely found in Nova Scotia.

The moose is the largest wild animal in the Province; his head is adorned with large and branching antlers, which fall off every spring and are replaced by new ones. When seen in his native forests, the moose presents a majestic appearance; he is much hunted, and the flesh is highly esteemed as an article of food. The carriboo is much smaller, and is similar to the reindeer of Lapland.

Birds.—The principal are:—

1. The eagle, hawk and owl, which prey upon smaller birds and are called *plunderers*, or *Raptores;*

2. The robin, blackbird, yellowbird, kingbird, snowbird, crow, raven, bluejay, hummingbird, kingfisher, swallow, nighthawk, and sparrow,—the most of these live mainly upon insects and fruit, and are much on the wing—frequently resting upon trees:—they are called *perchers* or *Insessores;*

3. The woodpeckers, which subsist upon insects found beneath the bark of decaying trees; they have a long sharp bill, well adapted to obtain their food;

their toes are so formed that they can cling to the side of a tree or climb upon it ; they are called *climbers*, or *Scansores ;*

4. The partridge and pigeon, which live upon seeds and berries ; these belong to the same class as the domestic hen, and resemble it in the habit of scratching, or scraping, with the foot, from which they get the name *scrapers*, or *Rasores ;*

5. The crane or heron, snipe, phalarope, and plover, which subsist on small fish and aquatic insects ; to adapt them to their mode of living, they are furnished with long necks and long legs ; they look as if they went upon stilts, and are hence called *waders*, *stilt birds*, or *Grallatores ;*

6. The goose, duck, loon, auk, and gull. These birds love the water; they have their toes united by a membrane, enabling them to swim ; they are called web-footed, *Palmipides*, or *Natatores.*

Reptiles.—These animals are distinguished for their slow breathing, which renders them cold-blooded. Many of them have no limbs and move by creeping—hence the name Reptile. Those in Nova Scotia are small and harmless. The principal are snakes, tortoises, turtles, lizards, toads, and frogs.

Toads and frogs at first live wholly in the water. During this period of their existence they have gills like a fish, and are called tadpoles ; in a short time they begin to live on land, having exchanged their tail and gills for legs and lungs, by which they are adapted to their new mode of existence. Toads are very useful in ridding gardens of destructive insects.

Fishes inhale but a small portion of air, which they obtain from the water passing through their gills. Hence they are cold-blooded, like the reptiles. Their

gills require to be constantly moistened to enable them to breathe, consequently they soon die out of water. The following are the most important on our coasts:—

1. The Cod tribe, including the cod, haddock, pollock, haak, &c., which are of great value as an article of food, and also for the oil obtained from their large livers;

2. The Flatfish, including the flounder, halibut, &c., noted for their flat bodies. The halibut often attains a great size and is much prized for food;

3. The Salmon tribe, including the salmon, trout, smelt, and capelin; the salmon ascends the rivers to deposit its spawn, and is noted for its habit of leaping up cascades of considerable elevation; its flesh is highly esteemed;

4. The Herring tribe, including herring, shad, and alewife; these are plentiful and important as an article of food;

5. The Mackerel tribe, of which large quantities are captured.

Resources, &c.—The chief natural and industrial means of wealth may be included under Agriculture, Mines, Timber, Fisheries, Commerce, and Manufactures.

Agriculture is extensively and successfully pursued, and it may be regarded as the basis of the country's prosperity. Improved stock, farming utensils, and modes of farming, are gradually taking the place of those of an inferior character. Agricultural Societies are numerous.

The Mineral wealth of the Province has already been noticed. As yet, however, owing to circumstances incident to every new country, it has never

been fully developed. The number of chaldrons of coal raised from the various mines in 1856 was 87,-168. The iron mines are not very extensively worked.

The Forests of Nova Scotia are not so extensive as those of New Brunswick and Canada; yet their products, such as hewn timber, lumber, fuel, &c., form an important item in the exports of the Province. The annual value of exports of those articles may be reckoned at about £150,000.

The Fisheries well repay the labour and capital invested in their pursuit. Nova Scotia has nearly 1,000 miles of coast, and upon all sides its waters teem with many varieties of fish, yielding wholesome and delicious food to man. The annual value of the exports arising from the fisheries is over £600,000.

The Commercial Facilities of Nova Scotia are unsurpassed by any country, and its trade is steadily and rapidly increasing. Its principal articles of export are coal, gypsum, produce of the forest, agricultural produce, fish, live stock, &c., to the annual value of about £1,500,000. The imports consist of woolens, cottons, silks, iron, and various articles of manufacture from Britain; flour, agricultural and other implements, furniture, tobacco, &c., from the United States; West India goods, tea, &c., to the amount of about £2,000,000.

PUBLIC WORKS.—These include railways, canals, public buildings, &c.

The structure of Railways in Nova Scotia was commenced in 1854. by the Provincial Government, under whose auspices the work has been steadily progressing. There are now open for traffic a trunk line from Halifax to Truro, distance sixty-one and two-tenths miles,

and a branch, leaving the main line thirteen and one-tenth miles from Halifax, and extending thirty-one and six-tenths miles, to Windsor. It is contemplated ultimately to continue the trunk line to the New Brunswick frontier, to meet a line of Railway in that Province, and also to construct a branch line to Pictou.

The entire cost of the road from Halifax to Truro and the branch to Windsor is £1,024,866,—the average cost per mile, £11,044.

No Canals are yet finished. One is in course of construction, to connect Halifax harbor with the Shubenacadie river, passing through the lakes in that section of the country. The whole distance from Dartmouth to the mouth of Shubenacadie is about 60 miles. The cost of the canal when finished has been estimated at about £50,000.

Over £6,000 have been expended in cuttings for a canal across St. Peter's Isthmus in Cape Breton; but nearly ten times that amount will be necessary to finish the work.

The telegraph lines of "the Nova Scotia Electric Telegraph Company," extend about 1,200 miles, bringing all the principal places in the Province into communication with Halifax. Nova Scotia is also connected by telegraph with the other Provinces and the United States;—there is a submarine cable from Cape Breton to Newfoundland.

Population.—The inhabitants of Nova Scotia are of very varied origin. The following may be regarded as including the principal original settlers:—

The English who arrived with Governor Cornwallis in 1749;

The French who escaped the general expulsion in 1755, or who subsequently returned;—the principal

French settlements are Cheticamp, East of Richmond, and Isle Madame, in Cape Breton; Tracadie, Minudie, Clare, Pubnico, and Chezzetcook, in Nova Scotia Proper;

The Germans, who settled in Lunenburg, in 1753;

The Scotch, who settled principally in the Eastern counties and Cape Breton;

The Irish, many of whom settled in Halifax, others in Cumberland, &c.;

New England Colonists, who came at the expulsion of the French and occupied their lands, others at the American Revolution on account of their attachment to the British Government;

Soldiers, disbanded at the close of the American War;

Negroes, who accompanied their masters from the United States, or escaped from that country at the Revolution.

Nova Scotia was originally inhabited by a tribe of North American Indians, called Micmacs, whose descendants in the Province now number about 1000. They are a vagrant, harmless people, but little improved by that civilization which has so greatly changed the character of their once forest home. Within a few years an Association of the various Protestant denominations has been formed, with a view to the religious and social advancement of this unfortunate, yet interesting race. There are now two missionaries, one of whom is a native Micmac, labouring amongst them.

EDUCATION.- Novascotians, in respect to intelligence, compare favourably with the inhabitants of other Christian lands. Common Schools are numerous and well attended. According to the Superintendent's Report for 1857, the Common and

Grammar Schools were, in that year, attended by about 37,000 pupils, and sustained at an expense of £45,435 7s. 6d.

The general educational affairs are presided over by a Superintendent of Education. The Superintendent is also Principal of the Normal School established at Truro in 1855 for training teachers. This Institution is sustained by the Province, and includes a Normal College and Model School.—The system of education taught is that called the Training or Natural System.

The Colleges are:—King's College, Windsor founded in 1789 and belonging to the Episcopalians; Acadia College, Wolfville, to the Baptists; Presbyterian College, Truro; Free Church College, Halifax; St. Mary's College, Halifax, Roman Catholic; St. Francis Xavier's College, Antigonish, Roman Catholic.

RELIGION.—The religious denominations of the Province are divided into two great classes, Protestant and Roman Catholic, the former comprising more than three-fourths the population. The principal Protestant denominations are Presbyterians, Baptists, Episcopalians, Methodists, Lutherans, Quakers and Universalists.

The various bodies of Presbyterians comprise more than one-fourth the population; Roman Catholics, nearly one-fourth; Baptists, over one-seventh; Episcopalians, over one-eighth; Methodists, over one-twelfth. The others are much less numerous. All enjoy equal civil privileges.

CIVIL DIVISIONS.

COUNTIES, &C.—For the greater convenience in

regulating the internal affairs of the Province, it is divided into eighteen Counties, and these are subdivided into Townships. Each County is independent in managing its own local affairs, has its own judicial courts, and sends representatives to the Provincial Assembly. Some central Town or Village is chosen, in each County, in which to hold the courts and transact the public business of the County. Such place is called the County Town. The following Table shows the Counties, with their population, &c., according to the census of 1851, their Townships, and County Towns:—

Counties.	*Population.*	*Prob. val. of Real Estate.*	*Acres Dyked Land.*	*Townships.*	*City Towns.*
Cumberland.	14,339	£590,224	16,170	Amherst, Wallace, Parrsboro'	Amherst.
Colchester.	15,469	572,318	5,139	Truro, Onslow, Londonderry, Stirling.	Truro.
Pictou.	25,593	655,619	20	Pictou, Egerton, Maxwelton.	Pictou.
Sydney.	13,467	278,689		Antigonish, Arisaig, Tracadie, St. Andrews.	Atigonish.
Guysboro'.	10,838	166,361	111	Manchester, Guysboro', St Mary's.	Guysboro'.
Halifax.	39,112	1893,887	540	Halifax, Dartm'th, Lawrencetown, Preston.	Halifax.

Counties.	*Population.*	*Prob. val. of Real Estate.*	*Acres Dyked Land.*	*Townships.*	*C'ty Towns.*
Lunenburg.	16,395	414,830		Chester, Lunenburg, New Dublin.	Lunenburg
Queens.	7,256	252,506	45	Liverpool Guysborough	Liverpool.
Shelburne.	10,622	137,090	59	Barrington, Shelburne.	Shelburne.
Yarmouth.	13,142	286,703	1,720	Yarmouth Argyle.	Yarmouth.
Digby.	12,252	281,173	83	Digby, Clare.	Digby.
Annapolis.	14,286	454,624	2,793	Annapolis Yarmouth Clements, Wilmot.	Annapolis.
Kings.	14,138	618,166	6,988	Horton, Cornwallis, Aylesford.	Kentville.
Hants.	14,330	585,809	5,292	Windsor, Falmouth Newport, Kempt, Rawdon, Douglas, Maitland.	Windsor.
CAPE BRETON.					
Inverness.	16,917	316,787	1,052	PortHood Canseau, Margarie, Ainslie.	Port Hood.
Victoria. C.Breton	27,580	419,041		Sydney, St. Patricks, St. Andrews.	Baddeck. Sydney.
Richmond.	10,381	127,096		Arichat, Maitland, Lennox, Hawksbury.	Arichat.

SYNOPSIS OF THE SURFACE, &c., OF THE COUNTIES.

Counties.	*Surface.*	*Soil.*	*Leading branches of Industry.*
Cumberland.	Undulating in the north, Cobequid Mountains in the interior, uneven in the South.	Generally arable—best uplands near Northumberland Strait—extensive marshes at the head of Cumberland Basin.	Agriculture, shipbuilding, lumbering,—mining at the Joggins.
Colchester.	Low on Tatamagouche Bay—Cobequid Mountains near the middle—undulating in the south.	The soil is varied, but generally fertile, excellent marsh and interval on the rivers.	Agriculture, shipbuilding lumbering, and fishing.
Pictou.	Undulating and hilly—outliers of Cobequid range in the west, as Mount Thom, &c.	Fertile—hilly districts stony—valuable intervals on the rivers.	Agriculture,—mining, shipbuilding, and lumbering.
Sydney.	Hilly in the west and south—low in the east.	Generally fertile.	Agriculture and fishing.
Guysboro'.	Some hills in the north, rugged in the south.	Much good soil in the north—rocky and barren in the south, except on the rivers.	Agriculture and fishing.
Halifax.	Uneven and rocky—many lakes.	Generally poor except on the margins of the rivers.	Fishery, trade, and agriculture.

Counties.	*Surface.*	*Soil.*	*Leading branches of Industry.*
Lunenburg.	Undulating.	Much stony and poor soil,—on the rivers and alongthe shores of Mahone Bay, it is good and well cultivated.	Fishery,agriculture, lumbering, and shipbuilding.
Queens.	Rugged, several lakes.	Rocky and barren on the coast, fertile tracts in the interior.	Lumbering,fishery, agriculture,shipbuilding.
Shelburne.	Low and uneven on the coast, more elevated in the interior.	Rocky, extensive barrens and peat bogs—fertile districts in the interior.	Fishery,lumbering, shipbuilding, and agriculture.
Yarmouth.	Low– many small lakes.	Rocky, generally arable—some marsh.	Shipbuilding, navigation, fiishery, agriculture, and lumbering.
Digby.	Low and undulating on the coast, more elevated in the interior.	Average quality—the best soils are on Digby Neck and at the head of St. Mary's Bay.	Agriculture, fishery, and lumbering.
Annapolis.	The North Mountain in the north, valley of the Annapolis near themiddle, hilly in the south.	Generally fertile, best soil along the base of the North Mountain—the valley well adapted to fruit trees.	Agriculture,—large dairies and extensive orchards.

Counties.	*Surface.*	*Soil.*	*Leading branches of Industry.*
Kings.	The North Mountain in the north, South Mountain in the south, undulating valley intervening.	Varied generally fertile—much superior marsh.	Agriculture.
Hants.	Undulating and hilly—Ardoise Hill the most elevated.	Much fertile soil—good marsh on the Avon and St. Croix.	Agriculture, plaster trade, shipbuilding.
Inverness.	Undulating and hilly in the south, mountainous in the north.	Soil generally fertile—northern part mostly in forest.	Agrieulture and fishery.
Victoria.	Uneven and mountainous—some low land in the south.	Much fertile soil—extensive forests in the north.	Agriculture aud fishing.
Cape Breton.	Undulating.	Generally fertile.	Agriculture, mining, and fisheries.
Richmond.	Generally low—more elevated at the eastern and western extremities.	The soil is generally good—best soil on the shores of Bras D'Or Lake and along the rivers.	Fisheries, coasting trade, and agriculture.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS.—These are Halifax, Dartmouth, Pictou, Windsor, Yarmouth, Truro, Liverpool, Annapolis.

Halifax, the Capital, was founded in 1749, by

Governor Cornwallis, and named in honour of Lord Halifax, an active promoter of the settlement.—Previous to 1749 the place was called Chebucto.—It is a handsome city, about three miles in length and three-fourths of a mile in breadth, built upon the side of a hill, sloping somewhat abruptly to the harbor on the East. The city contains many fine buildings, among which is the Province Building, a large and beautiful structure. The population is about 30,000. Halifax may be regarded as the key to British power in America. On the summit of the hill overlooking the town, is an impregnable citadel, constructed of stone and earth, whose bristling guns command the harbor below. Its capacious and safe harbor and excellent dockyard make Halifax the principal naval station for British ships in America. It has direct communication with England through the Cunard and other steamers, is the terminus of an important railroad, and is connected by telegraph with all the principal cities in the other Provinces and in the United States.*

Across the harbor, a fine placid sheet of water about a mile in width, is the pleasantly-situated town of Dartmouth. It may be regarded as a suburb of Halifax, with which it is connected by regularly plying ferry-boats. It was settled a year or two subsequent to the settlement of Halifax; the

* A submarine cable landing in Cape Breton connects Halifax with St. John's, Newfoundland. In the summer of 1858 an electric cable was submerged across the Atlantic from Newfoundland to Ireland. After transmitting a few messages it suddenly ceased to work, and continues up to this time (September 1858) inoperative; the cause remains a mystery.

early inhabitants were greatly harassed and some of them cruelly murdered by the Indians.

PICTOU, the second town in Nova Scotia, is pleasantly situated on the north side of Pictou Harbor; its shipbuilding and commerce are extensive; and it is the emporium of the coal trade from the Albion Mines, 8 miles distant. The coal is conveyed to the harbor on a railroad constructed for that purpose. New Glasgow, a small place near the mouth of East River, is noted for its shipbuilding.

WINDSOR, on the Avon, is one of the most beautiful towns in Nova Scotia. In its neighborhood are extensive gypsum quarries. It is the seat of King's College.—Hantsport, ne arthe mouth of the Avon, is noted for its shipbuilding and navigation.

YARMOUTH, the largest town in the west, is noted for its commercial enterprise and shipbuilding.

TRURO is a rapidly increasing inland town, connected with Halifax by railway. It is the seat of the Normal College and Model Schools, and also of a Presbyterian College.

ANNAPOLIS is a small town situated on the placid waters of Annapolis Basin. It is the oldest town in the Province, having been founded by the French as early as 1605. The place was called Port Royal until 1713, when it was finally ceded to Great Britain and received its present name, in honour of Queen Anne. Much of the early history of the Province is intimately connected with that of Port Royal, as the whole country passed alternately into the hands of the French and English, as

the one or the other became the possessors of this town.

SYDNEY, on Sydney Harbor, was formerly the Capital of Cape Breton, and it is still a place of considerable importance.

THE BAR in North Sydney, on the opposite side of the harbor, is an active and flourishing village. Three miles distant are the mines, from which the coal is brought, by railway, to the loading ground.

LOUISBURG, on the Southern shores of Cape Breton, is important for its past history, rather than for any greatness that attaches to it at the present time. It was once a strongly fortified town, founded by the French, in 1720, and named in honour of Louis of France. Nova Scotia had already passed into the hands of the English. Louisburg became the rendevouz of Indians and of French privateers, who frequently harassed the settlers on the British coast. The New England Colonists determined to dislodge them from that position, and, making a bold attack, they captured the place in 1745. Louisburg was restored to France in 1749, but was retaken by Generals Amherst and Wolfe in 1758. The glory has long since departed from this ancient stronghold of the French. No longer does a forest of masts stud its harbor, no longer do its high walls bristle with cannon, no longer are its magazines stored with instruments of destruction;—all is now dilapidated and in ruins.

ARICHAT, on Isle Madame, has a fine harbor, from which large quantities of fish are exported. The trade is carried on principally through the Jersey merchants.

CIVIL GOVERNMENT.

The Government of Nova Scotia, although amenable to the Imperial Government in England, is not subjected to any unpleasant dictation, or control.—No Provincial Law is valid until it is sanctioned by the Sovereign, but, as the Acts of the Provincial Legislature are generally affirmed, it may be considered as practically independent in the management of its local affairs

In its form the Government is modeled after that of Great Britain. The Sovereign is represented by an Officer appointed by the Crown, who receives the title of Governor.

The Government embraces three departments: Executive, Legislative and Judicial.

1. The Executive, generally originates the policy or system of measures to be pursued in the administration of public affairs, and also carries the laws into effect. It consists of the Governor, who is the head officer, and the Executive Council, usually comprising nine members. Five of these, Attorney-General, Solicitor-General, Provincial Secretary, Financial Secretary, and Receiver-General, hold lucrative offices and are styled Heads of Departments. This Council is responsible to the people for the public acts of the Governor, and holds office only so long as it possesses the confidence of the people, expressed by their representatives.

2. The Legislature consists of the Governor, Legislative Council, and the House of Assembly.

The Legislative Council is composed of twenty-one members, appointed by the Crown and holding office for life; it possesses the power to sanction,

amend, or reject all measures previously passed by the Assembly. It can also originate any Bill which does not involve an expenditure of the public money; but Bills originated by this body require the assent of the Assembly, before they become law.

The House of Assembly consists of 53 members, chosen every four years by the people,—representatives of certain counties, districts, and townships. This Body possesses the power to originate all Bills, control the expenditure of public money, and levy taxes. Its enactments require the assent of the Legislative Council and Governor.

3. The Judicial Department applies the laws to particular cases, investigating and deciding with respect to violation of law, and awarding penalties. It embraces the following Courts: Court of Error and Appeal, Supreme Court, Court of Vice Admiralty, Court of Marriage and Divorce, Court of Sessions, and Justices' Courts.

The Court of Error and Appeal consists of the Governor and Council. Appeals may be made to this Court from inferior courts, where the amount of judgment is not less than £300.

The Supreme Court is presided over by a Chief Justice and four Assistant Judges. All civil causes are decided by a Jury of nine men, and criminal causes by a Jury of twelve men. It has jurisdiction in all criminal cases, in civil suits in which the sum is not less than £5, and in appeal cases, under that sum.

The Court of Vice Admiralty decides upon maritime causes.

The Court of Probate has jurisdiction over the property of deceased persons.

The Court of Marriage and Divorce consists of the Governor, one of the Judges of the Superior Courts, commissioned by the Governor, and the members of the Executive. It decides upon the legality of marriage, and has the power to dissolve the legal connection between husband and wife.

The Court of Sessions consists of the Magistrates and Grand Jurors in the several counties; its duty is to manage the local affairs of the county.

Justices' Courts consist of one, two, or more Justices of the Peace. In civil suits a single justice cannot give judgment upon a case in which the sum exceeds £3; two Justices can give judgment on any sum not exceeding £10. An appeal can be made from these Courts to the Supreme Court.

REVENUE, EXPENDITURE, &c.

The Revenue, or public money of the Province, arises from various sources, as duties on goods imported, sale of crown lands, licenses, &c.

The following is an extract from the Public Accounts for 1857:—

Duties,	£138,515	7	10
Crown Land,	5,502	18	2
Distilleries (for Licenses),	6,354	0	0
Casual Revenue,	10,239	13	10
Other Sources,	44,434	3	7
Total,	£205,046	3	5

EXPENDITURE.—The public money is expended in ways quite as diversified as the sources from which it is derived, as in payment of the Civil List, which includes the salary of the Governor, of the Officers of the Government, Judges of Supreme

Court, Clerks, &c.; Legislative Expenses, which include payment and travelling expenses of the members of the Legislative Council and House of Assembly, salary of the Speaker of the House of Assembly, Clerk, and other Officers; for Education, Public Works, Roads and Bridges, Post Communication, Support of Agriculture, Interest on Public Debt, &c.

The following Expenditures are extracted from the Public Accounts for 1857:—

Civil List,	£15,130	8	4
Legislative Expenses,	10,666	7	4
Revenue Expenses,	9,471	17	5
Education,	19,528	8	1
Paid to Chairman of Board of Works,	28,932	5	4
Roads and Bridges,	42,584	6	4
Post Communication,	6,886	11	2
Support of Agriculture,	983	6	8
Provincial Railway,	27,131	6	5
Various other Objects,	37,137	11	11
Total,	£198,452	9	0

HISTORY OF NOVA SCOTIA.

1. Four hundred years ago our forefathers were living beyond the wide Atlantic, quite ignorant of the existence of that land which Nova Scotians call their home, as well as of that vast continent of which it forms a part. Indeed they would have considered it absurd to suppose that the earth could be circumnavigated, or that there lived men on the opposite side.

True they did not fear to ride upon the heaving bosom of the restless sea, as they coasted hither and thither, along its shores, but a bold adventurer was he who dared to entrust his frail bark far out of sight of land.

2. About the year 1435, the city of Genoa, situated on the Mediterranean and noted, at that time, for its commerce, gave birth to a man destined to exert a mighty influence on the future history of the world. That man was Christopher Columbus.

The father of Columbus was a poor wool comber, whose limited means rendered him unable, at a time when books and schools were scarce and costly, to do much for the education of his son. However, as our hero showed, at an early age, a great desire for knowledge, especially in respect to Geography and Navigation, his good father did what he could to aid him. That Columbus improved his scanty opportunities, his future history abundantly proves.

3. Having spent his early years in maritime ex-

ploits, Columbus, now about 35 years of age, visited Portugal, attracted thither by the enterprising character of its Sovereign, Prince Henry. Here, among a people the foremost of the age in making discoveries, he met with opportunities which tended much to mature his views and enkindle within him an ardent desire to explore the unknown seas.

Deeply impressed with the conviction that he could make great discoveries, if the means were placed at his disposal, he applied to the King of Portugal for assistance. The King, unwilling to lose an opportunity of adding at once to his dominions and his glory, called a council of his scientific men to decide upon the prospects held out by the ardent adventurer.

The philosophy of Columbus was too deep for their understanding, his theory was too novel to withstand their prejudice, and his enthusiasm too ardent to find a response in their breasts. They regarded the scheme as quite fanatical and likely to result only in disgrace. Columbus, ungenerously treated, withdrew in disgust. How truly noble does the homeless and penniless man appear as he turns away, with bitter indignation, from the court of Portugal, and seeks for those more worthy of the boon which was his to bestow.

4. From Portugal he went to his native Genoa, from Genoa to Naples, but nowhere did he gain anything, save pity for his bewildered mind. He applied to the King of England but received no encouragement. Poor, poor Columbus! Wilt thou not now return to thy sober senses and think and act as other men? He feels that he is right and that truth must prevail; he will persevere.

5. He turns to Spain. With all the dignity of a prince, he stands before the sovereigns, Ferdinand and Isabella, offering to them that new world, so clearly mapped out in his brain. Ferdinand also applied to his men of Science, but their wisdom did not exceed that of the Portuguese. "What a demented old man," said some, "to think that there can be a land where men walk with their heels upwards and heads hanging downwards." But although thus derided and repulsed, Columbus refused to undertake the enterprise, except upon terms honorable to himself. At length Isabella, the queen, espoused his cause and ordered the port of Palos to fit him out with ships and men, within ten days.

6. On the 3rd of August 1492, Columbus, with 3 ships and 120 men, set sail from Palos. Loud were the wails of the inhabitants of this town, for their departing friends whom they never more expected to behold.

Columbus set sail with a light heart, not doubting that the tide of fortune had now turned in his favor, and that he would soon reap a rich reward for all his toils. But his hopes were well nigh blasted on the very eve of fruition. The ocean was much more extensive and consequently his promised land was much further off, than he had anticipated. His crew, at the beginning hardly reconciled to their voyage, and now, having their hopes deferred from day to day, became mutinous.

7. At length, however, they were overjoyed at the sight of land which, in token of his deliverance from the perils of the sea, Columbus called Saint Salvador. This first land discovered in the new

world, is an island sometimes called Guanahani,—one of the Bahamas.

Columbus immediately disembarked and proceeded, with great pomp, on shore, to take possession of the island in the name of his sovereigns, Ferdinand and Isabella.

The natives crowded around the strangers, equally astonished at the monstrous winged creatures which had conveyed them thither, and at the men themselves whom they regarded as beings of a superior order.

8. On the 15th of March, 1493, the inhabitants of Palos were no less overjoyed than surprised to see the Nina, the ship in which Columbus had embarked, sail into the harbor, bearing its proud commander.

When Columbus presented himself at court, all the honors that Royalty could bestow were lavished upon him. Columbus lived to make several other voyages to the new world, and the Spaniards, eager for gain, flocked thither in great numbers, vainly believing that they would find gold scattered about as stones of the field.

9. Like most new things, the beauties and riches of the new world were greatly exaggerated. It did not satisfy every avaricious Spaniard with gold; hence, as men are ever prone to extremes, Columbus was soon the object of as much reproach and disgrace, as he had been, a short time before, of praise and envy. He did not live to enjoy the honors which a golden mediocrity of opinion, viewing his discovery in a proper light, would have bestowed upon him. He died in the year 1506, seeking that consolation in religion, which he had failed

to obtain from a fickle and ungrateful people, and hasting to that better land, whose riches are more substantial and whose glories are more unfading, than those of that new world to which he was the pioneer.

10. Other adventurers to the western world quickly followed. Americus Vespucius, a native of Florence, was among the first to cross the Atlantic. This man appears to have obtained honors which properly belonged to Columbus. From him the continent received the name of America; in justice to Columbus, it should have been called Columbia.

11. John Cabot, a learned Venetian mariner, resident in England, caught the idea of discovery from the success of Columbus. He represented to Henry 7th, already jealous of the glory which the Spaniards had acquired from the New World, his willingness to undertake a voyage of discovery, under the auspices of the English Crown. Accordingly, Cabot and his son Sebastian were fitted out with two ships, and set sail in May, 1497.

The idea still entertained was, that the islands discovered by Columbus belonged to the Indies, off the coast of Asia, and one great aim of Cabot was to obtain a short passage to India; so erroneous were his ideas regarding the magnitude of our globe, and so ignorant was he of the existence of the great Continent now called America.

Cabot seems to have directed his course further north than Columbus, and it is supposed that the first land which he reached was Nova Scotia. Before returning to Europe, he explored nearly the whole coast of North America, and hence he has

the credit of being the first discoverer of most of that immense country.

12. Nearly a century now elapsed, during which the English seem to have nearly forsaken the New World. The French, however, were more active; several adventurers visited different parts of North America, taking possession of the country in the name of the Monarch of France.

13. In the year 1583, Elizabeth, Queen of England, fitted out a fleet for America, under the command of the gallant Sir Humphrey Gilbert. This brave man having formally taken possession of the island of Newfoundland, sailed to Sable Island, for the purpose of obtaining cattle which he understood had been left there by the Portuguese. In this attempt he lost one of his vessels, on the sand bars off that dangerous island. He then, with two ships, set sail for England, but the one which he commanded was cast away and all on board perished.

14. In 1598, the Marquis De la Roche, on his way to Nova Scotia, left 40 French convicts on Sable Island, absurdly supposing it a fit place for a colony. After visiting different parts of Nova Scotia, he returned to France, leaving his colonists behind him. Most of these poor fellows died of starvation, only twelve surviving to return to France seven years afterwards.

15. In the year 1604, a Frenchman, named De Monts, having a commission as Governor General of the country between the 40th and 46th parallels, came for the purpose of forming settlements in Nova Scotia. This country together with New Brunswick and a part of the territory now belonging to the United States, was then called Acadia.

Having sailed into Annapolis Basin, Pontrincourt, a personal friend of De Monts, was so charmed with the place, that he resolved to adopt it as his residence. To this place, which is now called Annapolis, the French gave the name of Port Royal. It was the capital and most important place in the country whilst in the possession of the French.

De Monts continued his voyages along the coast trading with the natives and making further discoveries. He was very active in exploring his territory and in promoting the interests of his colonists; but his power was of short continuance. Jealousies were excited on account of his exclusive privileges; misrepresentations were made at the French court and his commission was canceled.

16. But Pontrincourt, strongly attached to his new home, still remained at Port Royal. He turned his attention to Agriculture, and succeeded in raising fine wheat, specimens of which he sent to to France.

This colony appears to have sustained quite a loss in the death of the Indian chief, Mamberton, at the advanced age of 100 years. This venerable chief had been very friendly to Pontrincourt and he was now interred in the French burial ground with military honors. It was with great reluctance that he consented to have his remains separated from the last resting place of his forefathers.

17. Meanwhile the English were establishing colonies further south. In 1607, a settlement called James Town, was made in Virginia, and, in the same year, Sir John Gilbert, a brother of Sir Humphrey, spent the winter on an island not far from Nova

Scotia; he and his party experienced great privations.

When the colonists of Virginia were apprised of the existence of the French settlement in Acadia, considering it within the limits of their charter, they fitted out a fleet with which, in 1613, they compelled the inhabitants of Acadia to abandon their settlements.

18. It was about the year 1623, that the English attempted to colonize Acadia, under the name of Nova Scotia. Sir Wm. Alexander, having received a grant of Nova Scotia, comprising all territories east of a line, drawn from the river Saint Croix to the Gulf of Saint Lawrence, sent out a number of emigrants to Port Royal, to take possession of the country. These persons found, on their arrival, that the French had resumed the possession of their settletlement, and accordingly they returned to England.

19. During this time, the French were actively engaged in colonizing Canada. In 1627, they sent out a number of vessels, bearing supplies, ammunition, &c, for the benefit of the colonists.

Sir Wm. Alexander, aided by Sir David Kirk, had also fitted out a fleet for America, which fell in with the French transports and captured eighteen of them.

Amongst the French prisoners, was a distinguished man, named Claude De la Tour, who made arrangements with Sir Wm. Alexander to settle the country. He attempted the conquest of his son, who held La Have, in the French interest. Failing in this, he returned to Port Royal, and formed a settlement at the place now called Granville, on the north side of the Annapolis river.

Sir William Alexander, finding his colonizing schemes unprofitable, conveyed his title to La Tour.

Meanwhile Sir David Kirk had effected the conquest of Cape Breton and Canada.

20. But now, just as the English were beginning to establish themselves in the possession of the country, in the year 1632, Charles 1st, by the treaty of Saint Germains, ceded the whole of Nova Scotia and Canada to the king of France.

The French immediately began anew the settlement of Nova Scotia. It was divided amongst several French officers, who very soon commenced a course of petty warfare with one another.

21. In 1654, whilst the French were quarrelling among themselves and destroying one another, an English fleet, fitted out by Cromwell, for the recovery of Nova Scotia, effected an easy conquest over them, bringing the country again into the hands of the English.

La Tour, one of the French governors and son of Claude De la Tour, following the example of his father, sought to identify his interests with those of the conquerors, and obtained a grant of the country from Cromwell, in consideration of the transfer made to his father, by Sir Wm. Alexander. Shortly after, Sir Thomas Temple purchased the right of La Tour and expended £16,000 in repairing the fortifications. He was in the receipt of a large revenue from the fur trade, when suddenly the country again changed owners, passing into the hands of the French, by the treaty of Breda, in 1667.

22. During the various times that Nova Scotia was owned by the English, it was never completely deserted by the French, who still retained possession

of many obscure settlements. In the interval that now elapsed from the treaty of Breda, until the country was again conquered by the English, the French colonists received but little encouragement or assistance from their government. The whole population was estimated at 900.

23. Left in a defenceless condition, the French settlements at Port Royal and Chedabucto were visited and captured, in 1690, by Sir Wm. Phipps, commanding a force sent out for this purpose, by the colony of Massachusetts.

Nova Scotia was now considered English territory, and was annexed to Massachusetts, which was charged with the duty of defending it.—But the French had by no means relinquished their claim and many contests ensued, whilst the unfortunate inhabitants, called Acadians, constantly changing masters, were harrassed and deprived of their property. Port Royal was visited by pirates; and the inhabitants, unable to defend themselves, were pillaged, some of them hanged, and one family burned within their dwelling. The English colonists of Massachusetts attacked the defenceless Acadians of Chiegnecto, now Cumberland, plundered them of their property, and burned their houses.

24. Massachusetts, finding the defence of Nova Scotia more troublesome and expensive than profitable, wished to be set free from its charge.

As it yielded only furs and fish, it was little valued by the British Government, and consequently, in the year 1696, was restored to France, by the treaty of Ryswick.

The French having once more obtained Nova

Scotia, sought every opportunity of annoying the colonists of Massachusetts.

Through want of regular forces, they had recourse to pirates who were solicited to capture English fishing vessels, and the Indians were encouraged to commit ravages on English settlements.

25. The people of Massachusetts retaliated upon the Acadians of Chiegnecto and Minas, (Horton) taking away their goods, burning their houses, and breaking down their dikes. At length, they were aroused to the importance of taking Nova Scotia entirely out of the hands of the French. Accordingly having obtained the assent of the British Government, with the promise that it should not again be restored to France, they succeeded, in the year 1710, in effecting the conquest of Port Royal. The expenses of the expedition amounted to £23,000, which were defrayed by the British Government.

As the fate of Port Royal usually decided that of the whole country, Nova Scotia was now considered an English possession. The French, after making several ineffectual attempts to regain the country, finally ceded it to the English, in 1713, by the treaty of Utrecht.

26. Port Royal now received the name of Annapolis Royal, in honor of queen Anne, the reigning Sovereign of England. For many years, very few English settlers arrived in the country, being deterred through fear of the Acadians and Indians. Of the former, there were now about 4000 in Nova Scotia, capable of bearing arms. These were summoned, by the Governor at Annapolis, to take the oath of allegiance to the Sovereign, or to leave the

country within a year. As their feelings and prejudices were all in favor of that country from which their fathers had emigrated, and whose language they still retained, the majority declined taking the oath, and as no facilities for removal were allowed them, they still remained in the country.

27. The French dispossessed of Nova Scotia, the value of which they were too late in appreciating, turned their attention to the island of Cape Breton which they still retained. In 1720, they began the fortification of a strong town, named Louisburg, in honor of Louis, King of France. At an expense of about £1,250,000, this town, situated in the south of the island, was made one of the strongest forts in America. It soon became the asylum for the perpetrators of the most cruel and daring assaults upon the English in the Peninsula.

A settlement at Canseau was attacked, during the night, by a party of Indians, several of its inhabitants were cruelly murdered, and it was pillaged of property to the amount £20,000. Many vessels, belonging to the English colonists, were captured by the Indians, and their crews cruelly treated, or put to death in the most barbarous manner. The plunder thus obtained, found a ready market at Louisburg. When complaint was made to the French Governor, on account of such conduct in a time of peace, he replied, that the Indians were an independent people, entirely beyond his control.

28. About this time, war was declared between France and England. The Governor of Cape Breton received the intelligence before the people of Nova Scotia. He immediately fitted out an armament and, taking the inhabitants by surprise,

made an easy conquest of Canseau and immediately after laid siege to Annapolis. Timely aid arriving from Boston, the French were obliged to raise the siege.

29. The colonies of New England urged on by the Governor of Massachusetts, now determined on the conquest of Louisburg. To this end, in 1745, they sent thither a force of 4000 men, under Wm. Pepperall, a militia colonel. Pepperall was joined by Commodore Warren, with additional forces, and they immediately attacked the town. After a few days siege, the Governor of Louisburg was induced to surrender. The New Englanders were quite surprised at their success, when they entered the town and surveyed its strong fortifications.

The French flag was allowed to remain in the harbour to deceive French trading vessels. Two East India men and a South Sea Ship were thus decoyed and captured.

About the same time, Prince Edward Island fell into the hands of the English.

30. The French soon took active measures to recover their lost possessions. A force of 1700 men was sent from Canada, and a fleet of 70 sail, including 11 ships of the line, was sent out from France, under the command of the Duke d'Anville.

The fate of this fleet was most disastrous. Some of the ships were lost in a severe gale, some were captured by the English, and others were disabled and dispersed.

After a passage of 90 days, the Duke arrived at Chebucto, with a very small force, many of his men having died and many more being ill. So great

was his grief at the loss he had sustained, that he died four days after his arrival.

The forces from Canada, designed to act in conjunction with the fleet, after waiting some days, despaired of its arrival and set out for home.

Having experienced several other reverses, the diminished and disabled fleet returned to France, without effecting any conquest.

In 1748, by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, Cape Breton, much to the annoyance of the New Englanders, was restored to France.

The French, desiring to obtain still more territory from the English, asserted that it was Acadia alone which had been yielded to the English by the treaty of Utrecht, and that that name pertained only to the Peninsula, consequently that a large country between New England and the Gulf of St. Lawrence, still belonged to the French Crown.

32. Roused by strong petitions from the New England colonists, against allowing this claim, the British Government resolved to begin at once the settlement of the country. Accordingly 3760 individuals, with their families, were sent out, under Governor Cornwallis, for Nova Scotia. They arrived at Chebucto harbour on the 8th of June, 1749. After establishing a civil government, consisting of a council of 6 persons, Cornwallis selected a site and commenced the building of a town which he named Halifax, in honor of the Earl of Halifax, a promoter of the enterprise.

33. Shortly after the arrival of the English at Halifax, the French settlers and Indians made them a visit, manifesting very friendly feelings, and tendering submission to the English Governor. But the

French Government, not yet abandoning all hope of regaining the country, immediately sent instructions to these people, influencing them to a very different policy. The Indians, led on by French commanders, committed the most barbarous outrages upon the infant colony. The town was frequently attacked by night and plundered, and the inhabitants could not enter the neighbouring forest, but at the risk of being murdured and scalped, or captured and carried off to Louisburg and sold as slaves. When expostulation was made to the Governor of Louisburg he replied, as before, that the plunderers were not his subjects and, consequently, were beyond his control, and that the captives were purchased to save them from the barbarous hands of the Indians. But he shewed his want of sincerity by retaining these captives until enormous sums were paid for their ransom.

The Governor of Halifax, having strengthened his position in the country, by erecting a block house at Minas—now Lower Horton, and a fort at Pesiquid, now Windsor, summoned the Acadians to take an oath of unconditional allegiance to the British crown. This they declined doing.

34. Meanwhile the barbarities of the Indians continued. At Dartmouth, where a settlement had recently been formed, the inhabitants were attacked, four men killed and scalped, and others carried off. Similar attacks were made upon other settlements. Governor Cornwallis, roused to the necessity of vigorous measures, denounced the Indians as traitors and issued orders throughout the country that they should be treated as such. He also organized companies to hunt them in their retreats, and offered a

reward of ten guineas for every Indian scalp. This retaliation gave a temporary tranquility to the settlement.

35. Determined to harass the English, and, if possible, to dislodge them, the Governor of Canada sent M. La Corne, with a force of 600 men, to Bay Verte, under pretence that that place was within his government. On intelligence of their arrival, Cornwallis dispatched Major Lawrence, with a small force, to secure the fidelity of the Acadians at Chiegnecto. But, at his approach, they burned their houses and fled to La Corne, thus increasing his force to about 1500 men. At an interview with La Corne, Major Lawrence learned that the French were determined to dispute the territory with the English, and, as his force was too small to cope with that of La Corne, he returned to Halifax. He was immediately sent back with a large force. On landing, he was opposed by the French and Indians whom he repulsed with much slaughter. He then constructed a fort which he named Fort Lawrence. This served to keep the French, who still remained in the country, in check.

36. In 1752, Governor Cornwallis returned to England and was succeeded by Peregrine Hopson. During his administration a number of Germans, upon the invitation of the King of England, formed a settlement in Lunenburg. These people met with opposition from the French and Indians, similar to that experienced by the English.

37. In the year 1755, a force of 3000 men, under colonels Moncton and Winslow, was sent to dislodge the French in Chiegnecto. The result of this expedition was the complete conquest of the French.

Two forts were forced to surrender, and the garrisons were sent to Louisburg, on condition of not bearing arms in America, for six months. The Acadians, who had aided the French, asserting that they had been forced to that service, were pardoned. It was at this time, that the name of the place was changed to Cumberland.

The joy inspired by this victory was much damped by reverses experienced by the English, in Canada. Also the arrival of a reinforcement at Louisburg, shewed that the French were determined to strengthen their position in America.

38. The Governor of Nova Scotia, apprehensive that another attempt would be made by the French to regain the Province, and fearing that in such an event, the Acadians, whose predilections for the French were well known, and whose fidelity to the English was in many instances worse than doubtful, would join the enemy, assembled his council to determine what course to pursue in relation to them. It was finally resolved to remove them all from the Province, and disperse them throughout the other colonies. Accordingly, without intimating to them what determinations had been formed, they were all commanded to assemble at their churches, where officers, with military forces, awaited them. Here they were apprised of their fate, declared to be the King's prisoners, and all their property, except money and household goods, confiscated to the crown. Many, suspecting no good was designed for them, fled to the woods. To prevent such from gaining a subsistence, their houses and barns were consumed by fire, so that most of those who had escaped were forced to return. About 7000 of these unfortunate

people were thus transported from Horton, Canard, Cumberland, and Annapolis. They were taken away from comfortable homes and set down poor and friendless, in a strange land, where they experienced great privations. Their fate was truly a hard one, and no doubt many innocent were made to suffer with the guilty; but the safety of the English colonists seemed to render the measure necessary. Many managed to escape the expulsion, and some afterwards returned.

Upon invitation of the governor of Nova Scotia, accompanied with every inducement, the lands thus vacated were settled by farmers from New England.

39. Meanwhile the English were endeavouring to wrest Canada from the French. In this attempt they often experienced sad reverses.

On entering upon a new campaign against the French in America, in 1758, it was determined to attack Louisburg. Accordingly a powerful force, under Generals Wolfe and Amherst, and Admiral Boscowen, made a bold attack upon the place. After a vigorous defence, the Governor of Louisburg was forced to surrender, on humiliating conditions. By the terms of capitulation, the islands of Cape Breton and Prince Edward were transferred to the English, and the soldiers of the garrison at Louisburg were made prisoners of war. There were great rejoicings in England on the reception of the news. The value of the place not being considered equal to the expense of maintaining a garrison, at the close of the war, the fortifications were destroyed. Shortly afterwards, upon the conquest of Quebec, all Canada came into the hands of England. Thus ended the rule of the French in America.

40. During the same year, Governor Lawrence issued orders for the election of the first Provincial Parliament of Nova Scotia, which he convened in October, 1758. It consisted of 22 members, elected by the people, a council of 12, and the Governor. Henceforward the historian of Nova Scotia tells of no cruel wars polluting the soil with human gore.

41. In 1761, a treaty was made with the Indians, and in token of their having laid aside all hostile feeling, the hatchet was buried by the chief, in presence of the Assembly and Council and the chief citizens of Halifax.

By the treaty signed at Paris, in 1763, the French relinquished, in favor of the English, all claim to Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, Canada, and the islands in the river and gulf of St. Lawrence.

42. The population of Nova Scotia at this time was about 13,000. The island of Cape Breton was annexed to Nova Scotia. In 1784 it was erected into a separate government with its capital at Sydney. New Brunswick also, which had hitherto formed a part of Nova Scotia, was at this time, made a distinct province. In 1819, Cape Breton was again united to Nova Scotia, with the privilege of representation in the Provincial Parliament.

43. Shortly after the treaty of Paris, when the British were in possession of more than half the Continent of North America, measures were passed by the Imperial Government of England, of so arbitrary a character, and so opposed to constitutional freedom, that most of the colonies refused to be governed by them. The British Government claimed and exercised the right of imposing a tax upon the colonies. This tax was levied in the form of a

duty on stamped paper, on which all deeds, bonds, wills, &c, were required to be executed, in order to be valid. A duty was also imposed on glass, paper, tea, and other articles of necessary use. The colonists remonstrated against being taxed by a Parliament in which they had no representation. The British Government remaining inflexible, all the colonies of importance, except Canada and Nova Scotia, were excited to rebellion. Thus began the revolutionary war, which ended in the separation of thirteen colonies and half the British territory, from the parent state. On the fourth of July, 1776, the revolted colonies declared themselves independent, and assumed the name of the United States of America. Great Britain acknowledged their independence in 1783.

44. Amid this general rebellion, Nova Scotia maintained her allegiance and fidelity to the British Crown. During the war some localities were indeed accused of revolutionary feeling, and the inhabitants of Onslow and Truro refused to take the oath of allegiance, in consequence of which their member was not permitted to take his seat in the house of Assembly.

45. The destinies of Nova Scotia were, no doubt, much influenced by the revolution. The policy of Britain towards her remaining colonies, was much modified by past experience. It is computed that Nova Scotia received an accession of about 20,000 inhabitants, who came from the revolted colonies, on account of their attachment to British rule.

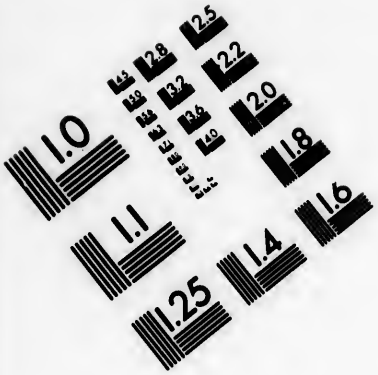
46. Since these events, Nova Scotia has been steadily increasing in population and prosperity. In the year 1818, the population of Nova Scotia Proper

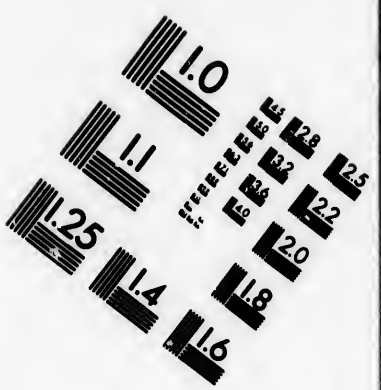
was 78,345; in 1828 it had increased to 123,848; and in 1851, to 221,239.

47. In 1823, Roman Catholics were admitted to equal civil privileges with other denominations.

Until the year 1838, a single Council, consisting of twelve members, possessed both Legislative and Executive power, and always sat with closed doors. This Council was then dissolved and two were created in its stead: a Legislative Council of 19 members, whose deliberations were to be open to the public, and an Executive Council, of twelve members.

48. The ten years following this change in the Council, were characterized by violent agitations in the country as well as keen contests in the Assembly for political reform. These movements, at length, resulted, in 1848, in the establishment of what is called Responsible Government. The Executive is now chosen from the House of Assembly to which it is responsible and whose confidence must possess to retain office.





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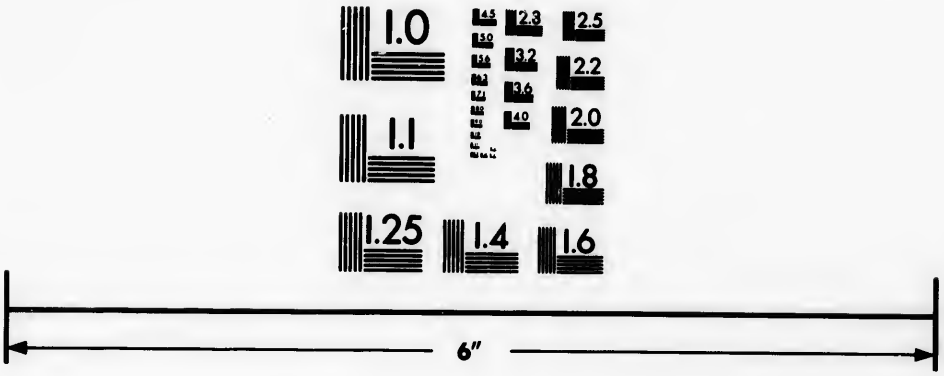

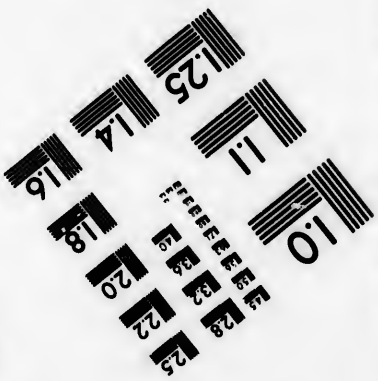

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VOCABULARY OF GEOGRAPHICAL TERMS AND DIFFICULT WORDS.

ABBREVIATIONS EMPLOYED IN THE VOCABULARY.

L. *Latin;* Gr. *Greek;* Fr. *French;* Swed. *Swedish.*

Accumulation [L. *ad*, to, and *cumulus*, a heap] The act of making a heap; a heap.

Adapt [L. *ad*, to, and *apto*, I fit] To fit one thing to another; to make suitable.

Agriculture [L. *ager*, a field, and *cultus*, tilling] The art of tilling the ground.

Allegiance [L. *ad*, to, and *ligo*, I bind] The tie that binds a people to their king.

Alternately [L. *alterno*, I take turns] By turns.

Alluvial [L *ad*, to, and *luo*, I wash] Carried to any place by water, applied to soils formed by rivers or the tide.

Amenable [Fr. *amener*, to lead or bring.] Liable to be called to account.

Antler [L. *ante*, before, in front] The horns of the moose.

Aquatic [L. *aqua*, water] Pertaining to water; living in water.

Aqueous. Watery; formed by means of water.

Architecture [Gr. *arche*, chief, and *tekton*, a carpenter] The art of building houses, bridges, &c.

Area. The space enclosed within any given lines.

Axis [Gr. *axon*, an axle] An axle; an imaginary straight line passing through the centre of the earth, on which it performs its daily revolutions.

Bras D'Or. Fr. Arm of Gold; the name of waters in Cape Breton.

Bowlder or Boulder [*bowl*, a ball used in a game] Rounded stones scattered over the surface of the earth.

Cape [L *caput*, the head] A head land; land running out into the sea.

Capital [L. *caput*, the head] The head or chief town in a country; the town in which the laws are made.

Capture [L. *capio*, I take] To take by force.

Carboniferous [L. *carbo*, coal, and *fero*, I bear] Bearing or containing coal.

Carnivora [L. *caro*, flesh, and *voro*, I devour] Flesh eaters.

Cascade. Fr. A small waterfall.

Cataract [Gr. Kata, against, and *rasso*, I dash violently] A great waterfall.

Cede [L. *cedo*, I give up] To give up.

Century [L. *centum*, a hundred] A hundred years.

Cereal [*ceres*, the goddess of corn and tillage] The grains used as food, such as wheat, rye, barley, &c., are called cereals.

Charter [L. *charta*, paper] A piece of writing giving certain rights and privileges.

Citadel. Fr. A place made strong, in or near a city, to protect against an enemy.

Circumjacent [L. *circum*, around, and *jaceo*, I lie] Lying around.

Civilization [L. *civis*, a citizen] The state of having good manners and general improvement.

Circumference [L. *circum*, around, and *fero*, I bear] The distance around a ball.

Climate [Gr. Klima, a slope, or slant] The condition of a country with respect to heat, moisture, &c., arising from its slope or inclination to the sun, &c.

Colony [L. *colo*, I cultivate] A company of people who have left their native place and settled in a distant country, still obeying the laws of their native country; the place thus settled.

Commerce [L. commercor, I trade] An exchange of the goods or products of one country, for those of another.

Continent [L. *con*, together, and *teneo*, I hold] A great extent of land not separated by water.

Coral [Gr. Kore, a damsel, and *als*, the sea] A solid substance, made in the sea by small insects.

Deposit [L. *de*, from or down, and *pono*, I place or lay] To lay down; something laid down.

Designate [L. *de*, from, and *signum*, a mark] To mark or point out.

Develop [L. *de*, from, and *velum*, a vail] To lay open; to uncover.

Diameter [Gr. *dia*, through, and *metron*, a measure] A straight line passing through the centre of a ball or circle, from one side to the other.

Dilapidated [L. *dis*, asunder, and *lapis*, a stone] Torn down, or fallen into decay—originally applied to stone work.

Diversify [L. *diversus*, different, and *facio*, I make] To make unlike.

Eject [L. *e*, out, and *jacio*, I cast] To cast or drive out.

Emporium [Gr. *emporion*, a market place] A city or town of much trade.

Empire [L. *imperium*, power] A country ruled by an emperor. An empire is usually larger than a kingdom. The countries governed by the Queen of England, are called the British Empire.

Equator [L. *aequo*, I make equal] A great circle passing round the earth, from east to west, and dividing its surface into two equal parts, called the northern and southern hemispheres.

Estuary [L. *aestuo*, I boil or rage as the sea] The part of a river where the tide meets the current.

Executive [L. *ex*, out, and *sequor*, I follow] Following out, performing; the person or persons who see that laws are carried into effect.

Export [*ex*, out of, and *porto*, I bear] To carry out of a country.

Exports. Goods carried out of a country.

Expulsion [L. *ex*, out of, and *pello*, I drive] The act of driving out.

Extraction [L. *ex*, out of, and *traho*, I draw] The act of drawing out; the race or family from which one is born; birth.

Extirpate [*ex*, out of, and *stirps*, a root] To root out.

Facility [L. *facilis*, easy] Ease.

Facilities. Things which make the doing of anything easy.

Frigid [L *frigus*, cold] Very cold. See *Zone*.

Frontier [*frons*, the front] The border; that part of a country which is nearest another country.

Fusion [*fundo*, I pour] The state of being melted; the act of melting.

Geography [Gr. *ge*, the earth, and *graphe*, a description] A description of the earth's surface; it includes three divisions;—Mathematical Geography, treating of the form, size, and motions of the earth; Physical Geography, treating of the natural features of the earth, as its lakes, rivers, mountains, &c.; Political Geography of the earth as it is changed by the hand of man,—the governments, religions, manners &c.

Geology [Gr. *ge*, the earth, and *logos*, a word or discourse] The science which treats of the materials forming the crust of the earth. Geography is confined to the surface; geology teaches about the rocks and other substances that are found by digging into the earth.

Gradually [L. *gradus*, a step] Step by step.

Grallatores [L. *grallator*, one who goes on stilts] Stilt birds or waders; they have long legs and wade into the water.

Granite [*grain*, as a grain of sand] A rock having a granular or grained appearance and made up of three minerals, quartz, felspar, and mica.

Gypsum [Gr. *gupsos*, chalk] A kind of lime called sulphate of lime.

Hemisphere [Gr. *hemi*, half, and *sphaira*, a ball.] Half a ball or sphere. The Northern Hemisphere is the half of the earth's surface to the north of the equator, the Southern Hemisphere, the half to the south of it.

Igneous [L. *ignis*, fire] Belonging to fire; formed by fire.

Implements [L. *impleo*, I fill up, I perform] That with which one performs labor; tools.

Imports [L. *in*, into, and *porto*, I bear or bring] To bring into a country.

Imports. Goods brought into a country from abroad.

Inaccessible [L. *in*. not, and *accedo*, I go to] Not to be reached; not to be obtained.

Impregnable [Fr. *in*, not, and *prendre* to take] Not able to be taken.

Inception [L *incipio*. I begin] Beginning.

Incident [L. *incido*, I fall on] Belonging to; an event.

Incorporate [L. *in*, into, and *corpus*, a body] To unite; to form into a body for purposes of government.

Inexhaustible [L. *in*, not, and *exhaurio*, I empty] That which cannot be emptied; unfailing.

Inhospitable [L. *in*, not, and *hospes*, a stranger] Unfriendly; giving no shelter to strangers.

Insessores [L. *in*, upon, and *sessor*, a sitter] A class of birds that often rest upon trees; perchers.

Insular [L. *insula*, an island] Belonging to an island; surrounded by water.

Isthmus [Gr. *isthmos*, a neck] A neck or narrow portion of land, by which large bodies of land are connected.

Judicial [L. *judex*, a judge] Belonging to courts of law.

Jurisdiction [L. *jus*, right, and *dico*, I say] The power of doing justice in cases of complaint.

Latitude [L. *latitudo*, breadth] The distance of any place from the equator. North latitude is north of the equator, South latitude, south of it.

Lava [L. *lavo*, I wash or flow] A stream of melted stones, thrown out of a volcano.

Legislative [L. *lex*, law, and *latum*, from *fero*, to bear, to make] Having power to make laws.

Legislature. The men who make the laws.

Literature [L. *litera*, a letter] Learning.

Longitude [L. *longitudo*, length] The distance of a place on the earth, from a north and south line, passing directly from one pole to the other. This line is called

the first meridian. East of the first meridian is East Longitude, west of it, West Longitude.

Lucrative [L. *lucrum*, gain] Bringing money or gain.

Luxuriant [L. *luxuria*, plenty, excess] Very abundant; of great growth.

Mammalia [L. *mamma*, the breast] The animals which suckle their young.

Manganese. A grayish metal.

Manufacture [L. *manus*, the hand, and *facio*, I make] the act of making anything by hand, or by machinery; the thing made.

Maritime [L. *mare*, the sea] Belonging to the sea; near the sea

Mariner. A Sailor.

Maturity [L. *naturus*, ripe] Ripeness; state of perfection.

Metamorphic [Gr. *metamorphoo*, I change] Changed. Metamorphic rocks are those that have been formed by water and afterwards changed by heat.

Monarchy [Gr. *monos*, one, alone, and *archo*, I rule] A state or government in which the highest power is lodged in one person.

Navigable [L. *navis*, a ship] Allowing passage to ships.

Navigator. One who directs the course of a ship.

Nullify [L. *nullus*, none, and *facio*, I make] To make of no force.

Obstruct [L. *ob*, in the way of, and *struo*, I build] To block up; to hinder.

Oceanica [L. *oceanus*, the ocean] The ocean world. The islands in the Pacific Ocean.

Palmipides [L. *palma*, the palm of the hand, and *pes*, a foot] A class of birds having the toes connected, by means of a skinny substance; webfooted. These birds are also called natatores or swimmers.

Parallel [Gr. *para*, by the side of, opposite, and *alleton*, one another] Lines running side by side and always the same distance apart.

Peninsula [L, *pene*, almost, and *insula*, an island] A portion of land nearly surrounded by water.

Petite. Fr. Little.
Phenomenon [Gr. *phainomenon*] An appearance.
Picturesque. Fr. Like a picture; beautiful.
Plateau [Fr. *plat*, flat] A plain.
Political [Gr. *polis*, a city] Belonging to a nation; belonging to government.
Precipice [*prae*, forward, and *ceps* for *caput*, the head] A very steep descent.
Projection [L. *pro*, forward, and *jacio*, I throw] A part extending out beyond.
Promontory [L. *pro*, forward, and *mons*, a mountain] A high point of land extending out into the sea.
Province [L. *pro*, for, and *vinco*, I conquer] A country belonging to a kingdom or state,—properly a conquered country.
Raptores [L *raptor* a robber] Birds that live by robbing and killing other birds weaker than themselves.
Rasores [L. *rado*, I scratch or scrape] Birds that scratch with the foot to obtain food.
Reef. A range of rocks at or near the surface of the water.
Rendezvous—Pronounced Ren-de-voo—[Fr. *rendez vous*, go, repair] A place of meeting or retreat.
Reptile [L. *repo*, I creep] Creeping animals.
Republic [L. *res-publica*, public affairs, the state] A state or country in which the highest officers of government are chosen by the people. The head officer is called President.
Reservoir. Fr. A store-house; a place where water is collected.
Resources. Things from which wealth or support is derived.
Responsible [L. *respondeo*, I answer] Answerable; liable to give account for one's conduct.
Revenue [L. *re*, again, *venio*, I come] Gain arising from any quarter; the yearly amount of public money brought into the treasury.
Revolve [L. *re*, again, and *volvo*, I roll] To roll around.
Revolt. To turn away from; to rebel against the king.

Revolution. The act of turning around; An entire change in the form of government.
Rugged. Rough; uneven with sharp hills.
Ruminantia [L. *ruminatio*, a chewing of the cud] A class of animals so called because they chew the cud.
Rodentia [L. *rodo*, I gnaw] Gnawers; a class of animals, including such as mice, rats, squirrels &c.
Salubrious [L. *salus*, health] Favourable to health.
Sanction [L *sanctus*, holy, established] To establish.
Scansores [L. *scando*, I climb] A class of birds, having the foot so formed that they can cling to the side of a tree, or climb upon it.
Sculpture [L. *sculpo*, I carve upon stone] To cut out; to carve.
Secluded [L. *se*, apart, and *cludo*, I shut] Shut out.
Sedimentary [L. *sedeo*, I settle] Formed of materials settled to the bottom of a liquid.
Shale. A rock having a slaty appearance.
Solution [L. *solvo*, I melt] The act of melting a solid; the liquid formed from solid.
Solar [L. *sol*, the sun] Belonging to the sun.
Staple. Firm; the most important production of a country.
Strait. A narrow passage of water joining two large bodies of water.
Structure [L. *struo*, I build] The act of building; the way in which the parts of anything are placed.
Sublime [L. *sublimis*, high] Lofty; grand.
Subsequently [L. *sub*, under, and *sequor*, I follow] Following after; at a later time.
Surface [Fr. *sur*, upon, and face] The outside part.
Suspension [L. *sub*, under, and *pendeo*, I hang] State of being hung up. Solids are suspended in liquids, when they do not sink to the bottom and are not dissolved.
Temperature [L. *tempero*, I mix or moderate] State of a body with regard to heat.
Terminus. L. A limit, an end.
Terminate. To end.

Thoroughfare. A passage.

Torrid [L. *torreo*, I roast] Very hot. The torrid zone is that part of the earth, lying between the Tropics.

Tropic [Gr. *trope*, a turning] The turning point of the sun. The Tropics are two parallels of latitude—the Tropic of Cancer 23° 28′, north of the equator, and the Tropic of Capricorn 23° 28′ south of it.

Torpid. [L. *torpedo*, numbness] Stupid; unable to move and feel.

Trap [Swed. *trappa*, a stair] A kind of rock, so called because it often occurs in masses rising one above another, like steps. It is supposed to have been melted by great heat, under ground, and poured out over the surface, where it has cooled and taken its present form. The North Mountain is formed of trap.

Triangular [L. *tres*, three, and *angulus*, a corner] Having three corners or angles.

Ultimately [L. *ultimus*, last] At last.

Undulating [*unda*, a wave] Rising and falling like waves of the sea.

Utensil [L. *utor*, I use] A tool which one uses in doing work.

Vagrant [L. *vagor*, I wander] Wandering about.

Volcano [L. *vulcan*, the god of fire] A burning mountain. The ancients regarded Vulcan as the blacksmith among the gods, and volcanoes as his forges.

Zone [Gr. *zone*, a belt A belt.] The earth's surface is divided into five zones:—the Torrid Zone around the middle of the earth, the North Temperate Zone to the north of the Torrid, the South Temperate Zone, to the south of it, the North Frigid Zone around the North Pole, and the South Frigid Zone around the South Pole.

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