

SCIENCE.—SUPPLEMENT.

FRIDAY, OCTOBER 8, 1886.

HISTORY AND POETRY IN GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES.

At a meeting of the Scottish geographical society held the 23d of July, Professor Micklejohn read a paper on the above subject. Professor Micklejohn first reminded his hearers of the poverty-stricken treatment of geography now in vogue in our schools, and after pointing out how geography, if taught intelligently, might be made fresher and of more interest, he treated the special question of his paper as follows :—

Is there any possible source of interest in the mere names which geography presents to us with such irritating profuseness? Do the names themselves constitute one of the tentacles that may catch the attention and entangle the interest of an awakening mind? Will some knowledge of what names really are and mean throw light upon geography, and will geography throw light upon them? For, in any school subject, it is clearly the educational duty of the teacher to employ every possible source of interest, provided this does not compel him to wander from the subject itself. I think we shall find, after a very short inquiry, that there lies in the names alone a most fruitful and legitimate source of interest, and one that lends additional attractions to the study both of geography and history. As things are at present, geographical names are treated as finalities, behind which you cannot go,—as what the old school of philosophers used to call ‘ultimate facts,’ inquiry into and analysis of which are entirely useless.

Let us see. There was in the beginning of the seventh century a prince of Northumbria in this island, who was very successful in his campaigns, and who pushed his frontier line as far north as the river Forth. He found there a high rock (a hill-fort or *dun*), and to it he gave the name of Dunedin. Later on, the growing city took the Teutonic name of a fortified place (*burg* or *borough*), and was henceforth known to the world as Edwinburgh or Edinburgh. Let us contrast this with a borough in the south,—with *Canterbury*. The name *Canterbury* contains within itself a whole history of England written small. First of all, there is the Celtic prefix *cant*, which seems to be the southern form of the Gaelic *ceann* (a head or point),—names which we find in *Can-*

more, *Cantire*, *Kinross*, and many others. The *t* is an inorganic addition, put there for a rest, as in the Worcestershire *clent* for *glen*. The *er* looks like a quite meaningless suffix to *cant*. But it is far from being only that. It is the pared-down form of an important word,—of the old Anglo-Saxon or Old-English genitive plural *ward*. The full form of *Canterbury*, then, is, *Cantawarabyrig*, or ‘the borough of the men of Kent.’ The flattening of *Kant* into *Kent* may be compared with that of *bank* into *bench*; of *Pall Mall* into *pell-mell*; and of many other doublets. The lighter and easier ending in *y* points to the fact that the southern Teuton got rid of his gutturals at an earlier date than the northern Teuton did; and this fact is recorded in the ending *gh*, which was no doubt sounded in the throat—borough—up to a comparatively late date in Scotland.

I was travelling in Staffordshire the other day. The name *Stafford* has probably a meaning; but it does not present itself at once to the reader. The train ran along a clear shallow stream, which flowed through green meadows,—a stream called the *Sow* (a name probably the same as that of the *Save*, which runs into the Danube), and the train came to a station on the river, called *Stamford*. Here there was a set of stones, placed at regular distances for crossing the river. The next station was *Stafford*,—the ford where there were no stones, but a *staff* was required for crossing.

There is a little country in the north of Europe—much cut down of late years by the growing encroachments of Germany—which we call *Denmark*. This name looks as final and as meaningless as any ordinary surname we happen to know. But the word *mark* is the name for the germ—the family unit—of Teutonic civilization; and, if we were to follow out its history in Germany and in this country, we should be able to read in it the origin and the rise of local freedom and of municipal liberties. Denmark is the *mark* or *march-land*, or district of the Danes, as Brandenburg is the mark of the Brandenburgers, and Finmark of the Finns. We have the same word softened in *Mercia*, the land which marched with all the other kingdoms of Saxon England, and in *Murcia*, the march-land between the Moorish kingdom of Granada and the other kingdoms of Christian Spain.

These are but a few stray instances of the light that may be thrown upon geographical names by a very slight examination and a little inquiry.

But let us now take a rapid survey of the kinds of names in the United Kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland, and see what supplies of interest and of illustration lie ready to the hand of the geographical teacher as he introduces his pupils to those places and natural features which fall into the scheme and method of his course of teaching.

We are, first of all, met by the obvious, and indeed salient fact, that the names of most of the natural features — rivers, mountains, and lakes — have been given to them by the old and great but decaying race whom we call Celts. There is hardly a single river-name in the whole of Great Britain that is not Celtic. Men come and go, towns rise and decay; even the sites of the towns disappear and are forgotten: but the old river-names remain — they are more lasting than the names of the eternal hills, just as the rivers are more lasting than the so-called eternal hills themselves. The two commonest words for *water* or *river* are the Celtic words *avon* and *esk* or *uisge*. They were at first generally common nouns. From common nouns they became either proper names or meaningful suffixes; and we find *avon* or *ab*, in all parts of India and Europe, as the name for a stream. There are, I think, thirteen Avons in England alone, five or six in Scotland, and about ten in Ireland. The word itself is cut down and transmuted in the most curious manner. It becomes *Inn* in Fife and in the Tyrol; it becomes a mere *n* in the names of the French rivers Seine, Aisne, and Marne; and it becomes *ana* in the Spanish *Guadiana*, which is our word *avon* with the Moorish or Arabic prefix of *wadi*. In Hindostan the name appears as *ab*, as in the country of the five rivers or *Punjab*, in the country of the two rivers or *Duab*; and, last of all, it appears as *ub* in the *Danube*.

There is, on the other side of the Firth of Forth, a village called *Aberdour*, which means the place at the mouth of the river *Dour*. This last part of the word is the Celtic or Cymric word *der* (water); and this root is found in forty-four names of rivers in Italy, Germany, France, and Britain. There is *Dour* in Fife, in Aberdeen, and in Kent; we find *Doare* in Spain; an *Adour* and a *Durance* in France; and in many parts of England it takes the simple form of *der* at the end of the word, as in *Rother* (the red water), *Calder* (the winding water), in *Dniester*, and in *Derwent* (which means the clear water). To trace the similarity in all of these and many more differences — to find out the underlying identity in the varied diversity — is one of the mental exercises which combine the interest of hunting with the quiet and self-controlled use of the practical judgment, and which

we have a right to call, on this account, educational in a very high degree.

Let us take another example of a similar nature. The Gaelic and Erse word for *water* is *uisge*; and this name appears in the most protean forms in several scores, perhaps in hundreds, of river-names in Germany, Italy, France, Spain, Ireland, and Great Britain. The following are only a few of its transmutations: *Esk* and *Ex*; *Usk*, *Ugg*, and *Ux*; *Ock*, *Oke*, and *Ox*; *Use* and *Ouse*; *Ax* and *Iz*; *Eska*, *Eskey*, and *Esker*; *Oise*, *Issa*, and *Issy*; *Isère* and *Isar*; *Isen* and *Etsch*. And many of them give us the names, and with the names the positions, of such towns as *Exeter* and *Exmouth*; *Axbridge* and *Axminster*; *Uxbridge*, *Oxford*, and *Bannockburn*.

If the teacher knows the old Celtic word for *mountain*, — as, indeed, every one does, — he can go a pretty long way in throwing some light upon some geographical names. Not to insist too much on the historical conclusions drawn from the fact that we find the Gaelic-Celtic form *Ben* in the west and north, while the Cymric-Celtic form *pen* is found only in the east and south, the teacher can point to the identity of *pen* and *ben*, and show how *pen* appears in *Pennine* and *Apenine*, in *Gram-pian* and *Pentland*, in *Pennigant* and *Penrith*, in the Spanish *Pentra* and the Greek mountain *Pin-dus*. Then, again, we have the same root in *pin* and *pinnacle*, in *pine* and *spine*. The Gaelic form, *Ben* is found in *Benan* (the hill of birds), *Benledi* (the mount of God), *Benrachie* (the spotted mountain), *Benmore* (the great mountain), and many others.

Again, *Aber* and *Inver* are two dialectic forms of the same word, the *n* in *inver* being probably inorganic. Both words mean 'the mouth of a river.' *Aber* is found repeatedly in Brittany, about fifty times in Wales, about twenty times in middle Scotland, three or four times in England, but never in Ireland. We know the position of such towns as *Aberconway*, *Aberystwith*, *Aberdeen*, *Aberwick* or *Berwick*, *Aberbrothock* or *Arbroath*, the moment we utter their names; and the same may be said of the towns at the mouths of the Ness, the Leithen, the Aray, and the Ury; that is, *Inverness*, *Innerleithen*, *Inveraray*, and *Inverury*.

Take another minor point from a Celtic language. *Ard* is the Gaelic for *point* or *height*, and we find it in *Ardnamurchan*, *Ardwich-le-Street* (the high town on the great Roman road), and many other names. But if we go down to the south coast of England, — to Hampshire and Devonshire, — we find that a small projecting point used by sailors to land their boats at is called a *hard*, with the southern breathing attached; and the name was most probably left there by the oldest Britons.

If, moreover, the teacher knows that *Llan* and *Kil* mean a church, *Tor* a height, *Innis* or *Ennis* or *Inch* an island or water-girt peninsula; that *Linn* means a pool, as in *London* and *Lincoln*; that *Nant* means a valley, as in *Nantwich*, — if he knows the meaning of these and a few other Celtic words, he can put into the hands of his pupils a key which will enable them to unlock the meaning of hundreds of names, not only in Great Britain and Ireland, but on the continent of Europe.

Let us next take a very quick glance at the earliest Roman contributions to our names of British places. These are only six, and they were given to Britain and British times. They are *castra*, *strata* (*strata via*), *fossa*, *vallum*, *portus*, and *colonia*. One or two examples will be enough for our purpose. There were in early British Britain no roads worthy of the name; and, as soon as the Romans made up their minds to hold this island, they set to work, and drove several splendid roads through it from south to north. First of all, from Richborough, near Dover, they made a road, called *Watling Street*, through Canterbury and London, by Stony Stratford, on to their standing camp on the Dee, — the *Castra* of the northern Roman army, which is still called simply *Chester*. This road ran on through Westmoreland, across the top of a mountain, which is called *High Street* to this day. Ermin Street ran from London to Lincoln; Icknield Street, from Norwich to Exeter; and there were several other great roads. But the point for the geographical learner is, that these splendid works can still be traced, partly by their actual remains, and partly by the names of the Saxon towns that were of necessity built upon them, and nowhere else. The word *street* enters into the names of these towns in the character either of a suffix or of a prefix. Thus we have Streetham, Stretton, and Stratton; Stretford and Stratford; Chester-le-Street and Ardwich-le-Street; and a great many others.

The corresponding word in Scandinavian languages is *gate*, which is a derivative of *go*, and the Low-German form of the High-German *gasse*. This word, however, we now find restricted to *streets*; that is, roads in towns or cities. Thus Edinburgh has its Cowgate and Canongate; Dundee, its Overgate and Nethergate (which some weak persons wished to change into Victoria Street and Albert Street); York, its Michlegate, Jubbergate, Castlegate, Fishergate, and sixteen others. But the geographical inquirer, looking abroad, finds a much wider application for the word. The name indicates not merely a street in a town, but also a street through lines of hill or cliff; and in this sense we have it in Reigate (which is Ridgegate), Margate, Sandgate, and the Ghauts of India

(which are either passes through ranges of hills, or passages down to the banks of the rivers). This by the way.

But the Latin word which contains for us the largest amount of history is *castra*. And it not only contains a great deal of Roman history: it contains also a considerable amount of English history. This word we find generally as a suffix to our names of towns, and we find it in three different forms, — *caster*, *chester*, and *cester*. In the Anglican kingdoms of the north it appears in the form *caster*; in the Saxon kingdoms it takes the form of *chester*; and in Mercia, which was mainly Anglican, but under Saxon influence, we find the intermediate form of *cester*. But in the district north of the Tees, the Saxon form *chester* re-appears; and we find such names as Ribchester, Chesterholm, Rutchester, and others. The two forms *Castor* and *Chester* stand right opposite to each other at one point in England. The river Nen divides Northamptonshire, which is Danish, from Huntingdonshire, which is purely Saxon; and on the opposite banks, standing on either side of the river, we find two villages, both with the same name, but the one called *Castor* and the other *Chesterton*. The main point, however, for the young inquirer to notice, is that all these places were at one time Roman camps; and from the number of these he can himself easily judge as to the military character and social intensity of the Roman occupation.

We now come to the third layer of civilization in this island, — the layer which was deposited by the Teutons, who immigrated into this country from the northern part of the land which we now call Germany. This deposit began to be laid down in Great Britain in the middle of the fifth century; and the character of this contribution to British habits is best indicated by Mr. Isaac Taylor in his 'Words and places.' He says, "England is pre-eminently the land of hedges and enclosures. On a visit to the continent, almost the first thing the tourist notices is the absence of the hedgerows of England. The fields, nay, even the farms, are bounded only by a furrow." And he points to the universally recurring terminations *ton*, *ham*, *worth*, *stoke*, *fold*, *park*, and *bury* — all of which convey the notion of enclosure or protection — as proof of the seclusiveness of character of the Anglo-Saxon, of how strongly "imbued was the nation with the principle of the sacred nature of property, and how eager every man was to possess some spot which he could call his own."

Now, if the learner is armed with the knowledge and the meanings of these words, and with some power of tracking them under their different forms, he has the power of fixing upon the chief Anglo-

Saxon settlements in Britain and in other countries. We have, for example, the name *Haddington*, as the town of the sons of Haddo; *Symington* and *Thankerton*; *Campbelton* and *Hartington*; *Boston*, which is St. Botolph's town; *Northampton* and *Southampton*; and many more. But the suffix *ton*, as the most common local termination of our British local names, is worth a little more examination. The word is the Low-German form of the High-German *zaun* (a hedge); and the word *tun* or *ton* meant in the older times a place surrounded by a hedge, or fortified by a palisade. In this sense it indicated a croft, a homestead, or a farm; and this sense it still retains in Scotland. Thus the isolated *ton* might become the nucleus of a village, the village might grow into a town, and the town into a city with millions of inhabitants.

In the same way, a *stoke* is a place stockaded, a place surrounded and guarded by stocks and piles. The word takes the four different forms of *stock*, *stoke*, *stow*, and *stol*. We have it in Stockbridge, the suburb at the bridge over the Leith; in Stockholm and Woodstock; in Stoke-upon-Trent; in Stow; and in Bristol, which was in the oldest English *Briegstow*.

Another highly significant suffix is *burgh*, *borough*, or *bury*, which comes from the old verb *beorgan* (to shelter or cover). The last is the distinctively Saxon form; the two first are Anglican or Norse. But, indeed, the root has spread itself over many countries; and we find it in Spain in the form of Burgos; in France, as *Caesar's burg*, or Cherbourg; in Asia Minor, in the shape of Pergamos. We have it also in Germany in Augsburg (that is, the city of Augustus), in Hapsburg or Habichtsburg (the stronghold of the Austrian hawk), in Edinburgh and in Musselburgh. The forms Shrewsbury, Shedbury, Glastonbury, and other such names, are, as I said, found mostly in the northern parts of Britain. One of the oldest and strongest forms of the root exists in the word *Burgundians*, who were among the first dwellers in burgs, burghs, or fortified towns.

While it is interesting to trace the existence of Anglo-Saxon names in Germany and other parts of the continent, it is curious to find them in considerable numbers in the north-west of France. Mr. Isaac Taylor points out that "in the old French provinces of Picardy and Artois there is a small, well-defined district, about the size of Middlesex, lying between Calais, Boulogne, and St. Omer, and fronting the English coast, in which the name of every village and hamlet is of the pure Anglo-Saxon type." The French people, we know, have a marvellous knack of contorting English words; and we have seen in their languages such forms — which cannot be called *parçé*

detorta — as *redingote*, *doggart*, and *boule-dogue*. In the same way, in this north-western French district, we find the English names *Holbeach*, *Warwick*, *Applegarth*, *Sandgate*, and *Windmill*, appearing as *Hollebecque*, *Werwich*, *Appegarles*, *Sangatte*, and *Wimille*.

Passing from names of towns to names of counties and kingdoms, it gives some indication of the past history of the island to find that Cumberland is the land of the Cymry; that Sussex, Essex, Wessex, and Middlesex were the kingdoms of the south, east, west, and central Saxons; that Surrey was the Sodereye, or south realm; and that Cornwall or Cornwales was the kingdom of the Welsh or strangers, who dwelt on the *horn* or peninsula.

The word *Welsh*, which appears as a word, as a prefix, and as a suffix, is one of considerable importance in the history and the geography of Europe. All Teutonic peoples call other nations by the general name of foreigners, *wealhas*, *Wälsch*, or Welshmen. In this sense England has its Wales, and, indeed, two of them; France has its Wales; Germany has its Wales; and so has Scotland and even Ireland. The word appears in many forms. In German and in English it is found as *wal* in *wallen* (to wander) and *Waller* (a pilgrim); in *walk*, in *walnut*, and other names. A German calls French beans *Welsh beans*, and speaks of going into France or Italy as going into Welshland. The Bernese Oberlander calls the French-speaking canton that lies to the south of him *Wallis*; and the Celts of Flanders are called *Walloon*s by their Teutonic neighbors. *Walloon*s probably means 'very great strangers indeed;' just as *balloon* is a big ball, while *ballot* is a little ball. In Old English, Cornwall was called *Cornwales*, the country inhabited by the Welsh of the Horn.

The fourth deposit of local names was made by the next horde of incursionists who made their way to these shores from the continent. The Northmen, Norsemen, or Normans have left their mark on many parts of Scotland, England, and Ireland.

One of the most striking tokens of their visit is contained in the fact that we call the north-east corner of this island by the name of *Sutherland*. Such a name must evidently have been given by a people — a conquering people — who lived to the north of Great Britain. And this was so. Sutherland was the mainland to the south of the great jarldom of Orkney. Here, accordingly, we find the Norse names for *island*, *town*, *valley*, and *farm*, — *oe* in *Thurso*, *Wick*, *dale* in *Helmsdale*, and *saetir* or *stir*. In the Shetlands every local name, without one exception, is Norwegian. We have *Sanda* (the sand island), *Stronsa* (the island

in the stream or current), *Westra* (the western island), etc. The Norsemen called the Orkneys the *Nordreyjar*; the Hebrides, the Southern Islands or *Sudreyjar*, a name which has been compressed into the odd dissyllable *Sodor*. The two sees of the *Sudreyjar* and the Isle of Man were combined in the twelfth century, and put under the Archbishop of Trondjhem, who appointed the Bishops of *Sodor* and *Man* down even to the middle of the fourteenth century. But, more, the enormous number of Norse names bears witness to the fact that the Shetlands, the Orkneys, the Hebrides, and the Isle of Man were not most useful dependencies of the Scottish crown, but jarldoms attached to the kingdom of Norway. And this was the case down to 1266. The test-word for the Norse settlements in Great Britain is the ending *by*. This appears in our language as *byre* (a cow-house), and in France as *bue* or *boeuf*. In the Danelagh, which lay between Watling Street and the river Tees, the suffix *by* has pushed out the Saxon *ton* and *ham*; and to the north of Watling Street we find six hundred instances of its occurrence, while to the south there is scarcely one. In Lincolnshire alone there are a hundred names of towns and villages which end in *by*. We find this ending in hundreds of names in Jutland and in Schleswig: in the whole of Germany there are not six. In Scotland we have the names *Lockerby* and *Canonby*, both in Dumfriesshire; in England we have *Grimsby*, *Whitby*, *Derby*, and many more; in Wales we have *Tenby*, and many other Norse names on the fiords that branch out of Milford Haven; while in France—that is, in Normandy—we have *Criqueboeuf* (or crooked town), *Marboeuf* (or market town), *Quitteboeuf* (or *Whitby*), *Elboeuf* (or old town), and many others.

The Norsemen have left their names on our capes, our arms of the sea, and our islands, as well as on our towns. *Ness* or *naze* is their favorite word for *cape*; and we have it in Fifeness, Sheerness, Foulness, Whiteness; the *Naze* in Essex; *Dungeness*, or Cape of Danger; *Skipness*, or Ship-Headland; *Blancnez* and *Grisnez*, on the coast of France; and a great many more. A *ford*, or fiord, is the Norwegian name for an arm of the sea up which ships can go, just as *ford* is the Saxon name for a passage across a river for men or for cattle. Both words come from the old verb *faran* (to go), the root of which word is found in *far*, *fare*, *welfare*, *fieldfare*, etc. We find the Norse meaning of *ford* in Wexford, Waterford, and Carlingford, in Ireland; in Milford and Haverford, in Wales; and in Deptford (the 'deep reach') on the Thames, and Oxford in England. Besides the Norse names for islands which we find in Scotland, in Thurso and Staffa (which is

the island of staves), we can discover many in England, generally with the spelling *ea* or *y*. Thus Anglesea is the Angles' Island; Battersea, St. Peter's Isle, in the Thames; Chelsea, the isle of chesel or shingle; and Ely is the Isle of Eels. But the most common form of this Norse word is simply *a*, and it is found in greatest abundance in Scotland. The Norse vikings were in the habit of retiring to one of the small islets off the coast during the winter months; and, when summer returned, they issued forth from them to resume their piratical cruises. These small islands still bear Norse names, while the local names on the mainland are Celtic. We have scores of those names ending in *a*, as Scarba, Barra, Ulva, Jura, Isla, Ailsa, Rona, etc.

Just as we saw that *ford* had two meanings, — one from its Norse, the other from its Saxon users, — so the name *Wick* has two meanings, each testifying to the different habits of the two nations. With the Saxon a *wick* was an abode on land, — a house or a village; with the Norsemen it was a station for ships, — a creek, an islet, or bay. The Norse vikings, or 'creekers,' lay in the *wicks* or *wicks* they had chosen, and sallied out when they saw a chance of a prize. The inland *wicks* are Saxon, and the abodes of peaceful settlers; the Norse *wicks* fringe our coasts, and were the stations of pirates. Of the latter kind we have Wick, in Caithness; Lerwick; Wyke, near Portland; Alnwick, Berwick, in Northumberland and Sussex; and Smerwick, or Butter Bay, in Ireland.

The parliaments of the Norsemen were called *things*, and this name they have left in several parts of Great Britain. A small assembly was a *Housething*, — a word we have in our own *hustings*; a general assembly of the people was an *Althing*; and the Norwegian parliament is to this day called the *Storthing*, or great council. These *things* met in some secluded spot, — on a hill, an island, or a promontory, — where no one could disturb the members. In the Shetland Isles we find the names *Sandstthing*, *Delting*, *Nesting*, etc., — the seats of local *things*; while the spot for the general council of the island was called *Tingwall*. In Ross-shire, too, we find a *Dingwall*, and in Cheshire a *Thingwall*. In Essex the word takes the softened and flattened Saxon form of *Denge-well*. In the Isle of Man the meeting-place was called *Tynwald Hill*; and the old Norse *thing* (name and thing) has survived, without a break in its existence, since the time of the Old Norse kings, but the institution has died out in Iceland and in Denmark. The Three Estates of the Isle of Man meet every year on Tynwald Hill, and no laws are valid in the island until they have been duly proclaimed from the summit.

We can, moreover, trace the identity of the Norwegian occupation by the number of local Norse names, and the contrasts are sufficiently striking. In Lincolnshire there are about three hundred Norse names; in Yorkshire, about three hundred; in Bedford and in Warwickshire, only half a dozen.

So much for history in our local names, and one might have easily said a hundred times as much on the subject. But there is interest, for both young and older hearers, in details and in points that are of much smaller importance.

The open-eyed and open-minded teacher, who is always on the lookout for whatever will bring into connection and interest with his lessons, will not disdain even the slight assistance he will gain from the relative positions of places, and the names that have come from this. He tells his pupils, for example, that another name for the German Ocean is the North Sea; but he will surely go a step further than this, and show him that there is a South Sea also, which the Dutch call *Zuyder Zee*. Another step, and he will point out that the Germans call the Baltic the East Sea, and that the West Sea must of necessity be the Atlantic. In the same way, the Weser or Vesper is the West River. In China this use of names of direction seems to reach its height: for there we have Peking and Nankin, the northern and southern coasts; Peling and Nanling, the northern and southern mountains; Peho and Nanhoo, the northern and southern rivers; and Nanhai, the Southern Sea.

Even the simple epithets *old* and *new* lend some interest to the teacher's work in geography. The word *old* takes many forms: it appears as *alt*, *elt*, *al*, and *ald*, in Althorp, Eltham, Albury, Aldborough. *New* is an epithet, which, like every other thing on earth, must itself grow old. Thus New Forest is one of the oldest forests in Great Britain; New college is one of the oldest colleges in Oxford, for it was founded in 1386; New Palace Yard, in Westminster, dates from the eleventh century; and the fifty-two New Streets in London are among the oldest in that vast wilderness of houses. There are in England 120 villages with the name of *Newton*, 10 towns called *Newcastle*, and 17 called *Newbiggen*. It is interesting, too, to observe the forms that the word *new* may take; as *Neuf* in Neufchatel, *Nov* in Novgorod, *Ne* in Neville, and *Na* in Naples or Neapolis.

Color, too, gives some interest to our geographical names. Thus Cape Verde is 'the cape fringed with green palms.' The local name for the Indus is the *Nilab* (or Blue River); and the mountains in the south of India are called the *Nilgherrie* (or Blue Mountains), — a name which we find also in

Virginia. The city of Atria or Adria, from which the Adriatic took its name, is 'the black town,' because it was built upon the black mud brought down by the Padus. The Himálaya, or, as we call the range, the Himaláya, is 'the abode of snow;' and Lebanon means 'the white mountain.' The word *Apennines* means 'the white heads;' Mont Blanc, Sierra Nevada, Ben Nevis, Snowdon, Sneealten, Snaefell, and many other mountains, all have the same meaning. The word *alp* itself, being a form of *albus*, gives us the same indication; and connected with it are Albania, Albion, and Albany, which was the old name of Scotland.

With pupils of a more advanced age, it would be useful to show the identity of the Hindostani *abad* and the Hebrew *beta* with the English *bottle* (we have it in Newbattle and Bothwell) and *bold*, with the Slavonic *Buda*, and with the Cymric *bod* in Bodmin and Boscawen. Allahabad is 'the house of Allah;' Bethany, 'the house of dates;' Bethlehem, 'the house of bread;' and Bethel, 'the house of God.'

We have seen that names throw light upon history, and that history throws light upon names; but names also throw light upon physical changes, and on the variations of climate that have taken place in this island. Thus we have in different parts of England places and parts of towns called *Vineyard*, where no vines can nowadays grow. Mr. Thompson, the eminent gardener, tells us that when he was a boy the island of Mull had many orchards of excellent apples, while now the whole surface of the island is not adequate to the production of a single eatable apple. He tells us, too, that at Hatfield, near London, — the seat of Lord Salisbury, — there used to be fourteen hundred standard vines, which produced the grapes that found the house in its supplies of wine; whereas now there is not a single grape produced except under glass. The name *vineyard* in Britain is therefore nowadays a name, and nothing more.

There is, not far from Loch Maree, in Ross-shire, a farm that bears the name of *Kinloch Ewe*; that is, the head of Loch Ewe. But Loch Maree, or Mary's Loch, was, geologists tell us, at one time only one of the upper reaches of Loch Ewe; and this conclusion of geologists is borne out by the name *Kinloch Ewe*, which is not on Loch Ewe at all, but about a mile above the upper end of Loch Maree. But there can be no doubt that this farm marks the point to which the older Loch Ewe at one time extended.

Local names, too, give us evidence of animals that are now extinct in this island. The existence of the wolf and the bear in England is marked by such names as *Wolfeslow* in Herefordshire, and *Barnwood* in Gloucestershire. The wild boar, or

eofer, was found at Eversley, Evershot, and Evert-ton; and the presence of the beaver is indicated by such names as *Beverly*, *Beverstone*, and *Bever-coates*.

Changes in our customs, too, are to be traced in old names. Two of the strongest marks of the importance of a town are to be found in the existence of a market, or the possession of a bridge over the neighboring stream. The Old-English verb *ceapian* (to buy) gives us the words *cheap*, *goodcheap*, *dogcheap*, *chapman*, *chaffer*, *horse-couper*, and *chop*; and it also gives us the prefixes *chipping*, *chep*, and *kippen*. Cheapside and Eastcheap were the old market-places of London; and into Cheapside, even to this day, run Bread Street (where Milton was born), Milk Street, and the Poultry. In the north of Europe we find Copenhagen, which means 'Chipping or Market Haven;' Nordkioping, which means 'North Market;' and many others.

Even the mistakes in names are full of suggestion. The readers of Sir Walter Scott's 'Pirate' know Fitful Head in Shetland as the abode of Norna. But Fitful Head, though a quite appropriate name, is a mere corruption, undoubtedly by mistake of the old Scandinavian name *Hvit-fell* (or White Hill). Cape Wrath, again, has in its oldest meaning nothing to do with storm, but, in its old Norse form of *Cape Hvarf*, simply indicates a turning-point, — the point where the land trends in a new direction; and it contains the same root as the words *wharf* and *Antwerp*.

Many similar corruptions are to be found in England. The walk from Buckingham Palace to Westminster is now called *Birdcage Walk*, which is only a meaningful corruption of *Bocage Walk*; *Chateau Vert*, in Oxfordshire and in Kent, has been altered into *Shotover Hill*, and a legend about Robin Hood and Little John has been attached; *Beau Lieu*, in Monmouthshire, has grown into *Bewley*; *Grand Pont*, in Cornwall, into *Gram-pound*; and *Bon Gué* (the good ford), in Suffolk, has been, too, naturalized into *Bungay*.

So far, we have seen that history and philology become the loyal servants of the teacher. Shall we be able to say the same of poetry? How shall the most brilliant outcome of the human intellect, the most inspired expression of the mind, the product of the noblest faculties, strengthened by and intertwined with the deepest emotion, help our much study of the world?

To some extent it has already done so. Longfellow has produced for us a geographical library in thirty-two volumes, which he calls 'Poems of places.' Four of them have been republished by Messrs. Macmillan & Co. in this country; but the whole thirty-two volumes ought to be in the library

of every large school and college. Such a collection contains, and must contain, a great deal of what is good, of what is indifferent; and we know that neither gods nor men columns tolerate the indifferent in poetry.

But let us choose that which is good, and hold fast to it. How does Longfellow introduce Edinburgh to us? We who know the city, and have loved it long, know that it is a poet's dream in stone, watched by the everlasting hills, looked in upon by the eternally-during sea, bowered in trees, intermingled with rocks and crags and cliffs, and possessing a history that no taint of doubt or cowardice has ever sullied.

How does Burns describe this world-famous city? —

"Edina, Scotia's darling seat,
All hail thy palaces and towers,
Where once beneath a monarch's feet
Sat Legislation's sovereign powers!

"Thy sons, Edina, social, kind,
With open hand the stranger hail;
Their views enlarged, their liberal mind,
Above the narrow, rural vale."

Sir Walter Scott sings of the city in other scenes, and with the thought of war in his mind: —

"Nor dream that from thy fenceless throne
Strength and security are flown;
Still, as of yore, queen of the north,
Still canst thou send thy children forth.
Ne'er readier at alarm bell's call
Thy burghers rose to man thy wall,
Than now, in danger, shall be thine,
Thy dauntless voluntary line;
For fosse and turret proud to stand,
Their breasts the bulwarks of the land."

Not inferior are the lines of Alexander Smith, whom many of us still remember: —

"Edina, high in heaven wan,
Towered, templed, Metropolitan,
Waited upon by hills,
River, and widespread ocean, tinged
By April light, or draped and fringed
As April vapor wills,
Thou hangest, like a Cyclop's dream,
High in the shifting weather-gleam.
'Fair art thou, when above thy head
The mistless firmament is spread;
But when the twilight's screen
Draws glimmering round thy towers and spires,
And thy lone bridge, uncrowned by fires,
Hangs in the dim ravine,
Thou art a very Persian tale, —
Or Mirza's vision, Bagdad's vale."

Not less true, not less adequate, is the sonnet written by A. H. Hallam, the early-lost friend, in sorrow for whom Tennyson wrote his 'In memoriam': —

"Even thus, methinks, a city reared should be —
Yea, an imperial city, that might hold
Five times a hundred noble towns in fee,
And either with the might of Babel old,
Or the rich Roman pomp of empery,
Might stand compare, highest in arts unrolled,
Highest in arms: brave tenement for the free,
Who never crouch to thrones, or sin for gold,

Thus should her towers be raised, — with vicinage
Of clear bold hills, that curve her very streets,
As if to vindicate, 'mid choicest seats
Of Art, abiding Nature's majesty;
And the broad sea beyond, in calm or rage,
Chainless alike, and teaching liberty."

But this side of the question would carry us too far. What I am driving at is a humbler aim. All through this statement I have been trying to insinuate, — to suggest that the teacher should bring into all his lessons on geography the maximum of connection; that he should try to make the map *live* before his pupils; that in education, as in a statue, there should be no dead matter; and that the satisfaction of the day's curiosity, or mental appetite, should be followed by the growth of a stronger appetite still. I think that we who live in this latter part of the nineteenth century may congratulate ourselves on the immense amount of young active intellect that has thrown itself into education, and on the better methods that, with this youth and activity, have been imported into our schoolrooms. It is not so long ago that boys were kept for years over the *As in praesenti* and the *Propria quae maribus* before they were able to form a first-hand acquaintance with even the easiest Latin author: nowadays a boy does not learn a new word or a new inflection without being asked at once to build his new knowledge into an interesting sentence. Not long ago children were taught lists of names without seeing a picture, a diagram, a model, or a map, and this was called geography: now we have the geographical societies, both of Edinburgh and of London, working steadily for them, and showing them all that there is of beautiful and wonderful, and strange and thoughtful, in the life of man upon this remarkable planet.

Another point before I have done. The path of education is the path of discovery; it is not the dead-beaten road upon which you can sow no new seed, it is not the region of the second-hand, the fossilized thought, the mere traditionary and repetitional idea. If, then, the teacher is to make those old times live again, — those old times that have left ineffaceable marks in our names of places, just as the underlying rocks have left traces of themselves in our soil, — he must excite the curiosity of his pupils, and set them hunting for new examples of old names; must ask them to find the old in the new, and the new in the old. It is as true of education as of life, — and the one is only an epitome and compressed symbol of the other, — that for us all it is

"Glad sight whenever new and old
Are joined through some dear home-born tie:
The life of all that we behold
Depends upon this mystery."

The passion of hunting is the strongest passion

in human nature: can we gratify this passion in the schoolroom? I think we can; and geography is one of the happy hunting-grounds in which we may be able to gratify it.

DR. CHARLES A. POWERS of New York contributes an article to the *Medical record*, giving the results of his treatment of twenty-one cases of injury by the toy pistol, and states that two deaths this year from this cause have come to his knowledge. In by far the greater number of cases the palm of the hand was the seat of the injury, although some had received injuries to the fingers, the eyelid, or the abdominal wall. The wounds varied in depth from one-quarter of an inch to two inches, and were due to wads from the blank cartridges or to pieces of the percussion caps which were blown into the tissues. The injured parts became inflamed, pus formed, and in many cases a septic condition of the blood followed, eventuating in some cases in tetanus and death.

— The official returns of the minister of education in Prussia show that the number of students in philology, philosophy, and history, in this home of the philosophical sciences, has been steadily declining from Michaelmas, 1881, to Easter, 1885; the numbers for the six sessions being 2,522, 2,535, 2,504, 2,398, 2,311, 2,258, 2,181. In three years and a half the decline in the number of philosophical students is thus fourteen per cent.

— Instances are not infrequently recorded in medical journals of the passage of needles and pins from one part of the body to another. In a recent case a needle one inch and a quarter long, which had been swallowed some months before, was removed from the arm of a bricklayer.

— A woman in Russia recently consulted a physician on account of a peculiar deformity from which she suffered. It consisted of a projection at the lower end of the spine which formed a tail two inches long, and half an inch wide. It contained two vertebrae, and these were covered with fat, hair, and skin.

— Russian newspapers state that prospects are good for the speedy construction of a canal between the White Sea and Lake Onega, thus affording water communication between the White and Baltic seas.

— John Ericsson, the well-known inventor, who is now eighty-three years of age, is still hale and hearty, and works as steadily, and as many hours per day, as he did twenty years ago.