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Notes on Russian Lapland

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Source: *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society and Monthly Record of Geography*, New Monthly Series, Vol. 2, No. 10 (Oct., 1880), pp. 593-602

Published by: [Wiley](#) on behalf of [The Royal Geographical Society \(with the Institute of British Geographers\)](#)

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OF THE
ROYAL GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY
AND MONTHLY RECORD OF GEOGRAPHY.

Notes on Russian Lapland. By Lieut. GEORGE T. TEMPLE, R.N.

Map, p. 656.

PERHAPS no part of Europe is so little known, even to the Russians themselves, as the peninsula which is bounded by Finland, Norway, the Murman* and White Seas, and the Gulf of Kandalaks. It is sometimes called the Kola† Peninsula, after its capital town, but is better known as Russian Lapland, a general appellation which includes that part of Karel lying north of Topozero,‡ or the 66th parallel. The eastern part of the Kola Peninsula is called by the Russians Terian Lapland, and by the Lapps themselves *Turja*, a corruption of the Karelian word *Jurjaniemi*, which signifies “tree point, or cape.”

Russian Lapland has an area of about 46,000 geographical square miles, and forms part of the *ujesl* or province of Kem, under the Government of Archangel. It is divided into three Stanovoi Pristaf, or bailiff’s, districts, and contains 11 parishes, with 12 priests and 17 churches. In 1859 the population, according to official Russian returns, was 9134.

The north-eastern half of Russian Lapland consists of barren wastes called “tundras”; forests cover about three-eighths of the whole area, and the remainder is occupied by lakes, tarns, and marshes. A line drawn south and east from Kola, across Lovozero to Sosnovets on the White Sea, will not only divide the peninsula into two nearly equal parts, but will show approximately the boundary between the wooded country and the tundras.

Forests.—The north-western part of Russian Lapland closely resembles

* The Murman coast extends from Jacob River to Sviatoinos. *Murman* is probably a corruption of *Nor’man*, for when a borrowed word begins with the letter *N*, the Russians commonly change it to *M*, and the greater part of this coast formerly belonged to Norway.

† From the Lappish *guola-dak*—“fishing-place.”

‡ The Russian word *ozero* signifies “lake.”

that part of Norway of which it is the continuation. The hills seldom attain an elevation of 1500 feet, and where they are exposed to the direct sea blast the bare rock is only relieved by birch scrub and various kinds of heather. Further inland the trees increase in size and number, until at a distance of 25 or 30 miles from the sea the birch is nearly lost in extensive forests of well-grown pine. The surface of the country is undulating, and the character of the landscape is quiet, lonely beauty. From the highest ridges, the eye ranges over an immense tract of thickly wooded hills, interspersed by numerous lakes, and varied by glimpses of river winding like silvery threads towards the sea. It is hardly possible to conceive a greater contrast to the ice-bound regions which lie between the same parallels of latitude in the western hemisphere. Patches of the light, graceful birch are interspersed among the dark, melancholy pines, having completely usurped the ground where the woods have been destroyed by fire. The aspen, mountain ash, willow, alder, bird-cherry, and wild currant, are also common, especially on the banks of the rivers and lakes. In Lapland the spruce appears to grow nearer the sea than the pine, the reverse being the case in Scandinavia. The woods recede abruptly from the coast to the eastward of Kola, where low-lying level tracts, which extend far inland, are fully exposed to the withering gales from the north-east. From Kandalaks eastward to Varsuga the spruce and pine descend to the sea-shore, but fall back gradually towards Sosnovets, where the birch barely reaches the Arctic circle. In spite of the prevalence of fires, the wasteful method of extracting resin, and the stripping of bark for bread,* before the forests were placed under proper supervision, there is still ample scope for judicious felling. Two of the largest rivers of Lapland, the Tulom and the Kola, both of which fall into the Kola Fiord, traverse the most thickly wooded districts, and would afford easy transport for timber; there are good sites for saw-mills at the mouth of the Kola, and a ready market would be found in Finmarken.† At present, however, timber is only exported from the White Sea and Archangel, on account of the restrictions imposed by the Russian Government.

Rivers.—With regard to the rivers and lakes in the interior of Russian Lapland, the maps hitherto published in England are both incomplete and incorrect. Many corrections have been made on the accompanying map, partly from the observations of Professor Friis—from whose works much of the information in this paper has been derived—partly from the maps of the Inspector of Forests of the district, and partly from information obtained from intelligent natives.

The river system of Russian Lapland may be considered in two divisions, the Murman Sea and White Sea rivers. The former flow in a northerly, the latter in a southerly direction, and half-way between them the Ponoi River flows from west to east.

* See page 601.

† The northernmost "amt," or province, of Norway.

The principal Murman Sea rivers between the Pasvig*—which for the greater part of its length forms the boundary between Russia and Norway—and Kola Fiord are the Bætsamjok,† Bomenijok,‡ Latshajok (in Russian, Kitzareka, or Fox river), Orajok, Tshadnajok, Tulomjok,§ and Kolajok.||

The unwooded country between Kola Fiord and Ponoï is intersected by several rivers, the largest of which are Tiriberka, Vuronje (in Lappish Kardok or Kardejok—"fence or boundary river"), and Jokonga (in Lappish Jokkojok).

The principal White Sea rivers are Tshjavanga, Varsuga or Varzouka,¶ Umbra, and Niva,** which forms the outlet of Lake Imandra.

The largest river in North Karel is the Kovda, which falls into the Gulf of Kandalaks at the town of Kovda, and is there 630 feet broad. It is larger than the Tulom, and is equal in volume to the Glommen, the largest river in Scandinavia. Rising in the great lake Tuoppajärvi,†† the Kovda first runs through Pääjärvi, then through five smaller lakes, and finally through Koutojärvi, from which it takes its name.‡‡

There are no high falls on any of the larger rivers of Russian Lapland. In the Tulom, salmon not only run up to Nuotjavre,§§ but also through that lake and up the Lut River to the frontier of Finland. In the Kola, they run up to Guollejavre. Salmon are seldom found in the Niva, though, as far as falls are concerned, they might run up to Imandra. In the Kovda they run up to Pääjärvi.

Lakes.—The principal lakes of Russian Lapland are Imandra, Nuotjavre, Guollejavre, Umbozero, Koutojärvi, and Pääjärvi. The largest of all is Imandra, which is also called Inandra,||| or Lower Imandra, to distinguish it from Enare, which was formerly called Upper Imandra. The Lapps, however, call it Aver.¶¶ It is about 60 geographical miles

* From the Lappish *basse*, "holy." The river is also called the *Kloster*, because the salmon fishery once belonged to the Peisen monastery.

† From the Lappish *bætsam*, "fir." *Jok*, pronounced *yok*, is the Lappish for "river." The Bætsam is called *Peisen* by the Norwegians, and *Petshenga* by the Russians.

‡ Probably from the Lappish *bomen*, or the Norwegian *bumand*, "husbandman."

§ From the Lappish *tulvom* or *dulvom*, "flood"; probably so called from its breadth, and the great extent of the spring and autumn floods; or possibly from the "flood-stream," the river being tidal up to the first rapid, a distance of 10 versts (6·6 English statute miles) from the sea.

|| See note † to page 593.

¶ The "lodges," or Russian coasters, ascend the Varsuga for a distance of several miles.

** *Niva* is a Finnish word signifying "rapid," or "torrent." The name is very appropriate.

†† *Järvi*, pronounced *yærvî*, is the Finnish for "lake."

‡‡ The Lappish word *goudo*, or *gooda*, signifies "broad."

§§ *Javre* or *Jaur* is Lappish for "lake."

||| Perhaps from the Finnish *ina* or *enar*, which means "a little net." In Finnish, therefore, both Inandra and Enare would signify "Net-lake," a name probably suggested by the numerous islands.

¶¶ Probably from the Finnish *avara*, "open" or "great" lake; or possibly a contraction of the Lappish *oaive-jaur*, "head" or "chief lake."

long, but less than nine in width at the broadest part. The greatest depth, according to the Lapps, is 150 feet, but Professor Friis could not find more than 66 feet. The isthmus between Guollejavre and Pieresjaur is a strip of low, swampy land, barely two-thirds of a mile broad, and as Guollejavre is the source of the Kola River, which falls into the Barents Sea, while Pieresjaur is connected with Lake Imandra and the Gulf of Kandalaks, the eastern part of the peninsula is very nearly insulated.

Next to Imandra the largest lake is Nuotjavre. It is said to be about 35 geographical miles long, and 7 broad. Like Imandra, it is full of islands and has low, richly-wooded shores.

The Karelian lakes are much deeper than those of the Lapland peninsula, and are probably far richer in fish, Koutojärvi, in particular, being celebrated for its fishery.

The lakes are generally frozen from the end of October to the middle of May, or about the same time as the White Sea; but it sometimes happens that the ice does not break up till towards the end of June. The frost is nearly always ushered in by snow, which prevents the formation of very thick ice. But for this, the shallower lakes would very likely freeze to the bottom, and the fresh-water fisheries would be destroyed. At the same time, lake and river communication, which is now open for about five months in the year, would be seriously interrupted.

Orography.—Eastward of the well-known track from Alten to the Gulf of Bothnia by Kautokeino, the Scandinavian mountains never resume their continuity, although the general uniformity in the fall of the ground is broken by several detached elevations. Thus there are three unwooded summits between the Pasvig and Lut rivers; and between Nuotjavre, the Kola River, and Imandra, are the following short ranges: Boats-oaivve* (in Russian, Olenja gora), immediately west of the Kola River; and the Volshe, Monshe, and Tshynedunder,† west of Imandra.

The highest and most extensive range in the eastern part of the peninsula, which, as already observed, is nearly insulated by the rivers and lakes between Kola and Kandalaks, is Umbdek-dunder, a serrated ridge on the east side of Imandra. According to the Russian traveller Middendorf, it attains an elevation of 2500 feet, and snow lies in the ravines, far down the slopes, all the year through. From Einemannevuon ‡ Umbdek-dunder runs in a north-easterly direction towards Lovozero, but it also extends to the southward, between Oktakanda and Kolvitsozero, terminating at Kandalaks in the four hills Savoivantsh,

* Lappish for "reindeer head"; probably so called because the reindeer resort to it to escape the countless swarms of mosquitoes which infest the lower grounds.

† *Dunder* is a Lappish word signifying "barren highland," or mountain.

‡ *Vuon* or *vuodna* is Lappish for "fiord."

Ruvd-dunder (iron hill), Gask-dunder (middle hill), and Valaste-dunder (lower hill).

There is also an unwooded height between Umba and Varsuga, and several smaller elevations exist northward of the forest limits, where the ground is flatter than in the wooded country, and in other respects resembles the "tundras" of Siberia.

Marshes.—The whole of Russian Lapland is extremely swampy, and there are several extensive tracts of boggy ground. These are partially barren, partially covered by moss and heather, and partially overgrown by sedges (*carex*), which are used for fodder. The cloudberry (*Rubus chamaemorus*) is very plentiful on some of the marshy grounds, and rich grasses are also found in places, especially near the rivers and lakes. The three principal marshes lie between the Tulom and Kola rivers, between the Varsuga and Ponoï rivers, and between the Ponoï and Bavja.

In August 1867, Professor Friis could not find frozen ground in any of the marshes near Imandra at a depth of about one fathom, and the existence of welling springs which do not freeze in winter, points to the conclusion that within the forest limits the marshes are not frozen underneath like those of Siberia.

Ice-free Fiords and Harbours.—It seems to be the general impression that Russia is shut out from the Northern Seas, and has no safe harbour open at all seasons of the year, while the fiords of Northern Norway never freeze at all. According to various authors, "the boundary of Northern Russia"—that is, a small river on the south side of Varanger Fiord*—"corresponds to the limit of the Gulf Stream." "From this point," it has been further stated, "commences that belt of solid ice which locks up the harbours of the northern coasts of Russia for six months in the year. The change from open water to ice is no less abrupt than permanent." If this were true, it would indeed be an eccentric freak of nature. But while it is an exaggeration to say that the fiords of Northern Norway never freeze at all, it is altogether erroneous to say that the harbours of Northern Russia are ice-bound for six months in the year. As a matter of fact, that portion of the great ocean current which sweeps eastward from the North Cape along the coast of Norway, retains sufficient warmth to ameliorate the climate, and keep the principal harbours on the Murman coast open to navigation the whole year through, as far eastward as Sviatoinos, at the very entrance to the White Sea. From thence it takes a north-easterly direction towards Novaya Zemlya. Therefore it does not sink under itself, or turn sharp round and run straight out to sea on reaching the boundary, neither is it suddenly chilled by coming in contact with Russian civilisation. The distance to which the fiords of Northern Norway freeze, from the inner end outwards, depends upon the severity of the season, and the quantity of fresh water discharged from the different sized rivers. This

* The Jacob's River.

is also the case on the contiguous Russian coast; the inner parts of the longer fiords freeze more or less every winter, but the outer, deeper, and more important parts, are free from ice the whole year through. The harbours of Russian Lapland are in every respect equal to those of Northern Norway; they would make equally good naval or commercial stations, and the nearest is only 14 miles from the frontier. Russia has, therefore, no just cause of complaint against the Gulf Stream, and as the Murman coast is farther south, it is in some respects superior to that of Finmarken.

Fisheries.—The Murman coast is visited annually by about 3000 fishermen, of whom 1000 are Norwegians and Finlanders, the remainder being Russians and Lapps. Some of these men come from Brönö, on the west coast of Norway, a distance of not less than 800 nautical miles, in their open boats, for it is a maxim in the north that “he who would eat bread in winter must not stay at home in summer.”

There are no less than 41 fishing stations on the Murman coast, and these again are divided into four groups, called the Western, Kola, Middle, and Eastern fishing districts. The Eastern district is but little frequented, and there are no huts at any of its eleven fishing stations.

The most important of all the species of fish caught on the Murman coast is the cod (*Gadus morrhua*). The fishery begins about a month later than in Norway, the shoals, followed by the fishermen, travelling from west to east. The cod seem to be confined to the waters of the warm ocean current, as they are not found to the eastward of Sviatoinos, or in the White Sea. Next to the cod, the following species are most worthy of notice from a commercial point of view:—The haddock (*Gadus æglefinus*), the green cod (*G. virens*), the tusk (*Brosmius vulgaris*), the bergylt, uer, or Norway haddock (*Sebastes norvegica*), the sea-wolf or sea-cat (*Anarrhichas lupus*), the halibut (*Pleuronectes hippoglossus*), the flounder (*P. flesus*), the common dab (*P. limanda*), with the capelin (*Malotus arcticus*), and the sand-launce (*Ammodytes lancea*), the two latter being used for bait.

The Greenland shark (*Scymnus borealis*) is plentiful along the whole of the Murman coast, but especially off Kola. There is ample scope for the further development of this valuable fishery. The finner, razor-back, or rorqual (*Rorqualus borealis* of Cuvier), is also common, Captain Foyn, of Vadsö, having captured no less than eighty-one during the summer of last year. Herrings visit the shores of Russian Lapland and the White Sea in vast shoals; they are also caught at the mouths of the Ob and Yenisei, but the fishery is not carried on with the spirit its importance deserves. The salmon fisheries of the Murman coast and White Sea were formerly very extensive, but at the present time the annual yield of all the rivers in the Government of Archangel does not exceed 1,260,000 lbs., valued at 23,750*l.* sterling. Owing to the entire absence of control and

proper supervision, the salmon fisheries are conducted in the most improvident manner both by Russians and Lapps; there is no close season, and the common practice of barring the rivers right across has a very prejudicial effect. The Lapland salmon are fat and well-flavoured, they often weigh from 40 to 50 lbs., and sometimes more. Salmon fishing begins later on the Murman coast than in Norway, and at Kandalaks and Kovda fish are sometimes not caught until towards the middle of August, neither do they run so far up the White Sea rivers as in those which fall into the Murman Sea.

Char, trout, gwiniad, grayling, perch, and pike, seem to abound in most of the rivers and lakes.

It is beyond the scope of this paper to enter into the various causes that have hitherto hindered the development of the rich fisheries of Lapland. At present the Russians are unskilful fishermen as compared to the Norwegians; their tackle is clumsy, and their method of preparing the fish when caught is primitive.

Game.—In the western part of Russian Lapland, swans, geese, ducks, and other migratory birds breed on the rivers and lakes; ptarmigan are plentiful on the open heather-covered ground; and in the thicker parts of the forests capercailzie are met with. There is always the chance of a shot at a bear, and wild reindeer are found on the high ground about Enare and Imandra. Eastward of the Kola River and Imandra, game appears to be comparatively scarce.

Colonisation.—The fisheries and other undeveloped industries of Russian Lapland offer a fine opening to emigrants from Finland and the Governments of Archangel and Olonetz. This is especially true of the north-western part of the country, where farming on a small scale has been made to pay by the few who have attempted it. But the social disposition of the Russians, who detest a lonely life and steady labour; the ill-health produced by frequent religious fasts, combined with the severe climate and scarcity of vegetables; the difficulty of obtaining legal protection where one officer and four subordinates have to uphold the majesty of the law along 460 miles of coast; and, above all, the wretched means of communication, have hitherto outweighed the inducements held out to settlers by the Russian Government, and Kola is still the only place on the Murman coast that is inhabited all the year round. On the south side of the peninsula, where colonisation has taken firmer root, there are 15 Russian villages, with an aggregate population of 3300. In 1859* the most important of these villages were Ponoï (containing 25 houses and 173 inhabitants), Pialitza (with 23 and 166), Tshapoma (38—243), Tetrina (58—355), Kusomen (55—334), Varsuga (54—249), Umba (69—461), Kandalaks (74—390), Knashja (22—125), and Kovda (57—406). Although some of these villages have existed for at least 200 years, they have made very

* According to the census of 1861.

little progress, and the number of Lapps in the interior has probably diminished rather than increased.

Kola.—The town of Kola is about 300 years old, and according to Russian reports had at one time 1864 inhabitants. In 1854, however, it was bombarded, and almost destroyed, by the *Miranda*. A colossal church, about 80 wooden houses, and some earthen huts, now stand on the site of the old town, and the population is said to be about 500. It is probable that Kola will never regain its former importance, as it is inconveniently situated for the fishermen, and has no inland trade. There is no postal communication between Kola and the nearest Norwegian towns, with which it is supposed to compete, and if a Kola merchant wishes to send a letter to Vardö, a distance of 115 miles, it must either go round by Kem, Archangel, Stockholm, and Christiania, or be sent by the hand of a fisherman or traveller, an uncertain and often risky alternative. Letters cannot be insured beyond Kem, and the postal arrangements are otherwise defective and irregular in the extreme.

Population.—The population of Russian Lapland consists of Russians, Lapps, Quæns,* and Karelians. The Russians are traders and speculators; the Lapps live by hunting, fishing, and the produce of their reindeer; while the Quæns and Karelians are agriculturists. They are all Greek Catholics, but some are “old believers” as distinguished from the Niconians. They are excessively strict in the observance of ceremonial, and abstain from meat for about half the year. In the eastern part of the peninsula, where it is impossible to observe the fasts on account of the climate, they are, however, allowed to eat ptarmigan, which is there called “flying fish,” either to pacify or deceive the saints, or to stifle the pangs of conscience while appeasing those of hunger. With one or two exceptions, the priests do not understand the language of their Karelian and Lappish parishioners; they are also very poor, and do not seem to be much respected. Great ignorance prevails in consequence, and few of the people can read or write. Only a few years ago, a Swedish linguist excited so much suspicion by “taking notes” in a Karelian village that he was forced to swallow the contents of his ink-bottle to show that they were harmless (!), and a photographic apparatus is still regarded with great disfavour, especially by the old women.

The Russians in Lapland do not differ much from the lower class of their countrymen elsewhere, and seem to answer exactly to Hepworth Dixon’s description,† which it is not necessary to quote here. Their lively, sociable disposition, and restless wandering habits, render them unfit to be pioneers of civilisation in a wild country, but they step in when industry is so far developed that there is a market for shrewd speculation. The Quæns are, on the contrary, specially fitted for the

* So called because numbers of them originally came from Kajana-Len, where they called themselves “Kainu-laiset.”

† In ‘Free Russia.’

life of a backwoodsman or solitary farmer. Hardy and independent by nature, the true Finlander likes to be monarch of all he surveys, and would rather endure hardship and toil than live in ease and comfort and own the control of a master. The Karelians and Quæns are nearly related, and their language is almost identical. In character, however, they differ materially, the Karelians having lost the perseverance, hardihood, and independence of their Lutheran brethren, without acquiring much of the enterprising spirit of the Russians. Ignorance, prejudice, and extreme poverty, are almost universal amongst the Karelians, but on the whole, the men are sober and industrious, the women chaste and domestic. A peaceful forgiving spirit is one of their most marked characteristics, and many of their national customs are peculiar and interesting. Owing to the scarcity of grain, the Karelians make bread with a mixture of fir-bark, straw, and damaged rye-flour. When used as a substitute for flour the inner part of the bark is stripped off, dried, pounded in a wooden mortar, and finally ground in a hand-mill; but when used in fish-soup it is simply chopped small. The Lapps inhabit the interior of the peninsula, each tribe being named after the territory to which it has a prescriptive right. They have, to a certain extent, adopted the manners and customs as well as the religion of the Russians, but though they do not wander from place to place with their reindeer like the true nomadic Lapps of Scandinavia, they are, nevertheless, frequently moving. In spring they generally disperse, the majority resorting to the smaller lakes for fishing and bird-catching, while some few go down to the coast and take part in the great sea-fisheries. Towards the middle of July the larger lakes are visited, and the salmon are trapped and netted with an utter disregard of everything beyond the requirements of the moment. In August they betake themselves to the autumn stations to hunt reindeer, martens, squirrels, otters, and bears. Finally, towards Christmas, they return to their winter quarters, where they live together in small villages called "pogosts." Each pogost has its own chapel-of-ease, and consists of from six to ten or twenty straggling wooden huts, the roofs of which are covered with birch-bark or turf. Every ten or fifteen years, when there is no longer a sufficiency of reindeer-moss and fuel in the immediate neighbourhood, the whole pogost, chapel and all, is pulled down and removed to a fresh site; the chapel is reconsecrated, and the huts and surroundings are well sprinkled with holy-water. Thus the villages never remain long in the same place, and are sometimes many miles distant from the parish church and parsonage. In dress and outward appearance the Russian Lapps differ but little from those of Scandinavia and Finland, but they have preserved more of their originality, and are far more ignorant, their knowledge of religion being almost confined to a parrot-like repetition of "Gospodi Jesuse Christe, süine boghii, pomilui nas!" (Lord Jesus Christ, God's Son, have mercy upon us). The dialects of the

various tribes differ so much that the people of distant districts have the greatest difficulty in understanding each other. Their legends and traditions are full of interest, but their national customs are now almost extinct, though the "Skolte"* Lapps still go through the form of carrying off their brides by force from a hostile tribe.

Notes on New Guinea and its Inhabitants.

By the Rev. W. G. LAWES.

As some guarantee for the trustworthiness of the statements in the following account of New Guinea, I may say that I lived as an agent of the London Missionary Society, for three years, at Port Moresby and Hood Bay on the south-east coast of the island, from December 1874 to December 1877. During this time I made several journeys into the Koiari district in the interior, and more than one voyage along the coast to the east. Instead of giving a detailed account of these journeys, I propose to condense the information I gathered under several heads, in the hope that whatever may be lost in interest will be gained in brevity.

Geography and Physical Features.—New Guinea has an area of 300,000 square miles, and is the largest island in the world. It is separated from the northern part of Australia only by Torres Straits, and these are only 85 miles across at the narrowest part. British jurisdiction, however, extends much nearer than this to New Guinea. By the annexation of the small islands in Torres Straits the limits of the British Empire have been carried to within two or three miles of the mainland itself.

In an island so large, and presenting such great variety, it is of first importance to know to what part of it any particular statement refers. I have preferred to treat only of that which has come under my own personal knowledge, namely, the coast region extending from Yule Island to the extreme eastern extremity of the island, but more particularly the vicinity of Port Moresby and Hood Bay.

This part of New Guinea presents a striking contrast to the central part of the island, or that lying to the west of the Gulf of Papua. There all is lowland, not visible at sea a few miles distant. Here, further east, we have a lofty mountain range running all along the south-eastern peninsula, and reaching in Mount Owen Stanley the height of 13,000 feet.

The dangers of navigation on this imperfectly surveyed coast are greatly lessened by these grand, immovable landmarks. As you ap-

* So called from a scrofulous affection of the head, which was formerly prevalent among them and deprived them of hair; it has been almost eradicated by the efforts of Norwegian doctors.

Map of
RUSSIAN LAPLAND

Drawn from the Original map made by
Professor **J.A. FRIIS**
by **George T. Temple.**

Scale: 1:2,200,000 or 30:1, geog. m. to an in.

- Russian Village +++ Boundary line of Finland and Norway
 - Karelian " --- " of Russian Lapland
 - △ Lappish " --- Limits of Stanovoi or Police Districts
 - ⚡ Lappish Chapel --- Northern limit of compact leaf wood
 - + Fishing Station (|||||) " " fir wood
- Proposed Road
Dunder (lap) barren highland or m^{ts}. Jaur jaur (lap) Lake. Niarglapi (hint).
T. Mon, Vuodna (lap) River. Jaur (lap) River. Jauri (fin) Lake. Ozero (ras) Lake.
Ostro (ras) Island. Gaba (ras) Bay. M. Mys (ras) Point.

W & A K Johnston, Edinburgh & London.

Pub^d for the Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society 1880.