London, and also with Bristol and Hull, was begun in 1776 by the celebrated Brindley, a native of the county, and completed under Smeaton and Rennie. It passes through Derbyshire from Burton, following the course of the Trent The Chesterfield canal was begun in 1771 by Brindley, and completed by his brother-in-law, Mr Henshall, in 1776. It enters the county at Killamarsh, and terminates at Chesterfield. There are also the Langley Bridge or Erewash canal, the Peak Forest canal, the Ashton-under-line, the Cromford, the Ashby-de-la-Zouch, the Derby, and the Nutbrook canals.

Nowhere have railways received a more complete development than in this county, and nowhere are their beneficial effects more apparent. For this the system of the Midland Company must claim the chief credit. The roads in Derbyshire are numerous, and generally in good condition. The great road from London to Manchester crosses the Trent near Shardlow, and passes through Derby and Ashbourne into Staffordshire.

Geology, Minerals, &c.—With the exception of drift gravel, and some alluvial deposits, the rocks of this county belong to the Palæozoic and Mesozoic periods. The mountain limestone underlies all the other rocks, and in the Peak district rises to a great elevation. It is in this formation that the well-known caves of Derbyshire occur. The calcareous rocks are confined to the western side of the county,—Tissington being the southern, Castleton the northern, Axe Edge the western, and Matlock the eastern extremities. There is also an outcrop at Crich. The intrusive beds of toadstone (some of which attain a thickness of 200 feet) and volcanic mud mark great submarine eruptions when this ancient lava was spread over the sea-bottom. It is estimated that upwards of half a million tons are worked yearly. The marbles are numerous and valuable for ornamental purposes. Derbyshire also contains several metallic ores—viz., galena, barytes, zinc, calamine, fluor spar, and elaterite. Galena (sulphide of lead) is obtained rather extensively, some mines near Castleton having been worked by the Romans. In 1874 the quantity raised was 4301 tons, from which were extracted 800 ounces of silver. In connection with galena zinc is found, of which 4050 tons were raised in 1876; of calamine (carbonate of zinc) 30 tons. Barytes is used as an inferior white paint, and also for ornamental purposes. The total output for 1876 was 2700 tons. Blue john is a somewhat rare fluor spar, impregnated with oxide of manganese. It is one of the most ornamental minerals of the county, and is much used in the manufacture of tazzas, brooches, &c. In one or two places a thin seam of coal is found in the mountain limestone. Copper was once worked in this formation at Eoton, on the border of the county, but it has never been abundant. Traces of gold have also been found in toadstone Chert is got near Bakewell, and is used for the manufacture of porcelain. The most remarkable and rare mineral is elaterite, or elastic bitumen, found at Windy Knoll, near Castleton. It is found only at two other places—at Montrelaix in France, and in Connecticut, United States. The fauna of this formation may be briefly tabulated as follows, from Etheridge's list—Cœlenterata, 54 species; Echinodermata, 27; Crustacea, 15; Brachiopoda, 96; Lamellibranchiata-Monomyriata, 29; Gasteropoda, 55; Cephalopida, 31; Pisces, 12. The surface soils of the mountain limestone are very unproductive, and, as a rule, can only be used for grazing. The Yoredale rocks make a narrow margin round the above formation, forming also the range of hills between Hope and Edale valleys, and extends to the north of the Peak, attaining a thickness of 500 feet. As is usual with this rock, frequent landslips take place, notably at Alport Tower, Dove Holes, and at the southern flank of Mam-Tor, the latter having carried with it part of the old Roman camp, &c. The Millstone Grit is part of a large formation stretching into adjacent counties. It is a long, narrow outcrop, running from north to south on the whole western side of the Coal Measures from Stanedge Pole to Little Eaton. There is also an outcrop, 200 feet thick, south of the Trent. The high table-land of the Peak is of this formation. It is a valuable building-stone, and as such it is extensively used, as well as for millstones, from which it derives its name. The Coal Measures are the southern continuation of the great Yorkshire coal-field. They occupy the larger portion of the eastern side of the county from a few miles south of Sheffield to near Balborough Hall, where they disappear under the Permian. The coal-field (which extends into Notts) covers an area of about 700 square miles, 230 of which are in this county. At Shireoaks the top hard coal is worked, at a depth of 510 yards, the overlying Permian rock being only 200 feet thick. The principal coals worked are the deep soft and deep hard, both important. Still more so is the clod, or black shale; but the best of all is the Kilbourne, near Belper, which is equal to the best Newcastle. Upwards of 10,000 people are employed in the Derbyshire coal-fields, which produce annually more than 7,000,000 tons. The ironstones associated with this coal-field are very valuable, yielding upwards of 130,000 tons annually. The Permian is represented in the north-east by a narrow strip of Magnesian Limestone, which is said to be one of the best building stones in the kingdom. The surface soils of this formation are probably the most fertile in the county, its barley or malt having become famous. A narrow strip of the Bunter stretches just on the edge of the Yoredale, from Ashbourne to Quarndon, and patches occur to the north of Breadsal, at Sandiacre, and in the neighbourhood of Repton. The Keuper Red Marl and Sandstone occupy the larger part of South Derbyshire, the most northerly point being near Ashbourne. The sandstones are extensively used for building purposes. An important bed of gypsum is worked at Chellaston, which is burnt and pulverized for making plaster of Paris,—the white variety being made into chimney ornaments, statuettes, &c. The Drift Gravel is confined almost to the south and east of the county. Near Derby it is very abundant. Much light has been thrown upon the fauna of the Pleistocene period by the researches of Mr Pennington at Castleton, and Messrs Mills and Heath at Cresswell. The more rare and important "finds" are the mammoth, woolly rhinoceros, Irish elk, reindeer, cave bear, wolf, British lion, hyæna, glutton, Arctic fox, machairodus (?), &c., and a large collection of palæolithic implements. Peat bogs are spread over all the moorland districts of the Yoredale and Millstone Grit.

Agriculture.—In the valley of the Trent a large surface is laid down in permanent grass, being devoted to cattle-feeding and dairy purposes, while heavy crops of wheat, turnips, &c., are grown in other parts of the district. Dairy farms are numerous; and Derbyshire cheese, which holds a high reputation, is annually sent to the metropolis, or to the seaports for exportation. Cheese fairs or markets are held in various parts of the county, as at Derby, Burton-on-Trent, Ashbourne, Uttoxeter, and Loughborough. Barley is much cultivated, especially about Repton and Gresley, and also in the east of the county, the inducement being great from the proximity of Burton, the great seat of the brewing industry. In the upland districts, where the soil is poor and the climate harsh and unfriendly, agricultural industry is much less important and profitable. It is chiefly devoted to the feeding of sheep. The following figures, taken from the Agricultural Returns for 1873 and 1876, shows the distribution of the agricultural acreage of the county, and the numbers of live stock, in those years:—

	Under all kinds of Crops.	Corn Crops.	Green Crops.	Grass under rotation.
1873	498,674	74,940	20,896	35,967
1876.........	502,791	68.933	21,837	36,259

In 1876 wheat and oats constituted each one-third of the corn crops, and barley a fourth; turnips formed one-half of the green crops.

	Horses.	Cattle.	Sheep.	Pigs.
1873.......	18,004	136,939	263,429	40,078
1876.......	20,618	134,891	242,732	38,361

A marked feature of the upland districts is the total absence of hedges, and the substitution of limestone walls, put together without any mortar or cement. The county possesses a flourishing agricultural society, which holds a show of cattle and other live stock annually.

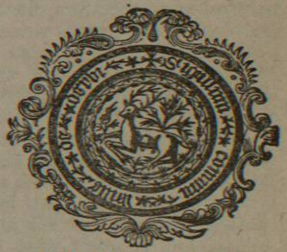
In respect of the ownership of the land, Derbyshire in 1873 was divided among 19,866 separate proprietors, whose gross estimated rental amounted to £1,764,689. The average size of each property in that year was 31 acres, while that of all England was 34 acres; and the average value per acre was £2, 16s. 10d., that of all England being £3, 0s. 2d. There were 12,874 owners holding less than one acre of land, equal to 65 per cent. of the total number of proprietors, or about 6 per cent. fewer than the average of small owners in all England. Eight proprietors held more than 6000 acres each, viz.—duke of Devonshire (Chatsworth), 83,829 acres; duke of Rutland (Haddon Hall), 26,973; Sir J. H. Crewe, Bart. (Calke Abbey), 12,923; Lord Scarsdale (Kedleston), 9166; Lord Howard (Glossop Hall), 9108; duke of Portland, 7740; T. W. Evans (Allestree), 6799; Lord Vernon (Sudbury Hall) 6154.

Manufactures.—These are both numerous and important, embracing silks, cotton hosiery, iron, woollen manufacures, lace, elastic web, and brewing, for which see BURTON. For many of these this county has long been famous, especially silk, which is carried on to a large extent in Derby, as well as in Belper and Duffield, where the first silk mill in England was set up by a mechanic, John Lombe, who introduced it from Italy. Cotton was also at one time an important industry, but has in great measure passed into the county of Lancashire. It was introduced here by the celebrated Sir Richard Arkwright in 1771. Hosiery also was much in vogue, and obtained great celebrity from the invention of Mr Strutt, by which "ribbed" stockings could be made—the Derby "rib" having been long the familiar designation of the article produced by Strutt's invention. There are numerous iron foundries, machine and iron-bridge works, &c., in Derbyshire, those in the county town alone employing a great many hands. Silk-throwing is a principal industry of Derby, which in ordinary times gives employment to 3000 or 4000 persons, chiefly females. Elastic web weaving by power looms is carried on to a great extent, and the manufacture of lace and net curtains, gimp trimmings, braids, and cords. In the county town and neighbourhood are several important chemical and colour-works; and in various parts of the county, as at Belper, Cromford, Matlock, Tutbury, &c., are extensive cotton-spinning mills, as well as hosiery and tape manufactories.

Ecclesiastical Buildings.—Derbyshire is distinguished for numerous old and interesting churches. The prevailing style of the churches is the Norman, and next to that the Early English, the style which immediately succeeded it. Steetly Chapelry, near Whitwell, on the east side of the county, is Norman; and of this church Mr C. Cox, in his work on Derbyshire churches, says that it is "the most complete and beautiful specimen of Norman work, on a small scale, that can be met with anywhere in this country or in Normandy." It was probably built during the reign of Stephen, 1135–54.

The *antiquities* of Derbyshire are of considerable interest. One of the more noteworthy is a causeway, or Roman paved road, called Bathgate, running seven miles from Buxton to a small village called Brough, which road from its name seems to indicate that the Buxton waters were known to the ancients. Rocking-stones exist near Rowter and at other places; Druidical remains, in the form of a Druidical temple, on Stanton moor, with a large number of associated objects which seem to justify the assumption that it has been inhabited by Druids. On Hartle moor, at Arbelow, is another Druidical temple, with its barrows and tumuli; there are others on the moor near Eyam, and near Edale. Barrows are found at Arbelow, Brassington, on the moor near Eyam, and at Tissington. At Taddington is one of the most perfect examples now existing. Roman stations are to be found near Buxton, at Little Chester (which is the old Roman town *Derventio*), and at Mam-Tor, near Castleton, where there is also an encampment. At Repton, in 660, "there was a noble monastery of religious, of both sexes, under an abbess, after the old Saxon fashion, wherein several of the royal line were buried." This was afterwards destroyed by the Danes, when Maud, widow of Ranulph, second earl of Chester, built a priory for Black Canons in 1172. Here the Mercian kings who resided at Tamworth were buried. At Melbourne is a castle which was a royal demesne at the Conquest, and where John, duke of Bourbon, taken at the battle of Agincourt, was kept nine years in the custody of Nicholas Montgomery the younger.

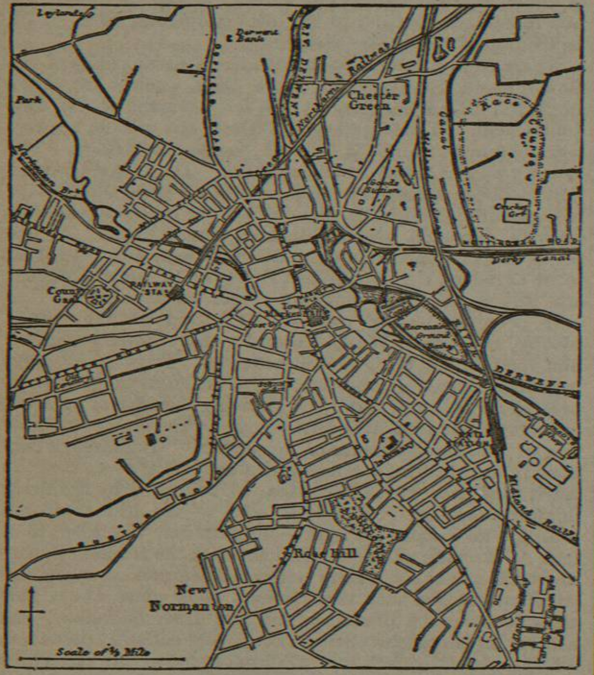
DERBY, the county town of Derbyshire, is a corporate and borough town, sending two representatives to Parliament, and consisting of five parishes. It is situated chiefly on the western bank of the river Derwent, upon ground of varying heights, and is surrounded with gentle eminences, from which flow the Markeaton and other brooks. It occupies a position almost in the centre of England, 127 miles N.W. of London. Derby possesses several large public buildings, including the town hall, a spacious range of buildings recently erected for the postal and telegraph departments and the inland revenue offices, the county gaol, a new masonic hall, All Saints Church, the tower of which (174 feet high) is considered one of the finest in the midland counties, and a Roman Catholic church (one of the best examples of Pugin). The Derby grammar school, an ancient foundation which occupies St Helen's House (once the town residence of the Strutt family), has lately had class-rooms added to it, erected by public subscription as a memorial of the visit of the Prince and Princess of Wales. There are flourishing schools of art and science, a large and commodious infirmary for town and county, an arboretum of 17 acres, given to the town in 1840 by the late Joseph Strutt, Esq., a market square, a market hall, and water-works erected at a cost of £40,000, and since greatly extended. A recreation ground, free public swimming baths, a free library, and museum buildings have all been presented to the town by Mr M. T. Bass. Since about 1850 Derby has been greatly improved and extended, owing chiefly to the impulse given by the establishment of the head offices and principal workshops of the Midland Railway Company, and will be still further improved by the construction now in process of a branch of the Great Northern Railway, which passes through the town over a long series of arches.



Seal and Arms of Derby.

Derby has been long celebrated for its porcelain, which rivalled that of Saxony and France. This manufacture was introduced in the year 1750, and although for a time partially abandoned, it has been so far revived, and is still continued. There are also spar works where the fluor spar, or blue john, is wrought into a variety of useful and ornamental articles. The manufacture of silk, hosiery, lace, and cotton formerly employed a large portion of the population, and there are still numerous silk mills and elastic web works, &c. The iron manufacture is also of great importance; among the larger establishments may be mentioned the Britannia Works, which furnished the roof of the great Agricultural Hall, London.

The sanitary condition of the town is much improved since the formation of a local board, and the rate of mortality is low. Among benevolent institutions may be mentioned a ragged school, and a nurses' "home." The population of the municipal borough, which occupies an area of 1796 acres, numbered 40,609 persons in 1851, 43,091 in 1861, and 49,810 in 1871. The parliamentary borough, which in 1867 was extended so as to include the townships of Litchurch and Little Chester, and covers an area of 2999 acres, had a population in 1871 of 61 381—29,882 males and 31,499 females.



Plan of Derby.

Derby is a town of great antiquity, but its origin is unknown. During the Heptarchy it was called Northworthig, and its present name Derby, or Deoraby, is due to the Danes. Constituted in the ninth century the chief town of the county by King Segurd, Derby was incorporated by Henry I. Its charter was surrendered to Charles II. in 1680, and a new one was granted in 1683, by which the government of the borough was vested in a mayor, 9 aldermen, 14 brethren, and 14 capital burgesses. In 1835 the town council was re-organized under the Municipal Corporations Act, and now consists of a mayor, 12 aldermen, and 36 councillors. Derby was the furthest place reached by the Pretender in his march towards London in 1745; he lodged in Exeter House, Full Street, and held there a council of war, which resulted in the abandonment of his project.

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DERBY, EDWARD-GEOFFREY SMITH STANLEY, FOURTEENTH EARL OF, Baron Stanley of Bickerstaffe, and a baronet (1799–1869), born at Knowsley in Lancashire, on the 29th March 1799, was the eldest son of Lord Stanley, who afterwards (1834) became the thirteenth earl of Derby. The title in the direct line of succession to which he was thus born ranks second in precedency among the earldoms in the peerage of England. He was educated at Eton and at Christ Church, Oxford, where he distinguished himself as a classical scholar, though he took only an ordinary degree on quitting the university. In 1819 he obtained the Chancellor's prize for Latin verse, the subject being "Syracuse." He gave early promise of his future eminence as an orator, and it is said that in his youth he used to practise elocution under the instruction of Lady Derby, his grandfather's second wife, who as Miss Eliza Farren had been a celebrated actress. With such an inclination and aptitude for public speaking, the heir to an ancient title was only fulfilling his natural destiny in seeking a seat in the House of Commons, and of course he had no difficulty in finding one. In 1820, soon after he had attained his majority, he was returned for Stockbridge in Hampshire, one of the nomination boroughs whose electoral rights were swept away by the Reform Bill of 1832, Stanley, like several others who entered parliament by means of them, being a warm advocate of their destruction. It may appear somewhat strange that he should have remained for four years, so far as is known, a silent member; but the representative of a pocket borough had no constituency to consider, and there was not in those days the incentive to frequent speaking that is now furnished by full daily reports of the debates circulating through the entire country. His maiden speech was delivered early in the session of 1824 in the debate on a private bill for lighting Manchester with gas. Although the subject can scarcely have given scope for any high flight of oratory, the speaker was warmly complimented by Sir James Mackintosh, one of the first authorities in the House, who welcomed him as an accession to the Liberal ranks, and Hansard reports the speech as characterized by "much clearness and ability." His second appearance was made in connection with a subject—irrepressible as it proved, though he always did his utmost to repress it—which was afterwards to determine more than one important turning point in his political career, and to call forth his last utterance in parliament. It is noteworthy also as an early exhibition of the Conservative instinct whose growing strength led gradually to an entire change of his political position. On the 6th May 1824, he delivered what seems to have been a vehement and eloquent speech against Joseph Hume's motion for a reduction of the Irish Church establishment, maintaining in its most conservative form the doctrine that church property is as sacred as private property. From this time his appearances became frequent; and he soon asserted his place as one of the most powerful speakers in the House. Specially noticeable almost from the first was the skill he displayed in reply. Macaulay, in an essay published in 1834, remarked that he seemed to possess intuitively the faculty which in most men is developed only by long and laborious practice. "Indeed, with the exception of Mr Stanley, whose knowledge of the science of parliamentary defence resembles an instinct, it would be difficult to name any eminent debater who has not made himself a master of his art at the expense of his audience."

In the autumn of 1824 Stanley went on an extended tour through Canada and the United States in company with Mr Labouchere, afterwards Lord Taunton, and Mr Evelyn Denison. afterwards Lord Ossington. In May of the following year he married the second daughter of Edward Bootle-Wilbraham, created Baron Skelmersdale in 1828, by whom he had a family of two sons and one daughter who survived, besides three children who died in infancy.

At the general election of 1826 Stanley renounced his connection with Stockbridge, and became the representative of the borough of Preston, where the Derby influence has usually, though not invariably, been paramount. The change of seats had this advantage, that it left him free to speak against the system of rotten boroughs, which he did with great force during the Reform Bill debates, without laying himself open to the charge of personal inconsistency as the representative of a place where, according to Gay, cobblers used to "feast three years upon one vote." In 1827 he and several other distinguished Whigs made a coalition with Canning on the defection of the more unyielding Tories, and he commenced his official life as under-secretary for the colonies. Whether the coalition arrangement would have proved stable had its distinguished leader survived is more than questionable, but it was entirely broken up by his death in August of the same year. Lord Goderich, who had been Stanley's chief at the Colonial Office, succeeded to the premiership, but he never was really in power, and he resigned his place after the lapse of a few months without venturing to meet parliament. During the succeeding administration of the duke of Wellington (1828–30), Stanley and those with whom he acted were in opposition. His robust and assertive Liberalism about this period sounds somewhat curiously to a younger generation who knew him only as the very embodiment of Conservatism. They can find little of the earl of Derby except his characteristic force of expression in the conviction uttered by Stanley, "that the old and stubborn spirit of Toryism is at last yielding to the liberality of the age—that the Tories of the old school, the sticklers for inveterate abuses under the name of the wisdom of our ancestors, the *laudatores temporis acti* are giving way on all sides." Even the most retrograde political party, however, makes distinct progress almost in spite of itself as the years pass on, and Lord Derby might very well have maintained that the Toryism he represented in his maturity was not the Toryism he had denounced in his youth.

By the advent of Lord Grey to power in November 1830, Stanley obtained his first opportunity of showing his capacity for a responsible office. He was appointed to the chief secretaryship of Ireland, a position in which, as it turned out, he found ample scope for both administrative and debating skill. On accepting office he had, according to the usual practice, to vacate his seat for Preston and seek re-election; and it must have been peculiarly mortifying to one of his high spirit that, in spite of his family influence and growing reputation, he alone of all the members of the new ministry in the Lower House failed to secure his return. He was defeated, and the defeat was doubtless rendered more bitter by the fact that his opponent was the Radical "orator" Hunt. The contest was a peculiarly keen one, and turned upon the question of the ballot, which Stanley refused to support. He re-entered the house as one of the members for Windsor, Sir Hussey Vivian having resigned in his favour. In 1832 he again changed his seat, being returned for North Lancashire, which he continued to represent until his elevation to the House of Lords.

Mr Stanley was one of the most ardent supporters of the great measure which has made Lord Grey's administration the most memorable of the present century. Of this no other proof is needed than his frequent parliamentary utterances, which were fully in sympathy with the popular cry "The bill, the whole bill, and nothing but the bill." Reference may be made especially to the speech he delivered on the 4th March 1831 on the adjourned debate on the second reading of the bill, which was marked by all the higher qualities of his oratory. More than thirty years later, when he was premier, he was again called upon to deal with the question, and he had statesmanship enough to settle it on a permanent basis; but the incertitude with which he then took what he himself in a well remembered phrase called "a leap in the dark" was in curious contrast to the clear conviction with which he advocated the earlier measure.

Apart from his connection with the general policy of the Government, Stanley had more than enough to have employed all his energies in the management of his own department. The secretary of Ireland has seldom an easy task; Stanley found it one of peculiar difficulty. The country was in a very unsettled state. The just concession that had been somewhat tardily yielded a short time before in Catholic emancipation had excited the people to make all sorts of demands, reasonable and unreasonable. As one result of that concession these demands were now permitted to be urged on the floor of the House by the most eloquent and the most widely popular representative Ireland has ever possessed,—one, too, whose hatred of the "base, bloody, and brutal Whigs" seems to have totally unfitted him for judging Whig measures fairly. Problems of great practical difficulty in connection with the land and the church pressed for solution; and the alarming increase of agrarian outrages demanded even more urgently the instant application of vigorous measures of repression. Mr Stanley's conduct in these trying circumstances showed that he had the spirit that rises with difficulties. Undaunted by the fierce denunciations of O'Connell, who styled him Scorpion Stanley, he discharged with determination the ungrateful task of carrying a Coercion Bill through the House. Parliament has probably seldom witnessed warmer or more personal encounters than those which took place about this time between the Liberator and the Irish Secretary, and seldom has an official position been more gallantly defended. It was generally felt that O'Connell, powerful though he was, had fairly met his match in Stanley, who, with invective scarcely inferior to his own, evaded no challenge, ignored no argument, and left no taunt unanswered. The title "Rupert of Debate" is peculiarly applicable to him in connection with the fearless if also often reckless method of attack he showed in his parliamentary war with O'Connell. It was first applied to him, however, thirteen years later by Sir Edward Bulwer Lytton in the following passage of *The New Timon*;—

> "One after one the lords of time advance;
> Here Stanley meets—here Stanley scorns the glance!
> The brilliant chief, irregularly great,
> Frank, haughty, rash,—the Rupert of debate."

The best answer, however, which he made to the attack

of the great agitator was not the retorts of debate, effective though these were, but the beneficial legislation he was instrumental in passing. Two of his measures deserve special mention. He introduced and carried the first national education act for Ireland, one result of which was the remarkable and to many almost incredible phenomenon of a board composed of Catholics, Episcopalians, and Presbyterians, harmoniously administering an efficient education scheme. He was also chiefly responsible for the Irish Church Temporalities Act, though the bill was not introduced into parliament until after he had quitted the Irish secretaryship for another office. By this measure two archbishoprics and eight bishoprics were abolished, and a remedy was provided for various abuses connected with the revenues of the church. As originally introduced, the bill contained a clause authorizing the appropriation of surplus revenues to non-ecclesiastical purposes. This had, however, been strongly opposed from the first by Stanley, and several other members of the cabinet, and it was withdrawn by the Government before the measure reached the Lords. There was therefore no ground for the charge of inconsistency brought against Stanley, when a year later he seceded from the cabinet on the proposal being renewed.

In 1833, just before the introduction of the Irish Church Temporalities Bill, Stanley had been promoted to be secretary for the colonies with a seat in the cabinet. In this position it fell to his lot to carry through parliament a measure which is one of the abiding glories of English legislation. The agitation for the emancipation of the slaves had been mainly the work of others whose names have become historical in connection with it; but to Stanley belonged the honour and privilege of bringing it to a successful practical issue in the pages of the statute book. The speech which he delivered on introducing the bill for the emancipation of the slaves in the West Indies, on the 14th May 1833, was one of the finest specimens of his eloquence. It showed a philanthropic spirit and a love of freedom which proved him to be a not unworthy associate of Clarkson, Wilberforce, and Buxton, and it was admirable for the clear statement of the somewhat complicated arrangement by which the all but unanimous wish of the nation was to be carried out. The latter quality was still more conspicuous in committee, through which Stanley carried the measure with the firmness and tact of true statesmanship.

It has already been said that the Irish Church question determined more than one turning-point in Mr Stanley's political career. The most important occasion on which it did so was in 1834, when the proposal of the Government to appropriate the surplus revenues of the church to educational purposes led to his secession from the cabinet, and, as it proved, his complete and final separation from the Whig party. In the former of these steps he had as his companions Sir James Graham, the earl of Ripon, and the duke of Richmond. Soon after it occurred, O'Connell, amid the laughter of the House, described the secession in a couplet from Canning's *Loves of the Triangles*:—

> "Still down thy steep, romantic Ashbourne, glides
> The Derby dilly carrying six insides."

Stanley was by no means content with marking his disapproval of the conduct of the Government of which he had been a member by the simple act of withdrawing from it. He spoke against the bill to which he objected with a vehemence that showed the strength of his feeling in the matter, and against its authors with a bitterness that he himself is understood to have afterwards admitted to have been unseemly towards those who had so recently been his colleagues. The language of one speech deserves to be quoted as a good specimen of what he could do in the way of invective when he chose. "Plunder," a term very familiar in more recent debates on the same long-vexed question, was perhaps the mildest word he used. The course followed by the Government was "marked with all that timidity, that want of dexterity, which led to the failure of the unpractised shoplifter." His late colleagues were compared to "thimble-riggers at a country fair," and their plan was "petty larceny, for it had not the redeeming qualities of bold and open robbery."

In the end of 1834, Lord Stanley, as he was now styled by courtesy, his father having succeeded to the earldom in October, was invited by Sir Robert Peel to join the short-lived Conservative ministry which he formed after the resignation of Lord Melbourne. Though he declined the offer for reasons stated in a letter published in the Peel memoirs, he acted from that date with the Conservative party, and on its next accession to power, in 1841, he accepted the office of colonial secretary, which he had held under Lord Grey. His position and his temperament alike, however, made him a thoroughly independent supporter of any party to which he attached himself. When, therefore, the injury to health arising from the late hours in the Commons led him in 1844 to seek elevation to the Upper House in the right of his father's barony, Sir Robert Peel, in acceding to his request, had the satisfaction of at once freeing himself from the possible effects of his "candid friendship" in the House, and at the same time greatly strengthening the debating power on the Conservative side in the other. If the premier in taking this step had any presentiment of an approaching difference on a vital question, it was not long in being realized. When Sir Robert Peel accepted the policy of free trade in 1846, the breach between him and Lord Stanley was, as might have been anticipated from the antecedents of the latter, instant and irreparable. Lord Stanley at once asserted himself as the uncompromising opponent of that policy, and he became, as his position warranted, the recognized leader of the Protectionist party, having Lord George Bentinck and Mr Disraeli for his lieutenants in the Commons. They did all that could be done in a case in which the logic of events was against them, but their watchword of Protection was never to become more than a watchword. It is one of the peculiarities of English politics, however, that a party may come into power because it is the only available one at the time, though it may have no chance of carrying the very principle to which it owes its organized existence. Such was the case when Lord Derby, who had succeeded to the earldom on the death of his father in June 1851, was called upon to form his first administration in February 1852. He was in a minority, but the circumstances were such that no other than a minority Government was possible, and he resolved to take the only available means of strengthening his position by dissolving parliament and appealing to the country at the earliest opportunity. The appeal was made in autumn, but its result did not materially alter the position of parties. Parliament met in November, and by the middle of the following month, the ministry had resigned in consequence of their defeat on the clever but financially unsound budget proposed by Mr Disraeli. For the six following years, during Lord Aberdeen's "ministry of all the talents" and Lord Palmerston's premiership, Lord Derby remained at the head of the opposition, whose policy gradually became more generally Conservative and less distinctively Protectionist as the hopelessness of reversing the measures adopted in 1846 made itself apparent to all but the most reactionary. In 1855, he was asked to form an administration after the resignation of Lord Aberdeen, but failing to obtain sufficient support, he declined the task. It was in somewhat more hopeful circumstances that, after the defeat of Lord Palmerston on the Conspiracy Bill in February 1858, he assumed for the second time the reins of government. Though he still could not count upon a working majority, there was a possibility of carrying on affairs without sustaining defeat, which was realized for a full session, owing chiefly to the dexterous management of Mr Disraeli in the Commons. The one rock ahead was the question of Reform, on which the wishes of the country were being emphatically expressed, but it was not so pressing as to require to be immediately dealt with. During the session of 1858 the Government contrived to pass two measures of very considerable importance, one a bill to remove Jewish disabilities, and the other a bill to transfer the government of India from the East India Company to the Crown. Next year the question of parliamentary reform had to be faced, and, recognizing the necessity, the Government introduced a bill at the opening of the session, which, in spite of, or rather in consequence of, its "fancy franchises," was rejected by the House, and, on a dissolution, rejected also by the country. A vote of no confidence having been passed in the new parliament on the 10th June, Lord Derby at once resigned.

After resuming the leadership of the Opposition Lord Derby devoted much of the leisure the position afforded him to the classical studies that had always been congenial to him. It was his reputation for scholarship as well as his social position that had led in 1852 to his appointment to the chancellorship of the university of Oxford, in succession to the duke of Wellington; and perhaps a desire to justify the possession of the honour on the former ground had something to do with his essays in the field of authorship. These were made at first with a diffidence that contrasted strongly with his boldness in politics. His first venture was a poetical version of the 9th ode of the 3rd book of Horace, which appeared in Lord Ravensworth's collection of translations of the *Odes*. In 1862 he printed and circulated in influential quarters a volume entitled *Translations of Poems Ancient and Modern*, with a very modest dedicatory letter to Lord Stanhope, and the words "Not published" on the title-page. It contained, besides versions of Latin, Italian, French, and German poems, a translation of the first book of the *Iliad*. The reception of this volume was such as to encourage him to proceed with the task he had chosen as his *magnum opus*, the translation of the whole of the *Iliad*, which accordingly appeared in 1864. The fact that it speedily passed through six editions is, of course, not so unequivocal a proof of its literary merit as would have been the case had the work proceeded from an author of less social distinction, but it has considerable significance. Tried on its merits, the most severe critic could not pronounce the work a failure. That it was not a complete success was due principally to the facts that the author had not caught the difficult secret of the management of the metre he chose—blank verse,—and that he was unable to divest himself of the diffuseness and of the modern cast of thought and style of expression natural to the parliamentary orator.

During the seven years that elapsed between Lord Derby's second and third administrations an industrial crisis occurred in his native county, which brought out very conspicuously his public spirit and his philanthropy. The destitution in Lancashire, caused by the stoppage of the cotton-supply in consequence of the American civil war, was so great as to threaten to overtax the benevolence of the country. That it did not do so was probably due to Lord Derby more than to any other single man. From the first he was the very life and soul of the movement for relief. His personal subscription, munificent though it was, represented the least part of his service. His noble speech at the meeting in Manchester in December 1872, where the movement was initiated, and his advice at the subsequent meetings of the committee, which he attended very regularly, were of the very highest value in stimulating and directing public sympathy. His relations with Lancashire had always been of the most cordial description, notwithstanding his early rejection by Preston; but it is not surprising that after the cotton famine period the cordiality passed into a warmer and deeper feeling, and that the name of Lord Derby is still cherished in most grateful remembrance by thousands of the factory operatives.

On the rejection of Earl Russell's Reform Bill in 1866, Lord Derby was for the third time intrusted with the formation of a cabinet. Like those he had previously formed it was destined to be short-lived, but it lived long enough to settle on a permanent basis the question that had proved fatal to its predecessor. The "education" of the party that had so long opposed all reform to the point of granting household suffrage was the work of another; but it is understood that Lord Derby fully concurred in, if he was not the first to suggest, the statesmanlike policy by which the question was disposed of in such a way as to take it once for all out of the region of controversy and agitation. The passing of the Reform Bill was the main business of the session 1867. The chief debates were, of course, in the Commons, and Lord Derby's failing powers prevented him from taking any large share in those which took place in the Lords. His description of the measure as a "leap in the dark," was eagerly caught up, because it exactly represented the common opinion at the time,—the most experienced statesmen, while they admitted the granting of household suffrage to be a political necessity, being utterly unable to foresee what its effect might be on the constitution and government of the country.

Finding himself unable, from declining health, to encounter the fatigues of another session, Lord Derby resigned office early in 1868. The step he had taken was announced in both houses on the evening of the 25th February, and warm tributes of admiration and esteem were paid by the leaders of the two great parties. He was succeeded by Mr Disraeli, to whom he yielded the entire leadership of the party as well as the premiership. His subsequent appearances in public were few and unimportant. It was noted as a consistent close to his political life that his last speech in the House of Lords should have been a denunciation of Mr Gladstone's Irish Church Bill marked by much of his early fire and vehemence. A few months later, on the 23rd October 1869, he died at Knowsley.

Lord Derby was one of the last and most brilliant representatives of a class which seems to have become extinct, for the time at least, if the sharp differentiation of human pursuits that has now established itself has not rendered it impossible that it should ever again exist. Politics is now a distinct and exclusive profession; the number of those to whom, like Lord Derby, it is the main without being the all-absorbing interest of life seems to become fewer year by year. There still remain one or two noted statesmen who are also noted authors, but of the life of many interests embracing public affairs, scholarship, literature, society, sportsmanship, and estate management, Lord Derby was almost the last specimen. Of another class, which will have ceased to exist when one or two more have passed away, he was also among the last and best; he was a master of the all but lost art of parliamentary oratory. On this point it is enough to quote the testimony of two most competent witnesses. Sir Archibald Alison, writing of him when he was in the zenith of his powers, styles him "by the admission of all parties the most perfect orator of his day." Even higher was the opinion of Lord Aberdeen, who is reported by the *Times* to have said that no one of the giants he had listened to in his youth, Pitt, Fox, Burke, or Sheridan, "as a speaker, is to be compared with our own Lord Derby, when Lord Derby is at his best." (W. B. S.)

DEREYEH, or Deraya, a town of Arabia, in the Nejd, on the caravan-route from the Red Sea to the Persian Gulf, about 15 miles west of Riad. It was formerly the capital of the Wahabees, and had a population of about 30,000 inhabitants; but it has never recovered from the ruin inflicted on it by the army of Ibrahim Pasha in 1818.

DERHAM, William (1657–1735), an eminent English divine and natural philosopher, was born at Stoughton, near Worcester, in 1657. He received his early education at Blockley, in his native county, and in 1679 graduated with much distinction at Trinity College, Oxford. Three years later he became vicar of Wargrave, in Berkshire; and in 1689 he was preferred to the living of Upminster, in Essex. In 1696 he published his *Artificial Clockmaker*, which went through several editions. The best known of his subsequent works are *Physico-Theology*, published in 1713; *Astro-Theology*, 1714; and *Christo-Theology*, 1730. In consideration of these contributions to science and theology he was, in 1716, made a canon of Windsor; and in 1730 he received the degree of D.D. from Oxford. His last work, entitled *A Defence of the Church's Right in Leasehold Estates*, appeared four years previous to his death, which happened in 1735. Besides the works published in his own name, Derham contributed a variety of papers to the *Philosophical Transactions*, revised the *Miscellanea Curiosa*, edited the correspondence of John Ray, and Albin's *Natural History*, and published some of the MSS. of Hooke, the natural philosopher.

DERVISH is a Persian word meaning "the sill of the door," or those who beg from door to door. The Arabic equivalent is fakir, or fuqueer The dervishes of the Turkish empire may be said to constitute the regular religious orders, and are distinguished from the ulemas, or secular clergy. In Turkey, Egypt, Persia, Hindustan, and Central Asia, however, dervishes, or fakirs, are to be found in great number who belong to no society, but are simply mendicants or single devotees, many of whom subsist by professional jugglery. Especially is this true of the Byragis, the Dundis, the Bhikshooks, the Wanuprusts, the Sunyasis, the Aghorpunts, the Gosaens, the Jogis, the Oodassis, the Jutis, and the Lingaet Jungums of northern Hindustan, and still more emphatically of the Bonzes, or Buddhist monks. But in the more favourable sense of the word, the dervishes represent Sofism, or the spiritual and mystic side of Islam. Long before the time of Mahomet, Arabic thought was divided, as if by Greek and Indian influences, into the schools of the Meschaïouns (the walkers) and the Ischrachaïouns (the contemplators). When the Koran appeared, these became the Mutekelim (metaphysicians), and the Sofis (mystics). The latter put an esoteric interpretation on both the Koran and the Hadisât, or collected sayings of the Prophet; they dispense with the jemaat and other formalities of the mosque; they in many cases recognize the fact of spiritual religion outside Islam; and in general they observe the rules of poverty, abstinence from wine, and celibacy. The name fakir, indeed, comes from the saying of the Prophet, "El fakr fakhri," poverty is my pride. The six Erkiân, or pillars of the Tesavvuf, or spiritual life, are (1) the existence of God, (2) His unity, (3) the angels, (4) the prophets, (5) the day of resurrection, and (6) good and evil through God's predestination. But it is only the Tarikats, or orders (lit. paths), among the more orthodox or Sunnite Mahometans who attach much importance to positive dogma. The Shiite party, especially the Persian dervishes, who trace their descent through various sheikhs and peers from Ali, the fourth caliph, believe that "the paths leading to God are as many as the breaths of his creatures." These form the great majority of the orders; for it is stated in a work called the *Silsileh ul Evlia Ullah* (Genealogy of the Saints of God), last edited in 1783, that, out of 36 well-defined orders, 12 of which were in existence before the beginning of the Ottoman empire, only 3, viz., the Bestamis, the Nakshibendis, and the Bektashis, are descended from the congregation of Abu Bekr, the second caliph, and that all the others are descended from the caliph Ali. As the dervishes do not recognize the legal exposition which the ordinary tribunals give of the letter of the Koran, and acknowledge no authority but that of their spiritual guide, or of Allah himself speaking directly to their souls, the Ottoman sultans have always regarded them with jealousy; and in 1826 Mahmoud entirely suppressed the order of the Bektashis, which had for centuries been closely connected with the Janissaries, or Hoo Keshans (him scatterers), and which is said to have formed part of a Fermason (freemasonry) extending through Palestine, Syria, and Turkey.[1] The other orders, however, or most of them, have survived to the present day, and are generally popular,—one of them, the Mevlevis, being joined by persons from the highest and wealthiest ranks. But membership, when it does not proceed beyond the first stage of Shi'at or Sher'iat, *i.e.*, legal religion under the supervision of a murshid,[2] may be satisfied by the repetition of a few prayers at home and the wearing of the sacred cap for a few minutes each day.

The regular dervishes live in tekkiehs, khanakahs, or convents, which are endowed with lands or wakf, just as the Muths of Hindustan are endowed with enam lands, incapable of mortgage or alienation. Thus, in 1634, the sultan Amurath IV. gave to the Bektashis of Konieh the whole tribute paid by that city. Over each convent presides a sheikh, or murshid, who represents the pir, or original founder of the order. This corresponds to the mohunt, malik, or guru of Hindustan. Among the Persian Nosairis (who consider Mahomet an impostor, and perform no ablutions), the succession of sheikhs is hereditary—elsewhere by seniority or election, confirmed by the Sheikh ul Islam. In Hindustan the selection takes place in a dusname, or council of mohunts, called among the Sikhs a muta. The murid, or disciple, has to undergo a long initiation (called in Turkey *Ikrar*, in Egypt *Ahd*) before he obtains the taybend, or woollen belt, with its palenk or cabalistic "stone of contentment;" the mengusay, or earrings shaped like the horse shoe of Ali; the khirka, or mantle; the tesbeeh, or rosary, containing the ismi jelal, or the 99 beautiful names of God; and finally the tâj, or white cap, with the proper number of terks, or sections, belonging to the order. Similar distinctions are preserved in Hindustan by the barbarous method of marking on the forehead the sandal-wood stripes of Siva, or the white and red trident of Vishnu. In the Mevlevi order the murid goes through 1001 days of menial labour, and is during that time called the karra kolak, or jackal. It is not necessary, however, to give up one's private property; and many dervishes are permitted to remain in trade on the

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[1] This jealousy was not without foundation. The great political factions which disturbed Constantinople, the Reds, the Whites, the Masked, the Intimates, the Interpreters, the Hashashins (from Hashish, whence assassins), were to some extent connected with the dervish orders. The Kalenderis, founded by an Andalusian dervish who was expelled from the Bektashis, furnished several pretenders to the title of Mehdee, the 12th imam, whose second coming is looked for by all the mystics.

[2] The subsequent stages are Tarikat, mystical rites, Mearifat, knowledge, and Hakikat. truth.