

SANHEDRIN. See SYNEDRIUM.
SANITATION. See HYGIENE and SEWAGE.

SAN JOSÉ, the capital of Costa Rica, Central America, stands 3900 feet above the sea, in a beautiful valley surrounded by mountains, on the west side of the main range about 15 miles north-west of Cartago (the ancient capital), with which it is connected by a railway (1884). Since 1870 the cathedral has been restored, a handsome marketplace with offices for the municipality erected, the barracks rebuilt and fortified, and several of the streets macadamized. San José is the seat of the national bank (founded in 1873) and of a university, to which a medical school and a museum are attached. The population is estimated at from 20,000 to 25,000. As a city it dates from the latter half of the 18th century; it became the capital after the destruction of Cartago by earthquake in 1841.

SAN JOSÉ, a city of the United States, capital of Santa Clara county, California, lies 40 miles south-east of San Francisco and 8 miles from the southern end of San Francisco Bay, in the heart of the beautiful Santa Clara Valley. It is at this point that the railways from the two sides of the bay meet. The main part of the city occupies a gently rising plateau between the Coyote and Guadalupe rivers. Among the principal buildings are a fine courthouse, a theatre, a city-hall, two markets, a music-hall, the State normal school, the Methodist "university of the Pacific," and a number of large colleges and schools. Besides three public parks in the city San José possesses a tract of 400 acres in Penitencia Cañon, 7 miles east, reserved for a similar purpose. The Lick Observatory (founded in 1884 on the top of Mount Hamilton) is 12 miles distant, and the Almaden quicksilver mines about 14 miles. The population of the city was 9089 in 1870, and 12,567 (township 18,103) in 1880.

Founded by the Spanish missionaries in 1777, San José remained a small village of adobe huts till the annexation of the country to the United States. The first session of the legislature of California was held in the town in 1849-50.

SAN JUAN BAUTISTA. See PORTO RICO.

SAN JUAN DE LA FRONTERA, the capital of a province of the Argentine Republic, is situated 2310 feet above the sea in a great bend of the Rio de San Juan, 95 miles north of Mendoza and 730 miles from Buenos Ayres, with which it is about to be connected by rail (1886). It is mostly built of sun-dried bricks, has a cathedral, several churches and schools, two banks, and a botanical garden, and carries on a considerable trade with Chili by the Patos and Uspallata passes. Population estimated at 20,000 (1881).

San Juan was founded in 1561 by Captain Castillo on a site 4 miles to the north, which had to be abandoned owing to inundations and is now called Pueblo Viejo. From 1776 to 1820 the city was in the government of Mendoza. President Sarmiento bestowed special attention on this his native town and gave his name to its principal school, famous throughout the republic for its excellent equipment.

SAN JUAN DEL NORTE. See GREYTOWN.

SAN JUAN (or HARO) ISLANDS, an archipelago (San Juan, Orcas, Shaw, Lopez, Blakely, Cypress, &c.) lying between Vancouver Island and the mainland of North America, which were for many years the subject of dispute between the British and the United States Governments, and were finally assigned to the latter country by the arbitration of the emperor of Germany (21st October 1872). Geographically the cluster certainly belongs to the mainland, from which it is separated by Rosario Channel, generally much under 50 fathoms in depth, while Haro Strait, separating it from Vancouver Island, has depths ranging from 100 to 190 fathoms. In 1873 the islands, formerly considered part of Whatcom county, Washington Territory, were made the separate county of San Juan. Of the total area of 200 square miles, about 60 are in San

Juan, 60 in Orcas, and 30 in Lopez. The population was 554 in 1870 and 948 in 1880.

See *Papers relating to the Treaty of Washington*, vol. v., 1872, and the map in Potermann's *Mittheilungen*, 1873.

SANKT JOHANN. See SAARBRÜCKEN.

SANKT PÖLTEN, a small town, and the seat of a bishop, in Lower Austria, is situated on the Treisen, a tributary of the Danube, 61 miles west of Vienna by rail. It contains an interesting old abbey church, founded in 1030 and restored in 1266 and again at the beginning of the 18th century. There are several religious educational institutions in the town, and a military academy for engineers. The inhabitants, 10,015 in number, carry on some trade, and the manufacture of iron wire, paper, weapons, &c. The name is said to be a corruption of Traisma ad S. Hippolytum, from a convent that formerly stood here. The history of the bishopric has been written in two volumes by Kerschbaumer (Vienna, 1875-6).

SAN LUCAR DE BARRAMEDA, a town of Spain, in the province of Cadiz, and 27 miles by sea from that city, in a bare, sandy, and undulating country, on the left bank of the Guadalquivir, not far from its mouth. It stands partly on the flat bank of the river and partly on the rising ground behind, the summit of which is crowned by an old Moorish castle. There is an old parish church dating from the 14th century. The other buildings have no special interest, and the place as a whole is dull and lifeless, having lost much of the commercial importance it formerly possessed. It is now chiefly dependent on the trade in its wines, which is still considerable. Many of the inhabitants are employed in agriculture and fishing. The population within the municipal boundaries was 21,918 in 1877.

SAN LUIS POTOSI, a city of Mexico, capital of the state of the same name, is situated at a height of 6200 feet on the eastern edge of the great plain of Anahuac, in a valley running north and south, 160 miles north-west of Queretaro. It is a great centre for the "diligence" traffic, and in 1885 was connected by rail with Tampico, a promising harbour on the Gulf of Mexico. The city proper, which has a rather imposing Oriental appearance, is laid out with great regularity; the streets are well-paved, and the houses, usually two stories in height, are frequently fine specimens of old Spanish architecture. But suburbs of wretched hovels spread over a considerable area. Among the conspicuous buildings are the cathedral, the Government house, with a front in rose-coloured stone, the city-hall, the mint, the churches of El Carmen, San Francisco, &c., and the recently erected "American" hotel, which, with tramways, telephones, and electric light, is a symptom of the Occidentalizing that is rapidly taking place in the inland cities of Mexico. The Instituto Científico is a kind of university for the teaching of law, medicine, and the exact sciences. Plaza Hidalgo takes its name from the statue to the martyr of Mexican independence. A considerable trade is carried on in cattle, hides, and tallow. The population is stated at 30,000, or with the suburbs 60,000.

Founded in 1586, San Luis Potosi has played an important part in the Mexican civil wars. In 1863 it was the seat of the national government under Juárez, and after being occupied by Bazaine was recovered by Juárez in 1867.

SAN MARINO, the smallest independent republic in Europe, has an area of 33 square miles (Strelbitsky), lies between the provinces of Forlì and Pesaro-Urbino, and consists of part of the eastern spurs of the Apennines. Monte Titano, the central and culminating summit, has three peaks (M. Guaita, Cucco, and Gista), the three *Penne* of San Marino—a name evidently identical with the Celtic Penn or Benn, but translated by the canting heraldry of the republic's coat of arms as three "feathers." The two

streams (Marecchia and Ausa) which pass through Rimini to the sea have their head-waters partly in the north and west of San Marino, while its south-eastern valleys are drained by the sources of the Marano. Farming and stock-raising occupy the bulk of the population (total, 5700 in 1850, 7816 in 1874), and their wines and oxen are both highly prized. The city of San Marino (1600 inhabitants), formerly reached only by a mule-track but since 1875 by a good carriage-road, is a quaint little place with steep and narrow streets and picturesque but gloomy houses of undressed stone, and containing five churches, a council-hall, an audience chamber, a law court, a little theatre, a museum, and a library. In the centre of the principal square (Pianello) stands a white marble statue of Liberty, presented by the duchess of Acquaviva. At the foot of the city-hill lies the Borgo di San Marino (the commercial centre of the republic); and other municipal villages are Serravalle, Faetano, and Montegiardino, each with remains of its castle and fortifications.

The republic is governed by a great council (*Generale-Consiglio-Principe*) of 60 members (20 nobles, 20 burgesses, 20 rural landowners) named for life by the council itself. From this body is elected the Council of Twelve, which with the assistance of a legal adviser decides in the third and last resort. Two captains-regent elected every six months (one from the nobles, one from the other two classes) represent the state, which also has its home secretary, its minister of foreign affairs, its chancellor of the exchequer, an army of 950 men, and a regular budget. By treaty with Italy (1872) San Marino, instead of maintaining a customs line of its own, receives a certain proportion of the Italian customs revenue, and, agreeing not to grow tobacco, is allowed to purchase foreign tobacco duty free. To avoid any difficulty about copyright there is no printing press in the republic.

San Marino derives its name from a certain Dalmatian mason who, along with a comrade immortalized by the neighbouring castle and cathedral of San Leo, settled in this region in the 3d century. The bones of Marinus are said to have been removed to Pavia by the Lombard king Astolphus and restored to the little city on Mount Titano by Pippin; but the first authentic document proving the existence of the community dates from 885. Situated as a bulwark between the hostile houses of Montefeltro and Malatesta, San Marino fortunately attached itself to the stronger party, which in the 15th century placed its representative on the ducal throne of Urbino. The assistance which it rendered Duke Federigo and his allies, the king of Naples and the pope, against Sigismondo Malatesta was rewarded in 1463 with the castles and territories of Serravalle, Faetano, and Montegiardino. On the annexation of Urbino to the States of the Church (1631), the independence of San Marino was acknowledged; and the unauthorized assertion of papal jurisdiction by Alberoni in 1739 was disallowed by Clement XII. on February 5th 1740. In 1797 Napoleon I. decided to preserve this "échantillon de république;" and in 1854 it was protected from the designs of Pius IX. by the interference of Napoleon III. At the unification of Italy, Cibrario, a citizen in the service of the house of Savoy, helped to secure excellent terms for San Marino.

See Melellorre Delico, *Memorie storiche . . . di San Marino*; Marino Fattori, *Ricordi storici . . .* 1869; Couat Bruo, *St. Marin*, Paris, 1876; Bent, *A Freak of Freedom*, 1879; Casati, *La repubblica di San Marino*, Milan, 1881.

SAN MARTIN DE JOSÉ (1778-1850), Chilian general, was born at Yapeyu, on the Uruguay river, February 25, 1778. In his eighth or ninth year he accompanied his own family to Spain for his education, and being intended for the military profession was admitted into the college of nobles at Madrid. He saw active service and gained distinction in the war of independence, and had risen to the rank of lieutenant-colonel when in 1811 he returned to La Plata. Entering the service of the insurgents there he was entrusted with raising a troop of cavalry, and afterwards was appointed to the chief command of the army acting in Upper Peru against the forces of the viceroy of Lima. After re-establishing his health at Cordova in 1814, he proceeded in 1815 to take command of Cuyo, where he organized an expedition for the liberation of Chili (see vol. v. p. 618). He crossed the mountains early in 1817, and, after gaining a brilliant victory at Chacabuco on 12th February, was pressed by the people of Chili to take the supreme command, and gained a still more brilliant victory at Maypú, 5th April 1818. After organizing the govern-

ment of Chili he sailed with the squadron under Lord Cochrane for Peru, 21st August 1820, and, capturing Lima, drove the Spaniards from the coast and assumed the title of "Protector" of Peru in 1821, but resigned it a year afterwards, and, sailing secretly for Europe, spent the remainder of his life in absolute seclusion near Paris. He died at Boulogne, 17th August 1850.

See *Biographical Sketch of General San Martin* attached to *Peruvian Pamphlet, being an exposition of the Administrative Labours of the Peruvian Government*, 1823.

SANMICHELE, MICHELE (1484-1559), one of the ablest architects of his time, learnt the elements of his profession from his father Giovanni and his uncle Bartolommeo, who both practised as architects at Verona with much success. Like almost all the enthusiastic students of that time he went at an early age to Rome to study classic sculpture and architecture. His great talents soon became known, and he designed and carried out a very large number of works at Verona, Venice, and other places. Among his earliest are the duomo of Montefiascone (an octagonal building surmounted with a cupola), the church of San Domenico at Orvieto, and several palaces at both places. He also executed a fine tomb in S. Domenico.¹ He was no less distinguished as a military architect, and was much employed by the signoria of Venice, not only at home, but also in strengthening the fortifications of Corfu, Cyprus, and Candia.² One of Sanniciele's most graceful designs is the Cappella de' Peregrini in the church of S. Bernardino at Verona—square outside and circular within, of the Corinthian order.³ He built a great number of fine palaces at Verona, five of which still exist, as well as the graceful Ponte Nuovo. His last work, begun in 1559, was the round church of the Madonna di Campagna, a mile and a half from Verona on the road to Venice. Like most other distinguished architects of his time he wrote a work on classic architecture, *Li Cinque Ordini dell' Architettura*, printed at Verona in 1735. Sanniciele to some extent followed the earlier style of Brunelleschi; his work is always refined and his detail delicate. His chief pupil was his nephew Bernardino.

See Ronzani and Luciolli, *Fabbriche . . . di M. Sanniciele*, Venice, 1832; and Selva, *Elogio di Sanniciele*, Rome, 1814.

SAN MIGUEL (S. SALVADOR), or ST MICHAEL'S. See AZORES, vol. iii. p. 171.

SANNAZARO, JACOPO (1458-1530), one of the poets of the Renaissance in Italy, was born in 1458 at Naples of a noble family, said to have been of Spanish origin, which had its seat at San Nazaro near Pavia. His father died during the boyhood of Jacopo, who was accordingly brought up in a very plain way at Nocera Inferiore. He afterwards studied at Naples under Pontanus, when, according to the fashion of the time, he assumed the name Actius Syncerus, by which he is occasionally referred to. After the death of his mother he went abroad,—driven, we are told, by the pangs of despised love for a certain Carmosina, whom he has celebrated in his verse under various names; but of the details of his travels nothing is recorded. On his return he speedily achieved fame as a poet and place as a courtier, receiving from Frederick III. as a country residence the Villa Mergillina near Naples. When his patron was compelled to take refuge in France in 1501 he was accompanied by Sannazaro, who did not return to Italy till after his death (1504). The later years of the poet seem to have been spent at Naples without interruption or memorable incident. He died on April 27, 1530.

The *Arcadia* of Sannazaro, begun in early life and published in 1504, is a somewhat affected and insipid Italian pastoral, in which

¹ See Della Valle, *Storia del Duomo di Orvieto*, Rome, 1791.

² See Bartoldi, *Sanniciele al servizio della repubblica Veneta*.

³ See Giuliani, *Cap. de' Peregrini*, Verona, 1816.

in alternate prose and verse the scenes and occupations of pastoral life are described. His now seldom read Latin poem *De Partu Virginis*, which gained for him the name of the "Christian Virgil," appeared in 1526, and his collected *Sonetti e Canzoni* in 1530.

SAN REMO, a town and seaport of northern Italy, at the head of a circondario in the province of Porto Maurizio on the Western Riviera, 16½ miles by rail east of Mentone and 84½ south-west of Genoa. Climbing the slope of a steep hill, it looks south over a small bay of the Gulf of Genoa, and, protected towards the north by hills rising gradually from 500 to 8000 feet, has the reputation of being in climate one of the most favoured places on the whole coast. The narrow stair-like streets of the old town, with their lofty houses, arched gateways, and flying buttresses, form a fine contrast to the modern districts of villas and hotels which have sprung up since about 1860. Besides the Gothic cathedral of San Siro, the buildings of most interest are the Madonna della Costa, crowning the highest part of the old town, the town-house, and the hospital for cutaneous diseases founded by Charles Albert. The port, formed by two moles, both lengthened since 1880, was at one time much more important, its annual movement having sunk from about 1000 in 1866 to 388 small vessels in 1884. The population of the commune (10,012 in 1861) was 16,055 in 1881,—12,285 in the city proper, and 1717 in the suburbs Poggio and Verezzo.

San Remo, identified by Girolamo Rossi (*Storia della Città*) with a Greek Leucothea and a Roman Matistra, was Christianized by St Ormisdas and his pupil St Sirus. Rebuilt after the expulsion of the Saracens from Liguria, it took the name of San Romolo from its 6th-century bishop whose death-day, 13th October, is still a local fête. In what way Romulus was supplanted by Remus is not clearly ascertained. In 1544 the town was attacked by Barbarossa, and in 1625 by the French and Savoyards. The Genoese, against whose encroachments it had long defended its independence, subjugated it in 1753; and in 1797 it was incorporated in the district of Palms of the Ligurian republic.

SAN-SALVADOR, or **SALVADOR** (*República del Salvador*), the smallest but most densely peopled of the republics of Central America, has a coast-line of 160 miles along the Pacific from the mouth of Rio de la Paz to that of the Goascoran in the Gulf of Fonseca, and is bounded inland by Guatemala on the west and Honduras on the north and east. Its length from east to west is 140 miles, and its average breadth about 60 miles. Its area is estimated at 7225 square miles, and in 1883 it contained 613,273 inhabitants (290,870 males, 322,403 females). With the exception of a comparatively narrow seaboard of low alluvial plains, the country consists mainly of a plateau about 2000 feet above the sea, broken by a large number of volcanic cones, geologically of more recent origin than the main chain of the Cordillera which lies farther to the north. The principal river of the republic is the Rio Lempa, which, rising near Esquipulas in Guatemala and crossing a corner of Honduras, enters Salvador north of Citalá. After receiving from the right the surplus waters of the Laguna de Cuija, a vast lake belonging partly to Guatemala and partly to Salvador, it flows for nearly a degree of longitude eastward through a magnificent and luxuriant valley between the plateau and the Cordillera, and then turning somewhat abruptly south skirts the base of the volcano of Siguatepeque and reaches the Pacific in 88° 40' W. long. Among its numerous tributaries are the Rio Santa Ana, rising near the city of that name, the Asaguate, which passes the capital San Salvador, the Sumpul, which forces its way like the Lempa itself athwart the mountains from Honduras, and the Torola, draining the north-eastern corner of Salvador and part of Honduras. The Lempa is even in the dry season a considerable river with a rapid current, and for two-thirds of its course it could easily be made navigable for steamers. The Rio San Miguel drains the country

between the Gulf of Fonseca and the basin of the Lempa. The volcanic mountains do not form a chain but a series of clusters:—the Izalco group in the west—including Izalco (formed in 1770), Marcelino, Santa Ana, Naranjos, Aguila, San Juan de Dios, Apaneca, Tamajaso, and Lagunita; the San Salvador group, about 30 miles to the east; Cojutepeque to the north-east and the San Vicente group to the east of the great volcanic lake of Ilopango; the Siguatepeque summits to the north-east of San Vicente; and the great south-eastern or San Miguel group—San Miguel, Chinameca, Buenapa, Usulután, Tecapa, Taburete. Caca-guateque and Sociedad volcanoes in the north-east belong to the inland Cordillera.

The volcanic forces in Salvador have not as yet spent themselves. The Izalco vent still acts as a safety valve, and the neighbourhood of the capital is so subject to tremblings and rockings of the earth as to have acquired the name of the swinging mat or hammock. The city itself has been destroyed by earthquake in 1594, 1658, in 1719, and in 1854. San Miguel is described as one of the most treacherous burning mountains in America, sometimes several years in complete repose and then all at once bursting out with terrific fury (Scherzer). In 1879-1880 the Lake of Ilopango was the scene of a remarkable series of phenomena. With a length of 5½ miles and a breadth of 4½, it forms a rough parallelogram with deeply indented sides, and is surrounded in all directions by steep mountains except at the points where the villages of Asino and Apulo occupy little patches of level ground. Between 31st December 1879 and 11th January 1880 the lake rose four feet above its level. The Jiboa, which flows out at the south-east corner, became, instead of a very shallow stream 20 feet broad, a raging torrent which soon scooped out for itself in the volcanic rocks a channel 30 to 35 feet deep. A rapid subsidence of the lake was thus produced, and by the 6th of March the level was 34½ feet below its maximum. Towards the centre of the lake a volcanic centre about 500 feet in diameter rose 150 feet above the water, surrounded by a number of small islands. A number of villages were ruined by the accompanying earthquakes. The lake, originally stocked by the early Spanish settlers, had become the great fish-pond of the republic. On the outbreak of the volcanic forces, the fish fled towards the sides, and on the receding of the waters their dead bodies were left behind in such quantities that at Asino several hundred men were employed for days burying them to avoid a pestilence.

It is less to these natural catastrophes than to political instability that the comparative backwardness of Salvador to develop its resources of soil and minerals must be ascribed; and considerable progress has in many respects been made since the middle of the century. Coffee is now the principal export (to the value of \$1,051,000 in 1873, \$3,416,104 in 1883). Indigo, for a long time the staple of the country and exported to the annual value of \$20,000,000, is still extensively cultivated (exports in 1883 \$1,812,594). As this indigo is generally quoted in the market as Guatemalan, so another valuable product of Salvador is always designated Balsam of Peru (see vol. iii. p. 293), though the tree from which it is obtained grows naturally nowhere else in the world except in a limited part of the Salvadorian seaboard known as the Balsam coast. It was exported in 1883 to the value of \$53,612. Other productions of less importance are tobacco, sarsaparilla, india-rubber, and sugar. The silver mines have been and may again be of some account; and coal has been discovered inland. On the whole the trade of the country has greatly increased: the imports and exports, \$1,306,378 and \$1,991,650 respectively in 1859, were \$2,401,463 and \$5,861,053 in 1883. At the time of Dr Scherzer's visit, there was not a bridge in the country; there are now a considerable number of good iron bridges on the new roads between the principal cities. The first railway, that from Acajutla to Sonsonate (15 miles) was opened in 1882, and has since been continued in the direction of Santa Ana, the chief commercial town. Telegraphic communication has been established between the more important towns, and in July 1882 the Central and North American Company landed its cable at La Libertad, Acajutla, La Libertad, and La Unión or San Carlos de la Unión (in the Gulf of Fonseca) are the principal harbours. Besides the capital San Salvador, with 14,059 inhabitants, there were in 1873, according to the census, 68 places in the republic with over 2000 each—Santa Ana (29,908), Nahuizalco (9988), San Vicente (9957), San Miguel (9842), Metapan (9782), Chalchuapa (8171), Ahuachapan (7930), Nuevo San Salvador (7337), &c. There are three universities—San Salvador, Santa Ana, and San Miguel, with funds partly provided by a quarter of the customs,—a girls' college at Santa Ana, and a fair number of secondary and primary schools. Salvador received this name from Pedro Alvaredo, who, when he conquered it for Spain in 1525-26, found it a rich and populous country. Its independence of the Spanish

crowns dates from 1842; in 1853 it obtained the constitution under which (in a modified form) it now exists as a sovereign state. General Barrios, having in 1858 obliged the president Santin del Castillo to abdicate, secured his own permanent appointment to the office in 1860; but in 1863-4 he failed in his endeavour to defend his capital against the Guatemalans, and when he returned in 1864 to attack Dueñas, the Guatemalan protégé, he was defeated and put to death. "Pronunciamientos" have since been the too general preliminaries of presidential elections; but there has been no serious war, and the finances of the republic have usually a balance on the right side.

See Scherzer, *Travels in Central America* (1857); Soenenstern, *Description des états du Salvador* (New York, 1859, with a good map reproduced in Berlin *Zeitsch. für Geographie*, 1860); Dollfus and Montserat, *Voy. géologique dans les républiques de Guatemala et de Salvador* (1868); Blairet, *Le Salvador* (1872); Frantzius's translation of De Palacio, *San Salvador and Honduras in 1576* (1873); Guzman, *Apuntamientos sobre la geogr. física de la rep. del Salvador*, 1883.

SANSANDING, or **SANSANDIG**, a town in the interior of Western Africa, on the north bank of the Niger, in 13° 40' N. lat. and 6° 25' W. long., and included in the "empire" of Segu. It was visited by Mungo Park in 1796, and in 1865 by Mage and Quintin, who witnessed the stand it made against a siege by Ahmedu, sultan of Segu, from whom it had revolted. The population is estimated at 30,000 to 40,000.

SAN SEBASTIAN, a seaport of Spain, capital of the province of Guipuzcoa, 42 miles north-north-west of Pamplona, and 402 miles by rail from Madrid. It occupies a narrow isthmus, terminated towards the north by a lofty conical rock called Urgull or Orgullo, and flanked on its eastern side by the river Urumea, here crossed by a bridge, and on the other by a bay (La Concha), which forms the harbour. The summit of the hill is crowned by a fort (Castillo de la Mota), and the landward side of the town was formerly defended by solid ramparts.

SANSKRIT LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

PART I.—SANSKRIT LANGUAGE.

SANSKRIT is the name applied by Hindu scholars to the ancient literary language of India. The word *samskrita* is the past participle of the verb *kar*, "to make" (cognate with Latin *creo*), with the preposition *sam*, "together" (cog. *σμα*, *σμός*, Eng. "same"), and has probably to be taken here in the sense of "completely formed" or "accurately made, polished,"—some noun meaning "speech" (esp. *bhāshā*) being either expressed or understood with it. The term was, doubtless, originally adopted by native grammarians to distinguish the literary language of the educated classes from the uncultivated popular dialects—the forerunners of the modern vernaculars of northern India—which had, from an early period, developed side by side with it, and which were called (from the same root *kar*, but with different prepositions) *Prākṛita*, i.e., either "derived" or "natural, common" forms of speech. But this designation of the literary idiom, being evidently intended to imply a language regulated by conventional rules, also involves a distinction between the grammatically fixed language of Brāhmanical India and an earlier, less settled, phase of the same language exhibited in the Vedic writings. For greater convenience the Vedic language is, however, usually included in the term, and scholars generally distinguish between the Vedic and the classical Sanskrit. The Sanskrit language, with its old and modern descendants, represents the easternmost branch of the great Indo-Germanic, or Aryan, stock of speech. Philological research has clearly established the fact that the Indo-Aryans must originally have immigrated into India from the north-west. In the oldest literary documents handed down by them their gradual advance can indeed be traced

The houses are almost all modern, built uniformly in straight streets and regular squares, so as to present an appearance quite unlike most Spanish towns. There are two large churches, a court-house, a theatre, hospitals, barracks, &c. The manufactures of the place are insignificant; and the harbour is small, and not easily accessible, though well protected by a mole and small island. There is a considerable trade in English and French goods,—corn and other articles being exported. During summer the town is much frequented, especially by the wealthier inhabitants of Madrid, for sea-bathing, and tent-like huts are set up for the purpose on the shore of the bay. From its position and strength San Sebastian has been long a place of much importance, and has sustained several sieges. The most memorable of these was in August 1813, when the British, under Wellington, took it by storm. The population within the municipal boundaries was 21,355 in 1877.

SAN SEVERO, a city of Italy, in the province of Foggia, and at one time the chief town of the Capitanata, lies at the foot of the spurs of Monte Gargano, and has a station on the railway to Brindisi, 36 miles south-east of Termoli and 17 north of Foggia. It is the see of a bishop (since 1580), and has a handsome cathedral and some remains of its old fortifications. In 1880 the population was 19,756 (20,382 in commune).

San Severo dates from the Middle Ages. It was laid in ruins by Frederick II., and in 1053 was the scene of a victory by Robert Guiscard over the papal troops under Leo IX. The overlordship was held in succession by the Benedictines of Torre Maggiore abbey, the Knights Templars, the crown of Naples, and the Sangro family (commendatories of Torre Maggiore). In 1627, and again in 1828 and 1851, the town suffered from earthquakes.

from the slopes of eastern Kabulistan down to the land of the five rivers (Punjab), and thence to the plains of the Yamunā (Jumna) and Gangā (Ganges). Numerous special coincidences, both of language and mythology, between the Vedic Aryans and the peoples of Iran also show that these two members of the Indo-Germanic family must have remained in close connexion for some considerable period after the others had separated from them.

The origin of comparative philology dates from the time when European scholars became accurately acquainted with the ancient language of India. Before that time classical scholars had been unable, through centuries of learned research, to determine the true relations between the then known languages of our stock. This fact alone shows the importance of Sanskrit for comparative research. Though its value in this respect has perhaps at times been overrated, it may still be considered as the eldest daughter of the old mother-tongue. Indeed, so far as direct documentary evidence goes, it may rather be said to be the only surviving daughter; for none of the other six principal members of the family have left any literary monuments, and their original features have to be reproduced, as best they can, from the materials supplied by their own daughter languages: such is the case as regards the Iranic, Hellenic, Italic, Celtic, Teutonic, and Letto-Slavic languages. To the Sanskrit the antiquity and extent of its literary documents, the transparency of its grammatical structure, the comparatively primitive state of its accent system, and the thorough grammatical treatment it has early received at the hand of native scholars must ever secure the foremost place in the comparative study of Indo-Germanic speech.

