

arsenal, the Scuola di S. Giovanni degli Schiavoni, and, finest of all, the church of S. Geminiano, near St Mark's, a very good specimen of the Tuscan and Composite orders used with the graceful freedom of the Renaissance.

The otherwise prosperous course of the artist's life was interrupted by one serious misfortune. In 1545 the roof of the public library, which he was then constructing, gave way and fell in; on account of this he was imprisoned, fined, and dismissed from the office of chief architect of the cathedral, to which he had been appointed by a decree of the signoria on April 7, 1529. Owing, however, to the intervention of his friends, Titian, Pietro Aretino, and others, he was soon set at liberty, and in 1549 he was restored to his post. He did good service to the cathedral of St Mark's by strengthening its failing domes, which he did by encircling them with bands of iron. Sansovino's architectural works have much beauty of proportion and grace of ornament, a little marred in some cases by an excess of sculptured decoration, though the carving itself is always beautiful both in design and execution. He used the classic orders with great freedom and tasteful invention—very different from the dull scholasticism of most of his contemporaries. His numerous pupils were mostly men of but little talent.

SANTA ANNA, ANTONIO LOPEZ DE (1798–1876), for many years a prominent figure in the troubled politics of Mexico, was born at Jalapa on February 21, 1798. Having entered the army, he joined the party of ITURBIDE (*q.v.*) in 1821, and gained distinction and promotion by the part he took in the surprise and capture of Vera Cruz. In the following year he quarrelled with his chief and himself became leader of a party, but without in the first instance achieving success. In 1828, however, he sided with Guerrero, who made him war minister, and also commander-in-chief after a successful operation against the Spaniards in 1829. He successively accomplished the overthrow of Guerrero in favour of Bustamante and of Bustamante in favour of Pedraza, and finally in March 1833 was himself elected president. In 1836 he was defeated and taken by the Texan revolutionists, but returned to Mexico the following year. In 1844, after considerable vicissitudes, he was deposed and banished, but he was brought back once more to the presidential chair in 1846. This second term of office lasted till the fall of Mexico in 1847, when he resigned. He was made president again in 1853, but finally abdicated in 1855. In 1867 he took part in "pronunciamientos" which led to his banishment. In 1874 he was permitted to return to his native soil, where he died two years afterwards.

SANTA CRUZ. See SAINT CROIX. For **SANTA CRUZ DE SANTIAGO** see CANARY ISLANDS, vol. iv. p. 799; and for **SANTA CRUZ OF NITENDI ISLAND** see NEW HEBRIDES, vol. xvii. p. 395.

SANTA FE, a city of the Argentine Republic, capital of the province of Santa Fé (38,600 square miles; 189,000 inhabitants), occupies an area of 400 acres, 90 miles north of Rosario, on the north-east or left bank of the Rio Salado at its junction with the Paraná, in a district subject to periodical inundations. It is the seat of the governor, the bishop, and the legislature, and contains a cathedral, a Jesuits' church (1654) and college (the latter an important institution with 400 boarders), a new bishop's palace, a town-hall (with a fine tower), extensive infantry barracks, and a large market. A foundry, a macaroni-factory, oil-factories, and tile-works are the chief industrial establishments. The population in 1881 was 10,400, a decrease since 1869. Santa Fé was founded in 1573 by Juan de Garay.

SANTA FÉ, a city of the United States, capital of New Mexico, stands in a wide plain surrounded by moun-

tains about 7000 feet above the sea, in 35° 41' N. lat. and 105° 46' W. long., near the Santa Fé Creek, which joins the Rio Grande del Norte 14 or 15 miles farther south-west. It is connected by a branch line (18 miles) with the Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fé Railroad at Lamy Junction, 835 miles from Atchison. The houses are mainly constructed of adobe, and the irregularity of the plan shows how recently the city has come under the influence of "American" progress. Among the more noteworthy buildings are the new capitol, for which funds were voted in 1883, the Roman Catholic cathedral, erected since 1870, and the old governor's palace, a long low edifice occupying one side of the principal plaza, which now contains a soldiers' monument in honour of those who fell in the service of the United States. Santa Fé is an important centre of trade, and the development of the mining industries in the vicinity is rapidly increasing its prosperity. The population was 6635 in 1881.

One of the oldest cities of North America, Santa Fé de San Francisco was the capital of New Mexico from 1640, but remained in comparative seclusion till the early part of the present century, when it became a main station on what was called the Santa Fé Trail—the trade route between the United States and Mexico, or more especially between St Louis and Chihuahua. A custom-house was established in the city in 1821, and the first American mercantile house began business in 1826. By 1843 the value of the merchandise entrusted to the train of 230 waggons from St Louis was \$450,000. General Kearny built Fort Marcy at Santa Fé in 1846, and in 1851 the city became the capital of the new Territory. In 1862 it was occupied for a few days by the Confederates.

SANTA FÉ DE BOGOTÁ. See BOGOTÁ.

SANTAL PARGANÁS, THE, a British district in the lieutenant-governorship of Bengal, forming the southern portion of the Bhágalpur division, and lying between 23° 48' and 25° 19' N. lat., and between 86° 30' and 87° 58' E. long. The total area of the district is 5456 square miles; it is bounded on the north by the districts of Bhágalpur and Purniah, on the east by Maldah, Murshidábád, and Birbhúm, on the south by Bardwán and Mánbhúm, and on the west by Hazáribagh and Bhágalpur. Three distinct types of country are represented within the area of the Santál Parganá: in the east a sharply defined belt of hills stretches for about a hundred miles from the Ganges to the Naubil River; west of this point a rolling tract of long ridges with intervening depressions covers an area of about 2500 square miles; while the third type is exemplified by a narrow strip of flat alluvial country about 170 miles long, lying for the most part along the loop line of the East Indian Railway. The Rajmahal Hills are the only range of any importance in the district, and occupy an area of 1366 square miles; but they nowhere exceed 2000 feet in height. Several other hill ranges occur, which are with few exceptions covered almost to their summits with dense jungle; they are all difficult of access; there are, however, numerous passes through all the ranges. Coal and iron are found in almost all parts of the country, but the coal is of such inferior quality that all attempts to work it have failed. Wild animals, including tigers, leopards, bears, hyenas, deer, and wild pig, with a variety of small game, are common almost everywhere. The climate varies: the alluvial tract has the damp heat and moist soil characteristic of Bengal, while the undulating and hilly portions are swept by the hot westerly winds of Behar, and are very cool in the winter months. The average annual rainfall is over 50 inches. The district is traversed on the east by the loop line, and on the west by the chord line, of the East Indian Railway; the total length of railway is about 130 miles.

The census of 1881 disclosed a total population in the Santál Parganá of 1,568,093 (males 785,330, females 782,763); Hindus numbered 847,590, Mohammedans 108,899, and Christians 3057. The total number of persons belonging to the aboriginal tribes was 605,517, of whom the great majority (537,546) were Santáls.

For an account of this interesting tribe, see INDIA, vol. xii. p. 778. The population is almost entirely rural; only two towns contain over 5000 inhabitants each, viz., Deoghar, which is the only municipality, with a population of 8015, and Shahebgunge with 6512. The administrative headquarters are at Naya Dumka.

Rice forms the staple crop of the Santál Parganá, and is largely grown in the alluvial strip of country which runs along the eastern boundary of the district. Other crops are millets, wheat, barley, maize, various pulses and oil-seeds, jute, flax, sugar-cane, cotton, and indigo. The district is singularly destitute of any local manufactures: iron is roughly smelted by Kol settlers from Chutiá Nagpur; coarse cloth is woven as a domestic manufacture, and bell-metal utensils are made to a small extent; indigo is also manufactured. The trade is carried on by means of permanent markets. Exports consist chiefly of rice, Indian corn, oil seeds, tasar-silk cocoons, lac, small-sized timber, and hill bamboos; while European piece goods, salt, and brass or bell-metal utensils for household use compose the bulk of the imports. In 1883–84 the gross revenue of the district amounted to £45,437, of which the land-tax yielded £22,556.

The Santáls have been known to the British since the latter part of the 18th century. In 1832 two Government officials were deputed to demarcate with solid masonry pillars the present area of the Daman-i-Koh, or skirts of the hills. The permission to Santáls to settle in the valleys and on the lower slopes of the Daman stimulated Santál immigration to an enormous extent. The Hindu money-lender soon made his appearance amongst them, and led to the rebellion of 1855–56. The insurrection was not quelled without bloodshed, but it led to the establishment of a form of administration congenial to the immigrants; and a land settlement has since been carried out on conditions favourable to the occupants of the soil.

SANTA MARIA. See CAPUA.

SANTA MAURA, or LEUCADIA (Λευκάδα, ancient Λευκάς), one of the Ionian Islands, with an area of 110 square miles and a population (1880) of 25,000 (20,892 in 1870), lies off the coast of Acarnania (Greece), immediately south of the entrance to the Gulf of Arta. It first appears in history as a peninsula (*Odyssey*, xxiv. 378), and, if the statements of ancient authorities be accepted literally, it owed its existence as an island to the Corinthians, whose canal across the isthmus was again after a long period of disuse opened up by the Romans. But it is probable rather that Leucas was then as now separated from the mainland by a shallow lagoon (two feet or less). During the English occupation a canal for boats of four to five feet draught was formed from Fort Santa Maura to the town, but the 16-foot-deep ship canal which it was proposed (1844) to carry right across the lagoon or submerged isthmus to Fort Alexander was only partially excavated.¹ Santa Maura, measuring about 20 miles from north to south and 5 to 8 miles in breadth, is a rugged mass of limestone and bituminous shales (partly Tertiary), rising in its principal ridges to heights of 2000 and 3000 feet, and presenting very limited areas of level ground. The grain crop suffices only for a few months' local consumption; but olive oil of good quality is produced to the extent of 30,000 to 50,000 barrels per annum; the vineyards (in the west especially) yield 100,000 barrels of red wine (bought mainly by Rouen, Cetta, Trieste, and Venice); the currant, introduced about 1859, has gradually come to be the principal source of wealth (the crop averaging 2,500,000 lb); and small quantities of cotton, flax, tobacco, valonia, &c., are also grown. The salt trade, formerly of importance, has suffered from Greek customs regulations. Though to a large extent unlettered and superstitious, the inhabitants are industrious and well-behaved. The chief town (5000 inhabitants) properly called Amaxikhi, but more usually Santa Maura, after the neighbouring fort, is situated at the north-east end of the island opposite the lagoon. In the south-west is the village of Vasiliki, where a wharf protected by a mole

¹ As a six hours' shortening of the steam-passage between the Levant and the Adriatic would be effected by such a channel the scheme has again been taken up. According to M. Fyot, the engineer employed to report, the dredging could be done for 1,200,000 francs.

was built in 1877–78 for shipping the currant crop. Remains of Cyclopean and polygonal walls exist at Kaligoni (south of Amaxikhi), probably the site of the ancient acropolis of Neritus (or Nericus), and of the later and lower Corinthian settlement of Leucas. From this point a Roman bridge seems to have crossed to the mainland. Between the town and Fort Santa Maura extends a remarkably fine Turkish aqueduct partly destroyed along with the town by the earthquake of 1825. Forts Alexander and Constantine commanding the bridge are relics of the Russian occupation; the other forts are of Turko-Venetian origin. The magnificent cliff, some 2000 feet high, which forms the southern termination of the modern island still bears the substructions of the temple of Apollo Lencatas (hence the modern name Capo Ducato). At the annual festival of Apollo a criminal was obliged to plunge from the summit into the sea, where, however, an effort was made to pick him up; and it was by the same heroic leap that Sappho and Artemisia, daughter of Lygdamis, are said to have ended their lives.

SANTANDER, a province in the north of Spain, on the shores of the Bay of Biscay, bounded on the E. by Biscaya, on the S. by Burgos and Palencia, and on the W. by Leon and Oviedo. The area is 2113 square miles. The province is mountainous in character, being traversed from east to west by the Cantabrian chain, which in the Picos de Europa reaches a height of over 8700 feet, and sends off numerous branches to the sea. On the north side of the range the streams are all short, the principal being the Ason, the Miera, the Pas, the Besaya, the Soja, and the Nansa, which flow into the Bay of Biscay; part of the province lies to the southward of the watershed, and is drained by the upper Ebro. The valleys of Santander are fertile, and produce various kinds of grain, maize, pulse, hemp, flax, and vegetables. Oranges, lemons, grapes, figs, and other fruits flourish, and forests of oak, chestnut, walnut, and fir cover the hills. Rich pasturage for cattle and swine and a good supply of game are also found among them, and the fisheries along the coast are likewise productive. Foreign capital has been successfully applied to the development of lead, coal, and iron mines; and the mountains contain quarries of limestone, marble, and gypsum, and abound with mineral springs. The district was part of the Roman province of Cantabria, which, after passing under the empire of the Goths, became the principality of the Asturias. The portion called Asturia de Santa Juliana, or Santillana, was included in the kingdom of Old Castile, and, on the subdivision of the old provinces of Spain in 1833, became the province of Santander. The people are of a purer race than in parts of Spain subjected by the Moors, and both in mental and physical qualities show their Teutonic ancestry. The industries of the country are consequently in a flourishing condition, and, besides the natural products above mentioned, there are foundries, breweries, distilleries, tanneries; cotton, linen, cloth, and flour mills; brick and tile works; and manufactories of hats, soap, buttons, preserves, and chocolate. The province is traversed from north to south by the railway and high road from Santander by Palencia to Madrid; the highest point on the railway (Venta de Pazoal) is 3229 feet above the sea. For purposes of administration the province is divided into eleven partidos judiciales, containing 103 ayuntamientos, and returns two senators and five deputies to the cortes. The population in 1877 numbered 235,299. Besides Santander, the capital, the only places having within the municipal boundaries a population exceeding 5000 are Castro-Urdiales (7623), Valle de Pielagos (5500), Torrelavega (7192), and Valderredible (7240). Santoña has 4428, and Laredo 4384. Santillana (1776) has a fine Roman-

esque church and cloister (12th century), and was the birthplace of the architect Juan de Herrera.

SANTANDER (*Portus Blendium, Fanum S. Andreae*), capital of the above province, 316 miles by rail from Madrid, is the seat of a bishopric and one of the chief seaports of Spain. The population in 1877 numbered 41,000, having almost doubled in the preceding quarter of a century, and the trade of the port has increased in an even greater proportion. The town is situated on the inside of a rocky peninsula, which separates it from the Bay of Biscay and forms a magnificent harbour from 2 to 3 miles wide and 4 miles long. The entrance is at the eastern extremity of the promontory, and, though somewhat difficult for sailing vessels in certain winds, has depth of water sufficient for the largest ships. The total burthen of the vessels entered in 1882 amounted to 104,449 tons British and 500,342 tons of other nations. The chief exports consisted of iron ore (20,966 tons) to Great Britain, and wine (191,400 galls.) and olive oil (8000 galls.) to France. The city is divided into an upper and a lower town, and contains few buildings of interest. The cathedral was originally a Gothic structure, but has been so altered by later additions that little of the old work remains. In the crypt, or Capilla del Cristo de Abajo, there is a font of Moorish workmanship which has some interest. The castle of S. Felice contains a prison which was probably the first example of the radiating system of construction. Besides these buildings there are the theatre, which was formerly a convent, the hospital, and the Jesuits' church. The city is essentially modern, and its chief features are its well-built houses, its quays, and its factories. In addition to the manufactures of the province mentioned above, Santander has gas-works, phosphorus, sulphuric acid, and sail manufactories, and a large cigar factory, formerly a convent, where over 1000 hands are employed. Besides being a trading port Santander is also a watering-place which enjoys peculiar advantages of climate. The bathing establishment of the Sardinero, on the seaward side of the strip of land the town is built on, offers all the attractions usual to Continental watering-places. There is communication by rail with Madrid and by steamer with Liverpool, London, and Hamburg, as well as with Havana and the seaports of Spain.

The port was in 1753 made one of the "puertos habilitados" or ports privileged to trade with America, and in 1755 it was created a "ciudad." Charles V. landed here in 1522 when he came to take possession of the Spanish crown, and from this port Charles I. of England embarked on his ill-fated visit *incognito* in search of a wife. The city was sacked by the French under Soult in 1808; but so little gratitude did the people show to their English allies that it was with the greatest difficulty supplies were found for the troops.

SANTAREM, a city and bishop's see of Portugal, in the province of Estremadura, on the declivities of the right bank of the Tagus, 46½ miles by rail from Lisbon. It has the ruins of an old castle, well known in Portuguese history as a royal residence, especially in the Middle Ages, and several of its churches are of historic and architectural interest. A considerable trade is carried on, and the population was 7001 in 1878.

Santarem, so named after a certain St Irene, is identified with the ancient Scallabis Presidium Julium. The death of Diniz I., and the birth, abdication, and death of Don Henrique the cardinal king, all occurred in the city; it gave its name to João de Santarem, one of the 15th-century navigators; and Fernando L. and Cabral, discoverer of Brazil, were buried within its walls. The Miguelists were completely routed here by Napier and Villaflor in 1834.

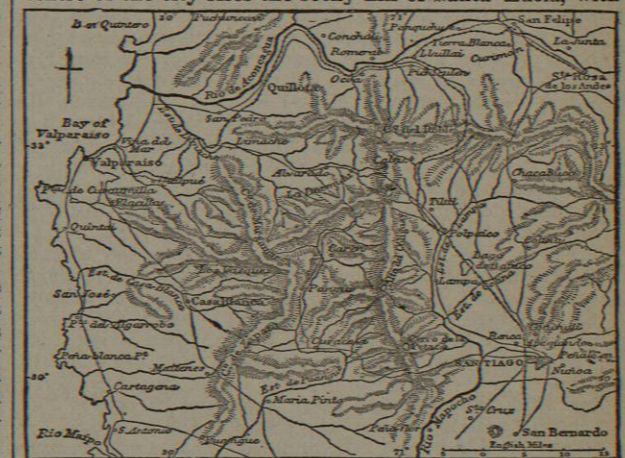
SANTAREM, a city of Brazil, at the head of a comarca in the province of Pará, is situated on the right bank near the mouth of the Rio Tapajós, a right-hand tributary of the Amazon. It is a clean and neat-looking place, with rows of whitewashed houses in the European town, clusters of palm-thatched huts in the Indian suburb, a large church, the ruins of a stone fort, and, standing apart,

the municipal buildings with the court-house. As the Rio Tapajós is navigable for steamers to the rapids, 170 miles above Santarem, and for boats to within a short distance of Diamantino, the town carries on a considerable trade with Matto Grosso and the country along the banks. The population and importance of the place, originally founded by a Jesuit missionary for his converts in 1661, and made a city in 1848, are steadily increasing.

SANTERRE, JEAN BAPTISTE (1650-1717), French painter, born at Magny near Pontoise in 1650, was a pupil of Bon Boulogne. He began life as a portrait-painter, but refused to paint any except those who pleased his taste; he was incapable of managing the large compositions then in vogue, but enjoyed for half a century a great reputation as a painter of the nude. He had opened his studio to a class of young girls, to whom he gave lessons, and who served him as models. Much, however, of Santerre's work of this class was destroyed by himself in a fit of lively repentance after a serious illness which attacked him late in life. He died at Paris on November 21, 1717. His paintings, in consequence of his extreme care in choice of vehicles and pigments, have stood well. His Portrait of a Lady in Venetian Costume (Louvre), and his Susanna at the Bath (Louvre, engraved by Porporati), the diploma work executed by him in 1704, when he was received into the Academy, give a good impression of Santerre's taste and of his elaborate and careful method.

SANTIAGO. See CAPE VERD ISLANDS, vol. v. p. 60.

SANTIAGO, the capital of Chili, and the chief town of a province of its own name (now 5223 square miles in extent, reduced in 1883 by the formation of the new province of O'Higgins), is situated in 33° 26' 42" S. lat. and 70° 40' 36" W. long., at a height of about 1830 feet above the sea, in a wide and beautiful plain between the main range of the Andes and the less elevated heights of Cuesta del Prado, 115 miles east of Valparaiso by rail. In the centre of the city rises the rocky hill of Santa Lucia, with



its two fortresses,—recently converted into a pleasure-ground, with theatres, restaurants, and monuments; and immediately to the north-north-west and north-east are those known as Colina, Renca, and San Cristóbal. The snow-clad range of the Andes, in which the summits of La Chapa and Los Amarillos are conspicuous, is visible from Santiago. A turbid mountain stream, the Mapocho, flows west through the heart of the city to join the Colina, and ultimately the Maipú or Maipo; its floods were sometimes, as in 1609 and 1783, the cause of great damage till the construction of a solid embankment was undertaken

under the government of Ambrosio O'Higgins; it is now crossed by several handsome bridges, the oldest of which, a structure of eleven arches, dates from 1767-1779. From the very first Santiago was laid out with great regularity in parallelograms; but owing to the frequency of earthquakes the dwelling-houses are seldom built of more than a single story in height. The cathedral, situated in the Plaza de la Independencia, is the oldest of the churches. Originally erected by Pedro Valdivia and rebuilt by García Hurtado de Mendoza, it was destroyed by the earthquake of 1647 and rebuilt on a new plan subsequent to 1748. It is 351 feet long by 92 feet wide, but has no very striking features. Among the other ecclesiastical buildings are the church of San Agustín, erected in 1595 by Cristóbal de Vera and in modern times adorned with a pillared portico; the churches of San Francisco, La Merced, and Santo Domingo, dating from the 18th century; the Augustine nunnery founded by Bishop Medellín in 1576; the Carmen Alto, or church of the Carmelite nunnery, an elegant little Gothic building; the stately church of the Reformed Dominicans, rich in marble monolithic columns; and the chapel erected in 1852 to the memory of Pedro Valdivia next to the house in which he is reputed to have lived. The public cemetery, recently secularized, has a large number of marble and bronze monuments,—mostly from Italy. Among the secular buildings the more noteworthy are the palace of the intendency, the old presidential palace (popularly Las Cajas), the congress buildings, the mint, the palace of justice, the municipal theatre. The present university of Santiago dates from 1842,—the older Universidad de San Felipe, which had been established in 1747, having been closed in 1839. It occupies a fine building in the Alameda, and alongside stands the great National Institute of Secondary Education. In 1882 the university was attended by 920 students and the institute by 1059. The city also contains a school of arts and trades (1849), a musical conservatorio (1849), a national museum, a military school established in 1842 and enlarged on the abolition of the naval military school at Valparaiso in 1872 (now re-established), and a school of agriculture founded by the Agricultural Society chartered in 1869. The National Library is a noble collection of books dating from 1813, especially rich in works relating to America; there is also a good library in the National Institute. Besides the official journal, Santiago has four daily papers, as well as various reviews and other serials. Besides the Alameda, a great tree-planted avenue decorated with statues (the Abbé Molina, Generals San Martín, Carrera, O'Higgins, and Freire, &c.), the principal open spaces in Santiago are the Plaza de la Independencia, the Canadilla, a broad tree-bordered avenue, the Alameda de Yungay, the Campo de Marte (where are the Penitentiary, a prison built and administered according to the most approved modern principles, and the large Artillery Park), the Quinta Normal de Agricultura, which comprises zoological and botanical gardens, and the large area in which the International Exhibition of 1875 was held. As the Mapocho was unfit for drinking, water was introduced about 1865 by an aqueduct 5 miles long. The prevailing winds at Santiago are from the south and south-west. On an average rain falls for 216 hours in the course of the year, mostly between May and September. Snow and hail are both extremely rare. Earthquakes are so frequent that as many as twenty-seven or thirty shocks are sometimes registered in a year. Those which have proved really disastrous are the earthquakes of 17th March 1575, 13th May 1647, 8th July 1730, 19th November 1822, and 20th February 1835. The population of Santiago, which was returned in 1865 as 168,553 (79,920 males and 88,633 females), had increased to 200,000 in 1883.

It was in February 1541 that Pedro de Valdivia, one of Pizarro's captains, founded the city of Santiago del Nuevo Extremo in accordance with a vow he had made at Cuzco. The place has all along held an important position in Chilean history, but perhaps none of the events with which it is associated sent such a sensation through the world as the burning of the Jesuit church with the loss of more than two thousand lives in the flames (8th December 1863).

SANTIAGO DE COMPOSTELLA, the former capital of Galicia, in the north-west of Spain, situated in 42° 52' 30" N. lat. and 8° 30' 6" W. long., 51½ miles west-by-south from Lugo, and 32 miles south-by-west from Corunna, in the province of that name. It lies on the eastern slope of the Monte Pedroso, surrounded by mountains which draw down incessant rain that gives the granite buildings of its deserted streets an extra tint of melancholy and decay. The city is still the seat of a university and of an archbishopric, which lays claim to the primacy of all Spain, but its former glories have quite departed. In the Middle Ages its shrine, which contained the body of St James the Great, was one of the most famous in Europe, and gathered crowds of pilgrims from all parts. The city became, in fact, the focus of all the art and chivalry of neighbouring Christendom, and a spot where conflicting interests could meet on neutral ground. But the days of pilgrimages are past, and, though the Congregation of Rites declared in 1884 that the cathedral still enshrines the veritable body of the apostle, pilgrims are scarcely more often seen than in any other cathedral town. The trade of Santiago can never have been otherwise than dependent on the crowds of pilgrims who visited the shrine. It now only survives in the silversmiths' shops on the Plaza de los Plateros, which still have a steady sale for artistic pieces of peasant jewellery. Otherwise it consists in mere local traffic in cattle, linen, silk, leather, hats, and paper. There is communication by rail with the little seaport of Carril on the west coast. The population within the municipal boundaries was 23,000 in 1885.

The relics of the saint were said to have been discovered in 835 by Theodomir, bishop of Iria, who was guided to the spot by a star, whence the name (*Campus Stellae*). A chapel was forthwith erected, and the bishopric was transferred thither by a special bull of Pope Leo III. A more substantial building was begun in 868, but was totally destroyed in 997 by Almanzor, who, however, respected the sacred relics. On the reconquest of the city by Bermudo III, the roads which led to it were improved by that monarch, and pilgrims began to flock to the shrine, which fast grew in reputation. In 1078 the erection of the present cathedral was begun during the episcopate of Diego Pelaez, and was continued until 1188, when the western doorway was completed. It is a cruciform building in the Romanesque style, 280 feet long, 60 feet wide, and 70 feet high, and keeps its original form in the interior, but is disfigured externally by much poor late work. Besides the classic dome and clock-tower, the two western towers have been raised to a height of 220 feet and crowned with cupolas, and between them has been erected a classic portico, above which is a niche containing a statue of St James. The façade was the work of Casas y Noboa in 1738, and the statue was by Ventura Rodríguez in 1764. The design is mediocre, and gains its chief effect from forming part of an extended architectural composition on the Plaza Mayor, a grand square which is surrounded on all sides by public buildings. The ground rises to the cathedral, which is reached by a magnificent quadruple flight of steps, flanked by statues of David and Solomon. Access to the staircase is given through some fine wrought-iron gates, and in the centre, on the level of the Plaza, is the entrance to a Romanesque chapel, La Iglesia Baja, constructed under the portico and contemporary with the cathedral. To the north and south, and in a line with the west front, are dependent buildings of the 18th century, grouping well with it. Those to the south contain a light and elegant arcade to the upper windows, and serve as a screen to the cloisters, built in 1533 by Fonseca, afterwards archbishop of Toledo. They are said to be the largest in Spain, and are a fair example of the latest Gothic. The delicate sculpture over the heads of the windows and along the wall of the cloister is very noticeable. On the north of the cathedral is the Plaza de S. Juan, where the peasants collect to do their marketing. Here is the convent of S. Martín, built in 1636, which, after serving as a barrack, is now used as an ecclesiastical seminary, restored to the church. It has

a tolerable cloister and bell-tower. The north side of the cathedral is much overlaid by classical and Churrigueresque work; and the same treatment has been applied to the east end, where is the Puerta Santa, which is kept closed, except in jubilee years, when it is opened by the archbishop. The corner of the south transept on the Plaza de los Plateros has been mutilated by the erection of the clock-tower, but the façade is fortunately preserved intact. Perhaps the chief beauty of the cathedral, however, is the Portico de la Gloria, behind the western classic portal. It is a work of the 12th century, and probably the utmost development of which round-arched Gothic is capable. The shafts, tympana, and archivolts of the three doorways which open on to the nave and aisles are a mass of strong and nervous sculpture. The design is a general representation of the Last Judgment, and the subjects are all treated with a quaint grace which shows the work of a real artist. Faint traces of colour remain and give a tone to the whole work. The cathedral is at such a height from the ground that it is probable that, until the erection of the present grand staircase, the portico could not be reached from the Plaza, but stood open to the air. There are no marks of doors in the jambs, and the entrance to the chapel beneath would have been blocked by any staircase which differed much in plan from the present one. The interior of the church is one of the purest and best examples of Romanesque work to be met with in Spain. The absence of a clerestory throws an impressive gloom over the barrel-vaulted roof, which makes the building seem larger than it is. A passage leads from the north transept to the Parroquia of San Juan, or La Corticela, a small but interesting portion of the original foundation. Many fine examples of metal work are in the cathedral, as, for instance, the two bronze ambons in the choir by Juan B. Celma of 1563, the gilt chandeliers of 1763, and the enamelled shrines of Sts Cucufato and Fructuoso. In the Capilla del Relicario are a gold crucifix, dated 874, containing a piece of the true cross, and a silver gilt custodia of 1544. The Hospicio de los Reyes, on the north of the Plaza Mayor, for the reception of pilgrims, was begun in 1504 by Enrique de Egas under Ferdinand and Isabella. It consists of two Gothic and two classic court-yards with a chapel in the centre. The gateway is fine, and there is some vigorous carving in the court-yards, one of which contains a graceful fountain. The suppressed Colegio de Fonseca and the adjoining convent of S. Gerónimo have good Renaissance doorways. The university, which was created in 1504 by a bull of Pope Julius II., has fair Renaissance buildings, which date from 1592. Those of the Seminario (1777) have no merit. The chapel of the convent of S. Francisco, the cloisters of the half-ruined S. Augustin, the belfry of S. Domingo, the church of S. Feliz de Celorio, which is a modernized building of the 14th century, and the façades of several houses of the 12th and 13th centuries are also good examples of different architectural styles.

SANTIAGO (or ST JAGO) DE CUBA, a city and seaport of Cuba, at one time the capital of the whole island, and now the chief town of the eastern department, is situated in $19^{\circ} 57' 7''$ N. lat. and $75^{\circ} 54' 3''$ W. long. (lighthouse), on a fine bay on the south coast. The spacious and well-defended harbour is accessible to the largest vessels, but silt near the wharf allows only those drawing less than 14 feet to come alongside. The city, which climbs a hill-side 150 feet above the bay, has considerably improved since 1870, though its streets are still badly paved. It contains the largest cathedral in the island, a theatre, a custom-house, barracks (1858-1880), and hospitals. Foundries, soap-works, tan-yards, and cigar factories are the only industrial establishments. The exports were valued in 1867 at £1,650,000, in 1882 at £1,032,200, and in 1883 at £722,632. Besides sugar, which forms about two-thirds of the whole, the principal articles are cocoa, rum, tobacco and cigars, coffee, honey and wax, mahogany, and copper-ore—this last at one time to the extent of 25,000 tons per annum, but now in greatly diminished quantity. The copper mines Lomas del Cobre lie on the other side of the bay inland from Punta de Sal. The estimated population is between 24,000 and 30,000.

Founded by Diego Velazquez in 1514, and incorporated as a city in 1522, Santiago is memorable mainly for the French occupation and ransom in 1553, and the affair of the ship "Virginius" in 1873, which resulted in the Spanish Government paying an indemnity to the United States for the murder of Captain Fry and his companions.

SANTIAGO DEL ESTERO, chief town of the province of Santiago in the Argentine Republic, is situated in 27°

$46'$ S. lat. and $64^{\circ} 19'$ W. long., 520 feet above the sea, on the banks of the Rio Dulce. It is the residence of the provincial governor and the seat of the legislature, and it ranks as the oldest European city in the republic, having been founded by Aguirre in 1552. The most conspicuous building is the cathedral, whose dome contrasts strangely by its size and evident costliness with the poverty of the rest of the town. The population is about 8000 (most of whom have a great deal of Indian blood in their veins). The railway from Rosario to Santiago (689 miles) was opened in 1884.

SANTILLANA, IÑIGO LOPEZ DE MENDOZA, MARQUIS OF (1398-1458), Castilian poet, was born at Carrion de los Condes in Old Castile on August 19, 1398. His father, Don Diego Hurtado de Mendoza, grand admiral of Castile, having died while Iñigo was still quite young, the boy was brought up by his uncle Don Alfonso Enriquez. From his twentieth year onwards he became an increasingly prominent figure at the court of Juan II. of Castile, distinguishing himself both in civil and military service; he was created Marques de Santillana and Conde del Real de Manzanara for the part he took in the battle of Olmedo in 1445. In the protracted struggle of the Castilian nobles against the preponderating influence of Alvaro de Luna he showed great moderation, but ultimately in 1452 he joined the combination which effected the fall of the favourite in the following year. From the death of Juan II. in 1454 Mendoza took little part in public affairs, devoting himself mainly to the pursuits of literature and to pious meditation. He died at Guadalajara on March 26, 1458.

Mendoza was the first to introduce the Italian sonnet into Castile, but his productions in this class are somewhat conventional in style and have little to recommend them beyond the charm of smooth versification. He was much more successful in the *sermilla* or highland pastoral after the Provençal manner. His long-popular *Centiloquio* (1494), consisting of one hundred proverbs, each rendered in an eight-line stanza, was prepared at the request of Juan II. for the instruction of Don Enrique, the heir-apparent. To the same didactic category belong the *Diálogo de Bias contra Fortuna* (1448) and the *Doctrinal de Príncipes* (1453). The *Conde de Ponza* is a Dantesque dream-dialogue, in octavo stanzas, founded on the disastrous sea-fight off Ponza in 1435, when the kings of Aragon and Navarre along with the infante of Castile were taken prisoners by the Genoese.

The works of Santillana have been edited with commentaries by Amador de los Rios (Madrid, 1852).

SANTINI, GIOVANNI (1787-1877), Italian astronomer, born 30th January 1787 at Caprese, in the province of Arezzo, was from 1813 director of the observatory at Padua. He wrote *Elementi di Astronomia* (2 vols. 1820, 2d ed. 1830), *Teoria degli Strumenti ottici* (2 vols. 1828), and a great many scientific memoirs and notices, among which are five catalogues of telescopic stars between $+10^{\circ}$ and -15° declination, from observations made at the Padua observatory. He died June 26, 1877.

SANTO DOMINGO. See HAYTI.

SANTORIN. See THERA.

SANTOS, a city and seaport of Brazil in the province of São Paulo, is situated on the north side of the island of São Vicente or Engua-Guaçu, which forms the west side of the harbour-bay (an inlet $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles deep, with soundings varying from 4 to 10 fathoms). It is a well-built town with wide airy streets, and most of the better classes have their residences at Barra Fort (4 miles out) and other suburban villages. Commercially the town has grown to great importance as the terminus of the whole railway system of this part of Brazil—the Santos and Jundiáhy line (1867) running inland 87 miles and connecting with the São Paulo and Rio de Janeiro Railway and various other lines. The export of coffee (the great staple) increased from 344,800 60-kilogramme bags in 1862-3 to 537,478 in 1872-3 and 1,932,194 in 1883-4. The value of the coffee was estimated at £1,630,275 in 1870-71, and at

£3,632,838 in 1878-79. The export and import trade is estimated to circulate £10,000,000 a year. The population has increased since 1870 from 9000 to about 15,000.

As the city of São Vicente, the first permanent Portuguese settlement in Brazil, began to decline from its position as capital of the southern provinces, Santos, founded by Braz Cuba in 1543-46, gradually took its place. In the 17th century it was besieged by the Dutch and English. The provincial assembly passed an enactment by which the city was to be called Cidade de Bonifacio in honour of José Bonifacio d'Andrade e Silva, the national patriot, to whom it had given birth, but the older name of Santos held its ground.

SÃO LEOPOLDO, a German colony in the province of Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil, founded in 1824. It is connected with Porto Alegre by rail and also by the Rio do Jinos, a small but deep and navigable river. The inhabitants of the town and sixteen neighbouring settlements number in all about 20,000, and are engaged in cattle-breeding and in the culture of grain, arrow-root, and sugar.

SAÔNE. See RHONE.

SAÔNE, HAUTE-, a department in the north-east of France, formed in 1790 from the northern portion of Franche Comté, and traversed by the river Saône. Situated between $47^{\circ} 14'$ and $48^{\circ} 1'$ N. lat. and between $5^{\circ} 21'$ and $6^{\circ} 49'$ E. long., it is bounded N. by the department of the Vosges, E. by the territory of Belfort, S. by Doubs and Jura, and W. by Côte-d'Or and Haute-Marne. On the north-east, where they are formed by the Vosges, and to the south along the course of the Ognon the limits are natural. The highest point of the department is the Ballon de Servance (3900 feet), and the lowest the confluence of the Saône and Ognon (610 feet). The general slope is from north-east to south-west, the direction followed by those two streams. In the north-east the department belongs to the Vosgian formation, consisting of pine-clad mountains of sandstone and granite; but throughout the greater part of its extent it is composed of limestone plateaus 800 to 1000 feet high pierced with crevasses and subterranean caves, into which the rain water disappears to issue again as springs in the valleys 200 feet lower down. In its passage through the department the Saône receives from the right the Amance and the Salon from the Langres plateau, and from the left the Coney, the Lanterne (augmented by the Breuchin which passes by Luxeuil), the Durgeon (passing Vesoul), and the Ognon. The north-eastern districts are cold in climate and have an annual rainfall ranging from 36 to 48 inches. Towards the south-west the characteristics become those of the Rhone valley generally. At Vesoul and Gray the rainfall only reaches 24 inches per annum.

Out of a total of 1,319,570 acres 664,846 are arable, 375,999 under forest, 153,278 natural meadows and orchards, and 31,752 vineyards. The agricultural population numbers 180,893 out of a total of 295,905. They possess 22,331 horses, 152,609 cattle, 63,000 sheep, 72,678 pigs, 7094 goats, more than 19,000 dogs, and 15,915 beehives (40 tons 15 cwts. of honey in 1881). Wheat is the staple crop—2,727,425 bushels in 1883; next come oats, 3,188,322 bushels; potatoes, 8,175,673 bushels; wine, mostly of middling quality, 4,887,652 gallons (average vintage for the last ten years 6,086,652 gallons); rye, 449,308 bushels; barley, 396,940; meslin, 276,251; buckwheat, 63,945; maize, 64,924; millet, 154; colza, 456 tons; beetroot, 26,365 tons; pulse, 5662 bushels; hemp, linen, tobacco, hops. The woods, which cover more than a quarter of the department, are composed of firs in the Vosges and beech trees, oaks, wych elms, and aspens in the other districts. Kirschwasser is manufactured at Fougerolles from the native cherries. The industrial population number 51,477; 550 workmen raise 143,842 tons of iron-ore yearly; copper, silver, and manganese exist in the department, and gold occurs in the bed of the Ognon. Rock-salt mines yield annually 11,000 tons of salt and the materials for a considerable manufacture of sulphuric, hydrochloric, and nitric acids, sulphate of soda, chloride of lime, and Epsom and Glauber salts. Coal mines, with their principal centre at Ronchamp, give employment to more than 2000 workmen, and in 1883 yielded 212,680 tons of coal. Peat, limestone, plaster,

building-stone, marble, porphyry, granite, syenite, and sandstone are all worked in the department. The green porphyry pedestal of Napoleon's sarcophagus at Les Invalides and the syenite columns of the Grand Opera in Paris were cut at Servance. Of the many mineral waters of Haute-Saône the best known are the hot springs of Luxeuil, which, with their sixteen saline and two chalybeate sources, discharge over 127,000 gallons in the 24 hours and are used for bathing and drinking. Besides forty-seven iron-working establishments (smelting furnaces, foundries, and wire-drawing mills, producing in 1883 4875 tons of iron smelted by wood-fuel, 286 tons of refined iron and 1040 tons of sheet-iron, &c.), Haute-Saône possesses copper-foundries, engineering works, steel-foundries, and factories for producing tin plate, nails, pins, files, saws, screws, shot, chains, agricultural implements, locks, spinning machinery, edge tools, &c. Window-glass is manufactured by 105 workmen and glass wares by 300, pottery and earthenware by 220 to 230. There are also about 100 brick and tile works; the paper-mills employ 329 hands, and the 21 cotton-mills (66,700 spindles and 2518 looms, of which 154 are hand-looms) upwards of 2000. Print-works, fulling mills, hosiery factories, and straw-hat factories are also of some account; as well as sugar-works, dye-works, saw-mills, starch-works, chemical works, oil-mills, tanyards, and flour-mills. The department exports wheat (893,000 bushels), cattle, iron, wood, pottery, kirschwasser, and cooper's wares. The Saône provides a navigable channel of 40 miles, which is about to be connected with the Moselle and the Meuse by the Canal de l'Est in course of construction along the valley of the Coney. Gray is the great emporium of the water-borne trade, estimated at 200,000 tons per annum. The department has 186 miles of national roads, 3313 miles of other roads, and 235 miles of railway—the Paris-Mulhouse and Nancy-Gray railways, crossing at Vesoul, and various other lines. There are three arrondissements,—Vesoul, Gray (7254 inhabitants in the town), Lure (4360),—23 cantons, 583 communes. Haute-Saône is in the district of the 7th corps d'armée, and in its legal, ecclesiastical, and educational relations depends on Besancon. Luxeuil (4376 inhabitants), the most important place after the sub-prefecture, is celebrated for its abbey, founded by St Columban in 590.

SAÔNE-ET-LOIRE, a department of the east central region of France formed in 1790 from the districts of Autunois, Brionnais, Chalonnais, Charollais, and Mâconnais previously belonging to Burgundy. Lying between $46^{\circ} 9'$ and $47^{\circ} 9'$ N. lat., $3^{\circ} 37'$ and $5^{\circ} 27'$ E. long., it is bounded on the N. by the department of Côte d'Or, E. by that of Jura, S.E. by Ain, S. by Rhône and Loire, W. by Allier and Nièvre. The two streams from which it takes its name bound the department on the south-east and on the west respectively. Between these the continental watershed between the Mediterranean and the Atlantic called the Charollais Mountains runs south and north. Its altitude (2500 feet on the south) diminishes to the north in the direction of Côte-d'Or. The culminating point of the department is in the heights of Morvan, on the border of Nièvre (2960 feet). The lowest point, where the Saône leaves the department, is under 550 feet. The Saône crosses the department from north to south, and receives on its right the Dheune, followed by the Canal du Centre and the Grosne, and on its left the Doubs and the Seille. The Loire only receives one important affluent from the right, the Arroux, which is increased by the Bourbince, whose valley is followed by the Canal du Centre. The average temperature is slightly higher at Mâcon than at Paris—the winters being colder and the summer hotter. The yearly rainfall (32 inches, increasing towards the hilly districts) is distributed over 135 days; there are 25 days of snow and 27 of storm.

Of a total area of 2,116,311 acres (this is one of the largest of the French departments) 1,079,395 are arable, 371,866 forest, 292,287 natural meadows and orchards, and 106,111 vineyards. In 1880 the live-stock comprised 26,000 horses, 6000 asses and mules, 75,000 bulls and oxen, 150,000 cows and heifers, 56,000 calves, 216,000 sheep, 175,000 pigs, 50,000 goats, 35,000 beehives (yielding 214 tons of honey and 52 tons of wax). The white Charollais oxen are one of the finest French breeds, equally suitable for labour and fattening. No fewer than 366,252 of the inhabitants of the department out of a total of 625,559 depend on agriculture. In 1883 there was produced 3,678,276 bushels of wheat, 22,890 meslin, 1,022,037 rye; in 1880 210,375 bushels of barley, 754,875 buckwheat, 809,325 maize, 101,970 millet, 2,107,187 oats, 13,359,307 potatoes, 33,500 pulse, 70,936 tons of beetroot, 206 tons hemp, 195

tons hempseed, 135,300 bushels colza-seed, 3177 tons colza oil. In 1883 the vintage yielded 22,636,636 gallons of wine, the average quantity of recent years being 21,809,018 gallons. The red wines of Mâconnais (especially those of Thorins) are those in highest repute; Pouilly produces the best white wines. The industrial classes are represented by 150,983 individuals. The coal-basin of Creusot, the sixth in importance in France, produced in 1882 1,269,783 tons. A pit at Epinac is 3937 feet deep. Iron-ore was extracted in 1882 to the amount of 28,654 tons. Slate, limestone, building-stone, millstones, granite, marble, marl, plaster, bituminous schists, peat, kaolin, manganese (4360 tons per annum), and certain precious stones are also found in the department. The most celebrated mineral waters are those of Bourbon-Lancy, six out of the seven springs being thermal. They are strongly saline. Metal-working is principally carried on at Creusot, which, with its 13,000 workmen and its 13 smelting furnaces, 100 puddling ovens, 4 Bessemer apparatuses and 4 Martin's ovens, &c., produced in 1882 63,989 tons of iron (965 tons of rails, 21,984 tons of sheet-iron) and 99,823 tons of steel (72,085 tons of rails, 7056 tons of sheet-iron). The engine works produce all sorts of machines, including about 100 locomotives. The Châlon branch works turn out ships, boats, bridges, and boilers. Other foundries and forges in the department produced in 1882 175,113 tons of cast iron and certain quantities of copper and bronze. The cotton manufacture employs 14,000 spindles and 2000 looms, silk 2900 spindles and 2500 hand-loom, wool-spinning 350 spindles. Other industrial establishments are potteries, tile-works, glass-works (6,000,000 bottles at Epinac alone), distilleries, oil-works, mineral-oil works, cooperages, tanneries, flour-mills, sugar-works—the total number being 850 with 1372 steam engines of 27,780 horse-power. The commerce of the department, especially as regards its exports, deals mainly with coal, metals, machinery, wine, cattle, bricks, pottery, glass. It is facilitated by five navigable streams (181 miles),—Loire, Arroux, Saône, Doubs, Saône, the Canal du Centre which unites Châlon-sur-Saône with Digoïn on the Loire, and the canal from Roanne to Digoïn and the lateral Loire Canal, both following the main river valley. The total length of the canals is 90 miles. There are 365 miles of national road, 7098 of other roads, and 487 miles of railway. Saône-et-Loire forms the diocese of Autun; it is part of the district of the 8th corps d'armée (Bourges), and its university is that of Lyons. It is divided into five arrondissements, —Mâcon, Châlon-sur-Saône, Autun, Charolles (3350 inhabitants in the town), Louhans (4280),—50 cantons, and 539 communes; the most populous commune is Creusot (23,000 inhabitants, 16,000 in the town). Montceau-les-Mines (4500) is also a mining centre. Cluny (3500) is celebrated for its abbey, now occupied by the normal school of secondary instruction, and Paray-le-Monial (300) for its pilgrimage.

SÃO PAULO, a city of Brazil capital of a province of the same name, is situated on the north-western slope of the Serra do Mar, on a left-hand tributary of the Tiete, a affluent of the Paraná. It is an old and irregularly built city, with some picturesque old churches and convents. The centre of the provincial railway system, 86 miles distant from Santos (*q.v.*), its seaport on the Atlantic coast, and 143 miles from Rio de Janeiro, the city has developed very rapidly within recent years. One of the two academies of law which Brazil possesses is seated at São Paulo. The most important public buildings are the cathedral, the provincial governor's and the bishop's palaces, and the theatre. A new system of water-supply and drainage was constructed in 1879–80 by English engineers under a Brazilian company. The population of the city in 1879 numbered about 35,000.

Founded by the Jesuits as a college, São Paulo was made a town in 1560 instead of Santo André, destroyed by order of Mendo de Sa. In 1711 it became a city, in 1740 a bishopric, and in 1823 an "imperial city."

SÃO PEDRO DO RIO GRANDE DO SUL. See RIO GRANDE DO SUL.

SAPOR (SHÁPÚR or SHAHPUR), the name of three Sásánian kings. See PERSIA, vol. xviii. pp. 608–610.

SAPPAN WOOD is one of several red dyewoods of commerce, all belonging to the Leguminous genus *Cesalpinia*, or to the closely allied genus *Peltophorum*. It is a native of tropical Asia and the Indian Archipelago, but, as it is one of the most esteemed of the red dyewoods, its cultivation has been promoted in the West Indies and Brazil. The wood is somewhat lighter in colour than Brazil wood and its other allies, but the same tinctorial

principle, brazilin, appears to be common to all. See BRAZIL WOOD, vol. iv. p. 241.

SAPPHIRE, a blue transparent variety of corundum or native alumina. It differs, therefore, from the Oriental ruby mainly in its colour. The colour varies from the palest blue to deep indigo, the most esteemed tint being that of the blue cornflower. It often happens that a crystal of sapphire is particoloured, and hence a fine cut stone may derive its tint from a deep-coloured portion at the back, instead of being uniformly tinted throughout. The sapphire is dichroic, and the colour of a fine velvety stone may be resolved by means of the dichroscope into an ultramarine blue and a yellowish-green. The origin of the blue colour of the sapphire has not been satisfactorily determined, for, although oxide of cobalt may produce it, and is invariably used for colouring imitations of the stone, yet the presence of cobalt is not always revealed in the analysis of the sapphire. According to lapidaries the hardness of the sapphire slightly exceeds that of the ruby, and it is therefore the hardest known mineral, excepting diamond. In consequence of its great hardness it was generally mounted by the ancients in a partially rough state, the surface being polished but not cut. Notwithstanding its hardness it has been occasionally engraved as a gem. There seems no doubt that the ancient *σάπφειρος*, as well as the sapphire (רִבְּרִי) of the Old Testament (Job xxviii. 6), was our lapis lazuli, while the modern sapphire seems to have been known under the name of *δάκρυθος* or *hyacinthus* (King).

The finest sapphires are obtained from Ceylon, where they occur with other gem-stones as pebbles or rolled crystals in the sands of rivers. The sapphires have generally preserved their crystalline form better than the associated rubies. Some of the slightly-cloudy Ceylon sapphires display when cut *en cabochon* an opalescent star of six rays, whence they are called *star-sapphires* or *asterias*. The principal localities in Ceylon yielding sapphires are Rakewana, Ratnapura, and Satawaka. A few years ago sapphires were discovered in Siam (in the province of Battambang), but the stones from this locality are mostly dull and of too dark a colour. In Burma they occur in association with rubies, but are much less numerous. They have also been recently found in Paldar, north of the Chandrabagha range. The sapphire is widely distributed through the gold-bearing drifts of Victoria and New South Wales, but the colour of the stones is usually too dark. Some of the finest specimens have come from the Beechworth district in Victoria. Coarse sapphire is found in many parts of the United States, and a few stones fit for jewellery have been obtained from Corundum Hill, Macon county, North Carolina, and from the other localities mentioned under RUBY. The sapphire also occurs in Europe, being found in the basalts of the Rhine valley and of Le Puy in Velay, but not sufficiently fine for purposes of ornament. The sapphire has been artificially reproduced by similar methods to those described in the article RUBY.

SAPPHO (in Attic Greek Σαπφώ, but called by herself Ψάπφώ, which is necessitated by the metre also in *Anthol.*, ix. 190, though Alcæus, himself an Æolian and her contemporary, calls her Σαπφώ), incomparably the greatest poetess the world has ever seen, was a native of Lesbos, and probably both was born and lived at Mytilene. For the idea that she migrated thither from Eresus is merely a conjecture to explain a perfectly imaginary difficulty caused by the grammarians who invented another Sappho, a courtesan of Eresus, to whom to ascribe the current scandals about the poetess. She was the daughter of Scamandronymus and Cleis, of whom nothing more is known. The epistle of Sappho to Phaon, ascribed to

Ovid, says that her "parent" died when she was six years old; if Frag. 90 refers to Sappho's own mother, which is very doubtful, this "parent" must be her father. Her date cannot be certainly fixed, but she must have lived about the end of the 7th and beginning of the 6th centuries B.C., being contemporary with Alcæus, Stesichorus, and Pittacus, in fact with the culminating period of Æolic poetry. But of her life very little else is known. One of her brothers, Charaxus, who was engaged in the wine-trade between Lesbos and Naucratis in Egypt, fell in love there with a courtesan named Doricha and surnamed for her beauty Rhodopis, whom he freed from slavery and upon whom he squandered his property. Sappho wrote an ode on this, in which she severely satirized and rebuked him. Another brother, Larichus, was public cup-bearer at Mytilene,—a fact for which it was necessary to be *εὐχάρις*, so that we may suppose Sappho to have been of good family. For the rest it is known that she had a daughter, named after her grandmother Cleis, and that she had some personal acquaintance with Alcæus. He addressed her in an ode of which a fragment is preserved: "Violet-weaving, pure, sweet-smiling Sappho, I wish to say somewhat, but shame hinders me," and she answered in another ode: "Hadst thou had desire of aught good or fair, shame would not have touched thine eyes, but thou wouldst have spoken thereof openly." Further than this everything is enveloped in doubt and darkness. The well-known story of her love for the disdainful Phaon, and her leap into the sea from the Leucadian promontory, together with that of her flight from Mytilene to Sicily, which has been connected with her love for Phaon, rests upon no evidence that will bear examination. Indeed, we are not even told whether she died of the leap or not. All critics again are agreed that Suidas was simply gulled by the comic poets when he tells us of her imaginary husband, Cercolas of Andros. The name of Sappho was by these poets consistently dragged in the dirt, and both the aspersions they cast on her character and the embellishments with which they garnished her life passed for centuries as undoubted history. Six comedies entitled *Sappho*, and two *Phaon*, were produced by the Middle Comedy; and, when we consider, for example, the way in which Socrates was caricatured by Aristophanes, we are justified in putting no faith whatever in any accounts of Sappho which depend upon such authority, as most of our accounts appear to do.

Welcker¹ was the first to examine carefully the evidence upon which the current opinion of Sappho's character rested. He found it easy to disprove, in his opinion, all the common accusations against her moral character, but unfortunately, not content with disproving actual statements, went on to uphold Sappho as a model of feminine virtue. Bergk and Mure both combated his views, and in the *Rheinisches Museum* for 1857 may be found the issues between him and the latter clearly stated on both sides, unfortunately with considerable acrimony. It is plain to the impartial reader that both of the controversialists have gone decidedly too far, but it can hardly be denied, however much we should naturally desire to think otherwise, that Mure has very considerably the best of it. We owe thanks to Welcker for clearing the history of Sappho from several fictions, but further than this it is impossible to go; we owe thanks to Mure for preferring truth to sentiment, but we cannot disregard some points of Welcker's argument so completely as he does. In fact, the truth appears to be that Sappho was not, as the Attic comedy represented her, a woman utterly abandoned to vice, and only distinguished among the corrupt com-

¹ *Sappho von einem herrschenden Vorurtheil befreit*, Göttingen, 1816.

munity of Lesbos by exceptional immorality and the gift of song,—that indeed she was not notoriously immoral at all, but no worse and perhaps better than the standard of her age and country required. This seems clearly indicated by the epithet *ἀγνα*, with which Alcæus addressed her. On the other hand, not merely tradition but the character of her extant fragments, with the other evidence adduced by Mure, constrain us to resign the pleasant dream of Welcker, K. O. Müller, and their followers,—an ideal and eminently respectable head of a poetic school, with a matronly regard for her pupils, who meant by her own poems anything but what she said, and was more careful to inculcate virtue than unlimited indulgence in passion.

To leave this disagreeable question, we will next indicate briefly all that is known of her position in Lesbos. She was there the centre of a brilliant society and head of a great poetic school, for poetry in that age and place was cultivated as assiduously and apparently as successfully by women as by men. Her most famous pupils were Erinna of Telos and Damophyla of Pamphylia. Besides these we know the names of Atthis, Telesippa, Megara, Gongyla, Cyrinna, Dica, Mnasicia Eunica, and Anactoria, to whom the second ode, *eis ἰσοπέταν*, is said to have been addressed. The names also of two of her rivals are preserved—Andromeda and Gorgo; but whether they also presided over similar schools or not is very doubtful, as that idea of them depends on the authority of Maximus Tyrius, which is quite worthless on this point.

In antiquity the fame of Sappho rivalled that of Homer. She was called "the poetess," as he was called "the poet." Different writers style her "the tenth Muse," "the flower of the Graces," "a miracle," "the beautiful," the last epithet referring to her writings, not her person, which is said to have been small and dark. Her poems were arranged in nine books, on what principle is uncertain; she is said to have sung them to the Mixolydian mode, which she herself invented. The few remains which have come down to us amply testify to the justice of the praises lavished upon Sappho by the ancients. The perfection and finish of every line, the correspondence of sense and sound, the incomparable command over all the most delicate resources of verse, and the exquisite symmetry of the complete odes raise her into the very first rank of technical poetry at once, while her direct and fervent painting of passion, which caused Longinus to quote the ode to Anactoria as an example of the sublime, has never been since surpassed, and only approached by Catullus and in the *Vita Nuova*. Her fragments also bear witness to a profound feeling for the beauty of nature; we know from other sources that she had a peculiar delight in flowers, and especially in the rose. The ancients also attributed to her a considerable power in satire, but in hexameter verse they considered her inferior to her pupil Erinna.

The fragments of Sappho have been all preserved by other authors incidentally. An independent fragment, ascribed to her by Blass but rejected by Bergk and of very doubtful authenticity, has been discovered on a papyrus in the Egyptian museum at Berlin (see *Rhein. Mus.* for 1880, p. 287; Bergk, vol. iii. p. 704); but even if really hers it is too fragmentary to be of any value. The best edition of Sappho is to be found in Bergk's *Poetæ Lyrici Græci*, vol. iii., 4th ed., Leipzig, 1882. The only separate edition and the only complete translation in English is that of Mr Wharton (London, 1885), in which it is unfortunately impossible for the general reader to place much reliance. (J. A. P.L.)

SARABAND (Ital. *Sarabanda*, *Zarabanda*; Fr. *Sarabande*), a slow dance, generally believed to have been imported from Spain in the earlier half of the 16th century, though attempts have sometimes been made to trace it to an Eastern origin. The etymology of the word is very uncertain. The most probable account is that the dance was named after its inventor—a celebrated dancer