

The skin round the eyes is bare and of an orange colour. The head, neck, and upper parts of the body and wing-coverts are bluish-grey; but the carpal feathers, including the primaries, are black, as also are the feathers of the vent and tibiae,—the last being in some examples tipped with white. The tail-quills are grey for the greater part of their length, then barred with black and tipped with white; but the two middle feathers are more than twice as long as those next to them, and drooping downwards present a very unique appearance.

The habits of the Secretary-bird have been very frequently described, one of the best accounts of them being by Verreaux in the Zoological Society's *Proceedings* for 1856 (pp. 348-352). Its chief prey consists of insects and reptiles, and as a foe to snakes it is held in high esteem. Making every allowance for exaggeration, it seems to possess a strange partiality for the destruction of the latter, and successfully attacks the most venomous species, striking them with its knobbed wings and kicking forwards at them with its feet, until they are rendered incapable of offense, when it swallows them. The nest is a huge structure, placed in a bush or tree, and in it two white eggs, spotted with rust-colour, are laid. The young remain in the nest for a long while, and even when four months old are unable to stand upright. They are very frequently brought up tame, and become agreeable not to say useful pets about a house, the chief drawbacks to them being that when hungry they will help themselves to the small poultry, and the fragility of their legs, which follows on any sudden alarm, and ends in their death. The Secretary-bird is found, but not very abundantly and only in some localities, over the greater part of Africa, especially in the south, extending northwards on the west to the Camba and in the interior to Khartum, where Von Heuglin observed it breeding.

The systematic position of the genus *Serpentarius* has long been a matter of discussion, and is still one of much interest, though of late classifiers have been pretty well agreed in placing it in the Order *Accipitres*. Most of them, however, have shown great want of perception by putting it in the Family *Falconidae*. No anatomist can doubt its forming a peculiar Family, *Serpentariidae*, differing more from the *Falconidae* than do the *Vulturidae*; and the fact of Prof. A. Milne-Edwards having recognized in the Miocene of the Allier the fossil bone of a species of this genus, *S. robustus* (*Ois. foss. France*, ii. pp. 465-468, pl. 186, figs. 1-6), proves that it is an ancient form, one possibly carrying on a direct and not much modified descent from a generalized form, whence may have sprung not only the *Falconidae* but perhaps the progenitors of the *Ardeidae* and *Ciconiidae*, as well as the puzzling *Carriamidae* (*SERIEMA*, *q. v.*). (A. N.)

SECULAR GAMES were celebrated at Rome for three days and nights with great ceremony to mark the commencement of a new *saeculum* or generation. Originally they were a propitiatory festival, imported from Etruria under the name of Ludi Terentini, and held at irregular intervals, in view of extraordinary prodigies; but in 249 B.C. it was decreed that they should be celebrated in every hundredth year after that date. This decree was frequently disregarded, partly for political reasons and partly because in Augustus's time and with his approval the quinquennial, acting under Greek influence, sanctioned the longer period of 110 years.

The dates of the actual celebrations are as follows:—the first in 509 B.C., the second in 348, the third in 249, the fourth in 146, the fifth by Augustus in 17 (for this occasion Horace wrote his *Carmen Saeculare*), the sixth by Claudius in 47 A.D. = 800 A.U.C., the seventh by Domitian in 88, the eighth by Antoninus Pius in 147 = 900 A.U.C.; the ninth by Severus in 204 (220 years after the Augustan celebration), the tenth by Philip in 248, the eleventh and last by Gallienus c. 262. The projected celebration of Maximian in 394 did not take place.

Censorinus, *De Die Natali*, c. 17; Zosimus, ii. 1 *sq.*; Val. Max., ii. c. 5. The dates of the first two celebrations appear to rest only on the authority of Valerius Antias; the others are certain. The quinquennial books assigned fictitious dates for the pre-Augustan celebrations. Comp. Marquardt, *Die römische Staatsverwaltung*, iii. p. 369 *sq.*.

SECUNDERÁBÁD, one of the chief British military cantonments in India, is situated in the native state of Haidarábád (Hyderabad) or the Nizam's Dominions, in 17° 26' 30" N. lat. and 78° 33' E. long., 1830 feet above the level of the sea, and 6 miles north-east of Haidarábád city. Secunderábád is the largest military station in India, and forms the headquarters of the Haidarábád subsidiary

force, which constitutes a division of the Madras army. The strength of the military force stationed at Secunderábád in 1883 was 5632, European troops numbering 2276 and native troops 3356. To the south-west of the cantonment there is a large reservoir or tank, known as the Husain Ságar, about 3 miles in circumference. Secunderábád town, which forms the cantonment bazaar, contains a population of over 30,000. Adjoining this cantonment to the north is the Boláram cantonment, one of the stations of the Haidarábád contingent, under the immediate command of the nizam; and 2 miles to the south of Secunderábád cantonment are the lines of the Haidarábád reformed troops, also belonging to the nizam. During the mutiny (1857-58) both the subsidiary force and the Haidarábád contingent rendered good service.

SECUNDUS, JOHANNES, or JOHANN EVERTS (1511-1536), Latin poet, was born at The Hague on 10th November 1511. He was descended from an ancient and honourable family in the Netherlands; his father, Nicholas Everts, or Everard, seems to have been high in the favour of the emperor Charles V. On what account the son was called Secundus is not known. His father intended him for the law; but though he took his degree at Bourges it does not appear that he devoted much time to legal pursuits. Poetry and the sister arts of painting and sculpture engaged his mind at a very early period. In 1533 he went to Spain, and soon afterwards became secretary to the cardinal-archbishop of Toledo, in a department of business which required no other qualification than that which he possessed in a very eminent degree,—a facility in writing with elegance the Latin language. It was during this period that he composed his most famous work, the *Basia*, a series of amatory poems, of which the fifth, seventh, and ninth *Carmina* of Catullus seem to have given the hint. In 1534 he accompanied Charles V. to the siege of Tunis, but gained few laurels as a soldier. After quitting the service of the archbishop, Secundus was employed as secretary by the bishop of Utrecht; and so much did he distinguish himself by the classical elegance of his compositions that he was called upon to fill the important post of private Latin secretary to the emperor, who was then in Italy. But, having arrived at St Amand, near Tournay, he was cut off by a violent fever on 8th October 1536.

SEDAINE, MICHEL JEAN (1719-1797), dramatist, was born at Paris on 4th July 1719. Few men of letters have risen from a lower station. Although his father was an architect, he died when Sedaine was quite young, leaving no fortune, and the boy began life as a mason's labourer. He worked himself up in his trade and was at last taken as pupil and partner by the builder who employed him. Meanwhile he had done his best to repair his deficiencies of education, and in 1753 he published a volume of poems of some merit. He then took to the theatre and after composing various vaudevilles and operettas attracted the attention of Diderot, and had two remarkable plays accepted and performed at the Théâtre Français. The first and longest, the *Philosophe sans le Savoir*, was acted in 1765; the second, a lively one-act piece, *La Gageure Improvée*, in 1768. These two at once took their place as stock pieces and are still ranked among the best French plays, each of its class. Sedaine inclined somewhat to the school of *drame* or *tragédie bourgeoise*, but he was free from the excessive sentimentality which in the hands of Diderot and others marred the style, and he had a vein of singularly natural and original comedy. Indeed his originality is one of his chief points, though except the two pieces mentioned little or nothing of his has kept the stage or the shelves. Sedaine, who became a member of the Academy, secretary for architecture of the fine arts division, and a prosperous man generally, was personally

both popular and respected. He lived to a considerable age, dying at Paris on 17th May 1797.

SEDALIA, a city of the United States, county town of Pettis county, Missouri, lies 189 miles west of St Louis, on the highest swell of a rolling prairie, which drains by small streams north-east to the Missouri. It is a railroad centre, and, besides the machine-shops and carriage-factories of two railway companies (the Missouri, Kansas, and Texas, and the Missouri Pacific, Middle Division), it contains foundries, flour-mills, and establishments for the manufacture of furniture, woollen goods, soap, beer, &c. Among the public buildings are two opera-houses, a public library, a high school, and a gymnasium. Founded in 1860 by General George R. Smith, Sedalia had 4560 inhabitants in 1870, and 9561 in 1880.

SEDAN, a town of France, the chef-lieu of an arrondissement in the department of Ardennes, lies on the right bank of the Meuse, 13 miles east-south-east of Mezières by the railway to Thionville (Lorraine), and is surrounded by heights of about 1000 feet. Since its fortifications were *déclassés*, a process of embellishment has been going on. Place Turenne takes its name from the statue of the illustrious marshal, who was born in the town in 1611. The public buildings include a Protestant church, a synagogue, a museum, and a college. The manufacture of fine black cloth has long been, and still continues to be, the staple industry, employing in the town and neighbourhood more than 10,000 workmen, and producing to the value of 40,000,000 francs annually. Several spinning-mills have been erected by Alsatian refugees since 1871. Considerable activity is also displayed in various departments of metal-working, especially in the surrounding villages. The population was 13,807 in 1872, and 19,240 in 1881 (19,556 in the commune).

Sedan was in the 13th century a dependency of the abbey of Monzon, the possession of which was disputed by the bishops of Liège and Rheims. United to the crown of France by Charles V., it was ceded by Charles VI. to Guillaume de Braquemont, who sold it to the La Marcks. For two centuries this powerful family managed to continue masters of the place in spite of the bishops of Liège and the dukes of Burgundy and Lorraine; and in the person of Henri Robert they adopted the title "prince of Sedan." In the 16th century the town was an asylum for many Protestant refugees, who laid the basis of its industrial prosperity, and it became the seat of a Protestant seminary. The last heiress of the La Marck family brought Sedan and the duchy of Bouillon to Henri de la Tour d'Auvergne, viscount of Turenne. When the new duke attempted to maintain his independence, Henry IV. captured Sedan in three days; and the second duke (eldest brother of the great marshal), who had several times revolted against Louis XIII., was at last, after his share in the conspiracy of Cinquars, obliged to surrender his principality. Sedan thus became part of the royal domain in 1641. On 1st September 1870 the fortress was the centre of the most disastrous conflict of the Franco-German War. Shut in by the Germans, who had occupied the surrounding heights, the whole French army, after a terrific contest, was obliged to capitulate,—the emperor, 39 generals, 230 staff-officers, 2600 officers, and 83,000 men becoming prisoners of war. The village of Bazailles was the scene of the heroic stand made by the marines under Martin des Pallières. It now contains the great ossuary, and a monument to the memory of the marines; and the house which has been rendered famous by Neuville's painting, "Les Dernières Cartouches," is a museum of objects found on the battlefield.

SEDDON, THOMAS (1821-1856), landscape painter, was born in London on 28th August 1821. His father was a cabinetmaker, and the son for some time followed the same occupation; but in 1842 he was sent to Paris to study ornamental art. On his return he executed designs for furniture for his father, and in 1848 gained a silver medal from the Society of Arts. In the following year he made sketching expeditions in Wales and France; and in 1852 began to exhibit in the Royal Academy, sending a figure-piece, Penelope, and afterwards landscapes, deriving their subjects from Brittany. In the end of 1853 he started for the East and joined Mr Holman Hunt at Cairo. He worked

for a year in Egypt and Palestine, executing views which Mr Ruskin has pronounced to be "the first landscapes uniting perfect artistical skill with topographical accuracy; being directed, with stern self-restraint, to no other purpose than that of giving to persons who cannot travel trustworthy knowledge of the scenes which ought to be most interesting to them." Seddon's Eastern subjects were exhibited in Berners Street, London, in 1855, and in Conduit Street in 1856. In October 1856 Seddon again visited Cairo, where, after a very brief illness, he died on 23d November. In 1857 his works were collected and exhibited in the rooms of the Society of Arts, and his important and elaborately finished picture, Jerusalem and the Valley of Jehoshaphat, was purchased by subscription and presented to the National Gallery. A memoir of Seddon, by his brother, was published in 1859.

SEDGWICK, ADAM (1785-1873), geologist, was born in 1785 at Dent, Yorkshire, where his father was vicar of the parish. He was educated at Sedbergh school and at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he graduated as fifth wrangler in 1808, and was elected a fellow in 1809. For some years he devoted himself chiefly to the studies and duties of academic life, but gradually he acquired an absorbing interest in geology and natural science, which was fostered by long excursions into the country, rendered necessary by the state of his health. In 1818 he succeeded Professor Hailstone in the Woodwardian chair of geology. Among his principal discoveries, which appeared for the most part in the *Cambridge Transactions* and the *Transactions of the Geological Society*, were those of the true position and succession of the Palaeozoic strata of Devonshire and Cornwall, of the geological relation of the beds afterwards named Permian in the north and north-west of England, and of the general structure of North Wales,—a subject which led him into controversy with Murchison. In 1834 he published a *Discourse on the Studies of the University of Cambridge*, which reached a fifth edition. By his generosity and energy he succeeded in rendering the geological collection of the Woodwardian Museum one of the most complete in the kingdom. He was one of the original secretaries of the Cambridge Philosophical Society established in 1819, and was president of the Geological Society of London from 1829 to 1831. Having taken holy orders, he was advanced to the dignity of canon of Norwich cathedral, and for some time also he was vice-master of Trinity College. Sedgwick died at Cambridge on 25th January 1873.

SEDITION in Roman law was considered as *majestas* or treason. In English law it is a very elastic term, including offences ranging from libel to TREASON (*q. v.*). It is rarely used except in its adjectival form, *e.g.*, seditious libel, seditious meeting, or seditious conspiracy. "As to sedition itself," says Mr Justice Stephen, "I do not think that any such offence is known to English law" (*Hist. Crim. Law*, vol. ii. chap. xxiv.).¹ The same high authority lays down the law in the following terms, which were substantially adopted by the Draft Criminal Code Commissioners.

"Every one commits a misdemeanour who publishes verbally or otherwise any words or any document with a seditious intention. If the matter so published consists of words spoken, the offence is called the speaking of seditious words. If the matter so published is contained in anything capable of being a libel, the offence is called the publication of a seditious libel. Every one commits a misdemeanour who agrees with any other person or persons to do any act for the furtherance of any seditious intention common to both or all of them. Such an offence is called a seditious conspiracy. A seditious intention is an intention to bring into hatred or contempt or to excite disaffection against the person of Her Majesty, her heirs and successors, or the Government and constitution of the

¹ The word "sedition" occurs, however, in 40 and 41 Vict. c. 21, s. 40.

United Kingdom, as by law established, or either House of Parliament, or the administration of justice, or to excite Her Majesty's subjects to attempt otherwise than by lawful means the alteration of any matter in church or state by law established, or to raise discontent or disaffection amongst Her Majesty's subjects, or to promote feelings of ill-will and hostility between different classes of Her Majesty's subjects. An intention to show that Her Majesty has been misled or mistaken in her measures, or to point out errors or defects in the Government or constitution as by law established, with a view to their reformation, or to excite Her Majesty's subjects to attempt by lawful means the alteration of any matter in church or state by law established, or to point out, in order to their removal, matters which are producing or have a tendency to produce feelings of hatred and ill-will between different classes of Her Majesty's subjects, is not a seditious intention. In determining whether the intention with which any words were spoken, any document was published, or any agreement was made, was or was not seditious, every person must be deemed to intend the consequences which would naturally follow from his conduct at the time and under the circumstances in which he so conducted himself" (*Digest of the Criminal Law*, §§ 91-94).

The principal enactments now in force dealing with seditious offences were all passed during the last twenty-five years of the reign of George III. They are 37 Geo. III. c. 123, prohibiting the administering or taking of unlawful oaths (see OATH) or the belonging to an unlawful confederacy; 60 Geo. III. and 1 Geo. IV. c. 1, prohibiting unlawful drilling and military exercises; and the Acts for the suppression of corresponding societies, 39 Geo. III. c. 79 and 57 Geo. III. c. 19. No proceedings can be instituted under these last two Acts without the authority of the law officers of the crown (9 and 10 Vict. c. 33). Under the head of statutes aimed at seditious offences may also be classed 2 Ric. II. st. 1, c. 5 and 12 Ric. II. c. 11, against *scandalum magnatum* or slander of great men, such as peers, judges, or great officers of state, whereby discord may arise within the realm, and 13 Car. II. c. 5, against tumultuous petitioning (see PETITION). There has been no prosecution in recent times for seditious words as distinguished from seditious libel, but such words have been admitted as evidence in proceedings for seditious CONSPIRACY (*q.v.*), as in the prosecution of O'Connell in 1844 and of Mr Parnell and others in 1880 (see *Reg. v. Parnell*, Cox's *Criminal Cases*, vol. xiv. 508). By the Prison Act, 1877, any prisoner under sentence for sedition or seditious libel is to be treated as a misdemeanant of the first division (40 and 41 Vict. c. 21, s. 40).

Scotland.—"All acts by which the minds of the people may be incited to defeat the Government or control legislation by violent or unconstitutional means are seditious" (Macdonald, *Criminal Law*, 229). Sedition is punishable by fine or imprisonment or both (6 Geo. IV. c. 47). A very large number of Acts of the Scottish Parliament dealt with sedition, beginning as early as 1184 with the assize of William the Lion, c. 29. Leasing-making is to be distinguished from sedition, as it attacked only the sovereign individually, not the Government.

United States.—In the Acts of Congress the word "sedition" appears to occur only in the army and navy articles. A soldier joining any sedition or who, being present at any sedition, does not use his utmost endeavour to suppress the same is punishable with death. A sailor uttering seditious words is punishable at the discretion of a court-martial. In 1798 an Act of Congress called the Sedition Act was passed, which expired by effluxion of time in 1801. Its constitutionality was violently assailed at the time. (See Story on the constitution of the United States, §§ 1293-4.) Several prosecutions under the Act will be found in Wharton's *State Trials*. Sedition is also dealt with by the State laws mostly in a very liberal spirit. Thus the Louisiana Code, § 394, enacts that "there is no such offence known to our law as defamation of the Government or either of its branches, either under the name of libel, slander, seditious writing, or other appellation." By § 111, to constitute the offence of sedition "there must be not only a design to dismember the State, or to subvert or change its constitution, but an attempt must be made to do it by force."

Continent of Europe.—The Continental codes as a rule are little more definite than English law in their treatment of sedition. In Germany a distinction is drawn between *Aufstand*, the remaining together of a mob after the authorities have thrice bid it disperse, and *Aufbruch* or *Aufstand*, an organized resistance to the authorities; but no definition is given of the terms. The Hungarian

penal code defines *Aufstand* to be an armed assembly which has the intention of attacking a class of citizens, a nationality, or a religious body. The French penal code recognizes a difference between *sedition* and *réunion séditieuse*. If carried out with sufficient numbers and sufficient force *sedition* becomes *rébellion*. Section 100 exempts from the penalties of sedition those who have merely been present at a seditious meeting without taking any active part therein, and have dispersed at the first warning of the military or civil authorities.

SEDLEY, SIR CHARLES (1639-1701), a noted "wit" and patron of literature in the Restoration period, the "Lisideius" of Dryden's *Essay of Dramatic Poesy*. He was born in 1639, the son of Sir John Sedley of Aylesford in Kent. Like many other men of rank and fashion at the court of "the merry monarch," Sedley had poetical ambition, and wrote comedies and songs. His most famous song, "Phyllis," is much more widely known now than the author's name. His first comedy, *The Mulberry Garden*, was published in 1668, but it does not sustain Sedley's contemporary reputation for wit in conversation. He was probably too indolent to master the art of providing continuous opportunities for brilliant sayings, although he continued to try, wrote two more comedies, and left a comedy and two tragedies behind him to be published after his death. An indecent frolic in Bow Street, for which he was heavily fined, made him notorious in his youth, but later on he sobered down, entered parliament for New Romney (Kent), and took an active part in politics. A speech of his on the civil list after the Revolution is cited by Macaulay as a proof (which his plays do not afford) that his reputation as a man of wit and ability was deserved. His *bon mot* at the expense of James II. is another well-known fragment of his wit. The king had seduced his daughter and created her countess of Dorchester, whereupon Sedley remarked that he hated ingratitude, and, as the king had made his daughter a countess, he would endeavour to make the king's daughter a queen. Sedley died on 20th August 1701.

SEDUCTION. The action for seduction of an unmarried woman in England stands in a somewhat anomalous position. The theory of English law is that the woman herself has suffered no wrong; the wrong has been suffered by the parent or person *in loco parentis*, who must sue for the damage arising from the loss of service caused by the seduction of the woman. Some evidence of service must be given, but very slight evidence will be sufficient. Although the action is nominally for loss of service, still exemplary damages may be given for the dishonour of the plaintiff's family beyond recompence for the mere loss of service. An action for seduction cannot be brought in the county court except by agreement of the parties. As to seduction of a married woman, the old action for criminal conversation was abolished by the Divorce Act, 1857, which substituted for it a claim for damages against the co-respondent in a divorce suit. Seduction in England is not as a rule a criminal offence. But a conspiracy to seduce is indictable at common law. And the Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1885 (which extends to the United Kingdom), makes it felony to seduce a girl under the age of thirteen, and misdemeanour to seduce a girl between thirteen and sixteen (48 and 49 Vict. c. 69, §§ 4, 5). The same Act also deals severely with the cognate offences of procuration, abduction, and unlawful detention with the intent to seduce a woman of any age. In Scotland the seduced woman may sue on her own account.

United States.—In the United States State legislation has generally modified the common law. In some States the father brings the action as the representative of the family whose purity has been invaded; in others the woman herself may bring the action. In many States there is a criminal as well as a civil remedy. The penal codes of New York, New Jersey, Louisiana, and other States make it a crime to seduce under promise of marriage an unmarried woman of good reputation. Subsequent intermarriage of the parties

is in most cases a bar to criminal proceedings. Massachusetts goes still further. By the law of that State if a man commits fornication with a single woman, each of them shall be punished by imprisonment not exceeding three months, or by fine not exceeding \$30. The seduction of a female passenger on a vessel of the United States is an offence punishable by fine or imprisonment. The fine may be ordered by the court to be paid to the person seduced or her child (Act of Congress of 24th March 1860). The State legislation of the United States is in remarkable opposition to the rule of the canon law, by which the seduction of a woman by her betrothed was not punishable on account of the inchoate right over her person given by the betrothal.

SEDULIUS, CÆLIUS, a Christian poet of the 5th century, was the author of an abecedarian *Hymnus de Christo* in iambic dimeters, portions of which maintain their ground in the offices of the Church of Rome, viz., in the Christmas hymn "A solis ortus cardine," and in that for Epiphany (altered from "Herodes hostis impie"). His other works are *Paschale Carmen s. Mirabilium Divinorum Libri V.*, originally in four or five books in hexameter verse and afterwards enlarged and turned into prose, and *Veteris et Novi Testamenti Collatio*, in elegiac verse. *De Verbi Incarnatione*, a Virgilian cento, has also been ascribed to him, but on insufficient grounds. Of his personal history nothing is known, except that he is called a presbyter by Isidore of Seville; by some other writers of less authority he is designated "antistes" or "episcopus." A Scotch-Irish origin has sometimes been claimed for him; but at all events he must not be confounded with Sedulius the grammarian, an Irish Scot who lived in the 9th century. The best edition of his works is that of Arevalus (4to, Rome, 1794).

SEDUM. About 120 species are enumerated in this genus of *Crassulaceæ*, mostly perennial herbs with succulent leaves of varied form, but never compound. The individual flowers are usually small and grouped in cymes. In colour they range from white and yellow to pink. They have a calyx of five sepals, as many petals, usually ten stamens, and five distinct carpels, which have as many glands at their base and ripen into as many dry seed-pods. Several species are British, including some with tuberous roots and large leaves (*Telephium*), and others of smaller size, chiefly found on rocks, walls, and dry banks. Many are cultivated for the beauty of their flowers, and many are remarkable for their prolonged vitality under adverse circumstances. Sedums are very closely allied to *Semprevivum* (see HOUSELEEK).

SEELAND. See ZEALAND.

SÉES, a town of France and a bishop's see, in the department of Orne, is situated on the Orne, 4 miles from its source and 13 miles north of Alençon by the railway from Le Mans to Caen. The very fine cathedral, dating to a large extent from the 13th and 14th centuries, occupies the site of churches founded in 440, 996, and 1053. The west front has two stately spires of open work 230 feet high, which have been restored more than once in the 19th century. The nave, built in the beginning of the 13th century, was remodelled in its upper portion fifty or sixty years after its erection; the choir, built about 1230 and restored in 1260 after a great fire, is remarkable for the lightness of its construction,—the inner galleries of the presbytery being the boldest venture ever made in this kind. In the choir are four bas-reliefs of great beauty and delicacy representing scenes in the life of the Virgin; and the altar is adorned with another depicting the removal of the relics of St Gervais and St Protas. Most of the stained windows are good. Around the cathedral are the cloisters of the canons; the episcopal palace (1778), with a pretty chapel; the great seminary, located in the old abbey of St Martin (supposed to be one of the fourteen or fifteen monasteries founded in the 6th century by St Evroult); the hôtel de ville; and the statue of Conté, a member of

the Egyptian expedition of 1798. The population of Sées was 3483 in 1881, and that of the commune 4687.

The first bishop of Sées (*Sagium*) was St Lain, who lived at the close of the 3d or beginning of the 4th century. In the 9th century it was a fortified town and fell a prey to the Normans; and the stones from its ruined ramparts were used for the erection of a church in the close of the 10th century. In the 12th century Sées belonged to the count of Alençon and consisted of two distinct parts, separated by the Orne,—the bishop's burgh, and to the south the new or count's burgh (*Bourg le Comte*). Captured in 1154 by Henry II. of England, it was recovered in the following year by Guillaume de Bellême; and in 1186 it was partly burned by the count of Anjou. After being taken by Philip Augustus it enjoyed some years of peace, during which a hospital and a Franciscan monastery were built; but it was one of the first towns of Normandy to fall into the hands of the English (1417), who retained possession until their final expulsion from France. Pillaged by the Protestants during the Wars of Religion, Sées attached itself to the League in 1589, but voluntarily surrendered to Henry IV. in 1590.

SEETZEN, ULRICH JASPER (1767-1811), one of the most distinguished of modern travellers in the East, was born the son of a yeoman, in the little lordship of Jever in German Frisia, on 30th January 1767. His father, who was a man of substance, sent him to the university of Göttingen, where he graduated in medicine. His chief interests, however, were in natural history and technology; he wrote a number of papers on both these subjects which gained him some reputation, and had both in view in a series of journeys which he made from time to time through various parts of Holland and Germany. He also engaged practically in various small manufactures, and in 1802 obtained a Government post in Jever. In 1801, however, the interest which he had long felt in geographical exploration had culminated in a resolution to travel by Constantinople to Syria and Arabia, and then, when familiarized with Mohammedan ways, to try to penetrate into Central Africa. He relied mainly on his own resources, but received a small subvention from Gotha, where also he learned from Zach to make astronomical observations. In the summer of 1802 he started down the Danube with a companion Jacobsen, who broke down at Smyrna a year later. His journey was by Constantinople, where he stayed six months, thence through Asia Minor to Smyrna, then again through the heart of Asia Minor to Aleppo, where he remained from November 1803 to April 1805, and made himself sufficiently at home with Arabic speech and ways to travel as a native and without an interpreter. Now began the part of his travels of which a full journal has been published (April 1805 to March 1809), a series of most instructive journeys in eastern and western Palestine and the wilderness of Sinai, and so on to Cairo and the Fayyûm. His chief exploit was a tour round the Dead Sea, which he made without a companion and in the disguise of a beggar. From Egypt he went by sea to Jeddah and reached Mecca as a pilgrim in October 1809. In Arabia he made extensive journeys, ranging from Medina to Lahak and returning to Mocha, from which place his last letters to Europe were written in November 1810. In September of the following year he left Mocha with the hope of reaching Muscat, and was found dead two days later, having, it is believed, been poisoned by the command of the imâm of Sana'a. For the parts of Seetzen's journeys not covered by the published journal (*Reisen*, ed. Kruse, 4 vols., Berlin, 1854) the only printed records are a series of letters and papers in Zach's *Monatliche Correspondenz* and Hammer's *Fundgruben*. Many papers and collections were lost through his death or never reached Europe. The collections that were saved form the Oriental museum and the chief part of the Oriental MSS. of the ducal library in Gotha.

SE-GAN FOO, the capital of the province of Shen-se in north-western China, is situated in 34° 17' N. lat. and 108° 58' E. long. Like most Chinese cities, Se-gan Foo, as repeatedly changed its name during its history, which dates

back to the time of Che Hwang-te (246-210 B.C.), the first universal emperor, whose name will be ever notorious as that of the monarch who built the Great Wall, burnt the books, and established his capital at Kwan-chung, the site of the modern Se-gan Foo. Under the succeeding Han dynasty (206 B.C.-25 A.D.) this city was called Wei-nan and Nuy-she; under the Eastern Han (25-221 A.D.) it was known as Yung Chow; under the Tang (618-907) as Kwan-nuy; under the Sung (960-1127) as Yung-hing; under the Yuen and Ming (1260-1644) as Gan-se; and under the present dynasty as Se-gan. During the Ts'in, Han, and Tang dynasties it was the capital of the empire, and is at the present time second only to Peking in size, population, and importance. The city, which is a square, measuring 10 Chinese miles each way, is prettily situated on ground rising from the river Wei, and includes within its limits the two district cities of Ch'ang-gan and Hien-ning. Its walls are little inferior in height and massiveness to those of Peking, while its gates are handsomer and better defended than any of which the capital can boast. The population is said to be 1,000,000, of whom 50,000 are Mohammedans. Situated in the basin of the Wei river, along which runs the great road which connects northern China with Central Asia, at a point where the valley opens out on the plains of China, Se-gan Foo occupies a strategical position of great importance, and repeatedly in the annals of the empire has history been made around and within its walls. During the late Mohammedan rebellion it was besieged by the rebels for two years (1868-70), but owing to the strength of the fortifications it defied the efforts of its assailants. From its eastern side three great roads radiate, one reaching to Shan-se, one to Ho-nan, and one to Hoo-pih; while from it runs in a south-westerly direction the great highway into Sze-chuen. It is thus admirably situated as a trade centre and serves as a depôt for the silk from Che-keang and Sze-chuen, the tea from Hoo-pih and Ho-nan, and the sugar from Sze-chuen destined for the markets of Kansuh, Turkistan, Hi, and Russia. Marco Polo speaking of Kenjanfu, as the city was then also called, says that it was a place "of great trade and industry. They have great abundance of silk, from which they weave cloths of silk, and gold of divers kinds, and they also manufacture all sorts of equipments for an army. They have every necessary of man's life very cheap." Many of the temples and public buildings are very fine, and not a few historical monuments are found within and about the walls. Of these the most notable is a Nestorian tablet,¹ which was accidentally discovered in 1625 in the Ch'ang-gan suburb.

¹ The contents of this Nestorian inscription, which consists of 1780 characters, may be described as follows. (1) An abstract of Christian doctrine of a vague and figurative kind. (2) An account of the arrival of the missionary Olopun (probably a Chinese form of Rabban=Monk), from Tats'in in the year 635, bringing sacred books and images; of the translation of the said books; of the imperial approval of the doctrine and permission to teach it publicly. Then follows a decree of the emperor (T'ai-tung, a very famous prince), issued in 638, in favour of the new doctrine, and ordering a church to be built in the square of justice and peace (*Yung-fang*) in the capital. The emperor's portrait was to be placed in this church. After this comes a description of Tats'in, and then some account of the fortunes of the church in China. Kaoutsung (650-683, the devout patron also of the Buddhist traveller and doctor, Hwen Ts'ang), it is added, continued to favour the new faith. In the end of the century Buddhism got the upper hand, but under Yuen-tsung (713-755) the church recovered its prestige, and Kihō, a new missionary, arrived. Under Tih-tsung (780-783) the monument was erected, and this part of the inscription ends with a eulogy of I-sze, a statesman and benefactor of the church. (3) Then follows a recapitulation of the above in octosyllabic verse. The Chinese inscription, which concludes with the date of erection, viz., 781, is followed by a series of short inscriptions in Syriac and the *Estrangelo* character, containing the date of the erection, the name of the reigning Nestorian patriarch, Mar Hanan Ishma, that of Adam, bishop and pope of China, and those of the clerical staff of the capital. Then follow

The stone slab which bears the inscription is $7\frac{1}{2}$ feet high by 3 wide, and at present stands embedded in a brick wall, which forms part of a dilapidated temple.² From a Chinese point of view, however, the Pei Lin or "forest of tablets" is a place of even greater interest than the above-mentioned temple. For there are collected tablets of the Han, Tang, Sung, Yuen, and Ming dynasties, some of which bear historical legends, notably a set of stone tablets having the thirteen classics inscribed upon them, while others are symbolical or pictorial; among these last is a full-sized likeness of Confucius. As might be expected on a site which has played so prominent a part in Chinese history, antiquities are constantly being discovered in the neighbourhood of the city, e.g., rich stores of coins and bronzes, bearing dates ranging from 200 B.C. onwards.

SEGESTA, a very ancient city near the north-western extremity of Sicily, so named by the natives and by the Romans, while the Greeks called it Egesta or Ægesta. Its origin was ascribed by tradition sometimes to Trojan refugees and sometimes to Phocians, followers of Philoctetes; the accounts agree only in making Segesta older than the Greek colonization of Sicily in the 7th century B.C. A tribe, named Elymi, distinct from both the Siculi and the Greeks, occupied the country round the city. The scanty references to the history of Segesta show it in continual warfare with the Greek city Selinus from the year 580 B.C. downwards. As early as 426 B.C. it concluded an alliance with Athens; and in 416 a great Athenian fleet sailed to Sicily, ostensibly to aid Segesta against its enemies Selinus and Syracuse, but really to attempt the conquest of the island. After the destruction of the Athenian fleet and army, the Segestans turned to the Carthaginians. But, when Hannibal destroyed Selinus (see SELINUS) in 409 B.C. and Himera, and established the Carthaginian power firmly in the western part of Sicily, Segesta sank to the position of a dependent ally. In 397 it suffered a long siege from Dionysius of Syracuse, but at last was relieved by Himilco. In 307, however, the Greek arms had better success; Agathocles of Syracuse sold the inhabitants into slavery, after massacring 10,000 men, and changed the name of the city to Diceopolis. But it soon recovered its old name and passed again to the Carthaginians. In the beginning of the First Punic War the Segestans murdered the Carthaginian garrison and became allies of Rome. Being soon after besieged by the Carthaginians, they were relieved by the great naval victory of Duilius, 260 B.C. Segesta was always highly favoured by the Romans, both on account of its early adhesion to their cause and from its supposed Trojan origin. Its site is now deserted, having been exposed to the Saracen depredations in the 10th century; but the ruins are very fine. Segesta was about 6 miles from the sea, and the modern town of Castellamare probably occupies the site of the ancient harbour. The Crimisus, which is represented on coins of Segesta, is probably the river S. Bartolommeo, about 6 miles to the south. There were hot springs and baths not far from the city.

SEGOVIA, a province of Spain, formerly part of Old Castile, is bounded on the N. and N.E. by the provinces of Burgos and Soria, on the S.E. by those of Guadalajara and Madrid, on the S.W. by Avila, and on the N.W. by Valladolid. It has an area of 2670 square miles, and the population in 1877 was 149,961. The greater portion of the country consists of a dry arable tableland, lifted some

sixty-seven names of persons in Syriac characters, most of whom are characterized as priests, and sixty-one names of persons in Chinese, all priests but one.

² See Yule, *Marco Polo*, London, 1875; Williamson, *Journeys in North China*, London, 1870; and S. Wells Williams, *The Middle Kingdom*, London, 1883.

2500 feet above the sea, monotonous enough in appearance, and burnt to a dull brown during summer, but yet producing some of the finest corn in the Peninsula. Along the whole south-eastern boundary the Guadarrama range of mountains rises up suddenly, like a huge barrier, separating Old from New Castile and the basin of the Douro from that of the Tagus,—affording, too, among its ravines and upon its slopes some remarkably fine scenery. There are two well-known passes or "puertos" over the sierra, those of the Nava Cerrada and of Somosierra. The former has been, until quite a recent date, the chief means of communication with the outer world, save when blocked by winter snows. It winds round the lower southern slope of the Peñalara, (8500 feet). The Puerto de Somosierra lies north of the Peñalara. By it in 1808 Napoleon descended upon Madrid. Though to the eye of the stranger almost desert-like in appearance, the province of Segovia is well watered by the streams which rise in the Guadarrama range and flow northwards to the Douro, and by careful methods of irrigation. The Eresma, Cega, Duraton, and Riaza are the principal watercourses. With the exception of Segovia and Sepulveda, there is no town of any importance,—the inhabitants being for the most part employed in agricultural and pastoral pursuits and backward in civilization. Since the completion (1883) of the railway from Medina del Campo to the city of Segovia, however, the towns *en route* have begun to show signs of animation; and, as the province contains monuments of deepest interest to the historian and ecclesiologist, it bids fair to receive its due measure of attention and enlightenment. At the foot of the Nava Cerrada pass lies the royal demesne and summer residence of La Granja, or San Ildefonso, one of the great show places of the Peninsula. The chief trades and manufactures formerly carried on in the province—weaving, tanning, making of earthenware, &c.—have been drawn away to more commercial centres. Paper-making holds its own to some extent, owing to the excellence of the water; and for the same reason, together with the superior quality of the breed of sheep, the picturesque scenes attendant upon the preparation of the fleeces may still be witnessed. Such prosperity, however, as Segovia retains is dependent upon its agricultural produce—wheat, rye, barley, peas, hemp, flax, &c.—together with the rearing of sheep, cattle, mules, and pigs. The sierras yield excellent granite, marble, and limestone; but hitherto the difficulty of transport has prevented any development of mineral wealth.

SEGOVIA, the capital of the above province, clusters upon a narrow ridge of rock which rises in the valley of the Eresma, where this river is joined by its turbulent little tributary the Clamores, and is one of the best specimens extant of the Gotho-Castilian cities. Founded originally as a Roman pleasure resort, it became in the Middle Ages a great royal and religious centre, and was surrounded by Alphonso VI. with the walls and towers which still give to it, even in their dilapidation, the air of a military stronghold. The streets are steep, irregular, and narrow, and are lined with quaint old-fashioned houses as irregular and forbidding, built for the most part of granite from the neighbouring sierra. The place teems with records and monuments of the many vicissitudes of fortune and art through which it has passed, foremost among the latter being the ancient Alcázar, the cathedral, the aqueduct of Trajan, and a notable array of churches and other ecclesiastical edifices. The Alcázar is perched upon the western tip of the long tongue of rock upon which the city is built, and which at this point has a sheer descent upon three sides into the valley. Of the original Middle-Age fortress but little remains save the noble façade,—the building having been wantonly fired in 1862 by the students of the artillery school domicile, within its walls, and all but destroyed. It

is now in course of slow but praiseworthy restoration. The work is Gotho-Moorish, with an admixture of Renaissance in the decoration. Some of the rooms deserve notice, especially the Sala del Trono and the Sala de Recibimiento. The views obtained over the outlying *vega* from the towers and windows are superb. The 16th-century cathedral (1521-1577), the work of Juan Gil de Ontañon and his son Rodrigo, occupies the site of a former church of the 11th century, of which the present cloisters, rebuilt in 1524, formed part. It is a well-proportioned and delicate piece of Late Gothic—the latest of its kind in Spain—317 feet long by 177 wide. The central nave rises 99 feet and the tower 330. The exterior is the least satisfactory portion, at once bald and over-decorated; the interior is light and pure, with an effectiveness greatly enhanced by some very fine stained glass. The churches of Segovia are legion, though many of them are closed and fast falling into disrepair. The most remarkable are those of La Vera Cruz (Knights Templar, Romanesque of the early 13th century), San Millan and San Juan (both Romanesque of second half of 13th century), El Parral (Gothic of early 16th century), and Corpus Christi, an ancient Jewish sanctuary and an interesting specimen of Moorish work. The towers and external cloistering, or *corredores*, of several of the later churches—especially those of San Estéban and San Martín—are fine. The great aqueduct, however, called El Puente del Diablo, ranks usually as the glory of Segovia, and is remarkable alike for its colossal proportions, its history, its picturesqueness, and the art with which it is put together. Erected first, according to fairly reliable tradition, in the time of the emperor Trajan, and several times barely escaping destruction, it is now, after nearly eighteen hundred years, in perfect working order, bringing the pure waters of the Rio Frio down from the Sierra Fonfria, distant 10 miles to the south. The bridge portion striding across the valley into the city is 847 yards long, and consists of a double tier of superimposed arches, built of rough-hewn granite blocks, laid without lime or cement. The three centre arches are 102 feet in height. Segovia finally lost its ancient prosperity when it was taken and sacked by the French in 1808. Some insignificant manufactories of cloth, leather, paper, and rude earthenware still exist in the suburb of San Lorenzo, but the trade of the place languishes year by year. The city is the see of a bishop, suffragan to Valladolid. The population in 1877 was 11,318.

SEIGNORY, or SEIGNIORY, is the relation of the lord of a fee or a manor to his tenant. There is no land in England without its lord: "Nulle terre sans seigneur" is the old feudal maxim. Where no other lord can be discovered the crown is lord as lord paramount. The principal incidents of a seignory were fealty and rent-service. In return for these privileges the lord was liable to forfeit his rights if he neglected to protect and defend the tenant or did anything injurious to the feudal relation. Every seignory now existing must have been created before the Statute of *Quia Emptores*, which forbade the future creation of estates in fee-simple by subinfeudation (see REAL ESTATE). The only seignories of any importance at present are the lordships of manors. They are regarded as incorporeal hereditaments, and are either appendant or in gross. A seignory appendant passes with the grant of the manor; a seignory in gross—that is, a seignory which has been severed from the demesne lands of the manor to which it was originally appendant—must be specially conveyed by deed of grant.

SEINE. This, one of the chief rivers of France (Lat. *Sequana*), rises on the eastern slope of the plateau of Langres, 18 miles to the north-west of Dijon. It keeps the same general direction (north-westwards) throughout its entire course, but has numerous windings between its

source and its mouth in the English Channel the air distance is only 250 miles, but that actually traversed (through the departments of Côte-d'Or, Aube, Seine-et-Marne, Seine-et-Oise, Seine, Eure, and Seine-Inférieure) is 482. Though shorter than the Loire and inferior in volume to the streams of the Rhone system when these are at their fullest, the Seine derives an exceptional importance from the regularity of its flow. This feature is due to the geological character of its basin, an area of 19,400,000 acres, entirely belonging to France (with the exception of a few communes in Belgium), and formed in three-fourths of its extent of permeable strata, which absorb the atmospheric precipitation to restore it gently to the river by perennial springs. It is believed that the Seine never attains a volume so high as 90,000 cubic feet per second. At Paris its average per second is 9000, and after it has received all its tributaries it ranges between 24,000 and 25,000 cubic feet. At Paris it falls as low as 2650 cubic feet and in exceptional droughts the figure of 1200 has been reached. During the flood of 1876, which lasted fifty-five days, the volume between the quays at Paris rose to 58,600 cubic feet per second.

Rising at a height of 1545 feet above sea-level, at the base of the statue of a nymph erected on the spot by the city of Paris, the Seine is at first such an insignificant streamlet that it is often dry in summer as far as to Chatillon (722 feet). At Bar (531 feet) its waters feed the Haute-Seine Canal, so that there is uninterrupted navigation from this point to the sea (395 miles). At Troyes it has descended to 331 feet. It next passes Méry, and at Marciilly receives the Aube (right), from which point it becomes navigable; here it is deflected in a south-westerly direction by the heights of La Brie, the base of which it skirts past Nogent and Montereau, at the latter point receiving the Yonne, its most important left-hand tributary. It then resumes its general north-westerly direction, receiving the Loing (left) at Moret, then passing Melun (121 feet), being joined at Corbeil by the Essonne (left), and after its junction with the Marne (right), a tributary longer than itself by 31 miles, reaches Paris. From this point to the sea its channel has been so deepened by recent works that vessels of 9 to 10 feet draught can reach the capital. The river then winds through a pleasant champagne country past St Cloud, St Denis, Argenteuil, St Germain, Conflans (where it is joined from the right by the Oise, 56 feet above the sea), Poissy, Mantes, Les Andelys, and Poses, where the tide first begins to be perceptible. It next receives the Eure (left), and passes Pont de l'Arche, Elbeuf, and Rouen, where the sea navigation commences. The river has been dyked to Rouen so as to admit vessels of 20 feet draught, and large areas have thus been reclaimed for cultivation.¹ At every tide there is a "bore" (*barre* or *marée-caract*), ranging usually from 8 to 10 feet. Between Rouen and the sea there are numerous windings, as in the neighbourhood of Paris; after Caudebec and Quillebeuf (where the Rille is received from the left) the estuary begins, set with extensive sandbanks, between which flows a narrow navigable channel. At Tancarville (right) is the commencement of a canal to enable river boats for Havre to avoid the sea passage. The river finally falls into the English Channel between Honfleur on the left and Havre on the right. The Marne brings to the Seine the waters of the Orlain, the Ourcq, and the Morin; the Oise those of the Aisne; the Yonne those of the Armançon. The low elevation of the bounding hills has rendered it comparatively easy to connect the Seine and its affluents with adjoining river basins by means of canals. The Oise and Somme are connected by the Picardy or Crozat Canal, which in turn is continued to the Scheldt by means of the St Quentin Canal and the Oise, and to the Sambre by that of Oise and Sambre. Between the Aisne and the Meuse is the Ardennes Canal, and the Aisne and the Marne are united by a canal which passes Rheims. The Marne has similar communication with the Meuse and the Rhine, the Yonne with the Saône (by the Burgundy Canal) and with the Loire (by that of Nivernais). The Seine itself is connected with the Loire by the Loing Canal dividing at Montargis into two branches,—those of Orleans and Briare.

SEINE, the department of France which has Paris as its chief town, was formed in 1790 of part of the province of Île-de-France. It lies between 48° 44' and 48° 58' N. lat. and 2° 10' and 2° 34' E. long. and is entirely surrounded by the department of Seine-et-Oise, from which it is separated at certain parts by the Seine, the Marne, and the Bièvre. The area of the department is only 118,306

¹ Comp. RIVER ENGINEERING, vol. xx. p. 579; see also the valuable paper "The River Seine," in *Proc. Inst. Civ. Eng.*, vol. lxxxiv., 1886, by L. F. Vernon-Harcourt.

acres, and of this surface a seventh or a sixth is occupied by Paris; the suburban villages also are close together and very populous. In actual population (2,799,329 in 1881) as well as in density (23.7 persons per acre) it holds the first place. Flowing from south-east to north-west through the department, the Seine forms three links: on the right it receives above Paris the Marne, and below Paris the Rouillon, and on the left hand the Bièvre within the precincts of the city. The left bank of the Seine is in general higher than the right and consists of the Villejuif and Chatillon plateaus separated by the Bièvre; the highest point (568 feet) is above Chatillon and the lowest (105) at the exit of the Seine. Below Paris the river flows between the plain of Gennevilliers and Nanterre (commanded by Mont Valérien) on the left and the plain of St Denis on the right. On the right side, to the east of Paris, are the heights of Avron and Vincennes commanding the course of the Marne. Communication is further facilitated by various canals (see PARIS).

Market gardens occupy about 3700 acres within and without the city, and by means of irrigation and manuring are made to yield from ten to eleven crops per annum (see PARIS). Some districts are specially celebrated,—Montreuil for its peaches, Fontenay-aux-Roses for its strawberries and roses, and other places for flowers and nurseries. The department produced in 1883 326,326 bushels of wheat, 4042 of meslin, 75,003 of rye, 3415 of barley, 337,837 of oats, 1,656,009 of potatoes, 14,650 of pulse, and 15,400 tons of beetroot. Altogether, 60,000 persons are engaged in agriculture. The live stock in 1881 comprised 95,796 horses (70,296 in Paris), 4174 cattle, 280 calves, 8159 sheep, 3626 pigs, and 660 goats. Vineyards, producing 366,748 gallons of wine annually, cover 2460 acres. The principal woods (Boulogne and Vincennes) belong to Paris. It is partly owing to the number of quarries in the district that Paris owes its origin: Chatillon and Montrouge in the south yield freestone, and Bagneux and Clamart in the south and Montreuil and Romainville in the east possess the richest plaster quarries in France. Within the circuit of Paris are certain old quarries now forming the catacombs. Most of the industrial establishments in the department are situated in Paris or at St Denis. Pantin (17,857 inhabitants in 1881) on the Ourcq Canal is the seat of a national factory of tobacco, and also of glass-works, and Aubervilliers (19,437) on the St Denis Canal is the seat of great chemical works. Along the Seine, below Paris, Boulogne (25,615) is partly occupied by laundry establishments; Puteaux (15,586) manufactures woollen goods, and has dye-works, printing works, cloth-dressing works, and engineering works of considerable importance; Clichy (24,320) manufactures crystal and has a large gaswork, &c. Above Paris, Ivry (18,442) has iron-works and engineering works; Choisy-le-Roi (6978) has factories for the making of porcelain, glass, soda, chemicals, morocco, and waxcloth; Montreuil (18,693), near Vincennes, makes patent leather, porcelain, &c. The department is of course traversed by all the railway lines which converge in Paris, and also contains the inner circuit railway, to which are to be added numerous tramways, 72 miles of national roads, and 458 of other roads. There are 3 arrondissements (Paris, St Denis, and Sceaux), 23 cantons (20 in Paris), and 72 communes. The department forms the archiepiscopal diocese of Paris, falls within the jurisdiction of the Paris court of appeal, and is divided between the four *corps d'armée* of Amiens, Rouen, Le Mans, and Orleans. Among the important institutions in the department are the lycœums of Vanves and Sceaux, the lunatic asylum at Charenton, the veterinary college of Maisons-Alfort, and the great Bicêtre hospital at Gentilly.

SEINE-ET-MARNE, a department of northern France, was formed in 1790 of almost the entire district of Brie (half of which belonged to Champagne and half to Île-de-France) and a portion of Gâtinais (from Île-de-France and Orléanais). Lying between 48° 7' and 49° 6' N. lat. and 2° 23' and 3° 13' E. long., it is bounded N. by the departments of Oise and Aisne, E. by Marie and Aube, S. by Yonne and Loiret, and W. by Seine-et-Oise. The whole department belongs to the basin of the Seine, and is drained partly by that river and partly by its tributaries the Yonne and the Loing from the left, and from the right the Voulzie, the Yères, and the Marne, with its affluents the Ourcq, the Petit Morin, and the Grand Morin. With the exception of the Loing, flowing from south to north, all these streams cross the department from east to west,

following the general slope of the surface, which is broken up into several plateaus from 300 to 500 feet in height (highest point, in the north-east, 705 feet, lowest 105), and separated from each other by deep valleys. Most of the plateaus belong to the Brie, a fertile and well-wooded district of a clayey character. In the south-west lies the dry sandy district of the Fontainebleau sandstones. The climate is rather more "continental" than that of Paris,—the summers warmer, the winters colder; the annual rainfall does not exceed 16 inches. There is a striking difference between the south of the department, where the famous white grape (*chasselas*) of Fontainebleau ripens, and the country to the north of the Marne,—this river marking pretty exactly the northern limit of the vine.

With a total area of 1,417,534 acres, Seine-et-Marne had in 1879 261,074 under wheat, 274,808 under oats, 58,362 under beetroot, 51,130 under vines. Besides these, meslin, rye, barley, pulse, potatoes are the principal crops grown. In 1884 the yield was 6,567,547 bushels of wheat, 231,959 of meslin, 665,505 of rye, 471,251 of barley, 9,104,254 of oats, 3,035,167 of potatoes, 924,210 tons of beetroot, and 401,427 tons of green fodder (lucerne, clover, sainfoin, &c.). The live stock in 1879 included 40,400 horses, 5190 asses, 522,700 sheep (173,290 superior breed), 101,100 cattle, 16,840 pigs, 3714 goats, and 11,440 beehives (75 tons of honey, 15 of wax). Cereals occupy two-fifths of the department and yield an annual value of £2,400,000, while all other products of the soil do not reach £1,600,000. The wheat and oats of Brie are especially esteemed, as are also the white grapes of Fontainebleau and the roses of Provins (see vol. xix. p. 886). Thousands of the well-known Brie cheeses are manufactured, and large numbers of calves and poultry are reared. The forests (covering a fifth of the surface) are planted with oak, beech, chestnut, hornbeam, birch, wild cherry, linden, willow, poplar, and conifers. Best known and most important is the forest of Fontainebleau, the annual product of which is worth £14,000. Excellent freestone is quarried in the department, especially in the valley of the Loing, mill-stones at La Ferté-sous-Jouarre; the Fontainebleau sandstone, used extensively for pavements, gives employment to 300 establishments, and the white sand which is found along with it is in great request for the manufacture of glass. Along the Marne are numerous plaster-quarries; lime-kilns occur throughout the department; and peat is found in the valleys of the Ourcq and the Voulzie. Beds of common clay and porcelain clay supply the potteries of Fontainebleau, and especially those of Montereau, where upwards of 700 hands are employed. Other industrial establishments are the numerous large flour-mills, the sugar-factories, beetroot distilleries, paper-mills (the Marais paper-mill manufactures bank-notes, &c., both for France and foreign markets), saw-mills, foundries, printing works, tanneries, tawing works, glove factories, chemical works, &c. Most of the motive-power used in these establishments is supplied by the streams. The Seine, the Yonne, the Marne, and the Grand Morin are navigable, and, with the canals of the Loing and the Ourcq and those of Chalifert, Cornillon, and Chelles, which cut off the windings of the Marne, form a total waterway of 219 miles. There are 242 miles of railway. With its 348,991 inhabitants in 1881, Seine-et-Marne is in density of population slightly below the average of France. It has 5 arrondissements, 29 cantons, 530 communes, forms the diocese of Meaux, belongs to the jurisdiction of the Paris court of appeal, and to the district of the Orleans *corps d'armée*. Among the places of note in the department, Montereau (7107 inhabitants in 1881), distinguished as Montereau-faut-Yonne because of its situation at the confluence of the Yonne with the Seine, deserves to be mentioned not only for its porcelain manufacture but also as a great railway station on the route from Paris to Lyons at the junction of the Troyes line, as the scene of the assassination of John the Bold, duke of Burgundy, and as one of the battlefields of Napoleon I. in the campaign of 1814. Its church is an historical monument of the 13th, 14th, 15th, and 16th centuries. A statue of Napoleon stands between the two bridges.

SEINE-ET-OISE, a department of northern France, formed in 1790 of part of the old province of Île-de-France, and traversed from south-east to north-west by the Seine, which is joined by the Oise from the right. Lying between 48° 17' and 49° 14' N. lat. and 1° 27' and 2° 37' E. long., it is surrounded by the departments of Seine-et-Marne on the east, Loiret on the south, Eure-et-Loir on the west, Eure on the north-west, and Oise on the north. It encloses the department of Seine. The Epte on the north-west is almost the only natural boundary of the department. The streams (all belonging to the basin of

the Seine) are, on the right the Yères, the Marne, the Oise, and the Epte, and on the left the Essonne (joined by the Juine, which passes by Étampes), the Orge, the Bièvre, and the Mauldre. Seine-et-Oise belongs in part to the tableland of Beauce in the south and to that of Brie, in the east. In the centre are the high wooded hills which make the charm of Versailles, Marly, and St Germain. But it is in the north-west, in the Vexin, that the culminating point of 690 feet is reached, while the lowest point, where the Seine leaves the department, is hardly 40 feet above the sea. The mean temperature is 51° Fahr.

Of the 1,384,695 acres 912,205 are arable soil, 50,330 meadows, 42,852 vineyards, and 199,864 woods. In 1881 the live stock comprised 48,540 horses, 5626 asses, 162 mules, 70,600 cattle, 341,600 sheep (wool-clip, 1110 tons), 16,200 pigs, 4500 goats, and 13,500 beehives. Seine-et-Oise is a great agricultural and horticultural department. The crops in 1883 were—wheat, 5,817,838 bushels; meslin, 353,127; rye, 1,034,572; barley, 647,894; oats, 8,705,193; buckwheat, 3800; potatoes, 6,479,000; beetroot for sugar 206,645 tons, and for fodder 237,915; colza seed, 415 ton.; hay, 48,242; clover, 13,505; lucerne, 140,354; sainfoin, 57,283. Oaks, hornbeams, birch, chestnuts are the prevailing trees in the forests, most of which belong to the state. Building, paving, and mill stones (1978 workmen), lime, plaster, marl, chalk, sand, clay, and peat (along the Essonne) are all found in the department. At Enghien are cold mineral springs, and Forges has a hydropathic establishment, where the town of Paris maintains a hospital for scrofulous children. The most important industrial establishments are the national porcelain factory at Sèvres; the Government powder-mills of Sevran and Bouchet; the paper-mills and cardboard mills (1570 workmen) of Corbeil (population 6566 in 1881), Étampes (7465), and Pontoise (6675), but by far the largest is at Essonne (4999); the flax-spinning mills (6368 spindles), cotton-mills (17,330 spindles), silk-mills (5726), wool-mills (8890); the foundries and boat and bridge building yards at Argenteuil (10,167); the engineering and railway works at Corbeil, &c.; the agricultural implement factories at Dourdan (2819); the sugar-refineries with thousands of workmen; distilleries on most of the large farms; starch-works, laundries, large printing establishments close to Paris; factories for chemical products, candles, embroidery, hosiery, perfumery, shoes, and buttons; one of the finest zinc-works in France; saw-mills, &c. Besides the navigation of the Seine, the Marne, the Oise, and the Canal d'Ourcq, the department has 420 miles of railroad, 457 of national roads, and 3958 of other roads. The population of the department in 1881 was 577,798 inhabitants (one and a half times the average density of the French departments). There are 6 arrondissements, 37 cantons, and 686 communes; the department forms the diocese of Versailles, is divided between the *corps d'armée* of Amiens, Rouen, Le Mans, and Orleans, and has its court of appeal at Paris. The commune of Argenteuil (11,849 inhabitants) is not only important for its manufactures but also for its market gardens (asparagus, figs, grapes, &c.); and its church, rebuilt in the 19th century in the Romanesque style, is a fashionable place of pilgrimage.

SEINE INFÉRIEURE, a department of the north of France, formed in 1790 of four districts (Norman Vexin, Bray, Caux, and Roumois) belonging to the province of Normandy. Lying between 49° 15' and 50° 4' N. lat. and 1° 52' and 0° 4' E. long., it is bounded N.W. and N. by the English Channel for a distance of 80 miles, N.E. by Somme, from which it is separated by the Bresle, E. by Oise, S. by Eure and the estuary of the Seine, which separates the department from Calvados. It is divided almost equally between the basin of the Seine in the south and the basins of certain coast streams in the north. The Seine receives from the right hand before it reaches the department the Epte and the Andelle from the Bray district, and then the Darnétal, the Cailly, the Austreberte, the Bolbec, and the Lézarde. The main coast streams are the Bresle (which forms the ports of Eu and Tréport), the Yères, the Arques or Dieppe stream (formed by the junction of the Varennes, the Béthune, and the Eauline), the Scie, the Saane, the Durdent. As a whole the department may be described as an elevated plateau culminating towards the east in a point 807 feet above the sea and terminating along the Seine in high bluffs and towards the sea in steep chalk cliffs 300 to 400 feet high, which are continually being eaten away and transformed into beds of shingle. There is no striking line of parting between the basins of