

The poem has often been decried as practically unmeaning: we do not subscribe to this opinion. The "witch" of this subtle and magical invention seems to represent that faculty which we term "the fancy"; using this assumption as a clue, we find plenty of meaning in the poem, but necessarily it is fanciful or volatile meaning. The elegy on Keats, *Adonais*, followed in 1821; the *Triumph of Life*, a mystical and most impressive allegory, constructed upon lines marked out by Dante and by Petrarch, was occupying the poet up to the time of his death. The stately fragment which remains is probably but a small portion of the projected whole. The translations—chiefly from Homer, Euripides, Calderon, and Goethe—date from 1819 to 1822, and testify to the poetic endowment of Shelley not less absolutely than his own original compositions. From this list it will be readily seen that Shelley was not only a prolific but also a versatile poet. Works so various in faculty and in form as *The Revolt of Islam*, *Julian and Maddalo*, *The Centi*, *Prometheus Unbound*, *Epipsychidion*, and the grotesque effusions of which *Peter Bell the Third* is the prime example, added to the consummate array of lyrics, have seldom to be credited to a single writer—one, moreover, who died before he was thirty years of age. In prose Shelley could be as admirable as in poetry; of late years it has even been pretended—but we regard this proposition as worthy of summary rejection—that his best and most enduring work is in the prose form. His letters to Thomas Love Peacock and others, and his uncompleted *Defence of Poetry*, are the chief monuments of his mastery in prose; and certainly no more beautiful prose—having much of the spirit and the aroma of poetry, yet without being distorted out of its proper essence—is to be found in the English language.

The chief original authorities for the life of Shelley (apart from his own writings, which contain a good deal of autobiography, if heedfully sifted and collated) are—(1) the notices by Mrs. Shelley interspersed in her edition of the *Poems*; (2) Hogg's amusing, discerning, and authentic, although in some respects exaggerated, book; (3) Trelawny's *Records*; (4) the *Life* by Medwin; and (5) the articles written by Peacock. Some other writers, especially Leigh Hunt, might be mentioned, but they come less close to the facts. Among biographical works produced since Shelley's death, by authors who did not know him personally, much the largest is *The Real Shelley*, by J. C. Jeaffreson (1885). It is controversial in method and decidedly hostile in tendency, and tries a man of genius by tests far from well adapted (in our opinion) to bring out a right result; it contains, however, an ample share of solid information and sharp disquisition. The memoir by W. M. Rossetti, prefixed to an edition of Shelley's *Poems* in two forms of publication, 1870 and 1878, was an endeavour to formulate in brief space, out of the then confused and conflicting records, an accurate account of Shelley—admirable, but not uncanonically one-sided. There is valuable material in Lady Shelley's *Shelley Memorials*, and in Dr. Garnett's *Relics of Shelley*; and the memoir written by Mr. Symonds, in the series *English Men of Letters*, is very agreeably and skillfully done. While we write (November 1885) Prof. Dowden is engaged upon a life of Shelley, which may be expected to distance all its predecessors in authority and completeness. (W. M. R.)

SHELOMOH IBN GEBIROL. See AVICEBRON.

SHEM. See NOAH. Compare SEMITIC LANGUAGES.

SHEMAHA, a formerly important but now insignificant town in Transcaucasia, in 40° 38' N. lat. and 66° 19' E. long., on the Zagolovai, an affluent of the Peerssagat, which falls into the Caspian. It is situated in a mountainous, very picturesque country, covered with luxuriant vegetation, at about 2230 feet above the level of the Black Sea. In 1873 it had 25,087 inhabitants, of whom 18,680 were Tartars and Shachsevans, 5177 Armenians, and 1230 Russians. Some 300 Armenian families now profess Lutheranism—the result of a mission first established at Shemaha about twenty years ago. Shemaha was the capital of the khanate of Shirván, and was known to Ptolemy as Kamachia. Situated as it was on the high road from Europe to India, this old town must at one time have possessed very considerable importance, and evidence of the fact is found in the numerous ruins of large caravanserais, churches, and public buildings. About the middle of the 16th century it was the seat of an English commercial factory, under the well-known traveller Jenkinson (compare RUSSIA, vol. xxi. p. 93), afterwards envoy extraordinary of the khan of Shirván to Ivan the Terrible. In 1742 Shemaha was taken and destroyed by Nadir Shah, who, to punish the inhabitants for their Sunnite creed, built a new town under the same name about 16 miles to the west, at the foot of the main chain of the Caucasus. The new Shemaha was at different times a residence of the khan of Shirván, but it was finally abandoned, and in its place there stands now only a village called Akhsu, whilst the old town was rebuilt, and under the Russians became capital of the government of Shemaha. In recent times Shemaha has suffered greatly from earthquakes: in 1859

it was shaken to its foundations, and in consequence the seat of the governor was removed to Baku; in 1872 (16th January) there occurred a still more terrible shock, from which the town has never recovered. Silk manufacture is the principal industry in Shemaha. In 1873 there were one hundred and thirty silk-winding establishments, owned mostly by Armenians. The industry has, however, since 1864 considerably declined.

The district of Shemaha (4426 square miles), corresponding to the ancient khanate of Shirván, lies along the southern slope of the main chain of the Eastern Caucasus. It contains a population of 97,801 inhabitants (1873), of whom 8493 are Russians, 14,838 Armenians, 73,124 Tartars, 638 Jats (old Persian tribe), and 708 Jews. As everywhere in Transcaucasia, the number of males is considerably in excess over the females (100 to 81). The district occupies a sparsely-wooded mountainous region, completely shut up on the north, and open to the dry, large, and mostly desolate valley of Kura on the south. The climate is generally healthy, rather dry and moderately warm; in the lower parts the people suffer from malarious fever. The annual rainfall in Shemaha is 14.52 inches, the mean summer temperature 73° Fahr., winter 37°. The soil, mostly of the Tertiary formation, is very rich and of considerable variety. This district occupies in Transcaucasia a foremost place in vine-growing and in the silk industry. The vine region, in the south-west of the district, is a long strip of land of breadth varying from 4 to 20 miles. The highest level of the vine is about 2500 feet above the sea. The plant is left unprotected in winter, and owing to the abundance of water occasioned by the melting snows and the heavy rains in spring, there is no need of irrigation. According to a general survey made in 1875 there are in the district 3093 vineyards, occupying a total of 1754 acres. The other products are principally wheat, cotton, and rice. In 1875 the annual vintage at Shemaha was calculated at about 62,160 gallons. The best wine is that of Matrassy. The province of Shirván, now the district of Shemaha, has been frequently the theatre of terrible struggles and bloodshed. It was conquered by the Persians in 1501 under Shah Ismail I., and it continued with brief interruptions to be a part of the Persian dominions until the fall of the Safavi dynasty.

Shemaha, the capital of Shirván, was sacked in 1712 by the Leghians; eight years later the town and the whole province were devastated by a certain Daghestani, Ala ud-Daulah, who was later recognized by Persia as the khan of Shirván. In 1724 the khanate was taken by Turkey, but ten years later Nadir Shah of Persia reconquered it after terrible ravages. On the departure of Nadir Shah soon afterwards Shirván enjoyed independence under the rule of Mahmud Seyyid, who rebuilt Shemaha. The Russians entered Shirván first in 1723, but soon retired. In 1795 they captured Shemaha as well as Baku; but the conquest was once more abandoned, and Shirván was not finally annexed to Russia until November 1805 after the voluntary submission of its last khan Mustapha.

SHENANDOAH, a borough of the United States, in Schuylkill county, Pennsylvania, 12 miles north of Pottsville, is the centre of a great coal district, more than half the total yield of the Schuylkill region being produced within 3 miles of the town. Among its buildings are fifteen churches, a theatre, and two public halls. It was founded in 1863, and its population (partly Welsh and German), which increased from 2951 in 1870 to 10,148 in 1880, is estimated at over 15,000 in 1886.

Shenandoah is also the name of a well-known tributary of the Potomac.

SHENDY, a town on the right bank of the Nile, about 130 miles south of Berber and 100 north of Khartúm, which, while its present population does not exceed 2500, was previous to its destruction by the Egyptians in 1822 a place of some 50,000 inhabitants and a station on the great caravan route between Sennâr and Egypt and Mecca. The terrible massacre perpetrated by the Egyptians was in revenge for the treacherous assassination by the native chiefs at Shendy of Ismail Pasha and his suite, who were first drugged and then burned to ashes with their huts. Shendy was the capital of a considerable district, and lies only 20 miles south of the ruins of Meroe.

SHENSTONE, WILLIAM (1714–1763), is one of the best-known minor poets of the 18th century. He owes

such distinction as he has at least as much to his choice of subjects and to the peculiarity of his life as to the felicity of his verse. Coming after a generation whose leading poets wrote for fashionable society, he shut himself up in the country, tried to follow the life Arcadian, and wrote in the spirit of a recluse. He inherited the small estate of Leasowes, in the parish of Hales-Owen, Worcestershire. He was born at Leasowes in 1714, and after passing through Pembroke College, Oxford, retired there to realize Pope's ideal in the *Ode to Solitude*, turned his paternal estate into an elaborate landscape garden, and lived there till his death in 1763. From the time that the management of the estate fell into his own hands, "he began," Johnson says, "to point his prospects, to diversify his surface, to entangle his walks, and to wind his waters,—which he did with such judgment and such fancy as to make his little domain the envy of the great and the admiration of the skilful." From this it will be seen that he did not anticipate late sentiment in his love of natural scenery; he was a true child of the Queen Anne time in his liking for "Nature to advantage dressed." And it would appear from his letters that he was not a contented recluse, but was weakly desirous of the notice of the world in his Arcadian retreat. Still there is a certain air of sincerity in his references to natural beauty and grandeur. Burns wrote of him in the preface to his first issue of poems as a poet "whose divine elegies do honour to our language." Shenstone practised the elegiac form assiduously, and some of his elegies are not without a certain imposing pomp and dignity of language, but we may safely suppose that it was the sentiments rather than the expression that captivated the peasant poet. His *Pastoral Ballads in Four Parts*, one of his earliest compositions, is also one of his best, and from its use in selections of poetry for the young is much more generally known. The triple rhythm and the simplicity of the language are happily suited to the pastoral fancy, and there is not too much of the artificial diction and imagery of such poetry. Such lines as—

Yet time may diminish the pain;  
The flower, and the shrub, and the tree,  
Which I rear'd for her pleasure in vain  
In time may have comfort for me—

come nearer Wordsworth's ideal of poetic diction than was common in the serious poetry of Shenstone's time. But his *Schoolmistress*, in the Spenserian stanza (published in 1742, and so relieved from any suspicion of being an imitation of Thomson), is the poem by which he keeps a place in literature.

SHEPTON MALLETT, a market-town of Somersetshire, England, is situated at the eastern extremity of the Mendip Hills, on the Somerset and Devon and the East Somerset Railways, 5 miles east of Wells and 20 south of Bristol. The church of Sts Peter and Paul, consisting of chancel, clerestoried nave, and aisles, is specially worthy of notice for its richly carved wooden roof, and the ancient monuments of the Mallets and Gournays, formerly possessors of the manor. The grammar school was founded in 1677, and there are also a science and art school in connexion with South Kensington, a literary institute, and a mechanics' institute. The principal public buildings are the court-house (1857), the masonic hall (1861), the prison, and the district hospital (1880). The market cross, one of the finest in the county, 51 feet in height, erected by Agnes and Thomas Buckland in 1500, was restored in 1841. About the end of last century Shepton Mallet had important cloth manufactures, and stocking-knitting was also largely carried on. The brewing of ale and porter is now one of its principal industries, and it has also rope-works and brick and tile works. In the vicinity there are

granite quarries and marble, asphalt, and lime works. The population of the urban sanitary district (area, 3572 acres) in 1871 was 5149, and in 1881 it was 5322.

Shepton, previous to the Conquest called Sepeton, was in the possession of the abbots of Glastonbury for four hundred years before it passed to Roger de Courcelle. Afterwards it came into the possession of the barons Malet or Mallet, one of whom was fined for rebellion in the reign of King John. From the Mallets it went to the Gournays, but in 1536 it reverted to the crown, and it is now included in the duchy of Cornwall. The town received the grant of a market from Edward II.

SHERBORNE, an ancient market-town of Dorsetshire, England, on the borders of Somersetshire, is situated on the southern slope of a hill overlooking the river Yeovil, on the South-Western Railway, 6 miles east from Yeovil and 118 south-west from London by rail. In 705 Sherborne was made by Ina, king of the West Saxons, the seat of a bishopric, which in 1078 was removed to Old Sarum (Salisbury). Previous to its removal a great Benedictine abbey had been founded by Bishop Roger. The minster or abbey church of St Mary possesses a Norman tower, much altered by later additions, and transepts also originally Norman, but the greater part of the building is Perpendicular. It was restored in 1848–58 at an expense of over £32,000, chiefly contributed by Mr. W. Digby and Lord Digby. Ethelbald and Ethelbert, elder brothers of Alfred, were buried behind the high altar of the church, which contains a number of interesting tombs and monuments. Near the minster are the ruins of the castle, originally the palace of the bishops. It was besieged during the wars between Stephen and Maud, and also during those of the Commonwealth, when it was held for the king in 1642 by the marquis of Hertford, and resisted a five days' siege by the earl of Bedford, but was in 1645 taken by Fairfax, when it was dismantled and reduced to ruins. The older portion of the modern mansion was built by Sir Walter Raleigh. Sherborne grammar school, occupying the site of the abbey, was founded by Edward VI. in 1550, and holds a high rank among the public schools of England. Near the abbey close is the hospital of St John, dating from the 15th century. A literary institution, now called the Macready Institution, was established in 1850. The manor of Sherborne went with the bishop's see, till in the reign of Elizabeth it was conferred on Sir Walter Raleigh. After his attainder it was bestowed by James I. on his favourite Carr, after which it passed to the Digbys, the present owners. The population of the urban sanitary district (area 411 acres) in 1871 was 5545, and in 1881 it was 5053.

SHERIDAN, the name of an Anglo-Irish family, made illustrious by the dramatist Richard Brinsley, but prominently connected with literature in more than one generation before and after his. We take the family in chronological order.

1. THOMAS SHERIDAN, D.D. (1684–1738), grandfather of the dramatist, was the first to connect the family with literature. He is chiefly known as the favourite companion and confidant of Swift during his later residence in Ireland. But enough is left of his writing to enable us to understand the secret of his attraction for a man not easily pleased. His correspondence with Swift and his whimsical treatise on the *Art of Punning*<sup>1</sup> make perfectly clear from whom his grandson derived his high spirits and delight in practical joking. The *Art of Punning* might have been written by the author of *The Critic*. Swift had a high opinion of his scholarship, and that it was not contemptible is attested by an edition of the *Satires* of Persius, printed at Dublin in 1728. When Swift came to Dublin as dean of St Patrick's, Sheridan was established there as a schoolmaster of very high

<sup>1</sup> Published in Nichols's Supplement to the works of Swift, 1779.

repute,—a fashionable schoolmaster, with a small landed patrimony in Cavan, and a bishop in the family two generations back. He so won upon the dean with his mirthfulness, wit, scholarship, good-nature, and honesty that in a short time no party made for the dean's entertainment was considered complete without Sheridan. Sheridan was his confidant in the affair of *Drapier's Letters*; it was at Quilca,<sup>1</sup> Sheridan's country cottage in Cavan, that *Gulliver's Travels* was prepared for the press; and this favoured friend was from an early period in their acquaintance one of his most confidential correspondents when at a distance. Through Swift's influence he obtained a living near Cork, but damaged his prospects of further preferment by a feat of unlucky absence of mind. Having to preach at Cork on the anniversary of Queen Anne's death he hurriedly chose a sermon with the text, "Sufficient unto the day is the evil thereof," and was at once struck off the list of chaplains to the lord-lieutenant and forbidden the castle. In spite of this mishap, for which the archdeacon of Cork made amends by the present of a lease worth £250 per annum, he "still remained," according to Lord Orrery, "a punster, a quibbler, a fiddler, and a wit," the only person in whose genial presence Swift relaxed his habitual gloom. His latter days were not prosperous, probably owing to his having "a better knowledge of books than of men or of the value of money," and he died in poverty and ill-health in 1738. The biographers of Brinsley Sheridan are disposed to dwell chiefly on the eccentricities of his ancestors, but both his grandfather and his father gave ample proof of more solid qualities than improvidence and wit. The original source of information about the schoolmaster grandfather is the father's *Life of Swift* (pp. 369-395), where his scholarship is dwelt upon as much as his improvident conviviality and simple kindness of nature.

2. THOMAS SHERIDAN (1721-1788), son of the above, born at Quilca in 1721, had a more conspicuous career than his father. This ambitious father sent him to an English school, Westminster; but he was forced by stress of circumstances to return to Dublin and complete his education at Trinity College. Then he went on the stage, and at once made a local reputation. There is a tradition that on his first appearance in London he was set up as a rival to Garrick, and Moore countenances the idea that Garrick remained jealous of him to the end. For this tradition there is little foundation. Sheridan's first appearance in London was at Covent Garden in March 1744, when, heralded in advance as the brilliant Irish comedian, he acted for three weeks in a succession of leading parts, *Hamlet* being the first. He did not appear in London again till ten years afterwards, when he was the leading actor for a season at the same theatre. In the interval he had been manager of a theatre in Dublin, had married a highly accomplished and well-born lady (see next notice), and had been driven from Dublin as a result of taking the unpopular side in politics. After his season in London he tried Dublin again, but after two years more of unremunerative management, he left for England finally in 1758. By this time he had conceived his scheme of British education, and it was to push this rather than his connexion with the stage that he crossed St George's Channel. He lectured at Oxford and Cambridge, and received honorary degrees from both universities in 1758 and 1759. But the scheme did not make way, and we find him in 1760 acting under Garrick at Drury Lane. His merits as an actor may be judged from the description of him in the *Rosciad* (l. 987) at this period. He is placed in the second rank, next to Garrick,

<sup>1</sup> Spelt Quilca, it may be noted, in the second T. Sheridan's *Life of Swift*.

but there is no hint of possible rivalry. — Churchill describes him as an actor whose conceptions were superior to his powers of execution, whose action was always forcible but too mechanically calculated, and who in spite of all his defects rose to greatness in occasional scenes. Churchill never erred on the side of praising too much, and his description may be accepted as correct, supported as it is by the fact that the actor eked out his income by giving lessons in elocution. Boswell has some amusing remarks on his success with a distinguished Scotch pupil, who used his influence to get a pension for him from Lord Bute. Sheridan, however, attracted attention chiefly by his enthusiastic advocacy, in public lectures and books, of his scheme of education, in which oratory was to play a principal part. It is generally said that he traced all the evils and perils of the Commonwealth to the neglect of oratory. But this is a caricature. There was more serious substance in his indictment of the established system of education. His main count was that it did not fit the higher classes for their duties in life, that it was uniform for all and profitable for none; and he urged as a matter of vital national concern that special training should be given for the various professions. Oratory came in as part of the special training of men intended for public affairs, but his main contention was one very familiar now,—that more time should be given in schools to the study of the English language. He rode his hobby with great enthusiasm, published an elaborate and eloquent treatise on education, and lectured on the subject in London, Oxford, Cambridge, Edinburgh, and other towns. In 1769, after a residence of some years in France, partly for economy, partly for his wife's health, partly to study the system of education there, he published a matured *Plan of Education*, with a letter to the king, in which he offered to devote the rest of his life to the execution of his theories on condition of receiving a pension equivalent to the sacrifice of his professional income. His offer was not accepted; but Sheridan, still enthusiastic, retired to Bath, and prepared a pronouncing *Dictionary of the English Language*, with a prosodial grammar. After his son's brilliant success he assisted in the management of Drury Lane, and occasionally acted. His *Life of Swift*, a very entertaining book in spite of its incompleteness as a biography, was published in 1784. He died at Margate in 1788. The year before his death he had a prospect of realizing his scheme of education in Ireland, but the high official who had sought his advice died just as the old man eagerly reached Dublin, and his hopes were disappointed.

3. FRANCES SHERIDAN (1724-1766), wife of the above, and mother of the dramatist, wrote two novels of high repute in their day, *Sidney Biddulph* and *Nourjahad*, and two plays, *The Discovery* and *The Dupe*. We have it on the authority of Moore that, when *The Rivals* and *The Duenna* were running at Covent Garden, Garrick revived *The Discovery* at Drury Lane, as a counter-attraction, "to play the mother off against the son, taking on himself to act the principal part in it." But the statement, intrinsically absurd, is inaccurate. *The Discovery* was not an old play at the time, but one of Garrick's stock pieces, and Anthony Bromville was one of his favourite characters. It was first produced in 1763. So far from being jealous of the older Sheridan, Garrick seems to have been a most useful friend to the family, accepting his wife's play—which he declared to be "one of the best comedies he ever read"—and giving the husband several engagements. Mrs Sheridan's novels and plays were all written in the last six years of her life. She died at Blois in 1766. Her maiden name was Chamberlaine. Her father was a dignitary in the Irish Church, her grandfather an English

baronet. Her marriage with the actor was the result of romantic circumstances, fully detailed in the *Memoirs of Mrs Frances Sheridan*, mentioned below.

4. RICHARD BRINSLEY BUTLER SHERIDAN (1751-1816), second son of Thomas and Frances Sheridan, was born in Dublin in September 1751. Moore records for the encouragement of slow boys that the future dramatist was "by common consent of parent and preceptor pronounced an impenetrable dunce." The plain fact is that the expression occurs in a smart letter about him and his sister, written by his mother to a schoolmaster. Mrs Sheridan wrote that she had been the only instructor of her children hitherto, and that they would exercise the schoolmaster in the quality of patience, "for two such impenetrable dunces she had never met with." One of the children thus humorously described was Richard Brinsley, and the age of the "impenetrable dunce" at the time was seven. At the age of eleven he was sent to Harrow. There, to please orthodox biographers, he gave no such sign of future eminence as is implied in taking a high place in school. Dr Parr, who was one of his masters, "saw in him vestiges of a superior intellect," but, though he "did not fail to probe and tease him," by no harassing or tormenting process could he incite the indolent boy to greater industry than was "just sufficient to save him from disgrace." But these facts about young Sheridan's determined indolence in the study of Latin and Greek should be taken in connexion with his father's peculiar theories on the subject of English education. The father's theories possibly did not encourage the son to learn Latin and Greek. Why, with his views on the unprofitableness of those studies, he sent his younger son to Harrow, is not obvious; but it was probably as much for social as for educational reasons. If so, the purpose was answered, for Sheridan was extremely popular at school, winning somehow, Dr Parr confesses, "the esteem and even admiration of all his schoolfellows," and giving a foretaste of his mysterious powers of getting things done for him by making the younger boys steal apples for his own private store and good-humouredly defying the masters to trace the theft home to him.

Sheridan left Harrow at the age of seventeen, having impressed his schoolfellows at least, who are sometimes better judges than their masters, with a vivid sense of his powers. It was probably his father's design to send him afterwards to Oxford, but the family circumstances were too straitened to permit of it, and the educationist, who had just then returned from France, and was about to launch his appeal to the king on behalf of his new plan of education, took his son home and himself directed and superintended his studies. What his plans were for his brilliant son's future we have no means of knowing, but the probability is that, if the projected academy had become an accomplished fact, he would have tried to make Richard Brinsley an upper master in some one of its numerous departments. There are traces of method in the superficially harum-scarum Irishman's courses, and it looks as if he had intended both of his sons to help him in the magnificent project from which his sanguine temperament expected such great things,—the elder, who had been with him in France, in what would now be called the modern side, and the classically educated younger in the ancient side. Meantime, pending His Majesty's resolution on the projector's offer, Brinsley, besides being trained by his father daily in elocution, and put through a course of English reading in accordance with the system, received the accomplishments of a young man of fashion, had fencing and riding lessons at Angelo's, and began to eat terms at the Middle Temple. His destination apparently was the bar, if fortune should deny him the more glorious

career of lieutenant in the new academy through which young England was to be regenerated.

As to how young Sheridan, with a cooler head to regulate his hot Irish blood, looked at his father's grand schemes, we have no record. But it is of importance to remember those schemes, and the exact stage they had now reached, in connexion with the accepted view of Sheridan's behaviour at this time, which represents him as a mere idler, hanging on at home like an ordinary ne'er-do-well, too indolent to work for any profession, simply enjoying himself and trusting recklessly to chance for some means of livelihood. The fact would seem to be that over and above whatever he did in the way of qualifying himself for a regular career—which possibly was little enough—he began from this time with fundamentally steady purpose to follow the bent of his genius. After leaving Harrow he kept up a correspondence with a school friend who had gone to Oxford. With this youth, whose name was Halhed, he had not competed for school honours; but both had dreams of higher things; and now they concocted together various literary plans, and between them actually executed and published metrical translations of Aristænetus—an obscure Greek or pseudo-Greek author brought to light or invented at the Renaissance, a writer of imaginary amorous epistles. The two literary partners translated his prose into verse which has the qualities of lightness, neatness, and wit, and is in no respect unworthy of being the apprentice-work of Sheridan.

In conjunction with the same young friend he began a farce entitled *Jupiter*. It was not completed, but the fragment is of interest as containing the same device of a rehearsal which was afterwards worked out with such brilliant effect in *The Critic*. Some of the dialogue is very much in Sheridan's mature manner. It would seem indeed that at this time, idle as he appeared, Sheridan was deliberately exercising his powers and preparing himself for future triumphs. Moore's theory is that his seeming indolence was but a mask; and extracts given from papers written in the seven years between his leaving Harrow and the appearance of *The Rivals*—sketches of unfinished plays, poems, political letters, and pamphlets—show that he was far from idle. He was never much of a reader; he preferred, as he said, to sit and think—a process more favourable to originality than always having a book in his hand; but we may well believe that he kept his eyes open, and his father's connexion with fashionable society gave him abundant opportunities. The removal of the family to Bath in 1771<sup>1</sup> extended his field of observation. Anstey's *New Bath Guide* had just been published and had greatly stimulated interest in the comedy of life at this fashionable watering-place.

Presently, too, already a favourite in Bath society from his charming manners and his skill as a writer of graceful and witty verses, the youth played a part in the living comedy which at once made him a marked man. There was in Bath a celebrated musical family—"a nest of nightingales,"—the daughters of the composer Linley, the head of his profession in the fashionable town. The eldest daughter, a girl of sixteen, the prima donna of her father's concerts, was exceedingly beautiful, and very much run after by suitors, young and old, honourable and dishonourable. In the latter class was a Captain Mathews, a married man; in the former, young Sheridan. Mathews had artfully won the girl's affections, and persecuted her with his importunities, threatening to destroy himself if she refused him. To protect her from this scoundrel's designs the younger lover, who seems to have acted at first

<sup>1</sup> Miss Lefanu corrects Moore's date of 1770, considering the difference important as bearing on Sheridan's education (*Memoirs*, p. 348).

only as a confidential friend, conceived the romantic plan of escorting Miss Linley to a nunnery in France.<sup>1</sup> After performing this chivalrous duty he returned and fought two duels with Mathews, which made a considerable sensation at the time. The youthful pair had gone through the ceremony of marriage in the course of their flight, but Sheridan chivalrously did not claim his wife, kept the marriage secret, and was sternly denied access to Miss Linley by her father, who did not consider the professionless young man an eligible suitor. Ultimately, after a courtship romantic enough to have satisfied Lydia Languish, they were openly married in April 1773.

Sheridan's daring start in life after this happy marriage showed a confidence in his genius which was justified by its success. Although he had no income, and no capital beyond a few thousand pounds brought by his wife, he took a house in Orchard Street, Portman Square, furnished it "in the most costly style," and proceeded to return on something like an equal footing the hospitalities of the fashionable world. His wife—"the celebrated Miss Linley"—was a most popular singer, but he would not allow her to appear in public. She was to be heard only at private concerts in their own house, and her beauty and accomplishments combined with her husband's wit to draw crowds of fashionable people to their entertainments. Sheridan's conduct may have been youthful pride and recklessness, the thoughtless magnificence of a strong and confident nature; all the same, it answered the purpose of deep-laid and daring policy. When remonstrated with by a friend, and asked how he found the means of supporting such a costly establishment, he is said to have answered—"My dear friend, it is my means." And so it proved, for his social standing and popularity helped to get a favourable start for his first comedy, *The Rivals*, produced at Covent Garden on the 17th January 1775.

*The Rivals* is said to have been not so favourably received on its first night, owing to its length and to the bad playing of the part of Sir Lucius O'Trigger. But the defects were remedied before the second performance, and the piece at once took that place on the stage which it has never lost. It was the last season but one of Garrick's long career, and the current story preserved by Moore is that the run upon Covent Garden was such as to alarm the veteran of Drury Lane and drive him to extraordinary exertions to counterbalance the attractions of the new play. This seems to be a myth, natural enough in the circumstances, but unfounded in fact, for we have contemporary testimony<sup>2</sup> that Drury Lane was never more crowded than during the last years of Garrick's management, when it was known that he intended to retire from the stage. There were crowded houses at both theatres. Sheridan, though bearing his brilliant success lightly, proceeded at once to take the tide at the flood. *St Patrick's Day, or the Scheming Lieutenant*, a lively farce, written it is said at the request of Clinch, in gratitude for his coming to the rescue of Sir Lucius, was produced in May. In the course of the year, with the assistance of his musical father-in-law, he wrote the comic opera of *The Duenna*; and by the end of the year, with an eye to the profits of theatrical management, he was in negotiation with Garrick for the purchase of his share of Drury Lane. *The Duenna* was the great theatrical success of the winter of 1775-76; it ran even longer than *The Beggar's Opera* had done—up to that time the longest run on record. The bargain with Garrick was completed in June 1776. The sum paid for the half-share was £35,000; of this Sheridan contributed £10,000.

<sup>1</sup> The letter from Miss Linley to a female friend, giving a minute account of her persecution by Mathews and deliverance by Sheridan, is declared by Mrs Norton to be a "foolish forgery."—*Macmillan's Magazine*, iii. 178. <sup>2</sup> See *Blackwood's Magazine*, vol. xx. p. 26.

None of his letters show where the money came from, and much wonder has been expressed on the subject; but after all it is not so very mysterious that the most brilliant dramatist of his time, in all the credit of unparalleled success, should have been able to borrow such a sum as this with the best theatrical property to offer as security. There is a tradition that Garrick advanced the money or let it lie at interest; anyhow, the loan could not have appeared at the time a very risky speculation. Two years afterwards Sheridan and his friends bought the other half of the property for £45,000.

From the first the direction of the theatre would seem to have been mainly in Sheridan's hands. It was opened under the new management in February 1777, with a purified version of Vanbrugh's *Relapse*, under the title of *A Trip to Scarborough*. This is printed among Sheridan's works, but he has no more title to the authorship than Colley Cibber to that of *Richard III*. His chief task was to remove indecencies; he added very little to the dialogue. Astonishment has been expressed that he should have fallen back on an old play instead of writing a new one. The fact is quoted among the proofs of his indolence. But the new manager, apart from the engagements of a popular man of fashion, probably found work and worry in his novel task of organization sufficient to leave him little leisure for composition. Vanbrugh's play was probably chosen for the simple reason that it suited his company. Possibly also he wished to make trial of their powers before entrusting them with a play of his own. *The School for Scandal* was produced little more than two months afterwards. Mrs Abington, who had played Miss Hoyden in the *Trip*, played Lady Teazle, who may be regarded as a Miss Hoyden developed by six months' experience of marriage and town life. The actors who played the brothers Surface had been tried in the *Trip* in opposite characters, Charles playing Townley, while Joseph played Tom Fashion. It looks as if shrewd managerial caution was responsible for the delay quite as much as indolence. The former may at least have been in Sheridan's mind the plausible excuse for the latter. There are tales of the haste with which the conclusion of *The School for Scandal* was written, of a stratagem by which the last act was got out of him by the anxious company, and of the fervent "Amen" written on the last page of the copy by the prompter, in response to the author's "Finished at last, thank God!" But, although the conception was thus hurriedly completed, we know from Sheridan's sister that the idea of a "scandalous college" had occurred to him five years before in connexion with his own experiences at Bath. His difficulty was to find a story sufficiently dramatic in its incidents to form a subject for the machinations of the character-slayers. He seems to have tried more than one plot, and in the end to have desperately forced two separate conceptions together. The dialogue is so brilliant throughout, and the auction scene and the screen scene so effective, that nobody cares to examine the construction of the comedy except as a matter of critical duty. But a study of the construction brings to light the difficulties that must have worried the author in writing the play, and explains why he was so thankful to have it finished and done with at last. After all, he worried himself in vain, for *The School for Scandal*, though it has not the unity of *The Rivals*, nor the same wealth of broadly humorous incident, is universally regarded as Sheridan's masterpiece. He might have settled the doubts and worries of authorship with Puff's reflexion "What is the use of a good plot except to bring in good things?" The vitality of a play depends mainly on its good things in the way of character, incident, and happy saying, and to a very limited extent on their relevance to any central plot.

The third and last of Sheridan's great comedies, *The Critic*, was produced in 1779, *The School for Scandal* meantime continuing to draw larger houses than any other play every time it was put on the stage. *The Critic* is perhaps the highest proof of Sheridan's skill as a dramatist, for in it he has worked out, with perfect success for all time, a theme which, often as it has been attempted, no other dramatist has ever succeeded in redeeming from tedious circumstantiality and ephemeral personalities. The laughable infirmities of all classes connected with the stage,—authors, actors, patrons, and audience,—are touched off with the lightest of hands; the fun is directed, not at individuals, but at absurdities that grow out of the circumstances of the stage as naturally and inevitably as weeds in a garden. It seems that he had accumulated notes, as his habit was, for another comedy to be called *Affectation*. But apparently he failed to hit upon any story that would enable him to present his various types of affectation in dramatic interaction. The similar difficulty in his satire against scandal, of finding sufficiently interesting materials for the scandal-mongers, he had surmounted with a violent effort. This other difficulty he might have surmounted too, if he had had leisure to "sit and think" till the happy thought came. But his energies were now called off in a different direction. His only dramatic composition during the remaining thirty-six years of his life was *Pizarro*, produced in 1799—a tragedy in which he made liberal use of some of the arts ridiculed in the person of Mr Puff. He is said also to have written more of *The Stranger* than he was willing to acknowledge.

He entered parliament for Stafford in 1780. It was not a sudden ambition to shine on a wider stage after having gained the highest honours of the theatre. Ever since leaving Harrow he had dabbled a little in politics, had sketched letters in the manner of Junius, and begun an answer to Johnson's *Taxation no Tyranny*. But he had not made any public appearance as a politician until his acquaintance with Fox led to his appearing on a Westminster platform with the great leader of opposition. Apparently he owed his election for Stafford to more substantial persuasives than the charms of his eloquence. He paid the burgesses five guineas each for the honour of representing them. It was the custom of the time. His first speech in parliament, like the first speech of a great parliamentarian of this century, between whose career and Sheridan's there are many striking points of resemblance and contrast, was a failure. But he persevered, spoke little for a time and chiefly on financial questions, soon took a place among the best speakers in the House, and under the wing of Fox filled subordinate offices in the short-lived ministries of 1782 and 1783. He was under-secretary for foreign affairs in the Rockingham ministry, and a secretary of the treasury in the Coalition ministry. This was rapid promotion for a man who owed everything to his own talents, and yet not an excessive recognition of the services of such a speaker as he is described as having proved himself at this exciting period. In debate he had the keenest of eyes for the weak places in an opponent's argument, and the happy art of putting them in an irresistibly ludicrous light without losing his good temper or his presence of mind. In those heated days of parliamentary strife he was almost the only man of mark that was never called out, and yet he had not his match in the weapon of ridicule.

The occasion that gave Sheridan a chance of rising above the reputation of an extremely effective and brilliant debater into the ranks of great parliamentary orators was the impeachment of Warren Hastings. His speeches in that proceeding were by the unanimous acknowledgment of his contemporaries among the greatest delivered in that

generation of great orators. The first was in 1787, on Burke's proposal that Hastings should be impeached. Sheridan spoke for three hours, and the effect of his oratory was such that it was unanimously agreed to adjourn and postpone the final decision till the House should be in a calmer mood. Of this, and of his last great speech on the subject in 1794, only brief abstracts have been preserved; but with the second, the four days' speech in Westminster Hall, on the occasion so brilliantly described by Macaulay, posterity has been more fortunate. The reader should, however, be cautioned against accepting the version given in a collection of Sheridan's speeches published by a friend after his death. This long passed current as a genuine specimen of Sheridan's eloquence at its best, in spite of Moore's protest that he had in his possession a copy of a shorthand writer's report, and that the two did not correspond. But Gurney's verbatim reports of the speeches on both sides at the trial were published at Sir G. Cornwall Lewis's instigation in 1859, and from them we are able to form an idea of Sheridan's power as an orator. There are passages here and there of gaudily figurative rhetoric, loose ornament, and declamatory hyperbole such as form the bulk of the incorrect version; but the strong common sense, close argumentative force, and masterly presentation of telling facts enable us to understand the impression produced by the speech at the time.<sup>1</sup>

Sheridan's long parliamentary career terminated in 1812. He could not help being to the last a conspicuous figure both in society and in parliament, but from the time of the break-up of the Whig party on the secession of Burke he was more or less an "independent member," and his isolation was complete after the death of Fox. The Begum speech remained his highest oratorical achievement. By it he is fixed in the tradition of the House as one of its greatest names. But his opinions on other great questions were given with a force and eloquence worthy of his position. When Burke denounced the French Revolution, Sheridan joined with Fox in vindicating the principle of non-intervention. He maintained that the French people should be allowed to settle their constitution and manage their affairs in their own way. But when the republic was succeeded by the empire, and it became apparent that France under Napoleon would interfere with the affairs of its neighbours, he employed his eloquence in denouncing Napoleon and urging the prosecution of the war. One of his most celebrated speeches was delivered in support of strong measures against the mutineers at the Nore. When the Whigs came into power in 1806 Sheridan was appointed treasurer of the navy, but was denied the honour of admission to the cabinet. After Fox's death he succeeded his chief in the representation of Westminster, and aspired to succeed him as leader of the party, but this claim was not allowed, and thenceforward Sheridan fought for his own hand. When the prince became regent in 1811 Sheridan's private influence with him helped to exclude the Whigs from power. For his interference on this occasion between the regent and his constitutional advisers Sheridan was severely blamed. To judge fairly as to how far he was justified in his conduct as a matter of private ethics we must take into account his previous relations with the leaders of his party, a point on which Moore, one of the disappointed placemen, is somewhat reticent. Throughout his parliamentary career Sheridan was one of the boon companions of the prince, and his champion in parliament in some dubious matters of payment of debts. But he always resented any imputation

<sup>1</sup> For a comparison of the two versions of the speech and an able exposition of the qualities of Sheridan's oratory see Mr W. Eraser Rae's *Wilkes, Sheridan, and Fox*, 1874.

that he was the prince's confidential adviser or mouthpiece. A certain proud and sensitive independence was one of the most marked features in Sheridan's parliamentary career. After a coolness arose between him and his Whig allies he refused a place for his son from the Government, lest there should be any suspicion in the public mind that his support had been bought.

His last years were harassed by debt and disappointment. At the general election of 1812 he stood for Westminster and was defeated, and turned in vain to his old constituency of Stafford. He could not raise money enough to win back their confidence. As a member of parliament he had been safe against arrest for debt, but now that this protection was lost his creditors closed in upon him, and from this time till his death in 1816 the life of Sheridan, broken in health and fortune, discredited in reputation, slighted by old associates, so enfeebled and low-spirited as to burst into tears at a compliment, yet at times vindicating his reputation as the wittiest of boon companions, is one of the most painful passages in the biography of great men. Doubtless, in any attempt to judge of Sheridan as he was apart from his works, we must make considerable deductions from the mass of floating anecdotes that have gathered round his name. It was not without reason that his granddaughter Mrs Norton denounced the unfairness of judging of the real man from unauthenticated stories about his indolent procrastination, his recklessness in money matters, his drunken feats and sallies, his wild gambling, his ingenious but discreditable shifts in evading and duping creditors. The real Sheridan was not a pattern of decorous respectability, but we may fairly believe that he was very far from being as disreputable as the Sheridan of vulgar legend. Against the stories about his reckless management of his affairs we must set the broad facts that he had no source of income but Drury Lane theatre, that he bore from it for thirty years all the expenses of a fashionable life, and that the theatre was twice burnt to the ground during his proprietorship. Enough was lost in those fires to account ten times over for all his debts. His biographers always speak of his means of living as a mystery. Seeing that he started with borrowed capital, it is possible that the mystery is that he applied much more of his powers to plain matters of business than he affected or got credit for. The records of his wild bets in the betting book of Brook's Club date in the years after the loss of his first wife, to whom he was devotedly attached. The reminiscences of his son's tutor, Mr Smyth, show anxious and fidgety family habits, curiously at variance with the accepted tradition of his imperturbable recklessness. Many of the tricks which are made to appear as the unscrupulous devices of a hunted and reckless debtor get a softer light upon them if we ascribe them to a whimsical, boyish, ungovernable love of fun, which is a well-attested feature of his character. But the real Sheridan, as he was in private life, is irrecoverably gone. Even Moore, writing so soon after his death, had to lament that he could "find out nothing about him." Moore seems to have made an imperfect use of the family papers, and it is on record that Lord Melbourne, who had undertaken to write Sheridan's life, always regretted having handed over his materials to the professional biographer. He died on the 7th of July 1816, and was buried with great pomp in Westminster Abbey.

There is, unfortunately, no complete authoritative biography of Sheridan. Mrs Norton, his granddaughter, questioned the accuracy of Moore's *Life* in many particulars, and announced her intention of writing a history of the Sheridans from the family papers, of which Moore had made very partial use. But she never carried out the project. The current statements about the father and grandfather of the dramatist are inaccurate and misleading in

several important respects. The best account of them—making allowance for a slight bias of family pride—is to be found in the *Memoirs of Mrs Frances Sheridan*, by her granddaughter, the dramatist's niece, Miss Lefanu. There is an excellent sketch of Sheridan's political career in Mr W. Fraser Rae's *Wives, Sheridans, and Fox*, and Mrs Oliphant's *Sheridan*, in the "English Men of Letters" series, interprets his character with the luminous breadth and sympathy always to be expected from her. (W. M.)

**SHERIFF, or SHEREEF.** See *MECCA*, vol. xv. p. 672. **SHERIFF.** For the office of sheriff in England, see **COUNTY.** For his jurisdiction in the revision of voters, see **REGISTRATION.** The position of the sheriff as an executive officer in the United States is very similar to that of the English sheriff. He is usually appointed by popular election. The marshals of the United States and their deputies have in each State the same powers in executing the laws of the United States as the sheriffs and their deputies have in executing the laws of the State.

So far as is known the sheriff, notwithstanding the Saxon etymology of his name (shire grieve or reeve), did not exist in Scotland before the beginning of the Norman period. In the feudal system he became the centre of the local administration of justice, the representative of the crown in executive as well as judicial business, and was always a royal officer appointed by and directly responsible to the king. The earliest sheriffs on record belong to the reigns of Alexander I. and David I., and the office was common before the death of Alexander III. In many cases it had become hereditary, the most remarkable instance being that of Selkirk, where a De Sinton held it from 1265 to 1305. The ordinance of Edward I. in 1305 recognized most of the existing officers, but rejected the hereditary character of the office by a declaration that the sheriffs were to be appointed and removable at the discretion of the king's lieutenant and the chamberlain. The inveterate tendency of feudalism reasserted itself, however, notwithstanding various attempts to check it, and an Act of James II. shows that the office had again become hereditary.

One of the consequences was that sheriffs ignorant of law required deputies to discharge their judicial duties. In the course of succeeding reigns, down to that of James VI., the jurisdiction of the sheriffs came to be much limited by grants of baronies and regalities which gave the grantees the right to hold both civil and criminal courts of less or greater jurisdiction to the exclusion of the sheriff.

The civil jurisdiction of the sheriff was originally of very wide extent, and was deemed specially applicable to questions relating to the land within the shire, but after the institution of the court of session in 1532 it became restricted, and all causes relating to property in land, as well as those requiring the action called declarator for establishing ultimate right, and most of those requiring equitable remedies, were withdrawn from it. Nor did it possess any consistorial jurisdiction, as its subjects (marriage, legitimacy, and wills) belonged to the officials of the bishop after the Reformation, when it was transferred to the commissary courts, and at a later period to the court of session. Practically, therefore, the civil jurisdiction of the sheriff fell under the head of actions concluding for payment of money and actions to regulate the possession of land. The criminal jurisdiction of the sheriff was in like manner in its origin of almost universal extent. But this was first limited to cases where the offenders were caught in or shortly after the act, afterwards to cases in which the trial could be held within forty days, and subsequently further restricted as the business of the justiciary court became more organized. The punishment of death, having by long disuse come to be held beyond the power of the sheriff, and the statutory punishments of transportation or penal servitude

never having been entrusted to him, his jurisdiction as regards crimes was usually said to be limited to those punishable arbitrarily, that is, by imprisonment, fine, or admonition.

As a consequence of the suppression of the Jacobite rising of 1745, after 1st March 1748 all heritable sheriffships were extinguished, and no sheriffship was to be thereafter granted either heritably or for life, or for any certain term exceeding one year, but this provision was not taken advantage of, and the office of sheriff-principal practically ceased, though that name is sometimes given to the sheriff-depute, 20 Geo. II. c. 43. The Act declared that there should be but one sheriff-depute or steward-depute in every shire or stewartry, who was to be an advocate of three years' standing, appointed by the crown, with such continuance as His Majesty should think fit for the next seven years, and after that period *ad vitam aut culpam*. This period was extended by 28 Geo. II. c. 7 for fifteen years, and thereafter (since 1769) the sheriff-depute has held his office *ad vitam aut culpam*. Power was given to him by 20 Geo. II. c. 43 to appoint one or more persons as substitutes during his pleasure, for whom he should be answerable. At first no legal qualification was necessary and no salary paid, but gradually the sheriff-depute delegated more legal business to the substitute, and before 1761 it had become customary for the sheriff-depute to give him some allowance. In 1787 he was placed on the civil establishment and paid by the crown; in 1825 a qualification of three years' standing (now five years by 40 and 41 Vict. c. 50) as an advocate or procurator before a sheriff-court was required (6 Geo. IV. c. 23); in 1838 he was made removable by the sheriff-depute, only with the consent of the lord president and lord justice clerk, and it was made compulsory that he should reside in the sheriffdom, the provision of 20 Geo. II. c. 43, which required the sheriff-depute so to reside for four months of each year, being repealed (1 and 2 Vict. c. 119); and in 1877 the right of appointment of the substitutes was transferred from the sheriff-depute to the crown (40 and 41 Vict. c. 50).

While the sheriff-depute has still power to hear cases in the first instance, and is required to hold a certain number of sittings in each place where the sheriff-substitute holds courts, and also once a year a small-debt court in every place where a circuit small-debt court is appointed to be held, the ordinary course of civil procedure is that the sheriff-substitute acts as judge of first instance, with an appeal under certain restrictions from his decision to the sheriff-depute, and from him to the court of session in all cases exceeding £25 in value. An appeal direct from the sheriff-substitute to the court of session is competent, but is not often resorted to.

As regards criminal proceedings, summary trials are usually conducted by the sheriff-substitute; trials with a jury either by him or, in important cases, by the sheriff-depute. The sheriff-substitute also has charge of the preliminary investigation into crime, the evidence in which, called a pre-cognition, is laid before him, and if necessary taken before him on oath at the instance of his procurator-fiscal, the local crown prosecutor.

The duties of the sheriff-depute are now divided into ministerial or administrative and judicial. The ministerial are the supervision of the accounts of the inferior officers of the sheriffdom; the superintendence of parliamentary elections; the holding by himself or his substitutes of the courts for registration of electors; the preparation of the list of persons liable to serve both on criminal and civil juries; the appointment of sheriff officers and supervision of the execution of judicial writs by them; and the striking of the "flars." He has also to attend the judges of justiciary at the circuit courts for the county or counties over which his jurisdiction extends. He is generally responsible for the peace of the county, and supervises the police establishment. He is *ex officio*

a justice of the peace and commissioner of supply. In addition to those general duties of sheriffs-depute, particular sheriffs are attached to the Board of Supervision for the Relief of the Poor, the Prison Board of Scotland, the Board of Northern Lighthouse Commissioners, and the Scottish Fishery Board.

The judicial duties of the sheriff-depute are, as regards crimes, the trial of all causes remitted by the counsel of the crown for the trial by sheriff and jury, as well as summary trials if he chooses to take them. This now means most crimes for which a maximum of two years' imprisonment (in practice eighteen months is the longest sentence imposed) is deemed sufficient, and which are not by statute reserved for the justiciary court. His civil jurisdiction is regulated by several statutes too technical for detail, but may be said generally to extend to all suits which conclude for payment of money, whatever may be the cause of action, with the exception of a few where the payment depends on status, all actions with reference to the possession of land or right in land, and actions relative to the right of succession to movable property. In bankruptcy he has a cumulative and alternative jurisdiction with the court of session, and in the service of heirs with the sheriff of chancery. Formerly the jurisdiction of the sheriff was absolutely excluded after the institution of the court of session in four important classes of action—(1) relative to property in lands or rights in lands; (2) requiring the use of peculiar forms of action, e.g., declarator, reduction, and suspension; (3) involving the exercise of the *nobile officium*, a supreme equitable jurisdiction of the court of session; and (4) for the determination of rights of status, as well as in many cases in which the proceedings rest on special statutes which gave an exclusive jurisdiction to the court of session. But large exceptions have been made by recent legislation from this exclusion. By another series of statutes, for the most part connected with local administration, as the Road, Burial Grounds, Lunacy, Public-houses, and General Police and Education Acts, the jurisdiction of the court of session is excluded either as an original court or a court of review, and the sheriff court has exclusive jurisdiction.

The courts which the sheriff holds are (1) the criminal court; (2) the ordinary civil court; (3) the small-debt court for cases under £12 in value (6 Geo. IV. c. 48); (4) the debts recovery court for cases above £12 and under £50 in value (30 and 31 Vict. c. 96); and (5) the registration court. His judgment in the criminal court is subject to review by the court of justiciary, and in the ordinary civil court and the debts recovery court by the court of session. In the small debt court it is final, except in certain cases where an appeal lies to the next circuit court of justiciary. The sheriff-substitute may competently exercise all the judicial jurisdiction of the sheriff, subject to appeal in civil cases other than small-debt cases. As regards his administrative functions he assists the sheriff generally, and may act for him in the registration and flars court, and he superintends the preliminary stage of criminal inquiries, consulting with the sheriff if necessary; but the other administrative duties of the office are conducted by the sheriff-depute in person. The salaries of sheriffs-depute vary from £2000 to £500 a year, those of sheriffs-substitute from £1400 to £500.

There is a principal sheriff-clerk appointed by the crown for each county, who has deputy clerks under him in the principal towns, and a procurator-fiscal for the conduct of criminal prosecutions for each county and district of a county, who is appointed by the sheriff with the sanction of the home secretary.

Besides the sheriffs of counties, there is a sheriff of chancery appointed by the crown, whose duties are confined to the service of heirs, with a salary of £500. (E. M.)

**SHERLOCK, THOMAS (1678-1761)**, bishop of London, the son of Dr William Sherlock, noticed below, was born at London in 1678. He was educated at Catherine Hall, Cambridge, and in 1704 succeeded his father as master of the Temple. He took a prominent part in the Bangorian controversy against Hoadly, whom he succeeded as bishop of Bangor in 1728; he was afterwards translated to Salisbury in 1734, and to London in 1738. He published against Collins's *Grounds and Reasons of the Christian Religion* a volume of sermons entitled *The Use and Intent of Prophecy in the Several Ages of the World* (1725); and in reply to Woolston's *Discourses on the Miracles* he wrote a volume entitled *The Trial of the Witnesses of the Resurrection of Jesus* (1729), which in a very short time ran through fourteen editions. His *Pastoral Letter* (1750) on "the late earthquakes" had a circulation of many thousands, and four volumes of *Sermons* which he published in his later years (1754-58) were also at one time highly esteemed. He died in 1761. A collected edition of his works in 5 vols. 8vo, by Hughes, appeared in 1830.