

twenty-two use Prévost's and those founded on it (all based ultimately on Taylor's), while ten employ methods based on Conen's.

Spanish.—The father of Spanish stenography was Don Francisco de Paula Marti, whose system, first published in 1803, still holds its ground against all rivals. The alphabet is a combination of Taylor's and Coulon's. By decree of 21st November 1802 a public professorship of shorthand was founded in Madrid, Marti being the first professor. Founded on Marti's system are those of Serra y Ginesta (1816) and Xamarillo (1811). Of the thirty-two Spanish systems enumerated by Zeibig many are merely imitations or reproductions of Marti's, and adaptations of Gabelsberger's, Stolze's, and Pitman's systems. That of Garriga y Maril (1863) has attained some popularity in Spain.

Portuguese.—Marti's son carried his father's system to Portugal, where shorthand is still entirely unknown except in the parliament and the courts. Of the twenty reporters in the senate and chamber at Buenos Ayres ten use Pitman's phonography, six Marti's, and the rest Garriga's. A shorthand society was organized in Buenos Ayres in 1880. The systems used in the Brazilian chambers are those of Silva Velho (1852) and Garriga. The reporters in the assembly of Venezuela use Marti's method.

Italian.—Italian translations and adaptations of Taylor's system succeeded one another in considerable numbers from Amanti (1809) to Bianchini (1871). Delpino's (1819) is the best. The Gabelsberger-Noe system (1863) is the only other which has gained many followers. Since 1885 the debates of the senate have been partly reported by the Michela stenographic machine with fair results.

Dutch.—J. Reijner's Dutch method (1673) was an adaptation of Shelton's and Bassuijt's (1814) of Conen's system. Sommerhausen and Bossaert (1829) received prizes from the Government for their productions. The twelve stenographers employed in the parliament use the system of Cornelis Steger (1867), president of the bureau, who translated Taylor's work and has written a history of shorthand. Gabelsberger's system was transferred to Dutch by Rietstap (1869) and Stolze's by Reinbold (1881).

Adaptations of Gabelsberger's method have come into use in the remaining countries of Europe, superseding all others.

Numerous mechanical reporting machines have been invented. The best is by Michela mentioned above. For a description of such machines see *Phonetic Journal* for 1881, p. 274; 1884, pp. 12, 34, 35; 1885, pp. 52, 268, 278, 291, 447; 1886, p. 22. They take as long to learn as a shorthand system, cannot easily be carried about, are liable to get out of order, and make a noise.

Sources of Information.—J. W. Zeibig's *Geschichte u. Literatur der Geschwind-schreibkunst* (Dresden, 1878) contains an historical sketch of the use of shorthand in ancient and modern times (especially in Germany), a full bibliography of shorthand literature in all languages, a number of lithographed specimens, and a useful index. *Circulars of Information of the Bureau of Education*, No. 2, 1884 (Washington, 1883), by J. E. Rockwell, contains a very complete and accurate bibliography of English and American shorthand publications, a chronological list of 483 English and American shorthand authors, notices on shorthand in the United States, on the employment of stenographers in the American courts, on American shorthand societies and magazines, and a beautifully engraved sheet of 113 shorthand alphabets. The *Phonetic Journal*, especially the recent volumes, contains a mass of information on shorthand subjects. Isaac Pitman's *History of Shorthand* (reprinted in the *Phonetic Journal* of 1884) reviews the principal English systems previous to phonography, and a few foreign ones. The author draws largely on F. H. Lewis's *Historical Account of the Rise and Progress of Stenography* (London, 1816). Other histories of shorthand are by F. X. Gabelsberger (prefixed to his *Anleitung zur deutschen Redzeichenkunst*, Munich, 1834), A. Fossé (prefixed to his *Cours théorique et pratique de Sténographie*, Paris, 1849), Scott de Martinville (Paris, 1849), M. Levy (London, 1862), and T. Anderson (London, 1883). Here too should be mentioned J. Heger's *Bemerkenswerthes über die Stenographie* (Vienna, 1841), mainly historical; J. Anders's *Entwurf einer allgemeinen Gesch. u. Lit. d. Stenographie* (Coeslin, 1856); R. Fischer's *Die Stenographie nach Geschichte, Wesen, u. Bedeutung* (Leipzig, 1860); Krieg's *Katechismus der Stenographie* (Leipzig, 1876); Dr Westby-Gibson's *Early Shorthand Systems* (London, 1882); T. Anderson's *Shorthand Systems*, with a number of specimens (London, 1884); T. A. Reed's *Reporter's Guide* (London, 1885) and *Leaves from the Notebook of T. A. Reed* (London, 1885). Mr C. Walford's *Statistical Review of the Literature of Shorthand* (London, 1885) contains valuable information on the circulation of shorthand books and on shorthand libraries. The largest stenographic library in the world is that of the Royal Stenographic Institute at Dresden. (I. G. N. K.-F.)

SHORTSIGHT. See OPHTHALMOLOGY.

SHOSHONG, a town in the British protectorate of Bechuanaland, the chief settlement of the Eastern Bamangwato, is situated in a glen at the foot of a range of Primary rocks on the Shoshon, a periodically flowing brook which flows eastwards into the Limpopo or Uri river. It lies about 400 miles north of Kimberley, with which it was connected by road and telegraph under Sir Charles Warren's administration. For white men—traders, hunters, and explorers—it is and must always be a place of primary importance, as three great routes, from Griqualand West, the Orange Free State, and the Transvaal, meet at this point and again branch off north to the Zambesi, north-east to the Matabele and Mashona countries, and north-west to the Western Bamangwato

and Damaraland. Shoshong is thus a main gateway between Southern and Central Africa. The site was originally chosen as easily defensible against the Matabele. Water is scarce, and the present king, Khama, has taken over a well dug by one of the traders, the use of which he permits on the payment of a water-rate of £1 per month per family. Altogether there are 7000 to 8000 native huts in Shoshong, and the population is estimated at from 15,000 to 30,000. The white inhabitants—mostly English traders—number about 20. A flourishing mission station of the London Missionary Society, preceded for many years by a station of Hermannsburg Lutheran Missionary Society was founded in 1862, and has exercised a great influence on the history of the town and tribe. There is a brick-built church, erected in 1867.

See Mackenzie, *Ten Years North of the Orange River*, 1871; Hotub, *Seven Years in South Africa*, 1881; *Further Government Correspondence respecting the affairs of the Transvaal*, 1886.

SHOVEL, SIR CLOUDESLEY (c. 1650-1707), English admiral, was according to some accounts a native of Yorkshire, but the most commonly accepted statement is that he was born of poor parents about 1650 in Clay, a fishing-village of Norfolk, where he was apprenticed to a shoemaker. Having run away to sea, he became cabin-boy on board a ship commanded by Sir Christopher Mylms. He set himself to study navigation, and, owing to his able seamanship and brave and open-hearted disposition, became a general favourite and obtained quick promotion. In 1674 he served as lieutenant under Sir John Narborough in the Mediterranean, where he burned four men-of-war under the castles and walls of Tripoli, belonging to the pirates of that place. He was present as captain of the "Edgar" at the first fight at Bantry Bay, and shortly afterwards was knighted. In 1690 he convoyed William III. across St George's Channel to Ireland; the same year he was made rear-admiral of the blue, and was present at the battle of Beachy Head on 10th July. In 1692 he was appointed rear-admiral of the red, and joined Admiral Russell, under whom he greatly distinguished himself at La Hogue, having a principal share in burning twenty of the enemy's men-of-war. Not long after, when Admiral Russell was dismissed from the service, Shovel was put in joint command of the fleet with Admiral Killigrew and Sir Ralph Delaval. In 1702 he was sent to bring home the spoils of the French and Spanish fleets from Vigo, after their capture by Sir George Rooke, and in 1704 he served under Sir George Rooke in the Mediterranean. In January 1705 he was named rear-admiral of England, and shortly afterwards commander-in-chief of the British fleets. He co-operated in the capture of Barcelona along with the earl of Peterborough in 1705, and made an unsuccessful attempt on Toulon in October 1707. When returning with the fleet to England his ship, the "Association," at eight o'clock at night on the 22d October, struck on the rocks near Scilly, and was seen by those on board the "St George" to go down in three or four minutes' time, not a soul being saved of 800 men that were on board. The body of Sir Cloudesley Shovel was cast ashore next day, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

See *Life and Glorious Actions of Sir Cloudesley Shovel*, 1707; Burnet's *Own Times*; and various discussions in *Notes and Queries*, 5th series, vols. x. and xi.

SHOVELER, formerly spelt SHOVELAR, and more anciently SHOVELARD, a word by which used to be meant the bird now almost invariably called SPOONBILL (*g.v.*), but in the latter half of the 16th century transferred to one hitherto generally, and in these days locally, known as the Spoon-billed Duck—the *Anas clypeata* of Linnæus and *Spatula* or *Rhynchaspis clypeata* of modern writers. All these names refer to the shape of the bird's bill, which, combined with the remarkably long lamella (not wholly incomparable with the "whalebone" of the toothless

Cetaceans) that beset both maxilla and mandible, has been thought sufficient to remove the species from the Linnæan genus *Anas*. Except for the extraordinary formation of this feature, which carries with it a clumsy look, the male Shoveler would pass for one of the most beautiful of this generally beautiful group of birds. As it is, for bright and variegated colouring, there are few of his kindred to whom he is inferior. His golden eye, his dark green head, surmounting a throat of pure white and succeeded by a breast and flanks of rich bay, are conspicuous; while his deep brown back, white scapulars, lesser wing-coverts (often mis-called shoulders) of a glaucous blue, and glossy green speculum bordered with white present a wonderful contrast of the richest tints, heightened again by his bright orange feet. On the other hand, the female, excepting the blue wing-coverts she has in common with her mate, is habited very like the ordinary Wild-Duck, *A. boscas* (see vol. vii. p. 505). The Shoveler is not an abundant species, and in Great Britain its distribution is local; but its numbers have remarkably increased since the passing of the Wild-Fowl Protection Act in 1876,¹ so that in certain districts it has regained its old position as an indigenous member of the Fauna. It has not ordinarily a very high northern range, but inhabits the greater part of Europe, Asia, and America, passing southwards, like most of the *Anatidæ* towards winter, constantly reaching India, Ceylon, Abyssinia, the Antilles, and Central America, while it is known to have occurred at that season in New Granada, and, according to Gould, in Australia. Generally resembling in its habits the other freshwater Ducks, the Shoveler has one peculiarity that has been rarely, if ever, mentioned, and one that is perhaps correlated with the structure of its bill. It seems to be especially given to feeding on the surface of the water immediately above the spot where Diving Ducks (*Fuliginæ*) are employing themselves beneath. On such occasions a pair of Shovelers may be watched, almost for the hour together, swimming in a circle, about a yard in diameter, their heads turned inwards towards its centre, their bills immersed vertically in the water, and engaged in sifting, by means of the long lamella before mentioned, the floating matters that are disturbed by their submerged allies and rise to the top. These gyrations are executed with the greatest ease, each Shoveler of the pair merely using the outer leg to impel it on its circular course, and to the observer the prettiest part of the performance is the precision with which each preserves its relative distance from its comrade.

Four other species of the genus *Spatula*, all possessing the characteristic light blue "shoulders," have been described:—one, *S. platata*, from the southern parts of South America, having the head, neck, and upper back of a pale reddish brown, freckled or closely spotted with dark brown, and a dull bay breast with interrupted bars; a second, *S. capensis*, from South Africa, much lighter in colour than the female of *S. clypeata*; a third and a fourth, *S. rhynchotis* and *S. variegata*, from Australia and New Zealand respectively,—these last much darker in general coloration, and the males possessing a white crescentic mark between the bill and the eye, very like that which is found in the South-American Blue-winged Teal (*Querquedula cyanoptera*), but so much resembling each other that their specific distinctness has been disputed by good authority. In these last two the sexual difference is well marked by the plumage; but in the South-American and South-African species it would seem that both male and female have much the same appearance, as is the case with so many species of the restricted genus *Anas*, though this cannot yet be asserted with certainty. (A. N.)

SHREVEPORT, a city of the United States, capital of Caddo parish, Louisiana, on the west bank of Red River and near to Sodo Lake, is the eastern terminus of the

¹ Prior to that year there was perhaps only one district in England wherein the Shoveler could be said to breed regularly, and thereto only a few pairs resorted. In 1885 there must have been a dozen counties in which it nested, and in some of them the pairs breeding might be reckoned by the score.

Texas Pacific Railroad, 327 miles by rail north-west of New Orleans, with which it has regular steamboat communication. Situated in the heart of a very fruitful cotton-growing region, it is one of the principal cotton-markets in the south-west of the United States, and is the second commercial city in the State. It exports annually about 125,000 bales of cotton, and carries on a trade likewise in hides, wool, and tallow. It has factories for carriages, cotton gins, cotton-seed oil, soap, ice, sashes and blinds, and spokes and hubs, also foundries, machine-shops, a planing mill, saw-mills, and breweries. The town possesses among public buildings a handsome court-house and a cotton exchange. Red River is spanned by an iron bridge 20 feet wide and 1200 long. Shreveport, which was incorporated in 1839, had a population of 4607 in 1870 and of 8009 in 1880; in 1886 the population was estimated at 15,000.

SHREW, a general term applied to the species of the family *Soricidæ*, order *Insectivora* (see vol. xv. p. 403), but in the British Isles more particularly to the common and to the lesser shrew (*Sorex vulgaris*, L., and *S. pygmaeus*, Pall.).

The common shrew is, in England at least, by far the commoner of the two. It is a small animal about the size of the common mouse, which it somewhat resembles in the shape of its body, tail, and feet. But here the resemblance ends, for, unlike the mouse, it possesses a remarkably long and slender muzzle, with prominent nostrils, which project far beyond the lower lip; the eyes are very small and almost concealed by the fur; the ears are wide and short, scarcely rising above the long hairs surrounding them, and are provided internally with a pair of deep folds, capable, when laid forward, of closing the entrance; the tail, which is slightly shorter than the body (without the head), is quadrangular in shape and clothed more or less densely with moderately long hairs, terminating in a short pencil (in old individuals these hairs become worn away, so that in some specimens the tail is almost quite naked); the feet are five-toed, the toes terminating in slender, acutely pointed, non-retractile claws. The dentition is very peculiar and



Common Shrew (*Sorex vulgaris*, L.).

characteristic: there are in all thirty-two teeth, tipped with deep crimson; of these twelve only (the number is characteristic, with one exception only, of the family) belong to the lower jaw; of the remaining twenty ten occupy each side of the upper jaw, and of these the first three, as they are implanted in the premaxillary bone, are termed incisors. The first incisor is a large tooth with a long anterior canine-like cusp and a small posterior one; then follow two small unicuspidate teeth; these are succeeded by three similar progressively smaller teeth, whereof the first has been called a canine and the other two premolars; the next tooth, also a premolar, is a large multicuspidate tooth; and this is followed by three molars, of which the third is small with a triangular crown. In the lower jaw we find on each side anteriorly three teeth corresponding to the seven anterior teeth above, of which the first is almost horizontal in direction, its upper surface being marked by three notches, which

receive the points of the three upper front teeth with which they come in contact when the jaws are closed; then follow two small teeth and three molars. The body is clothed with closely set uniformly long fur, very soft and dense, varying in colour from light reddish to dark brown above, rarely speckled over or spotted or even banded with white. The under surface of both the body and the tail is greyish; the basal four-fifths of all the hairs above and beneath are dark bluish grey; the hairs of the tail are less densely set and coarser. On each side of the body, at a point about one-third of the distance between the elbow and the knee, may be found, especially in the rutting season, a cutaneous gland covered by two rows of coarse bent hairs. This gland secretes a peculiar fluid, on which the unpleasant cheesy odour of the animal depends, and which is evidently also protective, rendering it secure against the attacks of many predaceous animals.

The lesser shrew (*S. pygmaeus*) is much less abundant in England and Scotland, but comparatively common in Ireland, where the common shrew has not yet been found. It appears at first sight to be a diminutive variant of that species, which it closely resembles in external form. It was said to differ in having the tail longer than the body (without the head), whereas in the common shrew the body (without the head) is longer than the tail, and in the last unicuspidate upper molar tooth being comparatively larger and more external than in the other species. But the present writer has found these characters so exceedingly liable to variation as to be almost worthless; he has therefore discovered reliable points of distinction as follows:—in *S. pygmaeus* the third upper incisor (when the teeth are unworn) is shorter, or at least not longer than the next following tooth, whereas in *S. vulgaris* it is always longer, and the length of the forearm and hand combined is very constantly 13 m.m. in the former species, while in the latter it is 17 m.m.

The habits of both the common and the lesser shrew correspond. They live generally in the neighbourhood of woods, making their nests under the roots of trees or in any slight depression, occasionally even in the midst of open fields, inhabiting the disused burrows of field-mice. Owing to their very small size, dark colour, rapid movements, and chiefly nocturnal habits they easily escape observation. They seek their food, which consists of insects, insect larvæ, small worms, and slugs, under dead leaves, fallen trees, and in grassy places. Like the mole, they are very pugnacious, and if two or more are confined together in a limited space they invariably fight fiercely, the fallen becoming the food of the victorious. They also, like the mole, are exceedingly voracious, and soon die if deprived of food; and it is probably to insufficiency of food in the early dry autumnal season that the well-known immense mortality amongst these animals at that time of the year is due. The breeding season extends from the end of April to the beginning of August, and five to seven, more rarely ten, young may be found in their nests; they are naked, blind, and toothless at birth, but soon run about snapping at everything within reach, the anterior pair of incisors in both jaws quickly piercing the gum, followed by the last pair of upper premolars, which at birth form prominent elevations in the gum.

The alpine shrew (*S. alpinus*, Schinz), restricted to the alpine region of Central Europe, is slightly longer than the common shrew and differs from it conspicuously in its much longer tail, which exceeds the length of the head and body, in the colour of the fur, which is dark on both surfaces, and in the large size of the upper antepenultimate premolar.

The water-shrew (*Crossopus fodiens*, Pall.), the third and last species inhabiting England, differs from the common shrew in being considerably larger with a shorter and

much broader muzzle, comparatively smaller eyes, and larger feet adapted for swimming,—the sides of the feet and toes being provided with comb-like fringes of stiff hairs. The tail is longer than the body (without the head) and possesses a well-developed swimming fringe of moderately long regularly ranged hairs, which extend along the middle of its flat under surface from the end of its basal third to its extremity. The fur of the body is long and very dense, varying much in colour in different individuals, and this has given rise to descriptions of many nominal species; the prevailing shades are dark, almost black, brown above, beneath more or less bright ashy tinged with yellowish; occasionally, sometimes in the same brood, we find some individuals with the under surface more or less dark coloured. In the number as well as in the shape of the teeth the water-shrew differs from the common shrew: there is a premolar less on each side above; the bases of the teeth are much more prolonged posteriorly; and their cusps are much less stained brown, so that in old individuals with worn teeth they often appear altogether white. This species resembles the otter in its aquatic habits, swimming and diving with great agility. It frequents rivers and lakes, making its burrows in the overhanging banks, from which when disturbed it escapes into the water. Its food consists of the different species of water-insects and their larvæ, small crustaceans, and probably the fry of small fishes. It is generally distributed throughout England, is less common in Scotland, but as yet it has not been recorded in Ireland.

The geographical range of the common shrew is exceedingly wide, extending eastwards through Europe and Asia (north of the Himalayas) to North America. The lesser shrew extends concomitantly through Europe and Asia to Saghalin Island; and specimens of the water-shrew have been brought from different parts of Europe and from Asia as far east as the Altai range. In Siberia the common shrew is abundant in the snow-clad wastes about the Olenek river within the arctic circle. Indeed the hardiness of this little animal, as well as of other species of red-toothed shrews, is very remarkable. In Dr C. H. Merriam's *Mammals of the Adirondack Region* we find the following note on the habits of a common North American species (*Blarina brevicauda*) of an allied genus:—"The rigors of our northern winters seem to have no effect in diminishing its activity, for it scampers about on the snow during the severest weather, and I have known it to be out when the thermometer indicated a temperature of -20° Fahr. It makes long journeys over the snow, burrowing down whenever it comes to an elevation that denotes the presence of a log or stump, and I am inclined to believe that at this season it must feed largely upon the chrysalides and larvæ of insects that are always to be found in such places." Other species of red-toothed shrews are restricted chiefly to North America, where they are found in much greater variety than in the Old World, though *Crossopus* is not represented. Its place is taken by two species of the genus *Sorex* (*S. palustris*, Richardson, east of the Rocky Mountains, and *S. hydrodromus*, Dobson, from Unalaska Island), provided, like the water-shrew, with pedal swimming fringes, but with the unfringed tail and dentition of the common shrew,—the first-named being about as large as the water-shrew, while the Unalaska species scarcely exceeds the size of the lesser shrew. Of the American forms *S. bendiri*, Merriam, is by far the largest known species of the genus. In it, as in many others inhabiting North America, the canine shows a tendency to diminish in size, which is more pronounced in *S. richardsonii*, Bachm., and in *S. vagrans*, Cooper; in *S. hoyi*, Baird, it is rudimentary, and in *S. craxfordi*, Baird, altogether absent. The diminutive *S. personatus*, Geoff., widely distributed throughout temperate North America, resembles *S. pygmaeus* in its small size. Other red-toothed shrews belonging to the allied genus *Blarina*, distinguished from *Sorex* by their dentition and by the remarkable shortness of the tail, are very common and characteristic of the North American continent. All the red-toothed shrews (except the aquatic forms) closely resemble one another in habits, and Dr Merriam has made the highly interesting discovery that the common short-tailed North American shrew supplements its insectivorous fare by feeding on beech-nuts, which will account for the generally very worn state of the teeth in this species. In destroying great numbers of slugs, insects, and insect larvæ they greatly aid the farmer in the preservation of his crops and merit protection. Although their penetrating odour renders them in a great measure safe from the attacks of rapacious mammals, they are destroyed in large numbers by nocturnal birds of prey. (G. E. D.)

SHREWSBURY, an old market-town, a municipal and parliamentary borough, and the county and assize town of Shropshire, England, is situated on a slightly elevated peninsula formed by a bend of the Severn, and on various railway lines, 30 miles south of Chester, and 163 north-west of London by the London and North-Western Railway, the distance by the Great Western being 171 miles. The Severn is crossed by three stone bridges,—the English bridge (re-erected 1774), on the east, consisting of seven semicircular arches; the Welsh bridge (re-erected 1795), of five arches, on the west; and the Kingsland bridge (opened in 1882), of iron on the bow and girder principle. The streets are hilly and irregular, but strikingly picturesque from their number of antique timber houses, among which may be mentioned that in Butcher Row formerly the town residence of the abbot of Lilleshall, and the old council-house overlooking the Severn, erected in 1502 for the residents of the council of the Welsh marches. Of the town ramparts built in the reign of Henry III. the principal remains are a small portion on the north side called the Roushill walls, and another portion on the south-west, used as a public walk, on which stands a square embattled tower. The castle built by Roger de Montgomery was dismantled in the reign of James II., but there still remain the archway of the interior gateway, the walls of the inner court, and two large round towers of the time of Edward I. Roger de Montgomery also founded in 1083 the abbey of St Peter and St Paul, which was of great extent and very richly endowed. At the dissolution it was destroyed, except part of the nave and the western tower of the church, which have been converted into a parish church, under the name of the church of the Holy Cross. The other churches of special interest are St Mary's, founded in the 10th century, a fine cruciform structure with a tower and spire 222 feet in height, displaying examples of various styles of architecture from Early Norman to Perpendicular,—the base of the tower, the nave, and the doorways being Norman, the transept Early English, and the aisles 15th century, while the interior is specially worthy of notice for its elaborate details, its stained glass, and its ancient monuments; St Julian's, originally built before the Conquest, but rebuilt in 1748, except the tower, the older portion of which is Norman and the upper part 15th century; St Alkmund's, also dating from the 10th century, but rebuilt towards the close of the 18th century, with the exception of the tower and spire; and St Giles's, dating from the time of Henry I., much altered at various periods, but still retaining its ancient nave and chancel. The old church of St Chad, supposed to have occupied the site of a palace of the princes of Powis, was destroyed by the fall of the tower in 1788, and of the ancient building the bishop's chancel alone remains. The new church of St Chad was built on another site in 1792. There are still slight remains of the abbey of Greyfriars founded in 1291, and of the Augustine friary founded in 1255. The old buildings completed in 1630 for the free grammar-school of Edward VI., founded in 1551, are now occupied by the county museum and free library, the school having been removed in 1882 to new buildings at Kingsland. Among the principal secular buildings of the town are the fine market-house in the Elizabethan style (completed according to an inscription over the northern arch in 1595), the shire hall (rebuilt in 1837, and again, after a fire, in 1883), the music-hall buildings (1840), the general market and corn exchange (1869), the working-men's hall (1863), the drapers' hall (an old timbered structure dating from the 16th century), the theatre (1834), and the post-office (1877). The principal benevolent institutions are the county infirmary (1747), Millington's hospital (1734), and the eye, ear, and throat

hospital (1881). A monument to Lord Clive was erected in the market-place in 1860, and a Doric memorial pillar to General Lord Hill in 1816 at the top of the Abbey Foregate. The town racecourse occupies a portion of the "Soldiers' Piece," where Charles I. addressed his army in 1642. To the south-west of the town is a fine park, 23 acres in extent, known as the Quarry, adorned by a beautiful avenue of lime trees. Formerly Shrewsbury was one of the principal marts for Welsh flannel, but this trade has now in great part ceased. Glass-staining, the spinning of flax and linen yarn, iron-founding, brewing, malting, the preparation of brawn, and the manufacture of the well-known Shrewsbury cakes are now the principal industries. The population of the municipal and parliamentary borough (area, 3674 acres) in 1871 was 23,406, and in 1881 it was 26,478.

Shrewsbury, anciently called Pengwern, was founded in the 5th century as a defence against the inroads of the Saxons, and became the seat of the princes of Powis. After its conquest by the Saxons its name was changed to Scrobbesbyrig, altered gradually into Sloppesbury, Shrewsbury, and Salop. It became one of the principal cities of the Saxon kingdom, and a mint was established there by Athelstan about 925. After the Norman Conquest it was included in the earldom of Shrewsbury bestowed by William I. on Roger de Montgomery, who erected a strong castle on the site of the ancient Saxon fortress. But in 1067 it was besieged by Owen Gwynedd, prince of Wales, till relieved by William, who marched specially to its assistance from York. On the rebellion of Robert de Belesme, son of the first earl of Shrewsbury, the castle and town were attacked by Henry I. and surrendered in 1102. During the wars of the next two centuries the town was frequently attacked and plundered by the Welsh, being captured by Llewelyn in 1215, surrendered to the English in 1221, plundered by the earl of Pembroke in 1223, burnt by Llewelyn ap Iorwerth in January 1234, taken by Simon de Montfort in 1264, and restored to the crown in 1265. In 1267 Henry III. assembled his army there, to threaten the Welsh, but peace was restored without bloodshed, after which he strengthened its fortifications. Edward I. in 1277 made it the seat of his government, and removed to it the Courts of Exchequer and King's Bench. In 1283 he held a parliament there for the trial of David, the last of the royal princes of Wales, who was dragged through the streets of the town and afterwards hanged and quartered. At a parliament held in Shrewsbury in January 1393 Richard II. assumed the title of Earl of Chester. Near the town was fought, 23d July 1403, the battle of Shrewsbury, described in Shakespeare's *Henry IV.*, when the king defeated the earl of Northumberland with great slaughter, Hotspur, the earl's son, being among the slain. It became the headquarters of Charles I., 20th September 1642, but was taken by the Parliamentarians in February 1645. The town from the reign of William I. to that of James II. received no less than thirty-two charters, its first governing charter being obtained from Richard I. It returned two members to parliament from the reign of Edward I. until 1885, when it was allowed only one.

See Phillips, *History and Antiquities of Shrewsbury*, 1779; Owen and Blakenay, *History of Shrewsbury*, 1825; Pidgeon, *Memorials of Shrewsbury*, 1857.

SHREWSBURY, EARLS OF. See TALBOT.

SHRIKE, a bird's name so given by Turner (1544), but solely on the authority of Sir Francis Lovell, for Turner had seen the bird but twice in England, though in Germany often, and could not find any one else who so called it. However, the word¹ was caught up by succeeding writers; and, though hardly used except in books—for Butcher-bird is its vernacular synonym—it not only retains its first position in literary English, but has been largely extended so as to apply in general to all birds of the Family *Laniidae* and others besides. The name *Lanius*, in this sense, originated with Gesner² (1555), who thought that the birds to which he gave it had not been mentioned by the ancients. Sundevall, however, considers that the *Malacocorynaeus* of Aristotle was one of them, as indeed Turner had before suggested, though repelling the latter's

¹ Few birds enjoy such a wealth of local names as the Shrikes. M. Rolland (*Faune Pop. de la France*, ii. pp. 146-151) enumerates upwards of ninety applied to them in France and Savoy; but not one of these has any affinity to our word "Shrike."

² He does not seem, however, to have known that Butcher-bird was an English name; indeed it may not have been so at the time, but subsequently introduced.

supposition that Aristotle's *Tyrannus* was another, as well as Belon's reference of *Collyrion*.

The species designated Shrike by Turner is the *Lanius excubitor* of Linnaeus and nearly all succeeding authors, nowadays commonly known as the Greater Butcher-bird, Ash-coloured or Great Grey Shrike, a bird which visits the British Islands pretty regularly, though not numerously, in autumn or winter, occasionally prolonging its stay into the next summer; but it has never been ascertained to breed there, though often asserted to have done so. This is the more remarkable since it breeds more or less commonly on the Continent from the north of France to within the Arctic Circle. Exceeding a Song-Thrush in linear measurements, it is a much less bulky bird, of a pearly gray above with a well-defined black band passing from the forehead to the ear-coverts; beneath it is nearly white, or—and this is particularly observable in Eastern examples—barred with dusky. The quill-feathers of the wings, and of the elongated tail, are variegated with black and white, but are mostly of the former, though what there is of the latter shows very conspicuously, especially at the base of the remiges, where it forms either a single or a double patch.¹ Much smaller than this is the Red-backed Shrike, *L. collurio*, the best-known species in Great Britain, where it is a summer visitor, and, though its distribution is rather local, it may be seen in many parts of England and occasionally reaches Scotland. The cock is a slightly bird with his grey head and neck, black cheek-band, chestnut back, and pale red breast, while the hen is ordinarily of a dull brown, barred on the lower plumage. A more highly coloured species is called the Woodchat, *L. auriculatus* or *rufinus*, with a bright bay crown and nape, and the rest of its plumage black, grey, and white. This is an accidental visitor to England, but breeds commonly throughout Europe. All these birds, with many others included in the genus *Lanius*, which there is no room here to specify, have, according to their respective power, the very remarkable habit (whence they have earned their opprobrious name) of catching insects, frogs, lizards, or small birds and mammals, and of spitting them on a thorn or of fixing them in a forked branch, the more conveniently to tear them in pieces and eat them.

The limits of the Family *Laniidae* have been very variously regarded, and agreement between almost any two systematists on this point seems at present out of the question. The latest synopsis is that by Dr Gadow (*Cat. B. Brit. Museum*, viii. pp. 88-321), who frankly states that it is "quite impossible to give a concise diagnosis of what we are to understand by" the Family. For his purpose he makes it to include about 250 species and divides it into five sub-families:—*Gymnorhininae*, *Malacototinae*, *Pachycephalinae*, *Laniinae*, and *Vireoninae*. Of these doubts may be entertained as to the affinity of the first and especially of the last. He, but for the crude plan to which he was compelled to conform, would not have separated *Strepera* from *Gymnorhina*; but the former had

¹ According to Willughby, Rae, and Charleton, it was in their day called in many parts of England "Wierangle" (Germ. *Wargengel* and *Warger*, the Strangler); but it is hard to see how a bird which few people in England could know by sight should have a popular name, though Chaucer had used it in his *Assemblee of Foules*.

² On this character great store has been laid by some recent writers, who maintain that the birds presenting only a single patch, with some other minor distinctions, as the barred breast above mentioned, come from the far-East and deserve specific recognition as the *Lanius major* of Pallas. But it is admitted that every intermediate form occurs, and Prof. Collett has now shown (*Ibis*, 1886, pp. 30-40) that the typical *L. excubitor* and typical *L. major* may be found in one and the same brood, and also that this occasional divergence is due neither to age nor sex. That it does depend to some extent on locality is allowed; for, though examples with the single patch (*i.e.*, *L. major*) occasionally reach Great Britain, it is asserted that nearly all the specimens from Eastern Siberia are so marked. But it is also found that by almost insensible degrees other (and sometimes more important) distinctions are manifested, and the extreme terms of the several series have been exalted to the rank of "species"—or at least local races. These are too many to be here enumerated, but it may be mentioned that the Great Grey Shrike of North America, which ordinarily has the lower plumage strongly barred, and is usually known as *L. borealis*, seems to be only one of these divergent forms, though perhaps the most divergent, as might be expected from the wholly distinct area it occupies. Yet occasionally examples occur in the Old World, which there is no reason to suppose have an American origin, indistinguishable from the typical *L. borealis*, and an uninterrupted series from one extreme to the other can be found. The differences when compared with those observable in other animals are, as a whole, too slight to justify the epithet "polymorphic" to *L. excubitor* as a species; but enough has been said to show that it indicates a tendency in that direction.

been already included, to the exclusion of the latter, among the *Corvidae*, and even placed among the normal *Corvidae*. The need of exercising reserve on this matter has been before stated (CROW, vol. vi. p. 617); but the number of ornithologists who think that these two genera should be placed in different Families must be small. The view taken by Prof. Parker seems to be the most reasonable: these genera—with others doubtless and most of them Australian—are morphologically inferior to the *Corvidae*, and perhaps deserve some such designation as that of "*Noto-Coracomorpha*" suggested by him (*Trans. Zool. Society*, ix. p. 327). At the same time their relationship to the *Laniidae* appears to be evident, and they may perhaps be best regarded as the less-altered descendants of an old type, whence both the true Crows and the true Shrikes have sprung, each to develop into higher morphological rank, and by the way to throw out numerous other branches. As to the Vireos it would seem almost certain that they have little or no connexion with the *Laniidae*. (A. N.)

SHRIMP, the name applied to two species of Crustaceans commonly used as food in Great Britain. One kind after boiling is brown in colour, the other bright red. The brown kind belongs to the species *Crangon vulgaris*, the red to the species *Pandalus annulicornis*. Both these species belong to the sub-order *Decapoda*, and to that division of it which is distinguished by a well-developed abdomen or tail, and called *Macroura*. The Crustaceans placed in this division have five pairs of limbs adapted for crawling on the sea-bottom; usually the anterior one or more pairs of these five are chelate or pincer-formed. In front of the ambulatory limbs are six pairs of limbs whose function is to assist in the conveyance of food to the mouth, three pairs of maxillipeds, two pairs of maxillae, and a pair of mandibles. In front of these, again, are two pairs of antennae and a pair of eyes. The latter are held by some naturalists to represent a pair of limbs, but evidence exists which is in opposition to this view. Behind the ambulatory limbs are six segments of the body, each bearing a pair of limbs adapted for swimming. The sixth pair of these abdominal limbs are larger than the rest and expanded, extending backwards in the same plane as the flattened terminal segment of the body or telson, and the three together form a powerful organ of locomotion by which a rapid backward movement of the whole body in the water is produced. The genus *Crangon* is the type of a family, the *Crangonidae*. The most conspicuous characteristic of the genus is the shape of the first pair of ambulatory limbs. These differ less from the rest than is usually the case, and the terminal pincer apparatus is but slightly developed. The terminal joint is small, and the projection of the second joint against which it acts is still smaller, so that the cutting edges of the pincer are transverse to the rest of the limb. The second pair of limbs have also a terminal pincer apparatus, and both the second and the third are slender. The fourth and fifth pairs are short and thick. The rostrum, the median projection of the anterior part of the carapace, is rudimentary. The line joining the attachments of the two pairs of antennae are transverse to the axis of the body. The abdomen is large. There are seven branchiae on each side.

The specific characters of *C. vulgaris*, Fabr., are the smoothness of the dorsal surface, the carapace presenting only three small spines, one median in the gastric region and one on each side on the branchiostegite. The second pair of ambulatory limbs are nearly as long as the third. The size of the adult animal is about 2½ inches. The species is abundant on sandy shores at nearly all parts of the British and Irish coasts, and is captured by nets which have a semicircular mouth, and are attached to a pole wielded by a fisherman wading in the water at ebb-tide. The common shrimp is an exception to the general rule that the cuticle of Crustaceans is either red in the living animal or becomes so on boiling. The cuticle of *C. vulgaris* in the living state is light brown or almost white, and the animal,

is somewhat translucent. The colour closely approximates to that of the sand on which the animal is found. After boiling the cuticle assumes its well-known brown colour. Several other species of *Crangon* are known on the British shores, but none of them are as abundant as *C. vulgaris*, and they are not captured as food. *C. vulgaris* is common on the east coast of North America from North Carolina to Labrador; in the neighbourhood of New York it is used as food. The species also occurs on the west coast of America from San Diego to Alaska, and is commonly eaten at San Francisco, as also is another species, *Crangon franciscorum*, Stimpson.

The genus *Pandalus*, first defined by Leach in his *Malacologia Britannica*, is chiefly distinguished by the great length of the second pair of antennae, which are longer than the whole body, the presence of a long spiny rostrum curved upwards, the total absence of pincers on the first pair of ambulatory limbs, and the great length of the second of these limbs on the left side. The ambulatory limbs are all long and slender, and the first pair are not thicker than the rest. The second pair are provided with a very small pincer apparatus. The third somite of the abdomen is large and projects upwards, so that the body has a hump-backed appearance. The serrated upper edge of the rostrum extends backwards along the median line of the carapace, half way to its posterior border. The specific characters of the species *Annulicornis* are that the rostrum is equal in length to the carapace, and that its anterior half is destitute of teeth above, with the exception of one small tooth near the apex. This species is not so abundant as *C. vulgaris* and is an inhabitant of deeper water. It is taken usually for the market on the east and south coasts of Britain, but is widely distributed, occurring in Scotland, Ireland, Shetland, and Iceland. In colour it is when alive of a reddish grey with spots of deeper red; when boiled it is of a uniform deep red. This species is sometimes confounded with the common prawn; but it never reaches the size of the prawn, its adult length being 2 to 2½ inches. *P. annulicornis* is the only species of the genus occurring in Great Britain. The common prawn when adult is above 4 inches in length. It belongs to the species *Palaemon serratus*. In *Palaemon* the second pair of antennae are long, as in *Pandalus*, but the first pair are much larger in the former than in the latter. In *Palaemon* both of the first two pairs of ambulatory limbs are didactyle or pincer-formed; the second pair are stronger than the first, and the left not longer than the right. Some of the smaller species of *Palaemon* are used as food and sometimes called shrimps. At Poole in Dorsetshire, according to Prof. Bell's *British Crustacea*, *Palaemon squilla*, Fabr., *P. varians*, Leach, and *P. leachi*, Bell, are all taken, and sold as cup-shrimps.

SHROPSHIRE.

SHROPSHIRE, or SALOP, an inland county of England, on the borders of Wales, lies between 52° 20' and 53° 4' N. lat. and 2° 17' and 3° 14' W. long., and is bounded N. by Cheshire and an interpolated portion of Flint, E. by Stafford, S.E. by Worcester, S. by Hereford, S.W. by Radnor, W. by Montgomery, and N.W. by Denbigh. The total area in 1880 was 844,565 acres, or about 1319 square miles.

Towards the west Shropshire partakes of the hilly scenery of the neighbouring Wales, from which several ranges are continued into it. South of the Severn on the borders of Montgomery the Breidden Hills of Lower Silurian formation rise abruptly in three peaks, of which Cefn-y-Castell, about 1300 feet high, is in Shropshire; and in the south-west there is a broad range of rough rounded hills known as Clun Forest, extending from Radnor. South and west of the Severn there are four other principal chains of hills extending from south-west to north-east—the Long Mynd (1674 feet), to the west of Church Stretton, of Cambrian formation; the Caradoc Hills, a little to the north, which cross the Severn, terminating in the isolated sugar-loaf peak of the Wrekin (1320 feet); the Wenlock Edge, to the east of Church Stretton, a sharp ridge extending for 20 miles, and in some places rising above 1000 feet; and the Cleve Hills, near the south-eastern border (Brown Cleve Hill, 1805 feet; Titterstone Cleve Hill, 1750 feet). The remainder of the county is for the most part pleasantly undulating, finely cultivated, and watered by numerous rivulets and streams. It may be said to lie in the basin of the Severn, which enters the county near its centre from Montgomery, and flows eastwards to Shrewsbury, after which it turns south-eastwards to Ironbridge, and then continues in a more southerly direction past Bridgnorth, entering Worcester near Bewdley. It is navigable

to Shrewsbury and has connexion with the Donington, the Shropshire Union, the Shrewsbury, the Birmingham and Liverpool, and the Chester and Ellesmere Canals. Its principal tributaries within the county are—from the right the Meol (which receives the Rea), the Coum, the Mor, and the Borle, and from the left the Vyrnwy (dividing Shropshire from Montgomery), the Perry, the Tern (which receives the Roden), the Bell, and the Worf. The Dee touches the north-western boundary of the county with Denbigh. In the south the Teme, which receives the Clun, the Onny, and the Corve, flows near the borders of Hereford, which it occasionally touches and intersects. Of the numerous lakes and pools the largest is Ellesmere (116 acres) near the borders of Denbigh. The Severn forms the boundary between the Old and the New Red Sandstone formations, which constitute the principal strata of the county. The Old Red Sandstone rocks lying to the south and west of the river are bounded and deeply interpenetrated by Cambrian and Silurian strata. There are five separate coal-fields within the county,—the Forest of Wyre, Coalbrookdale, Shrewsbury, Cleve Hills, and Oswestry. The Forest of Wyre field on the borders of Worcester rests directly on the Devonian rocks, and has a great thickness of measures, but comparatively few workable seams. The Coalbrookdale embraces an area of 28 square miles, and is triangular in form, with its base resting on the Severn and its northern apex at Newport. On its western side it is bounded partly by a great fault, which brings in the New Red Sandstone, and partly by the Silurian strata; on its eastern side it passes beneath the Permian strata; and it is supposed that the productive measures are continued towards South Staffordshire. Its general dip is eastwards, and the strata have a vertical thickness of over 1000 feet. The organic remains include fishes, crustaceans, and molluscs. Mingled with the coal strata are several valuable courses of ironstone. The original quantity of coal in the field is estimated to have been about 43 million tons, of which there are about 12 millions now remaining. Neither the Shrewsbury nor the Cleve Hills fields are of much value. The Oswestry field is small, but has some workable seams adjoining the extensive field of Denbigh. In 1884 850,000 tons of coal, valued at £286,000, were raised in Shropshire from fifty-five collieries, while 198,700 tons of iron were obtained valued at £109,285. Iron-casting forms one of the most important industries of the county. Lead mining is carried on with some success on the Stiperstones, 3788 tons of lead ore being raised in 1884. The other principal minerals are iron pyrites (500 tons in 1884, valued at £250), barytes (4939 tons, worth £7395), and fire-clay (56,000 tons, worth £8475). There are also a large number of stone and lime quarries.

Manufactures.—With the exception of iron, the manufactures of the county are comparatively unimportant. Bricks and tiles, earthen and china ware, and tobacco pipes are largely made in various districts. At Shrewsbury there are linen, yarn, and thread mills, and in several districts small paper-mills.

Agriculture.—There is much fertile land suitable for all kinds of culture, the richest soil being that in the vicinity of the Severn, including the Vale of Shrewsbury. Much of the hilly ground, including Wenlock Edge and the Cleve Hills, admits of tillage; but a portion of the western mountainous region is of comparatively small value even for the pasturage of sheep. Out of a total area of 844,565 acres there were 716,599 in 1885 under culture, of which 150,085 were under corn crops, 61,101 under green crops, 426,859 under permanent pasture, 71,470 under rotation grasses, and 6978 fallow. The area under woods in 1881 was 45,641 acres, and in 1885 the area under orchards was 4015. Of corn crops the areas under wheat and barley were in 1885 nearly equal, 53,161 and 53,300 acres respectively, while that under oats amounted to 34,445 acres, rye to 848, beans 4648, and pease 3683. Nearly five-sixths of the area under green crops were occupied by turnips and swedes, which covered 47,119 acres, the area under potatoes being 6874, and that under mangold wurzel 4355. Horses in 1885 numbered 32,323, of which 19,377 were used solely for purposes of agriculture; cattle

(chiefly Herefords) 162,932, of which 60,976 were cows and heifers in milk or in calf and 69,865 animals under two years old; sheep (mainly Shropshire) 438,664; pigs 61,067; and poultry 369,890. In the northern districts Cheshire cheese is largely made. According to the latest *Landowners' Return for England* Shropshire was divided among 12,119 owners, possessing 791,941 acres at an annual value of £1,484,833, or an average value of about £1, 16s. 8d. per acre. There were 7281 proprietors or about 60 per cent. who possessed less than 1 acre, and 19,675 acres were common land. The following possessed over 8000 acres each—Earl of Powis, 26,986; Duke of Cleveland, 25,604; Earl Brownlow, 20,233; Duke of Sutherland, 17,495; Lord Hill, 16,290; Lord Forester, 14,891; Lord Windsor, 10,846; Earl of Bradford, 10,515; Sir V. R. Corbet, 9489; W. O. Foster, 8547; W. L. Childe, 8430; Lord Boyne, 8424; I. D. Corbet, 8118.

Administration and Population.—Shropshire comprises 14 hundreds and the municipal boroughs of Bridgnorth (population, 5885 in 1881), Ludlow (5035), Oswestry (7847), Shrewsbury (26,478), and Wenlock (18,442). For parliamentary purposes the county, which was formerly shared between North and South Shropshire, was in 1885 divided into four separate divisions,—Mid (Wellington), North (Newport), South (Ludlow), and West (Oswestry), each returning one member. At the same time the boroughs of Bridgnorth, Wenlock, and Ludlow were merged in the county divisions to which they severally belong; but Shrewsbury continues to return one member. Shropshire contains also the following urban sanitary districts:—Broseley (population, 4458 in 1881), Dawley (9200), Ellesmere (1875), Madeley (9212), Much Wenlock (2321), Newport (3944), Wellington (6217), and Whitchurch and Dodington (3756). The county has one court of quarter sessions, and is divided into nineteen special sessional divisions. All the boroughs have separate courts of quarter sessions and commissions of the peace. The county contains 252 civil parishes with parts of six others. Ecclesiastically it is in the dioceses of Hereford, Lichfield, and St Asaph. The population (240,959 in 1861) in 1881 was 248,014 (124,157 males and 123,857 females). The number of persons to an acre was 0.29 and of acres to a person 3.41.

History and Antiquities.—The British tribes inhabiting Shropshire at the time of the Romans were named by them the *Ordovices* and the *Cornavii*. It was within its boundaries that Caractacus (Caradoc) struggled against Vespasian in 51 A.D. A connected chain of military works was erected by him over the southern and western districts of the county, the most important fortresses being Caer Caradoc (where he is said to have made his last stand), occupying a commanding position in the forest of Clun, and the earthwork of Hên Dinas at Old Oswestry, consisting of four or five concentric circles, still well marked. The Roman Watling Street entered Shropshire near Weston-under-Lizard in Stafford and passed in an oblique line to Leintwardine in Hereford. Various other Roman roads diverged from it in different directions. Wroxeter, a little to the west of the Wrekin, occupies the site of the ancient Roman city *Uriconium*, of which a portion of the wall, originally 3 miles in circumference, still remains. Explorations made on the site of the city have revealed many interesting features of its construction, and have led to the discovery of an immense variety of remains. By some authorities the Roman *Mediolanum* is placed near Drayton and *Rutunium* near Wen; but the evidence in both cases is doubtful. Throughout Shropshire there are many remains of Roman camps. Under the Romans it was included in the province of *Flavia Caesariensis*. After their departure it was annexed to the kingdom of the Saxons by Offa, who about 765 caused Watt's dyke to be erected to guard against the incursions of the Welsh, and later erected parallel with it, 2 miles to the west, the entrenchment known as Offa's dyke, which, extending from the Wye near Hereford to the parish of Mold in Flintshire, forms in some places a well-defined boundary between Shropshire and Montgomery. The greater part of the history of Shropshire is included under that of *SHREWSBURY* (*q.v.*). There are several important old ecclesiastical ruins, including Wenlock priory, once very wealthy, said to have been founded by St Milburg, grand-daughter of Penda, king of the Mercians, as a college for secular priests, and changed into a priory for Cluniac monks by Roger de Montgomery about 1080; Lilleshall abbey, for Augustinian canons, founded in the reign of Stephen; Shrewsbury abbey, founded in 1083 in honour of St Peter and St Paul; Buildwas abbey, one of the finest ruins in the county, founded in 1135 for Cistercians by Roger de Clinton, bishop of Chester; and Haughmond abbey, for Augustinian canons, founded by William Fitzalan about 1138. Other remains of less consequence are those of the convent of White Ladies or St Leonard's, a Norman structure, said to have been founded in the reign of Richard I. or John; slight traces of Wombridge priory, for Augustinian canons, founded before the reign of Henry I.; Alberbury priory, for Benedictines, founded by Fulk Fitzwariu between 1220 and 1230; and Chirbury priory, founded towards the close of the 12th century. The castles of Bridgnorth (see *BRIDGNORTH*), Ludlow, and Shrewsbury are referred to in the notices of these towns, and in addition to these may be mentioned Clun Castle, which after a long siege was taken

and burnt by the Welsh prince Rees about 1196, and Boscobel House, near which Charles II. is said to have been sheltered in an oak. See Hartshorne, *Salopia Antiqua*, 1841; Eytton, *Antiquities of Shropshire*, 12 vols., 1854-60; Anderson, *History of Shropshire*, 1869; Blakeway, *Shriffs of Shropshire*; Duke, *Antiquities of Shropshire*. (T. F. H.)

SHROVE TUESDAY, the day preceding Ash Wednesday, or the first day of Lent, was so called as the day on which "shrift" or confession was made. Compare *CARNIVAL*. **SHUMLA** (Bulg. *Shumen*, Turk. *Shumna*), a fortified town of Bulgaria, 58 miles south-south-west of Silistria and in that pashalic and 50 west of Varna. The town is built within a cluster of hills which curve round it on the west and north in the shape of a horse-shoe. A rugged ravine intersects the ground longitudinally within the horse-shoe ridge. From Shumla roads radiate northwards to the Danubian fortresses of Rustchuk and Silistria and those in the Dobrudja, southwards to the passes of the Balkans, and eastwards to Varna and Baltchik. Shumla is therefore one of the most important military positions to the north of Turkey, while it ranks as the third largest town in Bulgaria. Spread over a large extent of ground, each house mostly isolated in the midst of its own stables and cow-houses, Shumla has the appearance of a vast village. A broad street and rivulet divide the military or upper quarter, Gorni-Mahlé, from the lower quarter, Dolni-Mahlé. The latter, dirty and unhealthy, intersected by a labyrinth of lanes, is inhabited mostly by Christians and Jews. The Armenians possess a small church, and each of the two Bulgarian quarters has its temple. The houses of the Gorni-Mahlé, occupied chiefly by Turks, stand pleasantly embowered each in its flower and fruit garden. Gorni-Mahlé has preserved the old church of the Resurrection. In the Dolni-Mahlé is the new church of St Cyril, a fine basilica adorned with a peristyle. The Bulgarian community possesses two boys' and two girls' schools, giving instruction superior to that obtainable at the primary Turkish school. In the upper part of the town is the magnificent mausoleum of Jezairli Hassan Pasha, who in the 18th century enlarged the fortifications of Shumla. The principal mosque, with a cupola of very interesting architecture, forms the centre of the Moslem quarter. At the farther end of the town, isolated on a hill, is a large military hospital. The population of Shumla in 1881 was 23,093, exclusive of the garrison. The town is renowned for its manufacture of red and yellow slippers, ready-made clothes, richly embroidered dresses for females, and its copper and tin wares. It also rears silk-worms, spins silk, and carries on an important trade in grain and wine. The branch railway from Shumla to Kaspidjan, 9½ miles, to connect the town with the Rustchuk-Varna Railway, though commenced in 1870, was not finished in 1886.

In 811 Shumla was burned by the emperor Nicephorus, and in 1087 was besieged by Alexius. In 1388 the sultan Murad I. forced the castle to surrender; and thence till the 17th century Shumla disappears from history. In the 18th century it was enlarged and fortified. Three times—1774, 1810, and 1828—it was unsuccessfully attacked by Russian armies. The Turks consequently gave it the name of Gazi ("Victorious"). But on 22d June 1878 Shumla capitulated to the Russians. The treaty of Berlin stipulated the demolition of the fortifications; but this article has not been executed, and Bulgarian troops garrison the fort.

See F. Kanitz, *La Bulgarie Danubienne* (1882); H. C. Barkley, *Bulgaria before the War* (1877), and *Between the Danube and Black Sea* (1876); S. G. B. and C. A. St Clair, *Residence in Bulgaria* (1869); J. L. Farley, *New Bulgaria* (1880); and J. G. Minchin, *Bulgaria since the War* (1880).

SHUSHA, a town, formerly a fortress, of Russia, in the Caucasian government of Elisabethpol, lies in 39° 46' N. lat. and 46° 25' E. long., 230 miles south-east of Tiflis, on an isolated rocky eminence, 3860 feet high. The town, which is accessible only on one side, occupies but a small part of the plateau, whence there is a splendid view over the surrounding mountain gorges and defiles. In 1873 the population was 24,552 (males 13,666, females 10,886), of whom 13,504 were Armenians and 10,804