

were allowed to retain all their privileges. Meanwhile fresh discords were brewing among the plebeians at the head of affairs.

The conspiracy of the Pazzi in 1478 led to a war in which Florence and Milan were opposed to the pope and the king of Naples, and which was put an end to by the peace of 13th March 1480. Thereupon Alphonso, duke of Calabria, who was fighting in Tuscany on the side of his father Ferdinand, came to an agreement with Siena and, in the same way as his grandfather Alphonso, tried to obtain the lordship of the city and the recall of the exiled rebels of 1456. The *noveschi* (to whose order most of the rebels belonged) favoured his pretensions, but the *reformatori* were against him. Many of the people sided with the *noveschi*, rose in revolt on 22d June 1480, and, aided by the duke's soldiery, reorganized the government to their own advantage. Dividing the power between their two orders of the nine and the people, they excluded the *reformatori* and replaced them by a new and heterogeneous order styled the *aggregati*, composed of nobles, exiles of 1456, and citizens of other orders who had never before been in office. But this violent and perilous upset of the internal liberties of the republic did not last long. A decree issued by the Neapolitan king (1482) depriving the Sieneese of certain territories in favour of Florence entirely alienated their affections from that monarch. Meanwhile the *monte* of the nine, the chief promoters of the revolution of 1480, were exposed to the growing hatred and envy of their former allies, the *monte del popolo*, who, conscious of their superior strength and numbers, now sought to crush the *noveschi* and rise to power in their stead. This change of affairs was accomplished by a series of riots between 7th June 1482 and 20th February 1483. The *monte del popolo* seized the lion's share of the government; the *reformatori* were recalled, the *aggregati* abolished, and the *noveschi* condemned to perpetual banishment from the government and the city. But "in perpetuo" was an empty form of words in those turbulent Italian republics. The *noveschi*, being "fat burghers" with powerful connexions, abilities, and traditions, gained increased strength and influence in exile; and five years later, on 22d July 1487, they returned triumphantly to Siena, dispersed the few adherents of the *popolo* who offered resistance, murdered the captain of the people, reorganized the state, and placed it under the protection of the Virgin Mary. And, their own predominance being assured by their numerical strength and influence, they accorded equal shares of power to the other *monti*.

Among the returned exiles was Pandolfo Petrucci, chief of the *noveschi* and soon to be at the head of the Government. During the domination of this man (who, like Lorenzo de' Medici, was surnamed "the Magnificent") Siena enjoyed many years of splendour and prosperity. We use the term "domination" rather than "signory" inasmuch as, strictly speaking, Petrucci was never lord of the state, and left its established form of government intact; but he exercised despotic authority in virtue of his strength of character and the continued increase of his personal power. He based his foreign policy on alliance with Florence and France, and directed the internal affairs of the state by means of the council (*cc legio*) of the *balia*, which, although occasionally reorganized for the purpose of conciliating rival factions, was always subject to his will. He likewise added to his power by assuming the captainship of the city guard (1495), and later by the purchase from the impoverished commune of several outlying castles (1507). Nor did he shrink from deeds of bloodshed and revenge: the assassination of his father-in-law, Niccolò Borghesi (1500), is an indelible blot upon his name. He successfully withstood all opposition within the state,

until he was at last worsted in his struggle with Cesare Borgia, who caused his expulsion from Siena in 1502. But through the friendly mediation of the Florentines and the French king he was recalled from banishment on 29th March 1503. He maintained his power until his death at the age of sixty on 21st May 1512, and was interred with princely ceremonials at the public expense. The predominance of his family in Siena did not last long after his decease. Pandolfo had not the qualities required to found a dynasty such as that of the Medici. He lacked the lofty intellect of a Cosimo or a Lorenzo, and the atmosphere of liberty-loving Siena with its ever-changing factions was in no way suited to his purpose. His eldest son, Borghese Petrucci, was incapable, haughty, and exceedingly corrupt; he only remained three years at the head of affairs and fled ignominiously in 1515. Through the favour of Leo X. he was succeeded by his cousin Raffaello Petrucci, previously governor of St Angelo and afterwards a cardinal.

This Petrucci was a bitter enemy to Pandolfo's children. He caused Borghese and a younger son named Fabio to be proclaimed as rebels, while a third son, Cardinal Alphonso, was strangled by order of Leo X. in 1518. He was a tyrannical ruler, and died suddenly in 1522. In the following year Clement VII. insisted on the recall of Fabio Petrucci; but two years later a fresh popular outbreak drove him from Siena for ever. The city then placed itself under the protection of the emperor Charles V., created a magistracy of "ten conservators of the liberties of the state" (December 1524), united the different *monti* in one named the "monte of the reigning nobles," and, rejoicing to be rid of the last of the Petrucci, dated their public books, *ab instaurata libertate* year I., II., and so on.

The so-called free government subject to the empire lasted for twenty-seven years; and the desired protection of Spain weighed more and more heavily until it became a tyranny. The imperial legates and the captains of the Spanish guard in Siena crushed both Government and people by continual extortions and by undue interference with the functions of the *balia*. Charles V. passed through Siena in 1535, and, as in all the other cities of enslaved Italy, was received with the greatest pomp; but he left neither peace nor liberty behind him. From 1527 to 1545 the city was torn by faction fights and violent revolts against the *noveschi*, and was the scene of frequent bloodshed. The *balia* was reconstituted several times by the imperial agents,—in 1530 by Don Lopez di Soria and Alphonso Piccolomini, duke of Amalfi, in 1540 by Granvella (or Granvelle), and in 1548 by Don Diego di Mendoza; but government was carried on as badly as before, and there was increased hatred of the Spanish rule. When in 1549 Don Diego announced the emperor's purpose of erecting a fortress in Siena to keep the citizens in order, the general hatred found vent in indignant remonstrance. The historian Orlando Malavolti and other special envoys were sent to the emperor in 1550 with a petition signed by more than a thousand citizens praying him to spare them so terrible a danger; but their mission failed: they returned unheard. Meanwhile Don Diego had laid the foundation of the citadel and was carrying on the work with activity. Thereupon certain Sieneese citizens in Rome, headed by Aeneas Piccolomini (a kinsman of Pius II.), entered into negotiations with the agents of the French king and, having with their help collected men and money, marched on Siena and forced their way in by the new gate (now Porta Romana) on 26th July 1552. The townspeople, encouraged and reinforced by this aid from without, at once rose in revolt, and, attacking the Spanish troops, disarmed them and drove them to take refuge in the citadel (28th July). And finally by an agreement with

Under the protection of the emperor.

Cosimo de' Medici, duke of Florence, the Spaniards were sent away on the 5th August 1552 and the Sieneese took possession of their fortress.

The Government was now reconstituted under the protection of the French agents; the *balia* was abolished, its very name having been rendered odious by the tyranny of Spain, and was replaced by a similar magistracy styled *capitani del popolo e reggimento*. Siena exulted in her recovered freedom; but her sunshine was soon clouded. First, the emperor's wrath was stirred by the influence of France in the counsels of the republic; then Cosimo, who was no less jealous of the French, conceived the design of annexing Siena to his own dominions. The first hostilities of the imperial forces in Val di Chiana (1552-53) did little damage; but when Cosimo took the field with an army commanded by the marquis of Marignano the ruin of Siena was at hand. On 26th January Marignano captured the forts of Porta Camollia (which the whole population of Siena, including the women, had helped to construct) and invested the city. On 2d August of the same year, at Marciano in Val di Chiana, he won a complete victory over the Sieneese and French troops under Piero Strozzi, the Florentine exile and marshal of France. Meanwhile Siena was vigorously besieged, and its inhabitants, sacrificing everything for their beloved city, maintained a most heroic defence. A glorious record of their sufferings is to be found in the *Diary* of Sozzini, the Sieneese historian, and in the *Commentaries* of Blaise de Monluc, the French representative in Siena. But in April 1555 the town was reduced to extremity and was forced to capitulate to the emperor and the duke. On 21st April the Spanish troops entered the gates; thereupon many patriots abandoned the city and, taking refuge at Montalcino, maintained there a shadowy form of republic until 1559.

Cosimo I. de' Medici being granted the investiture of the Sieneese state by the patent of Philip II. of Spain, dated 3d July 1557, took formal possession of the city on the 19th of the same month. A lieutenant-general was appointed as representative of his authority; the council of the *balia* was reconstituted with twenty members chosen by the duke; the consistory and the general council were left in existence but deprived of their political autonomy. Thus Siena was annexed to the Florentine state under the same ruler and became an integral part of the grand-duchy of Tuscany. Nevertheless it retained a separate administration for more than two centuries, until the general reforms of the grand-duke Pietro Leopoldo, the French domination, and finally the restoration swept away all differences between the Sieneese and Florentine systems of government. In 1859 Siena was the first Tuscan city that voted for annexation to Piedmont and the monarchy of Victor Emmanuel II., this decision (voted 26th June) being the initial step towards the unity of Italy.

*Literary History.*—The literary history of Siena, while recording no gifts to the world equal to those bequeathed by Florence, and without the power and originality by which the latter became the centre of Italian culture, can nevertheless boast of some illustrious names. Of these a brief summary, beginning with the department of general literature and passing on to history and science, is subjoined. Many of them are also dealt with in separate articles, to which the reader is referred.

As early as the 13th century the vulgar tongue was already well established at Siena, being used in public documents, commercial records, and private correspondence. The poets flourishing at that period were Folcacchiero, Cecco Angiolieri—a humorist of a very high order—and Bindo Bonichi, who belonged also to the following century. The chief glory of the 14th century was St Catherine Benincasa. The year of her death (1380) was that of the birth of St Bernardino Albizzeschi, a popular preacher whose sermons in the vulgar tongue are models of style and diction. To the 15th century belongs Aeneas Sylvius Piccolomini (Pius II.), humanist, historian, and political writer. In the 16th century we

find another Piccolomini (Alexander), bishop of Patras, author of a curious dialogue, *Della bella Creanza delle Donne*; another bishop, Claudio Tolomei, diplomatist, poet, and philologist, who revived the use of ancient Latin metres; and Luca Contile, a writer of narratives, plays, and poems. Prose fiction had two representatives in this century,—Scipione Bargagli, a writer of some merit, and Pietro Fortini, whose productions were trivial and indecent. In the 17th century we find Ludovico Sergardi (Quinto Settano), a Latinist and satirical writer of much talent and culture; but the most original and brilliant figure in Sieneese literature is that of Girolamo Gigli (1680-1722), author of the *Gazzettino*, *La Sorcellina di Don Pilone*, *Il Vocabolario Cateriniano*, and the *Diario Ecclesiastico*. As humorist, scholar, and philologist Gigli would take a high place in the literature of any land. His resolute opposition to all hypocrisy—whether religious or literary—exposed him to merciless persecution from the Jesuits and the Della Cruscan Academy.

In the domain of history we have first the old Sieneese chronicles, which down to the 14th century are so confused that it is almost impossible to disentangle truth from fiction or even to decide the personality of the various authors. Three 14th-century chronicles, attributed to Andrea Dei, Agnolo di Tura, called Il Grasso, and Neri di Donati, are published in Muratori, vol. xv. To the 15th century belongs the chronicle of Allegretto Allegretti, also in Muratori (vol. xxiii.); and during the same period flourished Sigismondo Tizio (a priest of Siena, though born at Castiglione Aretino), whose voluminous history written in Latin and never printed (now among the MSS. of the Chigi Library in Rome), though devoid of literary merit, contains much valuable material. The best Sieneese historians belong to the 16th century. They are Orlando Malavolti (1515-1596), a man of noble birth, the most trustworthy of all; Antonio Bellarmati; Alessandro Sozzini di Girolamo, the sympathetic author of the *Diario dell'ultima Guerra Sienese*; and Giugurta Tommasi, of whose tedious history ten books, down to 1354, have been published, the rest being still in manuscript. Together with these historians we must mention the learned scholars Celso Cittadini (d. 1627), Ulberto Benvoglianti (d. 1733), one of Muratori's correspondents, and Gio. Antonio Picci (d. 1768), author of histories of Pandolfo Petrucci and the bishopric of Siena. In the same category may be classed the librarian C. F. Carpellini (d. 1872), author of several monographs on the origin of Siena and the constitution of the republic, and Scipione Borghesi (d. 1877), who has left a precious store of historical, biographical, and bibliographical studies and documents.

In theology and philosophy the most distinguished names are—Scientifico Bernardino Ochino and Lelio and Fausto Soccini (16th century); writers in jurisprudence, three Soccini—Mariano senior, Bartolommeo and Mariano junior (15th and 16th centuries); and in political economy, Sallustio Bandini (1677-1760), author of the *Discorso sulla Maremma*. In physical science the names most worthy of mention are those of the botanist Pier Antonio Mattioli (1501-1572), of Pierro Maria Gabrielli (1643-1705), founder of the academy of the Physiocrats, and of the anatomist Paolo Mascagni (d. 1825).

*Art.*—The history of Sieneese art is a fair and luminous record. Lanzi happily designates Sieneese painting as "lieta scuola fra lieto popolo" ("the blithe school of a blithe people"). The special characteristics of its masters are freshness of colour, vivacity of expression, and distinct originality. The Sieneese school of painting owes its origin to the influence of Byzantine art; but it improved that art, impressed it with a special stamp, and was for long independent of all other influences. Consequently Sieneese art seemed almost stationary amid the general progress and development of the other Italian schools, and preserved its mediæval character down to the end of the 15th century. When the Florentine Giottoesques and their few followers were on the wane, this mystic Sieneese school still showed continued fertility and improvement. At the close of the 15th century the influence of the Umbrian and—to a slighter degree—of the Florentine schools began to penetrate into Siena, followed a little later by that of the Lombard, and these grafts gave fresh vigour to the old stock without destroying its special characteristics. Of this new phase of Sieneese art it has been well said that Sodoma was its Leonardo, Baldassare Peruzzi its Raphael, and Beccafumi its Michelangelo. In every age Siena has produced many painters of different degrees of merit. It is impossible to mention all, so we will only cite the names of the more celebrated. In the 13th century we find Guido (da Siena), painter of the well-known Madonna in the church of S. Domenico in Siena. The 14th century gives us Ugolino, who painted the Madonna del Tabernacolo in Or San Michele, Florence; Duccio di Buoninsegna, whose chief work is the great panel of the high altar of the cathedral at Siena; Pietro and Ambrogio Lorenzetti, Simone di Martino (or Memmi), Lippo Memmi, Andrea di Vanni (painter and statesman), and Taddeo di Bartolo. In the 15th century we have Sano di Pietro, Giovanni di Paolo, Stefano di Giovanni (Il Sassetta), and Matteo di Giovanni Bartoli, whose several paintings of the Massacre of the Innocents show a fine sentiment and much observation of reality. The 16th century boasts the names of Guidoccio Cossarelli, Giacomo Pacchiarotto, Girolamo del Pacchiai

Baldassare Peruzzi (1481-1537), who was excellent in many branches of art and especially celebrated for his frescos and studies in perspective and chiaroscuro; Giovanni Antonio Bazzi, otherwise known as Il Sodoma (1477-1549), who, born at Vercelli in Piedmont and trained at Milan in the school of Leonardo da Vinci, came to Siena in 1504 and there produced his finest works; Domenico Beccafumi, otherwise known as Micharino (1486-1550), noted for the Michel-angelesque daring of his designs; and Francesco Vanni.

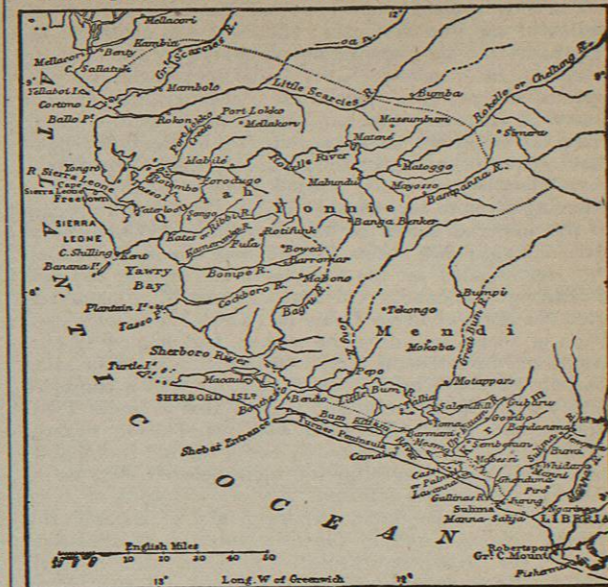
Side by side with these painters marches a notable band of sculptors and architects, such as Lorenzo Maitani, architect of the Orvieto cathedral (end of 13th century); Cainano di Crescentino; Tino di Camaino, sculptor of the monument to Henry VII. in the Campo Santo of Pisa; Agostino and Agnolo, who in 1330 carved the fine tomb of Bishop Guido Tarlati in the cathedral of Arezzo; Lando di Pietro (14th century), architect, entrusted by the Siense commune with the proposed enlargement of the cathedral (1339); Giacomo della Quercia, whose lovely fountain, the Fonte Gaia, in the Piazza del Campo has been recently restored by the sculptor Sarrocchi; Lorenzo di Pietro (Il Vecchiatta), a pupil of Della Quercia and an excellent artist in marble and bronze; Francesco di Giorgio Martino (1439-1502), painter, sculptor, military engineer, and writer on art; Giacomo Cozzarelli (15th century); and Lorenzo Mariano, surnamed Il Marrina (16th century). (C. P.A.)

SIERADZ, a town of Russian Poland, in the government of Kalisz (Kalish), situated on the Warta, 127 miles south-west of Warsaw. It is one of the oldest towns of Poland, founded prior to the introduction of Christianity, and was formerly known as Syra or Syraz. The annals mention it in 1139. Several *sejms* were held there during the 13th to 15th centuries, and it was a wealthy town until nearly destroyed by a fire in 1447. It is full of historical interest for the Poles. The old castle, which suffered much in the Swedish war, was destroyed by the Germans in 1800. There are two churches dating from the 12th and 14th centuries. Sieradz, after having been the chief town of a *voivódstvo*, has now no importance. Its population was 15,040 in 1884.

SIERRA LEONE, a British colony on the West Coast of Africa, the capital of which, Freetown, lies in 8° 39' N. lat. and 13° 14' W. long. It consists of Sierra Leone proper, part of the Quiah country to the east, Tasso Island, &c., in the Sierra Leone estuary, part of the Bullom country to the north, the Los Islands to the north of the Mellicoury (Mellacorée) river, the Banana Islands to the south of the main settlement, Sherbro (Sherboro) Island and part of the Sherbro country, the Turner peninsula, W. E. Tucker's territory, and generally all the seaboard south to the mouth of the Manoh (Manna) river, which is now recognized as the northern boundary of Liberia. The British territory and protectorate are estimated to have an area of about 3000 square miles; and, though it has not all been formally annexed, the whole coast region from the mouth of the Scarcies in 8° 55' N. lat. to that of the Manoh in 6° 55' may be considered as British, at least to the exclusion of any other European sovereignty.

Sierra Leone proper is a peninsula about 18 miles long from north-west to south-east by about 12 broad. It lies between the Sierra Leone estuary on the north and Yawry Bay on the south. Lengthwise it is traversed by a range of high hills attaining a height of 3000 feet in the Sugar Loaf and nearly as much in Mount Horton farther south. From the mainland the peninsula is physically separated by the Bance or Bunce river (properly estuary), which receives the Waterloo Creek and other small streams. Towards the east and south-east the peninsula sinks to the level of the great alluvial zone which extends along the larger portion of this district of the African coast. The hills seem to consist of some kind of igneous rock (popularly misnamed granite) and of beds of red sandstone, the disintegration of which has given a dark-coloured ferruginous soil of moderate fertility. The "lofty green trees" which clothed the "mountain" at the time of its discovery (Cadamosto) have for the most part been destroyed, though Sugar Loaf is still timbered to the top

and the peninsula is verdant with abundant vegetation. The Negroes give so little attention to agriculture that the local produce would not feed the population for three



Map of Sierra Leone.

months. Among the productions of the peninsula are cola nuts, ginger (in large quantities), malagetta pepper, castor-oil, maize, cassava, ground nuts, and (in small quantities) cotton. Native coffee was discovered in Quiah in 1796, and the growing of Liberian coffee and cocoa has since 1880 been attempted with some success.

The rainfall of Sierra Leone, according to the Colonial Hospital observations at Freetown, is from 150 to 169 inches per annum. The three months of January, February, and March are practically rainless; the rains, commencing in April or May, reach their maximum in July, August, and September, and rapidly diminish in October, November, and December. It sometimes rains for thirty hours on end, but generally twelve hours of rain are followed by twenty-four, thirty, or more hours of clear and pleasant weather. At the barracks (150 feet higher than the hospital) there are about 40 inches more rain, and at Kissy, 3 miles distant, some 18 or 20 inches less. The annual temperature indoors is from 78° to 86°. The highest reading for 1880 was 95° and the lowest 69°·33. During the dry season, when the climate is very much like that of the West Indies, there occur terrible tornadoes and long periods of the harmattan, — a north-east wind, dry and desiccating, and carrying with it those clouds of fine dust which the sailors designate "smokes." The dangers of the climate have long been exaggerated. The low swampy regions are like those of other tropical countries, and Freetown, being badly placed and carelessly kept, is too often a hotbed of malaria and fever; but the higher districts are not the "white man's grave."

According to the census of 1880, the population of the colony was as follows: — peninsula of Sierra Leone with British Quiah, 53,862; Isles de Los, 1371; occupiers of factories on the Sierra Leone river paying rent to Government, 52; island of Tasso, 828; British Sherbro (including Bonthe, Mocolo, Mokate, Runth, York Island, Yelbana, Victoria, Tasso, Bendu, and Jamaica), 4333, — total 60,446. But the census officials deem the actual population to be much greater, that of British Sherbro, for example, being pretty certainly 8000 or 9000. Ethnographically Sierra Leone is almost "an epitome of Africa." The following are the more important races that can be distinctly classified: — Mandings, 1190; Timmanehs, 7443; Jollofs, 189; Baggas, 340; Mendis, 3088; Sherbro, 2882; Gallinas, 697; Limbas, 493; Susus (Soosoo), 1470; Fulahs, 225; Lokkos, 1454; Serrakulis, 129; Bulloms, 129; Krumen, 610. The direct descendants of the liberated slaves now number 35,430. The Akus or people of Yoruba and the Eboes from the eastern banks of the Niger are most easily distinguished. The white residents number only 163, almost entirely a floating population.

Most of the inhabitants depend upon trade, and are collected at the north end of the peninsula, in FREETOWN (*q.v.*) and the neighbouring villages. Freetown has a good supply of pure water, and great improvements in sanitation have recently been effected. Among the villages in the peninsula may be mentioned Kissy (founded in 1817), the seat of two hospitals for male and female incurables, Gloster (1816), Bathurst (1815), Leopold (1817), Charlotte (1818), Regent (1812), Leicester (1809).

According to the census returns of 1880, there were in Sierra Leone 18,660 Episcopalians, 17,098 Wesleyans and Methodists, 2717 of Lady Huntingdon's connexion, and 369 Roman Catholics. Since 1861-62 there has been an independent Episcopal Native Church; but the Church Missionary Society, which in 1804 sent out the first missionaries to Sierra Leone and has spent about £500,000 on the colony, still maintains certain educative agencies. Fourah Bay college, built by the society on the site of General Turner's estate (1½ miles east of Freetown) and opened in 1828 with six pupils, one of whom was Bishop Crowther, was affiliated in 1876 to Durham university, and has a high-class curriculum. Other institutions are the grammar-school (1846), the Wesleyan high school, and the Annie Walsh Memorial Female Institution.

The following figures show the average value of the principal exports in recent years:—

	Benni Seed.	Cola Nuts.	Ginger.	Ground Nuts.	Hides.	Palm Kernels.	Palm Oil.	Rubber.	Gum Copal.
1877-81	£ 847	£ 23,731	£ 1,989	£ 30,808	£ 12,607	£ 116,822	£ 35,369	£ 41,941	£ 12,671
1882	10,001	22,547	7,916	15,217	13,945	101,164	47,317	96,674	11,262
1883	9,721	31,661	13,409	11,282	12,326	81,578	21,954	89,782	14,780
1884	3,776	40,002	16,304	4,846	17,674	68,377	17,774	50,894	12,539

With the exception of the ginger, most of these products are brought down the rivers from the interior, and the development of trade has been grievously hampered by inter-tribal wars in non-British territory. A considerable falling off is observable in those articles which require cultivation or labour, or are bulky in transit. Cola nuts have steadily increased in quantity, — that part of the Limba country where they are principally grown being in comparative peace. The supply of india-rubber has decreased, partly through destruction of the trees, partly through war in the Yonnie country. Gum copal is brought from the northern rivers. The Mendi country sends a good deal of rice, which is also grown largely in Sherbro. The total value of all the exports was on an average for 1877-81 £282,620, and for 1882-83 £413,148. The corresponding figures for the imports were £424,447 and £429,273.

The most northerly territory belonging to the colony is the little group of the Los Islands (Islas de los Idolos), about 80 miles north-west of Freetown to the south of Sangareah Bay. Tamara or Futabar to the west and Factory Island to the east "enclose, like an atoll, an inner basin, in the centre of which lies the much smaller Crawford Island." The highest point is a knoll some 450 feet above sea-level in Tamara. All these islands are richly clothed with palm trees and flowering underwood. Factory Island is occupied by a French trading settlement. At one time the islands were a great seat of the slave-trade and about 1812-13 were garrisoned by British troops for the suppression of the traffic. The climate was then found to be exceedingly fatal.

The small island of Matakong, 25 miles south-east, is also British. On the mainland the watershed between the Great Scarcies and the Mellicoury (Mellacorée) has been adopted as the boundary between the French and English protectorates or annexation-areas. The Great Scarcies river (Rio dos Carceres) appears to take its rise in the highlands of the Futa-Jallon not far from the sources of the Senegal, but its upper course has not been completely explored. It is navigable for boats a long way inland, though the ascent from the sea is interrupted by rapids a short distance above Kambia, an important Mohammedan town. The Little Scarcies has its headwaters to the north-east of Falaba, a town of the Sulima country, built in 1768 and visited by Laing (1822), Winwood Reade (1869), and Zweifel and Moustier (1879). The Rokelle or Mabile river, which falls into the Sierra Leone estuary, is formed by the drainage of the Koranko country. On a creek which reaches the estuary near the Rokelle mouth stands (at the head of navigation) the important township of Port Lokko, a mission station of the Church Missionary Society. The maritime country between the Scarcies and Sierra Leone is called North Bullom (*i.e.*, low land); the tribe of the same name has been expelled from much of its territory by the Susus (whose country is the unexplored tract to the south of 11° N. lat.) and the Timmanehs (Timnis). At the angle of Yawry Bay lies the mouth of the Ribbi or Kates river, and about 10 miles farther south is the common outflow of the Kamaranka and the Bompé. At the south side of the bay the small cluster of Plantain Islands corresponds to the Banana Islands on the north off Cape Shilling, which were ceded to the British in 1819 and are noted for their healthiness. Southward opens the broad estuary of the Sherbro (popularly river), which lies between

the island of Sherbro, annexed in 1862, and the territory of the same name. The estuary receives the Bagru from the Manoh-Bagru country and the Jong river, whose headstream, the Bampanna, rises far inland in the same country as the Rokelle and has a breadth of 200 feet at Mayosso. From the sea the Jong is navigable for steamers to Matongbah (or Matubah). It is connected by the Little Bim Creek with the Great Bim river, which passes through the Mendi country and descends into the alluvial seaboard by rapids at Motappan. The Bim loses itself in a curious network of lagoons and creeks separated from the ocean by the long low tract of Turner's peninsula. The upper Kittam joins it from the east, and by another creek communicates with the Palma or Cassi Lake (20 miles long), which in its turn has a connexion with the Gallinas river (7° S. lat.). On the narrow strip of land between the ocean and the lake lies Lavanna, an important trading port, where a short line of railway has been laid down. Parallel with the Gallinas flows the Moah or Sulimah river (falls at Whidar), at the mouth of which is the town of Sulimah; and about 10 miles farther east is the Manoh river. The countries inland between the Manoh and the Sulimah are Gbemna or Massaqui, Soro, M'perri, Barrie, Cowrah, &c.

History.—Sierra Leone (in the original Portuguese form Sierra Leone) was known to its native inhabitants as Romarong or the Mountain, and received the current designation from the Portuguese discoverer Pedro de Cintra (1462) on account of the lion-like roaring of the thunder on its hill-tops. An English fort was built on the Sierra Leone estuary towards the close of the 17th century, but was soon afterwards abandoned. In 1786 Dr Smethman proposed his scheme for founding on the peninsula a colony of liberated African slaves; and in 1787 Captain Thompson, having purchased the territory from Naimbana or King Tom of the Timmanehs, commenced the settlement with 400 Negroes and 60 Europeans. Owing mainly to the utter shiftlessness of the settlers and partly to a hostile attack by a body of natives, this first attempt proved a complete failure. In 1791 Falconbridge collected the surviving fugitives and laid out a new settlement (Granville's Town); and the promoters of the enterprise—Granville Sharp, William Wilberforce, William Ludlam, Sir Richard Carr Glynn, &c., hitherto known as the St George's Bay Company—obtained a charter incorporating them as the Sierra Leone Company (31 Geo. III. c. 55). In 1792 Clarkson introduced into the colony 1200 Negroes from the Bahamas and Nova Scotia. Afzelius the botanist and Nordenskjöld the mineralogist were sent out to explore the capabilities of the country; but the latter soon after died at Port Lokko (Port Logo). In 1794 the settlement, which had been again transferred to Freetown, was plundered by the French. An attempt to found a similar colony on Bulama (mouth of the Rio Grande) was a complete failure (Dalrymple and Beaver). In 1800 the company was allowed to make laws not repugnant to those of England, but in 1807 it was glad to transfer all its rights to the crown. Sydney Smith's jest that Sierra Leone had always two governors, one just arrived in the colony and the other just arrived in England, is but a slight exaggeration. There were eight changes between 1808 and 1824, and as many between 1865 and 1881. The names of Zachary Macaulay, Sir Charles MacCarthy, Sir Stephen J. Hill, Sir Arthur Kennedy, Sir Samuel Rowe, and A. E. Havelock deserve to be mentioned. In 1825 General Turner concluded a treaty placing Turner's peninsula, &c., under British protection; but effect was not given to it till 1881. In 1875 the mouths of the Kates, Kamaranka, Bonapé, and Cockboro were annexed, and in 1883 the seaboard towards the Liberian frontier. British influence has been peacefully advancing inland under Sir Samuel Rowe. In 1866 Sierra Leone was made the seat of government of the new general government of the British settlements on the West Coast of Africa (comprising Sierra Leone, Gambia, the Gold Coast, and Lagos, each of which was to have a legislative council); but in 1874 the Gold Coast and Lagos were raised to a separate government, and the Gambia alone remains attached to Sierra Leone.

Besides the older works of Falconbridge (1794), Winterbottom (1808), Walker (1847), Shreve (1847), Poole (1850), see the various works of Robert Clarke (*Sketches of the Colony of Sierra Leone*, 1868, &c.) and Dr Africanus B. Horton (*West African Countries and Peoples*, 1868, &c.); A. Menzies, "Exploratory Expedition to the Mende Country," in *Church Miss. Intell.*, 1864; A. B. C. Sidhorpe, *Hist. of Sierra Leone*; T. R. Griffith, "Sierra Leone, Past, Present, and Future," in *Proc. Roy. Col. Inst.*, 1881-82, vol. xiii.; "Britische Annexionen an der Sierra-Leone-Küste," in *Petersmann's Mitt.*, 1883. (H. A. W.)

SIÈYÈS, EMMANUEL JOSEPH (1748-1836), one of the chief political thinkers and writers of the period of the French Revolution and the first empire, was born at Fréjus (Var) on 3d May 1748. He was destined for the church, was educated by the Jesuits, became a licentiate of the canon law, and, having early distinguished himself by the astuteness and originality of his ideas, was appointed vicar-general by the bishop of Chartres. He shared the political fervour of the party of advance, and was fearlessly logical in working out the new and as yet indistinct princi-