

Union, Spartanburg, Greenville, Pickens, Anderson, Abbeville, and Edgefield; bismuth in Chesterfield and Lancaster; plumbago in Spartanburg; soapstone in Fairfield, Chester, York, Spartanburg, Laurens, Greenville, Pickens, Abbeville, and Edgefield; coal in Chesterfield and Marlboro. Limestone abounds in nearly all the upper counties, but chiefly in Laurens and Spartanburg. The finest blue and grey granite is found in the middle and upper sections; sandstone, burrstone, and flagstone in Edgefield, Pickens, York, and Fairfield. Pottery and porcelain clay, quartz, and sand for glass exist in many places. Tuomey states that "the aluminous formations that occur in immense beds of the finest porcelain clay are often exposed by the denuding effects of water and lie in rich strata upon the very surface, ready to the hand of the manufacturer. Between Aiken and Graniteville the beds are in many cases 60 feet thick, while those in the Savannah river near Hamburg are from 10 to 15 feet and of unsurpassed purity." The Aiken council committee report in this vicinity immense beds of different kinds of clay, from the purest and whitest kaolin to the dark-coloured mud of which bricks are made, sands of all hues, some as fine as flour, others with large coarse crystals, siliceous earths of many kinds, ferruginous sandstones, conglomerate shell, burrstone, mica, feldspar, and ochres of different colours. But a short distance off a deposit of magnesia is found, and potash can readily be made in the surrounding forests. Experts have pronounced the sands to be admirably adapted for making glass and crystal, and the quality of the kaolin is admitted to be equal, if not superior, to that of which Staffordshire ware is made. It is doubtful if the combination of the ingredients of glass and earthenware can be found in such immediate proximity anywhere else. Mineral springs exist in several of the upper counties.

**Railways.** Railroads are on the increase. The South Carolina Railway, between Charleston and Augusta, Ga., was, at the time of its completion, the longest continuous railroad in the world.

**Industries.** Manufactures are growing in importance; chief among them are cotton yarn and cloth, flour, lumber, turpentine, and fertilizers. The capacity of twenty-nine mills now in operation is estimated at 14,821,166 lb of yarn, 79,442,327 yards of cloth, and the value of product \$9,097,464. In 1880 there were 82,324 spindles and 1676 looms; in 1884 195,112 spindles and 3652 looms. The number of lumber mills at work is 729, employing 5894 hands and a capital of \$2,920,870. The value of their annual production is \$5,592,565. Of turpentine stills there are 291, with 6991 hands and a capital of \$1,454,800, with an annual production to the value of \$2,912,271. These figures show an increase of 100 per cent. in less than four years. The fertilizers are valued at \$3,346,400, and the miscellaneous manufactures at \$2,114,680. The whole value of manufactured products was in 1860 \$8,615,195; in 1870, \$9,853,981; in 1880, \$16,738,008; in 1884, \$32,324,404. South Carolina phosphates are of recent date, but their importance may be shown by stating that they pay yearly, by direct taxation, an amount for royalty which is 20 per cent. of the whole income of the State. The value of this rock was first pointed out by Mr Jonathan Lucas, a planter, who afterwards materially assisted in developing its usefulness. The first company, the Charleston South Carolina Mining and Manufacturing Company, was formed in 1867. There are now fourteen land and eleven river mining companies with capital ranging from \$10,000 to \$200,000. In addition to these there are a number of individuals who are licensed by the State to mine in the navigable streams, employing an estimated capital of about \$50,000. The total amount of phosphate rock mined and shipped in 1868-70 was 20,000 tons; in 1871, 50,000 tons; in 1875, 115,000 tons; in 1880, 190,000 tons; and in 1883, 355,000 tons,—the total since 1868 being 2,290,000 tons. Of this amount 1,078,070 tons were river and 1,211,830 land rock. The capital invested in the former is \$525,000, and 649 hands are employed (wages \$259,800), with an annual production of \$907,170; in the latter the corresponding figures are—capital \$1,980,000, hands 1286, wages \$363,560, production \$1,283,830.

The six gold-mining counties report eleven mines in operation, employing 600 hands, with a capital of \$440,000 and an annual production of \$90,000. The same counties report eighteen gold mines or gold-bearing areas not now worked; one of the mines has a capital of \$40,000. Ten counties report quarries or kaolin beds. Worked and unworked, there are twenty-five granite quarries, five kaolin beds, and one soapstone quarry. There are also in the State large unworked deposits of mica, pyrites, corundum, and marl, with some silver. The quarries and kaolin works, with a capital of \$96,350, have an annual production of \$220,000.

The upland cotton crop of 1883 was 468,227 bales of 400 lb. The corn area was 1,359,593 acres, and the production 10,876,744 bushels. 321,953 acres in oats yielded a crop of 4,187,082 bushels. Of wheat (182,215 acres) the yield was 1,388,731 bushels. The rice crop of 1883-84 was 33,600 tierces. The sea-island cotton crop was 9500 bags. This last, as well as the small grain and subsidiary crops, has suffered a decline in the last few years of 25 to 35 per cent.

The proportions of white and coloured labour in the State are about 30 per cent. and 70 per cent. respectively. The rate of wages

paid is from \$8 to \$9 a month for men and \$6 for women, with board. About 23 per cent. of white women and children work on the farms, and about 61 per cent. of the coloured. The systems used are—the contract, in which services rendered are paid by giving the labourer the use of the land and house, or where the wages are paid monthly, or a portion monthly and the remainder at the end of the year; and the tenant system, in which the labourer rents the land, and from the crop pays the landlord the rent and for the use of the animals. Land varies in price from 50 cents for pine barren to \$100 for choice farming land.

Horses and mules are raised at very little cost. Ordinary scrub cattle are seldom housed, roaming the forests at will, except when herded for branding or for driving to market. Sheep thrive away from the salt, and are profitable in the mountains. Hogs, not improved breeds, like cattle, have the liberty of the woods, and are taken with dogs when needed. According to estimates of improved stock, there are 792 Jerseys, 177 Ayrshires, 50 Devons, 33 Holsteins, 1 Guernsey, besides a number of Shorthorns and Brahmins. Merino, South Down, Oxford Down, and Broad-Tail sheep are raised in many parts of the State, with Essex and Berkshire hogs.

Free schools trace their origin as far back as 1710. A system of free schools was inaugurated in 1811. The present public-school system was established in 1868. It provides free instruction to pupils of both races, in primary and intermediate grades. Their management is under the direction of the State board of examiners, consisting of the State superintendent of education, and four other persons appointed by the governor. In each county the school commissioner is elected by the people for two years. The schools are supported entirely by taxation. There are 3562 public schools in the State. The number of persons in the State between the ages of six and sixteen is 281,664, of whom 51,440 are white males, 49,749 white females, 90,897 coloured males, 89,578 coloured females. The number of pupils enrolled is 178,023 (41,819 white males, 36,639 females, 48,418 coloured males, 51,147 females). The number of male white teachers employed is 1137, females 1205; coloured males 982, females 449,—making a total of 3773. There are 3562 public schoolhouses, valued at \$405,097.31. Institutions for higher education, supported by the State, are the South Carolina College and South Carolina Military Academy for white males, and the Claflin College for coloured persons of both sexes. There is an institution for the education of the deaf, dumb, and blind. There are, besides, numerous private schools and colleges.

Churches of all denominations multiplied in the State during the colonial period, and subsequently Episcopalians, Presbyterians, Independents, Baptists, and French Protestants established congregations in Charleston just after 1680. Methodists and Romanists came a century later, Jews in 1756, German Lutherans in 1759. The coloured people are for the most part Methodists, some being Baptists and Presbyterians, a few Episcopalians.

CHARLESTON (*q.v.*) is the largest city of the State. COLUMBIA (*q.v.*), the capital, has (1886) a population of 20,000, while that of Charleston is 60,000. Greenville, in the north-west portion of the State, is a growing railway centre and manufacturing city, with a population of 10,000. Georgetown and Beaufort on the coast do a good shipping business in lumber and other exports. Spartanburg and Aiken are important places, the former as a railway centre, the latter as a health resort for invalid strangers in winter, when the population is more than doubled. Other towns are Newberry, Orangeburg, Florence, Camden, Sumter, Graniteville, Chester, Anderson, Abbeville, Winnsboro, Yorkville, Union, Cheraw, Walhalla, Piedmont, Port Royal, Marion, Darlington, Lancaster.

The executive department consists of a governor, lieutenant-governor, who is *ex officio* president of the senate, comptroller-general, treasurer, secretary of state, attorney-general, and a superintendent of education; these are elected by the people, to serve two years. The legislative department embraces a senate and a house of representatives, which together are called the general assembly. The former is composed of thirty-seven members, elected for four years, one from each county, except Charleston, which sends two. The house of representatives consists of 124 members, elected for two years. The judicial department consists of a supreme court and of circuit, probate, and justices' courts. The supreme and circuit court judges are elected by the general assembly,—the former for six years, the latter for four. The probate judges for each county are elected by the people, and the justices of the peace are appointed by the governor.

The first attempt to settle Carolina was in 1562, when Admiral Coligny obtained from Charles IX. of France permission to plant a colony of Protestants on the coast of Florida. An expedition was fitted out at the expense of the crown, and placed under the command of Jean Ribault. Fear of the Spaniards perhaps induced them to change their plans, and, entering Port Royal, they landed on Lemon Island, where they erected a pillar, and afterwards a fort, which they named, in honour of the king, Arx Carolina. Leaving a sufficient number to garrison the fort, Ribault returned to France. Two years later a second expedition under Laudonnière,

one of Ribault's men, was fitted out, but on landing at Port Royal it found no traces of the former. This colony likewise met with disaster, being massacred by the Spaniards from Florida. It was not until a century later that a permanent settlement was made by the English, who, after the Restoration, began to recognize their claim to a large territory in the southern district of North America. In 1662 a grant was obtained from Charles II., and in 1667 an expedition sailed under command of Capt. William Sayle. They reached Port Royal, where they made a settlement, but a few years after removed to the west bank of the Ashley, and built a town which they called, after the English monarch, Charlestown. Subsequently they again removed to Oyster Point, the present site of Charleston. (W. SL.)

SOUTHCOTT, JOANNA (1750-1814), was born in Devonshire about 1750, and was for a considerable time a domestic servant. She was originally an adherent of the Methodists, but, becoming persuaded she possessed supernatural gifts, she wrote and dictated prophecies in rhyme, and announced herself as the woman spoken of in the Apocalypse (ch. xii.), affirming, when beyond the age of sixty, that she would be delivered of Shiloh on the 19th October 1814. For some days previous to this she was attended by her followers night and day, but Shiloh failed to appear, and it was given out that she was in a trance. She died of dropsy on the 29th of the same month. Her followers are said to have numbered over 100,000, and so late as 1860 they were not extinct.

Among her publications, which number over sixty, and are all equally incoherent in thought and grammar, may be mentioned *Strange Effects of Faith*, 1801-2; *Free Exposition of the Bible*, 1804; *The Book of Wonders*, 1813-14; and *Prophecies announcing the Birth of the Prince of Peace*, 1814. A lady named Essam left large sums of money for printing and publishing the *Sacred Writings of Joanna Southcott*. The will was disputed by a niece on the ground that the writings were blasphemous, but the Court of Chancery sustained it.

See Roberts, *Observations on the Divine Mission of Joanna Southcott*, 1807; Reece, *Correct Statement of the Circumstances attending the Death of Joanna Southcott*, 1815.

SOUTHEND, a watering-place of Essex, is situated on the north bank of the Thames, 5 miles west of Shoeburyness, and by the London, Tilbury, and Southend Railway, 42 miles east of London, with which it is also connected by steamer. It first sprang into notice from a visit of Queen Caroline in 1804, and, as it is the nearest watering-place to London, it is much frequented by excursionists, especially by the poorer classes. It is clean and well built, and at Cliff Town there are a number of large villas. Opposite Cliff Town there is a public garden called the Shrubbery. The bathing is good, but the tide recedes with great rapidity and for nearly a mile. The pier, which is  $1\frac{1}{2}$  miles in length, and on which there is a tramway, permits the approach of steamers at all tides. The public hall was erected in 1872 at a cost of £3000, and a mechanics' institution dates from 1881. The Rochford county court is held every alternate month in the public hall. A local board of health was established in 1866. The population of the urban sanitary district (area 3441 acres) in 1871 was 4561, and in 1881 it was 7979.

SOUTHERNE, THOMAS (1660-1746)—"Honest Tom Southerne," to give the author of *The Fatal Marriage* the name by which his contemporaries usually called him—was a clever craftsman for the stage, according to the degenerate tradition of the Restoration dramatists,—with the eye of a born opportunist for the popular interests of the hour in so far as they could be turned to histrionic account, but without deeper seeing of the functions of the drama. Born in Dublin in 1660, he came to London and entered the Middle Temple in 1678, but only to desert law very speedily for dramatic authorship. His first play, *The Persian Prince, or the Loyal Brother*, is a good example, in its diplomatic reference to passing events and its veiled compliment to James; duke of York, of his ready tact as a playwright. The most important practical result of the play, which was remarkably successful on the stage, was

an ensign's commission, noteworthy in that it supplied Southerne with materials for later dramatization. After an interval of active service more plays followed, and were produced with equal success; of these *The Fatal Marriage* (1694), known also by the name of its heroine, Isabella, has the best claim to remembrance. Its strain of pathetic quality echoes the later Elizabethans in a way that contrasts suggestively with the shallow, if spirited, indecencies of Southerne's comedies, which, although their author was commended by Dryden for his purity as a playwright, are certainly not overweighted with delicacy. *Sir Anthony Love, or the Rambling Lady*, in which the hero assumes female disguise without accession of modesty, is a good example of the rest; one utterance of its hero, "Every day a new mistress and a new quarrel," might indeed serve as a good motto of Restoration comedy in general. Except to the student, Southerne's work, however, is hardly of permanent interest. The Southerne of whom Pope, who ranked him as friend and praised him for his sterling qualities, remarked in some lines that

"Heaven sent down to raise  
The price of prologues and of plays"

exemplifies what business tact and dramatic ingenuity can accomplish, for of real artistic faculty he had little. His plays resulted, through ingenious management, in a pecuniary return which dazzled Dryden and made their author a wealthy citizen, but they have not the quality of work which endures. He died in 1746.

SOUTHEY, CAROLINE (1786-1854), the second wife of Robert Southey, was born at Lymington, Hants, on December 6th, 1786. As a girl Caroline Ann Bowles showed a certain literary and artistic aptitude, the more remarkable perhaps from the loneliness of her early life and the morbidly delicate condition of her health,—an aptitude, however, of no real distinction. When money difficulties came upon her in middle age she determined to turn her talents to account in literature. Her first venture was the sending anonymously of a narrative poem called *Ellen Fitzarthur* to Southey, and this led to the acquaintanceship and lifelong friendship which in 1839 culminated in their marriage. *Ellen Fitzarthur* (1820) may be taken as typical, in its prosy simplicity, of the rest of its author's work, which reproduced the studied unadornment of certain portions of Southey's and Wordsworth's poetry without that glamour which, especially with the second of these writers, so often redeemed simplicity from mere baldness. Mrs Southey's poems were published in a collected edition in 1867. Her prose is on the whole more interesting than her verse, though—with rare exceptions—infected with like dullness. Among her prose writings may be mentioned *Chapters on Churchyards* (1829), her best work; *Tales of the Moors* (1828); and *Selwyn in Search of a Daughter* (1835). Her most interesting memorial is her correspondence with Southey, which, somewhat unfairly overlooked in the edition of the poet's *Life and Letters* edited by his son, has been published by Prof. Dowden in the Dublin University Press Series. It was soon after her marriage that her husband's mental state became hopeless, and from this time till his death in 1843, and indeed till her own, her life was one of much suffering. Mrs Southey died at Buckland Cottage, Lymington, on July 20th 1854, two years after the queen had granted her an annual pension of £200.

Besides the works already mentioned, she wrote *The Widow's Tale, and other Poems*, 1822; *Solitary Hours* (prose and verse), 1826; *Tales of the Factories*, 1833; *The Birthday*, 1836; *Robin Hood*, written in conjunction with Southey, at whose death this metrical production was incomplete.

SOUTHEY, ROBERT (1774-1843), was born in Bristol on the 12th of August 1774. His father, a native of Somerset, was an unsuccessful draper. To his mother,

Margaret Hill, Southey owed his buoyant spirits, his practical sense, and his earliest friends. The first of these, Miss Tyler, his mother's half-sister, took possession of him when he was three; under her care he saw and heard a great deal of theatres and of acting. His solitary life in an old maid's household threw him upon his own resources and developed a taste for reading. He was sent to several private schools, and had good fortune at none of them; in 1788 he went to Westminster, where he was scarcely more fortunate. After a brief sojourn he was expelled in 1792, because an essay of his on flogging, in a school magazine called *The Flagellant*, was resented by Dr Vincent, the head-master. At Westminster he gained the friendship of two boys who were faithful to him and helpful throughout his life; these were Charles Winn and Grosvenor Bedford. About this time his father died; his aunt, however, determined that he should go to Oxford. He was refused at Christ Church on account of the essay in *The Flagellant*; but Balliol gave him a home. At Oxford he led his own life, lived in his own thoughts, and got little or nothing from the university. In 1794 Coleridge dashed at Southey, took him by storm, and filled his head with plans for an ideal colony in the wilds. The new society, whose members were to have all things in common, was to be called "The Pantisocracy." Their life was to combine manual labour and domestic bliss; to attain the latter, Southey set his affections on a Miss Edith Fricker, whose sister married Coleridge. All this was intolerable to Miss Tyler, and Southey was banished. He and Coleridge then tried, by lecturing and journalism, to raise money for their American schemes; but luckily Southey's uncle, who had educated him,—Mr Hill, the English chaplain at Lisbon,—advised him to travel. On the 14th of November 1795, before he started, he was secretly married to Edith Fricker. On his return from Lisbon the marriage was acknowledged, and Southey wandered from one house to another in the south of England. He tried, or was urged to try, the three professions which are by courtesy styled "learned"; it might be more true to call them the technical, the stereotyped professions. Southey was scared from all three,—from clericalism by dogma, from medicine by the dissecting-room, from law by its crabbed dulness. In literature alone he found his proper sphere; and in 1803 he settled down in his life-long home, Greta Hall, near Keswick. Henceforth his years were even and uneventful. He wrote and read with mechanical, with appalling regularity; his library grew to fourteen thousand volumes. He had children, and lost several; and his house was a refuge for the wife and family of Coleridge. With Wordsworth and Landor he formed close friendships. In 1813 he was made poet-laureate; and some years before his death he was offered a baronetcy—which, however, he with good reason declined. Two great sorrows embittered his life: in 1809 he lost his eldest boy Herbert, and in 1834 his wife was taken to a madhouse, whence she came back to die. In 1839 he married Caroline Bowles. That same year his memory failed, his speech became uncertain, and his power of writing soon went; softening of the brain had taken irremediable hold of the once tireless intellect. To the last he would hover round his books and handle them lovingly. He died on the 21st of March 1843; he is buried, near his first wife and her children, in Crosthwaite churchyard.

The amount of Southey's work in literature is enormous. His collected verse, with its explanatory notes, fills ten volumes: his prose occupies about forty. But his greatest works were left uncompleted, and this, in some sense, is typical of Southey's whole achievement in the world of letters: there is always something unsatisfying, disappointing, about him. He seldom realized or seldom found scope for his true bent in literature. This is most

true of his efforts in verse. In his childhood Southey fell in with Tasso, Tasso led him to Ariosto, and Ariosto to Spenser. These beautiful, these luxuriantly imaginative poets captivated the boy; and Southey mistook his youthful enthusiasm for an abiding, a life-long inspiration. His inspiration was not genuinely imaginative; he had too large an infusion of prosaic commonplace in his nature to be a true follower of Ariosto and Spenser. Southey, quite early in life, resolved to write a series of epics on the chief religions of the world. The subject was dangerous, and one epic is a life's work; it is not surprising that the too ambitious poet failed. His failure is twofold: he was wanting in artistic power and in poetic sympathy. With regard to the first, he says of himself, "It was long before I acquired this power,"—the power of plan and construction,—"not fairly, indeed, till I was about five or six and thirty." The fact is, he never acquired it; he never could construct a dramatic plot or mould it into artistic details. When his epics are not wildly impossible they are incurably dull; at the best their interest is extrinsic rather than intrinsic, pervaded by the glamour of historic romance rather than the light of pure poetry. And a man is not fit to write epics on the religions of the world when he can say of the prophet who has satisfied the gravest races of mankind,—Mohammed was "far more remarkable for audacious profligacy than for any intellectual endowments." Southey's age was bounded, and had little sympathy for anything beyond itself and its own narrow interests; it was violently Tory, narrowly Protestant, defiantly English. And in his verse Southey truthfully reflects the feeling of his age. This led him to say dreadful things about the Eastern religions in his prefaces to *Kehama* and *Thalaba*; it made *Joan of Arc* an incongruous blending of Rousseau, of Horace Walpole's romanticism, of the Surrey theatre, and of Lady Huntingdon; it gave Madoc, a Celt of the 12th century, the mind of a cold middle-class Saxon evangelical of the regency. In the shorter pieces Southey's commonplace asserts itself, and if that does not meet us we find his bondage to his generation. This bondage is quite abject in *The Vision of Judgment*; Southey's heavenly personages are British Philistines from Old Sarum, magnified but not transformed, engaged in endless placid adoration of an infinite George III. When Southey sets himself to fondle the regent, he loses all sense of measure and propriety. In the *Funerel Ode* to the Princess he can assert of her father—

"Such the proud, the virtuous story,  
Such the great, the endless glory  
Of her father's splendid reign!"

This famous ode, "with the grace and beauty of which," Sir Henry Taylor thinks, "no facts could compete," is, it must be said, in many of its couplets, too like the average hymn. The twang of the hymn spoils two of Southey's best pieces. *The Holly Tree* ends—

"That in my age as cheerful I might be  
As the green winter of the holly tree."

The last lines of *Stanzas Written in his Library*, a poem dear to the book-lover, are painfully like a rhyme on a tomb-stone:—

"Yet leaving here a name, I trust,  
That will not perish in the dust."

Some of his subjects, *The Poet's Pilgrimage*, for instance, he would have treated delightfully in prose; others, like the *Botany Bay Eloques*, *Songs to American Indians*, *The Pig*, *The Dancing Bear*, should never have been written. *The Retrospect*, of which this is a fair specimen,—

"There where my little hands were wont to rear  
With pride the earliest salad of the year,"—

a living critic and biographer of Southey has compared to *The Deserted Village*. Southey was not in the highest sense of the word a poet; but if we turn from his verse to his prose we are in a different world; there Southey is a master in his art, who works at ease with grace and skill. "Southey's prose is perfect," said Byron; and, if we do not stretch the "perfect," or take it to mean the supreme perfection of the very greatest masters of style, Byron was right. For good prose, plain, unassuming, natural, he is not surpassed in English. In his charming story of *The Three Bears* a phrase is often used which exactly describes his style; when the old lady finds what is neither too hot nor too cold, too large nor too small, she says it is "just right." Southey's prose is "just right,"—it expresses his meaning with simple and admirable precision. In his prose and in his criticism we of a later generation could do worse than learn from Southey; his sober writing is an excellent corrective for our prevailing faults. In prose the real Southey emerges from his conventionality. His interest and his curiosity are unbounded, as his *Common-Place Book* will prove; his stores of learning are at his readers' service, as in *The Doctor*; his patriotism is vigorous and healthy, as in the *Life of Nelson*; his criticism is sound, as in the *Lives of Cowper* and of Wesley. But the truest Southey is in his *Letters*: the loyal, gallant, tender-hearted, faithful man that he was is revealed in them. Southey's fame will not rest, as he supposed, on his verse; all his faults are in that,—all his own weakness, and all the false taste of his age. But his prose assures him a high place in English literature, though not a place in the first rank even of prose writers.

SOUTHPORT, a municipal borough of Lancashire, England, and a favourite seaside resort, is situated between the estuaries of the Mersey and the Ribble, 18 miles north of Liverpool, and is a terminal station of three railway systems. Its foreshore consists of a great expanse of firm, bright sands, to the radiation of heat from which is attributed the mildness of its winter climate. Its proximity to Liverpool, Manchester, and other large manufacturing towns has drawn to it a large resident population, and its visitors, in quest of health and pleasure, number many thousands annually. Its spacious streets, laid out at right angles to each other, are bordered with trees and ornamental gardens. The promenade along the shore is two miles in length; in its centre is the pier, a mile long, down which tramcars are drawn by a stationary steam-engine. Other facilities for outdoor enjoyment are provided in Hesketh Park (presented to the town by the late Rev. Charles Hesketh, rector of North Meols, and one of the lords of the manor), the Botanic Gardens, Kew Gardens, and the Winter Gardens. The last, laid out at a cost of £130,000, include a large conservatory, a fine enclosed promenade, a theatre, and an aquarium. There is also a glaciarium, or skating and curling hall, in which those amusements may be practised on real ice all the year round. The Victoria baths were erected in 1870 at an expenditure of £50,000. The principal public buildings are the town-hall, the Cambridge hall (used for concerts &c.), and an extensive range of markets, erected in 1881 at a cost of £40,000. Among the benevolent institutions are a general infirmary, a convalescent hospital, a sanatorium for children, and a neuro-hydropathic hospital. Southport has also a free library and art gallery (the gift of the late William Atkinson), a literary and philosophical institute, and a college (Trinity Hall) for the education of the daughters of Wesleyan ministers; and the town council are now (1886) engaged in building a museum and schools of science and art. The first house in Southport (an inn for the reception of sea-bathers) was built in 1791, and soon after other houses were erected on the site now known as Lord Street. The population, which in 1809 was 100, had increased in 1851 to 4766, and in 1861 to 10,097. In 1867 the town received a charter of incorporation, and since then its progress has been remarkable. In 1871 the population of the borough (area 7526 acres) was 18,086; in 1881 this had grown to 32,206, and in 1886 it was estimated at 36,596. Its sanitary arrangements are very perfect, and the water supply is abundant and excellent. Southport gives its name to one of the parliamentary divisions of South-West Lancashire.

SOUTH SHIELDS. See SHIELDS, SOUTH SOUTHWARK. See LONDON.

SOUVESTRE, ÉMILE (1806-1854), a French novelist of merit, was born on April 15, 1806, and died on July 5, 1854. He was a native of Morlaix, and his affection for Brittany coloured most of his best work in after life. He had rather a chequered career of employment besides his literary pursuits. He was by turns a bookseller's assistant, a private schoolmaster, a journalist, and *professeur* at the grammar schools of Brest and Mulhouse. In 1848 he received what may sound to English ears the odd appointment of "professor of administrative style" in a school founded for the instruction of civil servants. His literary work, however, was his labour of love. He began like most Frenchmen with the drama, but was never very successful with it. In novel-writing he did much better, and with Jules Sandeau (though on a somewhat lower level of writing, construction, and grasp of character) may be said to rank as the chief recent French novelist who deliberately aimed at making the novel an engine of moral instruction. With less genius and less sense of art than

Sandean, he did not always escape the reproach of dulness. His best work is undoubtedly to be found in the charming *Derniers Bretons* (1835-1837) and *Foyer Breton* (1844) (where the folklore and natural features of his native province are worked up into story form, with a success hardly excelled by any other writer), and in *Un Philosophe sous les Toits*, which received the honour of an academic prize in the year 1851. This Souvestre deserved, not merely for his sentiments, but for his easy and agreeable style. He also wrote a not inconsiderable number of other works—novels, dramas, essays, and miscellanies.

SOWERBY, JAMES (1757-1822), was at first a painter, but soon applied his art to the illustration of botanical and conchological works, which are still highly valued, especially his *English Botany* (12 vols. 8vo, 1846). His son George (1788-1854) followed in his father's steps, and produced a monumental work on conchology.

SOWERBY BRIDGE, a manufacturing town in the West Riding of Yorkshire, is situated on both sides of the river Calder, at the termination of the Rochdale Canal, and on the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway, 2 miles south-west of Halifax, and 8 north-west of Huddersfield. Christ church, dating from 1526, was rebuilt in 1819. The other public buildings include the town-hall (1857) and the local board offices, opened in 1878, attached to which are the public baths and the slaughter-houses. The town is almost entirely the growth of the last fifty years. It possesses worsted and cotton mills, iron-works, dye-works, and chemical works. The population of the urban sanitary district (area 536 acres) in 1871 was 7041, and in 1881 it was 8724.

SOZOMEN, church historian. Hieronimus Salamanes (Salaminus) Sozomenus came of a wealthy family of Palestine, and it is exceedingly probable that he himself was born (not later than 400 A.D.) and brought up there,—in Gaza or the neighbourhood. What he has to tell us of the history of South Palestine was derived from oral tradition. His grandfather, as he himself tells us, lived at Bethel near Gaza, and became a Christian, probably under Constantius, through the influence of Hilarion, who among his other miracles had miraculously healed an acquaintance of the grandfather, one Alaphion. Both men with their families became zealous Christians and conspicuous for their virtues. The historian's grandfather became within his own circle a highly esteemed interpreter of Scripture, and held fast his profession even in the time of Julian. The descendants of the wealthy Alaphion founded churches and convents in the district, and were particularly active in promoting monasticism. Sozomen himself had conversed with one of these, a very old man. He was brought up under monkish influences; so he expressly states, and his history bears him out. As a man he retained the impressions of his youth, and his great work was to be also a monument of his reverence for the monks in general and for the disciples of Hilarion in particular. He became a lawyer and advocate in Constantinople, where as such he wrote his *Ἐκκλησιαστικὴ Ἱστορία* about the year 440. The nine books of which it is composed begin with Constantine and come down to the death of Honorius (423); but according to his own statement the author intended to continue it as far as the year 439. From Sozomen himself (iv. 17), and statements of his exceptors Nicephorus and Theophanes, it can be made out that the work did actually come down to that year, and that consequently it has reached us only in a somewhat mutilated condition, at least half a book being wanting. A flattering and bombastic dedication to Theodosius II. is prefixed. When compared with the history of SOCRATES (*q.v.*), it is plainly seen to be a plagiarism from that work, and that on a large scale. Some three-fourths of the

materials, essentially in the same arrangement, have simply been appropriated from his predecessor without his being so much as named even once, the other sources to which Sozomen was indebted being, however, expressly cited. All that can be said to the credit of Sozomen is that he has been himself at the trouble to refer to the principal sources used by Socrates (Rufinus, Eusebius, Athanasius, Sabinus, the collections of epistles, Palladius), and has not unfrequently supplemented Socrates from them, and also that he has adduced some new authorities, in particular sources relating to Christianity in Persia, Arian history, monkish histories, the *Vita Martini* of Sulpicius, books of Hilarius; the whole of the ninth book is entirely drawn from Olympiodorus.

It is difficult to discern the motive for a work which was merely an enlarged edition of Socrates. But it is probable that Sozomen did not approve of Socrates's freer attitude towards Greek science, and that he wished to present a picture in which the clergy should be still further glorified, and, above all, monasticism brought into still stronger prominence. In Sozomen everything is a shade more ecclesiastical—but only a shade—that in Socrates. Perhaps also he wrote for a different circle,—say, the monks in Palestine,—and could be sure that in it the work of his predecessor would not be known.

Sozomen is everywhere an inferior Socrates. What in Socrates still betrays some vestiges of historical sense, his moderation, his reserve in questions of dogma, his impartiality,—all this is wanting in Sozomen. In many cases he has repeated the exact words of Socrates, but with him they have passed almost into mere phrases. The inferiority of Sozomen to Socrates as an historian appears as much in the manner in which he transcribed him as in those passages where he introduces something new. The chronological scrupulosity of the earlier writer has made no impression on his follower; he has either wholly omitted or inaccurately repeated the chronological data. He writes more wordily and diffusely. In his characterizations of persons, borrowed from Socrates, he is more dull and colourless. After Socrates he has indeed repeated the caution not to be too rash in discerning the finger of God; but his way of looking at things is throughout mean and rustic. Two souls inhabit his book: one, the better, is borrowed from Socrates; another, the worse, is his own. Wherever he abandons his leader he frequently falls into mere retailing of stories, and prostrates himself in reverence before the poorest products of the religious fantasy of a degenerating age. Evidence of a boundless credulity with regard to all sorts of monkish fables is to be met with everywhere. Raisings of the dead are quite common occurrences with him, and he repeatedly gives accounts of enormous dragons. In the finding of the bones of saints he takes the highest interest, and even believes in the rediscovery of the tombs of the Old Testament prophets.

Where we still possess Socrates's account that of Sozomen very seldom has any consequence, but some of the additions he has made are instructive and important. The number of new acts of councils introduced by him is small. His monkish histories are as sources almost utterly valueless; his account of the Christians in Persia absolutely swarms with mistakes. It must, however, be noted that for the period from Theodosius I. onward he has emancipated himself more fully from Socrates and has followed Olympiodorus in part, partly also oral tradition; here accordingly his statements possess greater value.

*Editions and Literature.*—Socrates and Sozomen have been edited by Stephans (Paris, 1844; Geneva, 1812), Valesius (Paris, 1659-73), Reading (Cambridge, 1720), Hussey (Oxford, 1858, 1860). They are also to be found in vol. lxvii. of Migne's *Patrologia*, and there is an Oxford school edition (1844) after Reading. Bright edited Socrates according to the text of Hussey in 1875. There are "Testimonia Veterum" in Valesius; and Nolte's papers in *Tubing. Quartalschr.* (1859) p. 518 sq., (1861) p. 411 sq., contain emendations in Hussey's text, and notes towards the history of the text and editions; see also Overbeck, in *Theol. Lit. Zeitung*, (1879), No. 20.

Special studies have been made by Baronius, Miræus, Labbé, Valesius, Halloix, Scalliger, Cellier, Cave, Dupin, Pagl. Ittig, Tillemont, Walch, Gibbon, Schroech, Lardner. See also Voss, *De Histor. Græcis*; Fabricius-Harless, *Biblioth. Gr.*, vol. vii.; Rössler, *Biblioth. d. Kirchenväter*; Holzhausen, *De Fontibus quibus Socr., Soz., ac Theod. in scribenda Historia Sacra uti sunt* (Göttingen, 1825; Ständlin, *Gesch. u. Lit. d. K.-G.*, Hanover, 1827; Baur, *Epochen* (1826); Harnack, "Socr. u. Soz.," in Herzog-Plitt's *Theol. Encycl.* Detached details are given also in works upon Constantine (Manso), Julian (Mücke, Rode, Neumann, Bendall), Damascus (Rade), Arianism (Gwatkin's) and discusses the manner in which Socrates was related to him), the emperors after Julian (De Broglie, Richter, Clinton, the *Weltgeschichte*, of Ranke, the *Gesch. d. Kaiser Arcadius u. Theod. II.*, 1885, of *Güldenpenning*, and the *Kaiser Theodosius d. Gr.*, Halle, 1878, of *Iffland*, the last-named work discussing the relation of Socrates to Sozomen), the barbarian migrations (Wittefsheim, Dahn), the Goths (Waltz, Bessel, Kauffmann, and Scott's *Ulfilas*, 1885). Lastly, reference may be made to Rosenstern, *Forsch. z. deutsch. Gesch.*, vol. I.,—*Krit.*

*Untersuch. üb. d. Verhältniss zu Olympiodor, Sozimus, u. Socr.*; Sarrazin, *De Theodoro Lectore, Theopanis Fonte Præcipuo*, 1881 (treats of the relation between Socrates and Sozomen, and of the completeness of the former's work); Jeep, *Quellenuntersuch. z. d. griech. Kirchengeschichte*, Leipzig, 1884. (A. H.A.)

SPA, a watering-place of Belgium, in the province of Liège, 20 miles by rail from Liège via Pepinster, is beautifully situated, at a height of 814 feet above the sea, in the valley of the Wayai (a small sub-tributary of the Meuse). On the north and north-east it is protected by the wooded range of hills known as the Spaloumont, or in its several parts as Bois de la Reid, Bois du Chiencul, &c.; and on the south are a number of beautiful ravines cut in the Primary rocks of the district by small affluents of the Wayai. Much of the charm of the place is due to the promenades and drives along the sides and crests of the hills. The principal mineral spring called the Pouhon (a local word for "well") is enclosed in a pump-room in the centre of the Place Pierre le Grand. Public baths, fed by chalybeate streams collected in a remarkable reservoir at the hamlet of Nivesé, occupy a large building in Place Royale, erected in 1868; and in the same neighbourhood is the casino, with ball and concert rooms. An English church was built in 1872-76. A local industry is the production of fancy articles in lacquered wood (bois de Spa). A liqueur resembling Chartreuse is also manufactured under the name of "elixir de Spa." The population of the commune was 6930 in 1884. Several springs in the neighbouring district are nearly as celebrated as those of Spa proper; the Sauvenière waters, supposed to be effective against sterility, are half a mile distant.

Spa, said to derive its name from a Walloon word, *Espa*, for "fountain," was practically founded by a certain Wolf, or Collin le Loup, iron-master of Breda, who had obtained benefit from the waters, and purchased the piece of ground containing the Pouhon spring from Erard de la Marck, bishop of Liège, in 1326. At the beginning of the 15th century the little town numbered 250 houses. The European celebrity of the waters dates from the 16th century, when they were drunk by the duke of Nevers, Margaret of Valois, Henry III. of France, and Alexander Farnese, and the fashion of visiting Spa became thoroughly established in the 18th century. The French Revolution, and, as far as English visitors were concerned, the attractions of the German watering-places made known by Sir Francis Head, for a time turned the tide elsewhere; but since the middle of the century Spa has taken a new lease of prosperity.

SPAGNA, Lo (? -c. 1529), the usual designation (due to his Spanish origin) of Giovanni di Pietro, one of the chief followers of Perugino. Nothing whatever is known of his early life, or of the circumstances under which he became a member of the Perugian school. A large number of panel pictures by him exist, of which some are painted with much grace and refinement of touch. There is, however, a very marked absence of individuality about his style, which seems like an imitation of the earliest manner of Raphael and that of Pinturicchio in a weaker and less virile form. The chief of his numerous panel paintings are the Nativity, in the Vatican, and the Adoration of the Magi, at Berlin. In 1510 Lo Spagna executed many frescos at Todi, and in 1512 several other mural paintings in and near Trevi. His most important works were frescos at Assisi and Spoleto, of which some exist in good preservation. He received the freedom of the city of Spoleto in 1516, as a reward for his work there. As is so often the case, Lo Spagna's frescos reach a much higher standard of merit than his panel pictures. The museum of the Capitol in Rome now possesses a very beautiful series of life-sized fresco figures by him, representing Apollo and the Nine Muses. These are drawn with a strong feeling for grace of pose and beauty of expression, and are very remarkable for the delicate refinement of their colouring; in style they strongly recall Raphael's earliest manner. Lo Spagna was alive in 1528, but he appears to have died before 1530, as in that year a pupil of his named Doni completed a fresco in S. Jacopo, near Spoleto, which Lo Spagna had begun.

SPAGNOLETTO. See RIBERA

## PART I.—GEOGRAPHY AND STATISTICS.

SPAIN, a country rather more than twice the size of Great Britain including the adjacent small islands, constitutes in its mainland portion about eleven-thirteenths of the Iberian Peninsula, and has in addition an insular area (in the Balearic and Canary Islands) of nearly 5000 square miles. On all sides except that of Portugal the boundaries are natural, the Peninsula being separated from France by the Pyrenees and on every other side being surrounded by the sea. On the side of Portugal a tract of inhospitable country led originally to the separation between the two kingdoms, inasmuch as it caused the reconquest of the comparatively populous maritime tracts from the Moors to be carried out independently of that of the eastern kingdoms, which were also well peopled. The absence of any such means of intercommunication as navigable rivers afford has favoured the continuance of this isolation. The precise line of this western frontier is formed for a considerable length by portions of the chief rivers or by small tributaries, and on the north (between Portugal and Galicia) it is determined to a large extent by small mountain ranges. The British rock of Gibraltar, in the extreme south of the peninsula, is separated from Spain by a low isthmus known as the Neutral Ground. The coast-line on the north and north-west is everywhere steep and cliffy. On the north there are numerous small indentations, many of which form more or less convenient harbours, but the current flowing along the coast from the west often leaves in the stiller water at their mouths obstructive bars. The best harbours are to be found on the *rias* or fiord-like indentations in the west of Galicia, where high tides keep the inlets well scoured; here occur the fine natural harbours of Pontevedra and Vigo, Coruña and Ferrol, the last one of the chief stations of the Spanish fleet. Less varied in outline but more varied in character are the Spanish coasts on the south and east. Flat coasts prevail from the frontier of Portugal to the Straits of Gibraltar. Between the mouth of the Rio Tinto and that of the Guadalquivir they are sandy and lined by a series of sand-dunes (the tract known as the Arenas Gordas). Next follows a marshy tract at the mouth of the Guadalquivir, after which the coast-line becomes more varied, and includes the fine Bay of Cadiz. From the Straits of Gibraltar a bold and rocky coast is continued almost right round to Cape Palos, a little beyond the fine natural harbour of Cartagena. North of Cape Palos a line of flat coast, beginning with the narrow strip which cuts off the lagoon called the Mar Menor from the Mediterranean, bounds half of the province of Alicante, but in its northern half this province, becoming mountainous, runs out to the lofty headland of Cape Nao. The whole coast of the Bay of Valencia is low and ill-provided with harbours; and along the east of Catalonia stretches of steep and rocky coast alternate with others of an opposite character.

The surface of Spain is remarkable at once for its striking contrasts and its vast expanses of dreary uniformity. There are mountains rising with Alpine grandeur above the snow-line, but often sheltering rich and magnificent valleys at their base. Naked walls of white limestone tower above dark woods of cork, oak, and olive. In other parts, as in the Basque country, in Galicia, in the Serrania de Cuenca (between the head waters of the Tagus and those of the Jucar), in the Albarracin (between the head waters of the Tagus and those of the Guadalaviar), there are extensive tracts of undulating forest-clad hill country,

and almost contiguous to these there are apparently boundless plains, or tracts of level tableland, some almost uninhabitable, and some streaked with canals and richly cultivated—like the Requena of Valencia. While, again, continuous mountain ranges and broad plains and tablelands give the prevailing character to the scenery, there are here and there, on the one hand, lofty isolated peaks, landmarks for a wide distance round, such as Monseu, Monserrat, and Mont Sant in Catalonia, the Peña Golosa in Valencia, Moncayo on the borders of Aragon and Old Castile, and, on the other hand, small secluded valleys, such as those of Vich and Olot among the Catalonian Pyrenees.

The greater part of the interior of Spain is composed of a tableland bounded by the Cantabrian Mountains in the north and the Sierra Morena in the south, and divided into two by a series of mountain ranges stretching on the whole from east to west. The northern half of the tableland, made up of the provinces of Leon and Old Castile, has an average elevation estimated at about 2700 feet, while the southern half, made up of Estremadura and New Castile, is slightly lower—about 2600 feet. On all sides the tableland as a whole is remarkably isolated, and hence the passes on its boundary and the river valleys that lead up to it from the surrounding plains are geographical features of peculiar importance. The isolation on the side of Portugal, where the tableland gradually sinks to the sea in a succession of terraces, has already been referred to. On the north-west the valley of the Sil and a series of valleys further south, along both of which military roads have been carried from an early period, open up communication between Leon and the hill country of Galicia; which explains why this province was united to Leon even before the conquest of Portugal from the Moors. The passes across the Cantabrian Mountains in the north are tolerably numerous, and four of them are already crossed by railways. The two most remarkable are the Pass of Pájaros, across which winds the railway from Leon to Oviedo and the seaport of Gijon, and that of Reinosa leading down to the deep valley of the Besaya, and now crossed by the railway from Valladolid to Santander. In its eastern section the chain is crossed by the railways from Burgos to Bilbao and San Sebastian, the latter of which winds through the wild and romantic gorge of Pancorbo (in the north-east of the province of Burgos) before it traverses the Cantabrian chain at Idiazabal.

On the north east and east, where the edge of the tableland sweeps round in a wide curve, the surface sinks on the whole in broad terraces to the valley of the Ebro and the Bay of Valencia, and is crowned here and there by more or less isolated mountains, some of which have been already mentioned. On the north-east by far the most important communication with the Ebro valley is formed by the valley of the Jalon, which has thus always formed a military route of the highest consequence, and which is now traversed by the railway from Madrid to Saragossa. Further south the mountains clustered on the east of the tableland (Albarracin, Serrania de Cuenca) render direct communication between Valencia and Madrid extremely difficult, and the principal communications with the east and south-east are effected where the southern tableland of La Mancha merges in the hill country which connects the interior of Spain with the Sierra Nevada.

In the south the descent from the tableland to the