

animal, it is far surpassed by many of the tropical members of the group, and especially by those of the Malayan region, where nearly all the numerous species are brilliantly marked, and many are ornamented with variously coloured longitudinal stripes along their bodies. One of the commonest and best known of the striped species is the little Indian Palm Squirrel (*S. palmarum*), which in large numbers runs about every Indian village. Another Oriental species (*S. caniceps*) presents almost the only known instance among mammals of the temporary assumption during the breeding season of a distinctly ornamental coat, corresponding to the breeding plumage of birds. For the greater part of the year the animal is of a uniform grey colour, but about December its back becomes a brilliant orange-yellow, which lasts until about March, when it is again replaced by grey. The squirrel shown in fig. 2 is a native of Burmah and Tenasserim, and is



FIG. 2.—Burmese squirrel.

closely allied to *S. caniceps*, but goes through no seasonal change of colour.

The number of species in the genus *Sciurus* is about 75, of which 3 belong to the Palearctic, 15 to the Ethiopian, about 40 to the Oriental, and 16 to the combined Nearctic and Neotropical regions.

Genus Rheithrosciurus.

A single very striking species of squirrel, confined to Borneo, and as yet only known from three or four examples, has been separated generically under the above name. The general shape of its skull is very different from that of other squirrels; but its most peculiar characteristic is the presence of from seven to ten minute parallel vertical grooves running down the front face of its incisors, both above and below, no other squirrel having really grooved incisors at all, and no other member of the whole order of rodents incisor grooves resembling these. Its premolars only number 4, and its molars are simpler and less ridged than in the other genera. This squirrel (*Rh. macrotis*) is a magnificent animal, far larger than the English species, with an enormously long bushy tail, long tufted ears, and black and white bands down its sides.

Genus Xerus.

Fur coarse and spiny. Claws long and comparatively straight. Ear-conches minute or entirely absent. Skull with the post-orbital processes short and directed backwards, the bony palate prolonged considerably behind the tooth-row, and the external ridge on the

front face of the anterior zygoma-root more developed, and continued much further upwards, than in *Sciurus*. Premolars 4; molars as in *Sciurus*. This genus contains four well-marked species, known as Spiny Squirrels, all natives of Africa. They are terrestrial in their habits, living in burrows which they dig for themselves. *X. geryi*, a striped species of North Africa, has much the size and appearance of the Indian palm squirrel; the others are all a little larger than the English squirrel.

Genus Tamias.

The members of this genus are characterized by the possession of internal cheek-pouches, and by their style of coloration, all being ornamented on the back with alternate bands of light and dark colour. Their skulls are slenderer and lighter than those of the true squirrels, from which they differ in several unimportant details. There is only one functional premolar,—the small anterior one usually found in *Sciurus* being either absent altogether or quite small and functionless. There are four species, all found in North America, one extending also through Siberia into eastern Europe. They are known in America as "Chipmunks," and are among the commonest and best known of the indigenous rodents. The members of this group seem rather to lead into the genus *Spermophilus* (see MARMOR) of the sub-family *Arctomyiina*, so that the division of the *Sciuridae* into two sub-families, although very convenient for classification and description, is rather of an artificial nature, there being no well-defined line of separation between them.

Genera Pteromys and Sciuropterus.

The Flying Squirrels, although they cannot fly in the true sense of the word, can yet float through the air for considerable distances by the aid of an extension of skin connecting their fore and hind limbs, and forming a sort of parachute. This parachute is merely a lateral extension of the ordinary skin of the body, which passes outwards between the limbs and terminates at the wrists and ankles. In addition to the lateral membrane there is a narrow and inconspicuous one passing from the cheek along the front of the shoulder to the front of the wrist, and another—at least in the larger species—stretching across behind the body from ankle to ankle and involving the base of the tail. The flying squirrels are divided into two genera, of which *Pteromys* contains the larger and *Sciuropterus* the smaller species. The two differ in certain details of dentition, and in the greater development in the former of the expanded membranes, especially of the "interfemoral" or posterior membrane, which is in the latter almost wholly absent. In *Pteromys* the tail is cylindrical and comparatively thin, while in *Sciuropterus* it is broad, flat, and laterally expanded, and evidently compensates for the absence of the interfemoral membrane by acting as a supplementary parachute. In appearance flying squirrels resemble the non-flying forms, although they are even more beautifully coloured than the latter. Their habits, food, &c., are also very similar to those of the true squirrels, except that they are more decidedly nocturnal, and are therefore less often seen by the ordinary observer. Their method of leaping from tree to tree and floating long distances on their extended parachutes is precisely similar to that of the flying phalangers of Australia, a graphic description of which is quoted in PHALANGER (vol. xviii. p. 729). Of each of the two genera there are about thirteen or fourteen species, all natives of the Oriental region, except that one of *Sciuropterus* is found in North America, and another in Siberia and eastern Europe,—the latter, the *Sciurus volans* of Linnaeus's *Systema Naturæ*, being the first flying squirrel that was known to European naturalists. (O. T.)

SRINAGAR. See KASHMIR, vol. xiv. p. 11.

SRIRANGAM, or SERINGHAM, a town of India, in Trichinopoly district, Madras presidency, situated in 10° 51' 50" N. lat. and 78° 43' 55" E. long., 2 miles north of Trichinopoly city and almost in the centre of the island of Srirangam. The island is formed by the bifurcation of the river Kaveri (Cauvery) and by the channel of the Colerun. The town is celebrated for its great temple dedicated to Vishnu, composed of seven square enclosures, 350 feet distant from each other. Each enclosure has four gates with high towers, placed one in the centre of each side opposite to the four cardinal points. The outer wall of the temple is not less than 4 miles in circumference. From 1751 to 1755 the island and its pagodas were the object of frequent contests between the French and the British. Srirangam was constituted a municipality in 1871, and since then much has been done to improve the place. In 1881 the population was 19,773 (9330 males and 10,443 females).

SRIRANGAPATAM. See SERINGAPATAM.

STAAL, MARGUERITE JEANNE CORDIER DELAUNAY, BARONNE DE (1684–1750)—often called in history and literature Madame de Staal-Delaunay, to distinguish her more completely from Madame de Staal-Holstein—was born at Paris on May 30, 1684. Her father was a painter named Cordier. He seems to have deserted her mother, whose name was Delaunay, and who made her daughter take that surname instead of Cordier. She was well-educated, and entered the household of the Duchesse du Maine at Sceaux, at first in no higher capacity than that of *femme de chambre*. She was, however, promoted before long to the office of amanuensis and (practically) companion to her mistress. Her literary talent soon manifested itself in the literary court of the duchess, who is said, but chiefly on the waiting lady's own authority, to have been not a little jealous of her attendant. Enough, however, is known of the duchess's imperious and capricious temper to make it improbable that her service was agreeable. Madame Delaunay, however, was a sufficiently devoted *suivante*, and in the affair of the Cellamare conspiracy had to endure a visit to the Bastille, where she remained for two years. Even here, however, she represents herself as having made conquests, though she was far from beautiful. She returned on her liberation to the service of the duchess, refused, it is said, Dacier, the widower of a wife more famous than himself, and in 1735, being then more than fifty, married the Baron de Staal. She continued, however, to form part of the duchess's household. She died on June 16, 1750. Her *Memoirs* appeared about five years later, and have often been reprinted, both separately and in collections of the memoirs of the 17th and 18th centuries, to both of which the author belonged both in style and character. She has much of the frankness and seductive verve of Madame de Sévigné and her contemporaries, but a little alloyed with the *sensibilité* of a later time. It may be doubted whether she does not somewhat exaggerate the discomfords of her position and her sense of them. But her book is an extremely amusing one to read, as well as not a little instructive. The humours of the "court of Sceaux" are depicted as hardly any other society of the kind has ever been. Besides her *Memoirs* Madame de Staal left two comedies and some letters, the answers to which are in some cases extant, and show, as well as the references of contemporaries, that the writer did not exaggerate her power of attracting men.

STADE, a small commercial town in the province of Hanover, Prussia, is situated on the navigable Schwinge, 3½ miles above its confluence with the Elbe, and 20 miles to the north-west of Hamburg. It carries on a number of small manufactures and has some shipping trade, chiefly with Hamburg, but the rise of Harburg has depopulated it from its former position as the chief port of Hanover. There are several brickfields in the neighbourhood, and deposits of gypsum and salt. The fortifications, erected in 1755 and strengthened in 1816, began to be demolished in 1882. Population in 1885, 10,003.

According to the legend, Stade was the oldest town of the Saxons and was built in 821 B.C. Historically it cannot be traced farther back than the 10th century, when it was the capital of a line of counts. In the 12th century it passed to the archbishopric of Bremen. Subsequently entering the Hanseatic League, it rose to some commercial importance. In 1648 Stade became the

¹ The Stade Elbe-dues (Stader Elbezoll) were an ancient impost upon all goods carried up the Elbe, and were levied at the village of Brunsbansen, at the mouth of the Schwinge. The tax was abolished in 1267 by the Hanseatic League, but it was revived by the Swedes in 1688, and confirmed by Hanover. The dues were fostered by the growing trade of Hamburg, and in 1861, when they were redeemed (for £427,600) by the nations trading in the Elbe, the exchequer of Hanover was in the yearly receipt of about £45,000 from this source. Hamburg and Great Britain each paid more than a third of the redemption money.

capital of the principality of Bremen under the Swedes; and in 1719 it was ceded to Hanover, the fate of which it has since shared. The Prussians occupied it without resistance in 1866.

STAEL, MADAME DE (by her proper name and title ANNE LOUISE GERMAINE NECKER, BARONNE OF STAEL-HOLSTEIN), was born at Paris on April 22, 1766, and died there on July 14, 1817. Her father was the famous financier Necker, her mother Suzanne Curchod, who is almost equally famous as the early love of Gibbon, as the wife of Necker, as the mistress of one of the most popular salons of Paris, and as the mother of Madame de Stael. Between mother and daughter there was, however, little sympathy. Madame Necker, despite her talents, her beauty, and her fondness for *philosophe* society, was strictly decorous, somewhat reserved, and disposed to carry out in her daughter's case the rigorous discipline of her own childhood. The future Madame de Stael was from her earliest years a romp, a coquette, and passionately desirous of prominence and attention. There seems moreover to have been a sort of rivalry between mother and daughter for the chief place in Necker's affections, and it is not probable that the daughter's love for her mother was increased by the consciousness of her own inferiority in personal charms. Madame Necker, if her portraits as well as verbal descriptions may be trusted, was of a most refined though somewhat lackadaisical style of beauty, while her daughter was a plain child and a plainer woman, whose sole attractions were large and striking eyes and a buxom figure. She was, however, a child of unusual intellectual power, and she began very early to write though not to publish. She is said to have written her father a letter on his famous *Compte-Rendu* and other matters when she was not fifteen, and to have injured her health by excessive study and intellectual excitement. But in reading all the accounts of Madame de Stael's life which come from herself or her intimate friends it must be carefully remembered that she was the most distinguished and characteristic product of the period of *sensibilité*—the singular fashion of ultra-sentiment which required that both men and women, but especially women, should be always palpitating with excitement, steeped in melancholy, or dissolved in tears. Still, there is no doubt that her father's dismissal from the ministry, which followed the presentation of the *Compte*, and the consequent removal of the family from the busy life of Paris, were beneficial to her. During part of the next few years they resided at Coppet, her father's estate on the Lake of Geneva, which she herself made famous. But other parts were spent in travelling about, chiefly in the south of France. They returned to Paris, or at least to its neighbourhood, in 1785, and Mademoiselle Necker resumed literary work of a miscellaneous kind, including two plays, *Sophie* and *Jane Grey*, which were printed sooner or later. It became, however, a question of marrying her. Her want of beauty was compensated by her fortune, for she was the only child of one of the richest bankers in Europe. But her parents are said to have objected to her marrying a Roman Catholic, which, in France, considerably limited her choice. There is a legend that William Pitt the younger thought of her; the somewhat notorious lover of Mademoiselle de Lespinasse, Guibert, a cold-hearted coxcomb of some talent, certainly paid her addresses. But she finally married Eric Magnus, Baron of Staal-Holstein, who was first an attaché of the Swedish legation, and then minister. For a great heiress and a very ambitious girl the marriage scarcely seemed brilliant, for Stael had no fortune and no very great personal distinction. A singular series of negotiations, however, secured from the king of Sweden a promise of the ambassadorship for twelve years and a pension in case of

its withdrawal, and the marriage took place on January 14, 1786. The husband was thirty-seven, the wife twenty. Madame de Stael was accused of extravagance, and latterly an amicable separation of goods had to be effected between the pair. But this was a mere legal formality, and on the whole the marriage seems to have met the views of both parties, neither of whom had any affection for the other. They had three children; there was no scandal between them; the baron obtained money and the lady obtained, as a guaranteed ambassadress of a foreign power of consideration, a much higher position at court and in society than she could have secured by marrying almost any Frenchman, without the inconveniences which might have been expected had she married a Frenchman superior to herself in rank. The particular fancy of Marie Antoinette for Sweden, caused by the fantastic devotion of Count Fersen and the king himself to her, secured moreover a reception which might have been otherwise difficult to gain. Madame de Stael was not a *persona grata* at court, but she seems to have played the part of ambassadress, as she played most parts, in a rather noisy and exaggerated manner, but not ill. Then in 1788 she appeared as an author under her own name (*Sophie* had been already published, but anonymously) with some *Lettres sur J. J. Rousseau*, a fervid panegyric showing a good deal of talent but no power of criticism. She was at this time, and indeed generally, enthusiastic for a mixture of Rousseauism and constitutionalism in politics, and her father's restoration to power excited extravagant hopes in her, though Necker himself knew better. She exulted more than ever in the meeting of the states-general, and most of all when her father, after being driven to Brussels by a state intrigue, was once more recalled and triumphally escorted into Paris. Every one knows what followed. Her first child, a boy, was born the week before Necker finally left France in unpopularity and disgrace; and the increasing disturbances of the Revolution made her privileges as ambassadress no mere matters of ornamental distinction gratifying to vanity, but very important safeguards. She visited Coppet once or twice, but for the most part in the early days of the revolutionary period she was in Paris taking an interest and, as she thought, a part in the councils and efforts of the Moderates. At last, the day before the September massacres, she fled, befriended by Manuel and Tallien. Her own account of her escape is, as usual, so florid that it provokes the question whether she was really in any danger. Directly it does not seem that she was; but she had generously strained the privileges of the embassy to protect some threatened friends, and this was a serious matter.

She betook herself to Coppet, and there gathered round her a considerable number of friends and fellow-refugees, the beginning of the quasi-court which at intervals during the next five-and-twenty years made the place so famous. In 1793, however, she made a visit of some length to England, and established herself at Mickleham in Surrey as the centre of the Moderate Liberal emigrants, — Talleyrand, Narbonne, Jaucourt, Guibert, and others. There was not a little scandal about her relations with Narbonne; and it is very much to be doubted whether this can safely be set down, as her panegyrists usually set it, to the mere spite of the first or royalist emigrants, to whom she and her party were almost more obnoxious than the Jacobins. It is certain that this Mickleham sojourn (the details of which are known from, among other sources, the letters of Fanny Burney) has never been altogether satisfactorily accounted for. In the summer she returned to Coppet and wrote a pamphlet on the queen's execution. The next year her mother died, and the fall of Robespierre opened the way back to Paris. M. de Stael (whose mis-

sion had been in abeyance and himself in Holland for three years) was accredited to the French republic by the regent of Sweden; his wife reopened her salon and for a time was conspicuous in the motley and eccentric society of the Directory. She also published several small works, the chief being an essay *De l'Influence des Passions* (1796), and another *De la Littérature Considérée dans ses Rapports avec les Institutions Sociales* (1800). It was during these years that Madame de Stael was of chief political importance. Narbonne's place had been supplied by Benjamin Constant, who had a very great influence over her, as in return she had over him. During the Directory she had some real and more imaginary power as a politician, and both personal and political reasons threw her into opposition to Bonaparte. Her own preference for a moderate republic or a constitutional monarchy was quite sincere, and, even if it had not been so, her own character and Napoleon's were too much alike in some points to admit of their getting on together. For some years, however, she was able to alternate between Coppet and Paris without difficulty, though not without knowing that the First Consul disliked her. In 1797 she, as above mentioned, separated formally from her husband. In 1799 he was recalled by the king of Sweden, and in 1802 he died duly attended by her. Besides the eldest son Auguste Louis, they had two other children, — a son Albert, and a daughter Albertine, who afterwards became the Duchesse de Broglie.

The exact date of the beginning of what Madame de Stael's admirers call her duel with Napoleon is not easy to determine. Judging from the title of her book *Dir Années d'Exil*, it should be put at 1804; judging from the time at which it became pretty clear that the first man in France and she who wished to be the first woman in France were not likely to get on together, it might be put several years earlier. The whole question of this duel, however (marked as it was by Napoleon's unscrupulous exercises of power, which reached a climax in the suppression of the *De l'Allemagne* after it had been carefully submitted to his censorship), requires consideration from the point of view of common sense. It displeased Napoleon no doubt that Madame de Stael should show herself recalcitrant to his influence. But it probably pleased Madame de Stael to quite an equal degree that Napoleon should apparently put forth his power to crush her and fail. Both personages had the curious touch of *charlatanerie* so common in the late 18th century, and "made believe" in a fashion bewildering and a little incredible to posterity. If Madame de Stael had really desired to take up her parable against Napoleon seriously, she need only have established herself in England at the peace of Amiens and have lived quietly there. She did nothing of the kind. She lingered on at Coppet, constantly hankering after Paris, and acknowledging the hankering quite honestly. In 1802 she published the first of her really noteworthy books, the novel of *Delphine*, in which the "femme incomprise" was in a manner introduced to French literature, and in which she herself and not a few of her intimates appeared in transparent disguise. In the autumn of 1803 she returned to Paris. Whether, if she had not displayed such extraordinary anxiety not to be exiled, Napoleon would have exiled her remains a question; but, as she began at once appealing to all sorts of persons to protect her, he seems to have thought it better that she should not be protected. She was directed not to reside within forty leagues of Paris, and after considerable delay she determined to go to Germany. She journeyed by Metz and Frankfurt to Weimar, and arrived there in December. There she stayed during the winter, and then went to Berlin, where she

made the acquaintance of August Wilhelm Schlegel, who afterwards became one of her intimates at Coppet. Thence she travelled to Vienna, where, in April, the news of her father's dangerous illness and shortly of his death (April 8) reached her. She returned to Coppet, and found herself its wealthy and independent mistress, but her sorrow for her father was deep and certainly sincere. She spent the summer at the chateau with a brilliant company; in the autumn she journeyed to Italy accompanied by Schlegel and Sismondi, and there gathered the materials of her most famous work, *Corinne*. She returned in the summer of 1805, and spent nearly a year in writing *Corinne*; in 1806 she broke the decree of exile and lived for a time undisturbed near Paris. In 1807 *Corinne*, the first æsthetic romance not written in German, appeared. It is in fact, what it was described as being at the time of its appearance, "a picturesque tour couched in the form of a novel." The publication was taken as a reminder of her existence, and the police of the empire sent her back to Coppet. She stayed there as usual for the summer, and then set out once more for Germany, visiting Mainz, Frankfurt, Berlin, and Vienna. She was again at Coppet in the summer of 1808, and set to work at her book *De l'Allemagne*. It took her nearly the whole of the next two years, during which she did not travel much or far from her own house. She had bought property in America and thought of moving thither, but chance or fatality made her determine to publish *De l'Allemagne* in Paris. The submission to censorship which this entailed was sufficiently inconsistent, and she wrote to the emperor one of the unfortunate letters, at once undignified and provoking, of which she had the secret. A man less tyrannical or less mean-spirited than Napoleon would of course have let her alone, but Napoleon was Napoleon, and she perfectly well knew him. The reply to her letter was the condemnation of the whole edition of her book (ten thousand copies) as "not French," and her own exile, not as before to a certain distance from Paris, but from France altogether. The act was unquestionably one of odious tyranny, but it is impossible not to ask why she had put herself within reach of it when her fortune enabled her to reside anywhere and to publish what she pleased. She retired once more to Coppet, where she was not at first interfered with, and she found consolation in a young officer of Swiss origin named Rocca, twenty-three years her junior, whom she married privately in 1811. The intimacy of their relations could escape no one at Coppet, but the fact of the marriage was not certainly known till after her death.

The operations of the imperial police in regard to Madame de Stael are rather obscure. She was at first left undisturbed, but by degrees the chateau itself became taboo, and her visitors found themselves punished heavily. Mathieu de Montmorency and Madame Récamier were exiled for the crime of seeing her; and she at last began to think of doing what she ought to have done years before and withdrawing herself entirely from Napoleon's sphere. In the complete subjection of the Continent which preceded the Russian War this was not so easy as it would have been earlier, and she remained at home during the winter of 1811, writing and planning. On May 23 she left Coppet almost secretly, and journeyed by Bern, Innsbruck, and Salzburg to Vienna. There she obtained an Austrian passport to the frontier, and after some fears and trouble, receiving a Russian passport in Galicia, she at last escaped from the dungeon of Napoleonic Europe, swearing never to return thither. It seemed likely that the proclamation of war between France and Russia, on June 22, would help her to keep the vow.

She journeyed slowly though Russia and Finland to

Sweden, making some stay at St Petersburg, spent the winter in Stockholm, and then set out for England. Here she received a brilliant reception and was much lionized during the season of 1813. She published *De l'Allemagne* (a book much more really remarkable than *Corinne*) in the autumn, was saddened by the death of her second son Albert, who had entered the Swedish army and fell in a duel brought on by gambling, undertook her *Considérations sur la Révolution Française*, and when Louis XVIII. had been restored returned to Paris. Both in the summer and in the winter of 1814 she visited Coppet, and was meanwhile a prominent figure in Parisian society. She was in Paris when the news of Napoleon's landing arrived and at once fled to Coppet, but a singular story, much discussed, is current of her having approved Napoleon's return. There is no direct evidence of it, but the conduct of her close ally Constant may be quoted in its support, and it is certain that she had no affection for the Bourbons. In October, after Waterloo, she set out for Italy, not only for the advantage of her own health but for that of her second husband, Rocca, who was dying of consumption. Her daughter married Duke Victor de Broglie on February 20, 1816, at Pisa, and became the wife and mother of French statesmen of distinction. The whole family returned to Coppet in June, and Byron now frequently visited Madame de Stael there. He had quizzed her a good deal in London, but liked her better in her own house, though even there he noticed her constant straining to be something different from herself. Despite her increasing ill-health she returned to Paris for the winter of 1816-17, and her salon was much frequented. But in March she is spoken of as "dying," and she had already become confined to her room, if not to her bed. She died on the 14th of July, and Rocca survived her little more than six months. Nor was her eldest son long-lived. After editing a collected edition of his mother's works he died at the age of thirty-seven in 1827.

Madame de Stael occupies a singular position in French literature. The men of her own time exalted her to the skies, and the most extravagant estimates of her (as "the greatest woman in literary history," as the "foundress of the romantic movement," as representing "ideas," while her contemporary Chateaubriand only represented words, colours, and images, and so forth) are to be found in those histories of literature which faithfully repeat second-hand and traditional opinions. On the other hand, it is acknowledged that she is now very little read. Sainte-Beuve, who professes a "culte" for her, and who has treated her at great length and with much indulgence; M. Scherer, a compatriot and co-religionist, who is strongly prejudiced in her favour; Doudan, a kind of literary retainer of her connexions, — all allow this, and any one who speaks with an intimate knowledge of current French literature must agree that since they spoke neglect of her has increased. No writer of such eminence is so rarely quoted; none is so entirely destitute of that tribute of new and splendid editions which France pays to her favourite classics more lavishly than any other nation; none is so seldom the subject of a literary *causerie*. The abundant documents in the hands of her descendants, the families of Broglie and Haussenville, have indeed furnished material for papers recently, but these are almost wholly on the social aspect of Madame de Stael, not on her literary merit. Nor when the life and works come to be examined independently is the neglect seen to be without excuse. An ugly coquette, an old woman who made a ridiculous marriage, a blue-stocking who spent much of her time in pestering men of genius, and drawing from them sarcastic comment behind her back, — these things are not attractive. Her books are seen to be in large part merely clever reflexions of other people's views, or views current at the time, and the famous "ideas" turn out to be chiefly the ideas of the books or the men with whom she was from time to time in contact. The sentimentality of her sentiment and the florid magniloquence of her style equally disgust the reader; and, when it is suggested to him that the revolution of taste and manners hurts novels more than anything else, he is tempted to reply that it has not hurt *Don Quixote*, or *Gil Blas*, or *Robinson Crusoe*, or *Tom Jones*, or *Manon Lescaut*, or *The Antiquary*, and that if it has hurt *Corinne* it is simply because these are great books and *Corinne* is not a great book. There is truth in this, but to state it alone would be in the highest degree unfair. Madame de Stael's faults are great; her style is of an age not for

all time; her ideas are mostly second-hand and frequently superficial. But nothing save a very great talent could have shown itself so receptive. Take away her assiduous frequentation of society, from the later *philosophes* coteries to the age of Byron,—take away the influence of Constant and Schlegel and her other literary friends,—and probably little of her will remain. But to have caught from all sides in this manner the floating notions of society and of individuals, to reflect them with such vigour and clearness, to combine them with such not inconsiderable skill into connected books, is not anybody's task. Her two best books, *Corinne* and *De l'Allemagne*, are in all probability almost wholly unoriginal, a little sentiment in the first and a little constitutionalism in the second being all that she can claim. But *Corinne* is still a very remarkable exposition of a certain kind of aestheticism, and *De l'Allemagne* is still perhaps the most remarkable account of one country by a native and inhabitant of another which exists in literature. This praise, and it is very high praise, can be given to Madame de Staël. But the merits which it allows are not merits of the class which secure readers for ever. Neither in style nor in thought was she of the first class or perhaps of the second; and besides thought and style nothing will save books.

Baron Auguste de Staël edited, as has been said, the complete works of his mother in seventeen volumes (Paris, 1820-1), and the edition was afterwards republished in a compact form, and supplemented by some *Œuvres Inédites*, is still obtainable in 3 vols. large 8vo (Didot). The *Considérations* and the *Dix Années d'Exil* had been published after Madame de Staël's death. There is no recent reissue of the whole, and the minor works have not been reprinted, but *Corinne*, *Delphine*, and *De l'Allemagne* are easily accessible in cheap and separate forms. Of recent works on Madame de Staël, or rather on Copet and its society, those of M. Caro and Othenin d'Haussonville may be mentioned. In English there is an elaborate biography by A. Stevens (London, 1880), full of information, but unluckily not at all critical. (G. S.A.)

STAFFORD, an inland county of England, is bounded on the S.E. by Warwickshire, S. by Worcestershire, W. by Shropshire, N.W. by Cheshire, and E. by Derbyshire, just touching Leicestershire. It is of irregular outline, and has been likened to an elongated and compressed pear, somewhat tapering at both ends. Its greatest length from north to south is 53 miles, and its greatest breadth is 35 miles. The area is 748,433 acres—about 1170 square miles.

Surface and Geology.—Although the general aspect of the county is that of a plain, it has been pronounced "rather a subalpine or hilly district"; but its highest hill, Axe Edge, is only 1756 feet above the level of the sea. In the north the land is undulating and very picturesque; the hills here are the loftiest in the county, as Axe Edge, Cloud Thorpe, Mow Cop, and other hillocks and mounds called "edges." These are mostly composed of millstone grit. In the south we have sandstone, gravel, limestone, and basalt, represented respectively by Kinfare Edge, Barr and Cannock Chase, Sedgley, and Clent. The principal rivers are the Trent, the Tame, the Sow, the Penk, the Stour, the Blythe, the Tern, the Churnet, the Lyme, the Smestow, and the Manyfold; of these the Trent is the most important. The Severn has a short part of its course within the county, traversing the coal-field at Arley. The Dove separates Staffordshire from Derbyshire. Several of the rivers are well supplied with fish.

Geologically the county is included in the New Red Sandstone district of England, and is of the Carboniferous, Permian, and Triassic systems of formation. It is rich in limestone and coal. According to Mr Garner (*Natural History of the County of Stafford*), the following is a summary of its geological characters:—the Polley coal-field occupies 51 square miles; the South Staffordshire coal-field (excluding about 11 miles of it situated in other counties), 65; the Silurian limestone, &c., in the south of the county, 16; the Rowley basalt, 1; the Clent basalt, 2; the Arley coal-field, basalt, cornstone, &c., 7; the mountain limestone, 40; the Cheadle coal-field, 18; the Chiddleton coal-field, 1; the Meerbrook coal-field, 4; the millstone-grit, 100; the New Red Sandstone (marl, gravel, rock, sand, and peat), 825.

The county is very rich in fossils. In the coal, the limestone, and the Silurian deposits the remains of marine animals and plants are especially numerous. The museums in several towns have good collections of corals, calamites,

and ferns; and probably the finest examples of trilobites and encrinites have been found in this part of England. The teeth of the *Megalichthys* have been found in the coal strata, and the Dudley museum contains a specimen of *M. libberti*, nearly entire. The county is very rich in mineral productions. In a single year 12,000,000 tons of coal and 1,173,866 tons of iron have been obtained. The greatest quantity of iron is raised in the north and of coal in the south. Of the places at which the various products are found may be named—Birch Hills for anthracite coal; Hanley Green for peacock coal; Longton for cannel coal; Wednesbury for hematite iron ore; Langley Close for grey marble; the Rowley Hills for basalt. At Bilston casting sand, at Kingswinford fire-clay and fire bricks, at Tutbury alabaster, at Powke Hill black marble, and at Hemley Green red ochre are produced. In December 1885 an important discovery of coal was made near Dudley. Mr S. Blewitt has driven from the Grace Mary pits about 250 yards towards the Ivy House estate, through the igneous rocks, and come upon a large area of the best hard coal, about thirty feet in thickness, and some thirty acres in area.

Climate and Agriculture.—As regards climate the county shares the characteristics common to the midland district of England. Agriculture, though not its distinctive feature, forms a very important item in the industry and wealth of Staffordshire. The returns for 1886 furnish the following report: in corn crops there were 94,273 acres; roots, artificial grasses, &c., 43,343; clover and grasses, 46,832; permanent pasture, 412,566; fallow, 7203; orchards, 1188; market gardens, 866; nursery grounds, 233; woods and plantations, 34,911. From the same returns we learn that the number of horses employed in agriculture was 16,031; unbroken horses and brood mares, 7802; cows in milk or in calf, 74,868; cattle under two years old, 56,224; two years and upward, 25,922; one-year-old sheep, 142,955; sheep under one year, 106,950; and pigs, 48,569. The total number of proprietors in the county was returned in 1873 as 43,371, possessing 638,084 acres, producing an annual rental of £3,630,254. The estimated extent of waste or common land was 7809 acres. Of the owners 33,672 owned less than one acre each. Eight proprietors were owners of more than 10,000 acres each, viz., Earl of Lichfield, 21,433; Earl of Shrewsbury, 18,954; Lord Hatherton, 14,901; Marquis of Anglesey, 14,344; Sir J. H. Crewe, 14,256; Duke of Sutherland, 12,744; Lord Bagot, 10,993; Sir T. F. F. Boughay, 10,505.

Manufactures.—The manufactures of Staffordshire are of a very varied character. Almost everything which is made of iron is manufactured in one town or another; and it would only be tedious to enumerate the almost infinite variety of goods produced. Wolverhampton and Willenhall are famous for locks, Cradley for nails, Oldbury for railway carriages, Walsall for spurs, bits, and saddlery, Tipton for anchors, Smethwick for glass, Soho for steam engines and hydraulic jacks, Wednesfield for keys, Bilston for tinplate wares, and Bloxwich for bits. Thanks to the labours of Josiah Wedgwood and Flaxman, the pottery work of Staffordshire ranks among the most famous manufactures of the kingdom, and Etruria is a household word wherever the admirable and artistic Wedgwood ware is known. The ale produced at Burton-on-Trent finds a market in almost every civilized country in the world, and in some that can scarcely be so described.

Communication.—The county is admirably provided with railways, canals, and tramways. The main roads are excellent, and are well maintained and kept in capital condition.

Administration and Population.—The population in 1861 was 746,943; in 1871 858,326; and in 1881 981,013 (males 492,009, females 489,004), an average of 1.31 persons to an acre. Staffordshire is in the Oxford circuit, and is nearly all in the diocese of Lichfield. The seat of the bishopric and the will courts are at Lichfield. The assize town is Stafford. There are five hundreds, each having two divisions:—North Totmonslow (Leek) and South Totmonslow (Cheadle), North Pirehill (Potteries) and South Pirehill (Stone), North Offlow (Burton-on-Trent) and South Offlow (Walsall), East Cuttlestone (Rugeley) and West Cuttlestone (Gnosall), North Seisdon (Sedgley) and South Seisdon (Kinfare). The county has one court of quarter sessions, and is divided into twenty-two petty and special sessional divisions; and there are 247 civil parishes and sixteen poor law unions. The municipal boroughs number twelve:—Burslem, population 26,522; Burton-on-Trent (partly in Derbyshire), 39,288; Hanley, 48,361; Lichfield, 8349; Longton, 18,620; Newcastle-under-Lyme, 17,508; Stafford, 19,977; Stoke-on-Trent, 19,261; Tamworth (partly in Warwickshire), 4891; Walsall 58,765; West Bromwich, 56,295; Wolverhampton, 75,766.

By the Redistribution of Seats Act, 1885, the parliamentary representation of Staffordshire was arranged as follows:—seven boroughs each returning one member, one borough returning three, and seven county divisions with one member to each,—making seventeen members for the whole county. The county divisions are named respectively Burton, Handsworth, Kingswinford, Leek, Lichfield, North-West, and West. The following is a list of the boroughs, with populations given by or based on the census of 1881:—Wolverhampton (three members), 164,332; Hanley, 75,912; Newcastle-under-Lyme, 49,293; Stafford, 19,977; Stoke-on-Trent, 64,091; Walsall, 59,402; Wednesbury, 68,142; West Bromwich, 56,295.

History and Antiquities.—Much antiquarian learning has been employed in showing that Staffordshire was in early ante-Roman days famous for the presence and power of the Druids. Cannock Chase has been described as their headquarters in Britain; and Barr Beacon has been generally accepted as one of their principal places of worship, of which Drod or Druid Heath by its name still preserves the tradition. At the time of Cæsar's arrival in the island this part of England was peopled by tribes whom the Roman authors designate as Cornavii or Carnabii. The conquerors named the central part of the country, which included Staffordshire, Flavia Cæsariensis. Two of their most famous roads, Watling Street and Icknield Street, passed through the county,—the first named from Fazeley through Wall (*Eloestum*) to Wroxeter (*Uriconsum*), and the Icknield Street through Birmingham to Wall, and by Burton-on-Trent to Derby. In Saxon times Staffordshire formed part of the great kingdom of Mercia, which was remarkable for the tenacity with which the people clung to their old faith and resisted the introduction of Christianity. The new faith, however, prevailed over paganism, and a cathedral was founded at Lichfield. Through the influence of Offa, Pope Adrian in 786 made the see an independent archbishopric, but this honour was only possessed for a short period. Mercia was frequently invaded by the Danes, and several battles were fought in Staffordshire, notably at Tettenhall and Wednesfield (Woden's Field), and a large number of Danes settled in this part. So rapidly did they occupy the land that in 1016, when the Danish king Canute divided his conquests into four earldoms, Mercia was believed to have as many Danish as Saxon inhabitants. After the Norman Conquest the county was divided among the Conqueror's retainers, the barons De Torri, De Montgomery, Fitz-Ansculf, and De Ferrers coming in for the lion's share. Of after historical events the most noted are the defeat and execution of the earl of Lancaster by Edward II. in 1322, and the battle at Blore Heath in 1459, in which the Yorkists were victorious over the Lancastrians. During the Civil War Lichfield cathedral was besieged in 1643, and Lord Brook was killed by a shot fired from the battlements of the great tower. Mary queen of Scots was imprisoned in Tutbury Castle from 1569 to 1572. In 1745 Charles Edward, the Young Pretender, in his attempt to win the crown of England, penetrated as far as Leek.

Early British remains exist in various parts of the county; and a large number of barrows have been opened in which human bones, urns, fibulae, stone hammers, armlets, pins, pottery, and other articles have been found. In the neighbourhood of Wetton no fewer than twenty-three barrows have been opened, and British ornaments have been found in Needwood Forest. Several Roman camps also exist in different parts. But of mediæval times the chief legacy is the cathedral at LICHFIELD (*q.v.*), one of the most beautiful in the kingdom. Of other interesting places the most worthy of notice are F. Audesert, Bentley Hall, Chillington, Dudley Castle, Enville Hall, Ingestre, Stafford Castle, Tamworth Castle, Tixall, and Wrottesley Hall. More modern mansions are Ilam Hall, Alton Towers, Shugborough, Pateshall, Keele Hall, and Trentham. Of famous personages belonging to the county are John Dudley (duke of Northumberland), Cardinal Pole, Archbishop Sheldon, Col. John Lane, General Harrison, Lord Anson, Earl St Vincent, Izaak Walton, Dr Samuel Johnson, David Garrick, Josiah Wedgwood, Miss Seward, Mary Howitt.

See *Floet, Natural History of Staffordshire*, 1686; *Erdeswick, Survey of Staffordshire*, 1717; *Shaw, History and Antiquities of Staffordshire*, 1798-1801; *Pitt, Topographical History of Staffordshire*, 1817; *Garner, Natural History of the County of Stafford*, 1844; *Langford, Staffordshire and Warwickshire*, 1874; and the publications of the Salt Archaeological Society.

STAFFORD, a parliamentary and municipal borough of England, and the county town of Staffordshire, is situated on the left bank of the river Sow, almost in the heart of England. It is 123 miles from London and 29½ from Birmingham, and is in the southern division of the hundred of Pirehill. The principal trades of the town are tanning and the manufacture of boots and shoes, more especially for ladies. The oldest church is that of St Chad, said to be originally of Saxon origin. It was formerly a large and beautiful church, with chancel, nave, aisles, transepts, and

a central tower, but has suffered severely from time, neglect, and rough treatment. Restoration was begun in 1855, and the operations led to the discovery of some fine interlacing Norman arches and a beautiful Norman archway with some rich sculptured work between the nave and tower. These were restored in 1856 and a new roof was put on the chancel in memory of Izaak Walton. In 1874, the nave, arcades, and open-timbered roof were restored in memory of Mr Thomas Salt; in 1874-75 the south aisle was rebuilt, and in 1884-85 the tower. The finest of the churches in Stafford is undoubtedly St Mary's, which was admirably restored in 1844-45 by Sir Gilbert Scott, at a cost of £30,000. It contains some good monuments, and several very fine memorial windows of stained glass. Other churches worthy of mention are Christ Church, St Paul's, and St Thomas's. The grammar school is a very old foundation, enlarged by Edward VI.; the present building was erected in 1862. The free library was opened in 1882, and is now fairly well supplied with books. The William Salt library contains a unique collection of books, deeds, autographs, engravings, and drawings relating to the county, collected by Mr Salt and presented by his widow. It contains some 7000 volumes, between 2000 and 3000 deeds, and more than 9000 drawings, autographs, and valuable MSS., mostly relating to the history, topography, &c., of the county. The town also possesses a good museum, collected principally by Mr Clement L. Wragge, and called by his name; specially interesting is its almost perfect collection of fossils. Stafford also contains a good school of art and a mechanics' institute. Other prominent buildings are the shire hall, in which the assizes and quarter sessions are held, and the borough hall; the latter contains the municipal offices, and also has a large hall for public meetings. Stafford is well supplied with charitable institutions, among which may be mentioned the general infirmary, built in 1766; the county lunatic asylum in 1818; and the Coton Hill institution for the insane in 1854, beautifully situated on rising ground, which commands extensive views of some of the loveliest country in the county, while its own grounds are tastefully laid out. The householders of Stafford formerly possessed the right of using some very extensive common land situated north of the town; in 1880, however, all that remained (134 acres) was enclosed, and is now held for the people by a committee of householders elected annually. A part of this land, called Stone Flat, is preserved as a public recreation ground. Of another common named Coton Field, consisting of about 180 acres, 70 acres were in 1884 transferred absolutely to the freemen, and have been divided into 401 garden allotments, which are let at a small rental to resident freemen or their widows. The parliamentary borough (area 774 acres, with population of 78,904 in 1881) was extended in 1885, and is now identical with the municipal borough. The area of this is 1012 acres, and the population, 14,437 in 1871, was in 1881 19,977. The Act of 1885 reduced the parliamentary representation from two members to one.

Stafford was of considerable importance before the Conquest. The site was at first known as Bertelney or Betheny, from the island on which the earliest houses were built. As the town grew its name was changed into that of Statford or Stadford. In 913 Ethelfleda, sister of Edward the Elder, erected a fortification here, generally called a castle, but doubtless one of those defensive mounds which from their admirable positions were afterwards selected by the Normans as the sites of their castles and strongholds. About a year and a half afterwards Edward the Elder built a tower, with walls and a fosse round it. Pennant says this was on the mount called Castle Hill by Speed. Stafford is mentioned in Domesday as a city paying £9 in customs. There were 18 royal burgesses, and the earls of Mercia possessed twenty mansions. The number of houses entered is 178. William built a castle on the old site, of which he appointed Robert de Torri