

It is of no value as a theological work, for Stair was no more a theologian than he was a man of science, but it is of interest as showing the serious bent of his thoughts and the genuine piety of his character.

It is as a legal writer and a judge that he holds a pre-eminent place amongst many distinguished countrymen belonging to his profession. The full title of his great work, which runs as follows—*The Institutions of the Law of Scotland, deduced from its Originals, and collated with the Civil, Canon, and Feudal Laws and with the Customs of Neighbouring Nations*—is fully borne out by the contents, and affords evidence of the advantage Stair had enjoyed from his philosophical training, his foreign travels, and his intercourse with Continental jurists as well as English lawyers. It is no narrow technical treatise, but a comprehensive view of jurisprudence as based on philosophical principles and derived from a Divine Author. But neither does it lose itself in generalities; for it is the work of a lawyer and judge intimately acquainted with every detail in the practical application of law in his native country. Unfortunately for its permanent fame and use, much of the law elucidated in it has now become antiquated through the decay of the feudal part of Scottish law and the large introduction of English law, especially in the departments of commercial law and equity. But its spirit still animates Scottish law and educates Scottish lawyers, and it may be hoped will continue to do so, saving them from being the slaves of precedent or the victims of the utilitarian philosophy which regards all positive law as conventional and destitute of necessary principles derived from the nature of the world and man.

The *Physiologia* was favourably noticed by Boyle, and is interesting as showing the activity of mind of the exiled judge, who returned to the studies of his youth with fresh zest when physical science was approaching its new birth. But he was not able to emancipate himself from formulae which had cramped the education of his generation, and had not caught the light which Newton spread at this very time by the communication of his *Principia* to the Royal Society of London.

Stair was fortunate in his descendants. "The family of Dalrymple," observes Sir Walter Scott, "produced within two centuries as many men of talent, civil and military, of literary, political, and professional eminence, as any house in Scotland." His five sons were all remarkable in their professions. The master of Stair, who became the first earl, was an able lawyer, but still abler politician. Sir James Dalrymple of Borthwick, one of the principal clerks of session, was a very thorough and accurate historical antiquary. Sir Hew Dalrymple of North Berwick succeeded his father as president, and was reckoned one of the best lawyers and speakers of his time. Thomas Dalrymple became physician to Queen Anne. Sir David Dalrymple of Hailes was lord advocate under Anne and George I. Stair's grandson the field-marshal and second earl gained equal credit in war and diplomacy. His great-grandson Sir David Dalrymple, Lord Hailes, also rose to the bench, where he had an honourable character for learning as a civil and humanity as a criminal judge. But his literary exceeded his legal fame. As an honest and impartial historian he laid the foundations of the true narrative of Scottish history, from which all his successors have largely borrowed.

For a fuller account of the life of Stair, see *Annals of the Viscount and First and Second Earls of Stair*, by J. Murray Graham, and *Memoir of Sir James Dalrymple, First Viscount Stair*, 1875, by E. J. G. Mackay. (E. M.)

STALYBRIDGE, a municipal and parliamentary borough of England, partly in Lancashire but principally in Cheshire, is situated on the Tame, 1 mile east of Ashton-under-Lyne, and $7\frac{1}{2}$ east of Manchester. The Tame is crossed by bridges connecting the counties of Chester and Lancaster. The principal public buildings are the town-hall (1831), the Foresters' hall (1836), the district infirmary, the mechanics' institute (1861), the people's institute (1864), the market-hall (1866), and the Oddfellows' hall (1878). Stamford park, extending to about 60 acres, and lying between Stalybridge and Ashton, was opened 12th July 1873. The town is one of the oldest seats of the cotton manufacture, the first cotton mill having been erected in 1776 and the first steam engine in 1795. In addition to extensive cotton mills, it possesses woollen factories, iron and brass foundries, machine works, nail works, and paper mills. Stalybridge was created a market-town in 1828, was incorporated as a municipal borough in 1857, and obtained the privilege of returning a member to parliament in 1867. The municipal borough (area 806 acres) had a population of 21,092 in 1871, and 22,785 in 1881; its limits were extended in 1881 to 3120 acres, with a population of 25,977. The population

of the parliamentary borough (area 2214 acres) in 1871 was 35,114 and in 1881 it was 39,671. The area added to the municipal borough in 1881 was in 1885 included in the parliamentary borough also,—the population of this extended area being 42,863 at the census of 1881.

STAMFORD, a municipal borough and market-town, chiefly in Lincolnshire but partly in Northamptonshire, is situated on the river Welland, and on branches of the Midland, the London and North Western, and the Great Northern railway lines, 89 miles north of London and 55 south of Lincoln. The ancient bridge over the Welland was in 1849 superseded by a new structure of stone, erected at a cost of £8500. The town formerly possessed fourteen parish churches, but now has only six, viz., St Mary's, erected at the end of the 13th century, possessing an Early English tower, with Decorated spire, the principal other parts of the building being Perpendicular; All Saints, also of the 13th century, the steeple being built at the expense of John Brown, merchant of the staple at Calais, in the beginning of the 15th century; St Michael's, rebuilt in 1836 on the site of one erected in 1269; St George's, Early English, Decorated, and Perpendicular, for the most part rebuilt in 1450 at the expense of William Bruges, first garter king-at-arms; St John Baptist's, Perpendicular, erected about 1452; and St Martin's, Perpendicular, in which Lord Treasurer Burghley is buried. Formerly there were several religious houses:—the Benedictine monastery of St Leonard's, founded in the 7th century, of which there are still some remains; the Carmelite monastery (1291), of which the west gate still stands; and houses for grey friars (time of Henry III.), Dominicans (1240), Gilbertines (1291), and Augustinians (1316). The principal secular buildings are the town-hall (rebuilt 1776), the corn exchange (1859), and the literary and scientific institute (1842), with a library of 6000 volumes. There are a large number of charitable institutions, including the Stamford and Rutland infirmary (1828), Browne's hospital, founded in the time of Richard III., Snowden's almshouses (1604), Truesdale's almshouses (1700), and Burghley hospital, founded by Lord Treasurer Burghley (1597). Ratcliffe's and Brown's high school for boys was lately erected at a cost of £7000 on the site of Ratcliffe's free school; and Brown's school for girls in St Martin's was erected in 1876 at a cost of £5000. The prosperity of the town depends chiefly on its connexion with agriculture. It possesses iron foundries, agricultural implement works, waggon factories, and breweries. There is also some trade in coal, timber, stones, and slates. The population of the municipal borough (area 1766 acres) in 1871 was 7846 and in 1881 it was 8773; that of the parliamentary borough (area 1894 acres) in the same years was 8086 and 8993. The latter was merged in the counties in 1885, giving its name to a parliamentary division of Lincolnshire.

The town is of very remote antiquity, and is supposed to have grown into importance after the decay of the Roman village of Bridge Casterton two miles distant. Its name, an early form of which was Stænford, was derived from a passage at the town across the Welland by stone. It was the scene of the first battle of the Picts and Scots against the Britons and Saxons in 449, and subsequently became one of the five great Danish boroughs. A castle was built early in the 10th century on the south bank of the river opposite the town, but has long disappeared; and of another on the north-west of the town, fortified by Stephen, only the foundations now remain. The town was at one time enclosed by walls, and there are still traces of gateways on the east and west sides. In the reign of Henry III. the lectures of the Carmelites on divinity and the liberal arts led to the erection of colleges, and Stamford became celebrated as a place of education. When dissensions arose among the students of Oxford in the reign of Edward III. many removed thither, and ultimately the universities both of Oxford and Cambridge thought it necessary to pass statutes prohibiting their students from proceeding to other places for any part of their education, Stamford being specially mentioned in the

Oxford statute. At the time of the Conquest Stamford was governed by aldermen. It was incorporated by charter in the reign of Edward IV. In 1663 it received a charter from Charles II., constituting its chief magistrate a mayor. It returned two members to parliament from the reign of Edward I. till 1867, and one from 1867 to 1885. The deanery of Stamford is an ancient peculiarity, the appointment being vested in the bishop of Lincoln.

STAMFORD, a borough of the United States, in Fairfield county, Connecticut, is situated on Long Island Sound, 35 miles north-east of New York city, on the New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad. It has a small harbour accessible to steamboats by means of a canal; and among its public buildings are the town-hall and several handsome churches. Locks, carriages, stoves, fire-bricks, edge-tools, cranes, hardware, hosiery, and especially log-wood extract and liquorice are manufactured in the borough. The population was 9714 in 1870 and 11,297 in 1880.

STAMMERING, or **STUTTERING**, designates a spasmodic affection of the organs of speech in which the articulation of words is suddenly checked and a pause ensues, often followed by a repetition in rapid sequence of the particular sound at which the stoppage occurred. Of this painful affection there are many grades, from a slight inability to pronounce with ease certain letters or syllables, or a tendency to hesitate and to interject unmeaning sounds in a spoken sentence, to the more severe condition in which there is a paroxysm of spasms of the muscles, not only of the tongue and throat and face, but even of those of respiration and of the body generally. To understand in some degree the explanation of stammering it is necessary to consider shortly the physiological mechanism of articulate speech. Speech is the result of various muscular movements affecting the current of air as it passes in expiration from the larynx through the mouth. If the vocal cords are called into action, and the sounds thus produced are modified by the muscular movements of the tongue, cheeks, and lips, we have vocal speech; but if the glottis is widely open and the vocal cords relaxed the current of air may still be moulded by the muscular apparatus so as to produce speech without voice, or whispering (see VOICE). In both cases, however, the mechanism is very complicated, requiring a series of nervous and muscular actions, all of which must be executed with precision and in accordance. In vocal speech, for example, it is necessary that the respiratory movements, more especially those of expiration, occur regularly and with nice adjustment to the kind of articulate expression required; that the vocal cords be approximated and tightened by the muscles of the larynx acting with delicate precision, so as to produce the sound of the pitch desired; that the *rima glottidis* (or aperture of the larynx) be opened so as to produce prolonged sounds, or suddenly closed so as to cut off the current of air; that the movements of the muscles of the tongue, of the soft palate, of the jaws, of the cheeks, and of the lips occur precisely at the right time and to the requisite extent; and finally that all of these muscular adjustments take place with rapidity and smoothness, gliding into each other without effort and without loss of time. Exquisite co-ordination of muscular movement is therefore necessary, involving also complicated nervous actions. Hence is it that speech is acquired by long and laborious effort. A child possesses voice from the beginning; it is born with the capacity for speech; but articulate expression is the result of education. In infancy, not only is knowledge acquired of external objects, and signs attached in the form of words to the ideas thus awakened, but the nervous and muscular mechanisms by which these signs or words receive vocal expression are trained by long practice to work harmoniously.

It is not surprising, therefore, that in certain cases,

owing to some obscure congenital defect, the co-ordination is not effected with sufficient precision, and that stammering is the result. Even in severe cases no appreciable lesion can be detected either in the nervous or muscular mechanisms, and the condition is similar to what may affect all varieties of finely co-ordinated movements. The mechanism does not work smoothly, but the pathologist is unable to show any organic defect. Thus the co-ordinated movements necessary in writing are disturbed in scrivener's palsy, and the skilful performer on the piano or on any instrument requiring minute manipulation may find that he is losing the power of delicate adjustment. Stammering is occasionally hereditary. It rarely shows itself before the age of four or five years, and as a rule it is developed between this age and puberty. Men stammer in a much larger proportion than women. It may occur during the course of nervous affections, such as hysteria, epilepsy, or tabes dorsalis; sometimes it follows febrile disorders; often it develops in a child in a feeble state of health, without any special disease. In some cases a child may imitate a stammerer and thus acquire the habit. Any general enfeeblement of the health, and especially nervous excitement, aggravates the condition of a confirmed stammerer.

Stammerers, as a rule, find the explosive consonants *b*, *p*, *d*, *t*, *k*, and hard *g* the most difficult to articulate, but many also are unable easily to deal with the more continuous consonants, such as *v*, *f*, *th*, *s*, *z*, *sh*, *m*, *n*, *y*, and in severe cases even the vowels may cause a certain amount of spasm. Usually the defect is not observed in whispering or singing; but there are exceptions to this statement. In pronouncing the explosive sounds the part of the oral apparatus that ought suddenly to open or close remains spasmodically closed, and the stammerer remains for a moment voiceless or strives pitifully to overcome the obstruction, uttering a few successive puffs or sounds like the beginning of the sound he wishes to utter. The lips thus remain closed at the attempted utterance of *b* and *p*; the tip of the tongue is pressed against the hard palate or the back of the upper front teeth in *d* and *t*; and the back of the tongue presses against the posterior part of the palate in pronouncing *g* hard and *k*. In attempting the continuous consonants, in which naturally the passage is not completely obstructed, the stammerer does not close the passage spasmodically, but the parts become fixed in the half-opened condition, or there are intermittent attempts to open or close them, causing either a drawling sound or coming to a full stop. In severe cases, where even vowels cannot be freely uttered, the spasm appears to be at the *rima glottidis* (opening of the larynx). Again, in some cases, the spasm may affect the respiratory muscles, giving rise to a curious barking articulation, in consequence of spasm of the expiratory muscles, and in such cases the patient utters the first part of the sentence slowly, gradually accelerates the speed, and makes a rush towards the close. In the great majority of cases the spasm affects the muscles of articulation proper, that is, those of the pharynx, tongue, cheeks, and lips. In the most aggravated cases the condition of the patient is pitiable. It has thus been well described by Dr Bristow in an article full of interesting details:—

"The most distressing cases are those in which the spasm extends to parts unconnected with speech,—it may be to nearly the whole muscular organism. In such a case the spasm commences, let us assume, at the base of the tongue; the mouth opens widely and remains in that position; the muscles of expiration work convulsively; the glottis contracts; respiration becomes arrested; the face becomes congested and the veins dilated; violent spasmodic movements involve the trunk and limbs; and only after some time, either when the patient becomes exhausted, or when he resolutely restrains his attempts to articulate, does his paroxysm come to an end."—*Quain's Dictionary of Medicine*, p. 1513.

Such a case is not common; it is more paroxysmal than habitual; and in ordinary conversation, when the patient is free from nervous excitement, the defect may be scarcely observed. A condition named *aphthongia* is even more distressing. It totally prevents speech, and may, at intervals, come on when the person attempts to speak; but fortunately it is only of temporary duration, and is usually caused by exceptional nervous excitement. It is characterized by spasm of the muscles supplied by the hypoglossal nerve, including the sterno-hyoid, sterno-thyroid, and thyro-hyoid muscles. In almost all cases of stuttering it is noticed that the defect is most apparent when the person is obliged to make a sudden transition from one class of sounds to another, and the patient soon discovers this for himself and chooses his words so as to avoid dangerous muscular combinations. When one considers the delicate nature of the adjustments necessary in articulate speech, this is what may be expected. It is well known that a quickly diffusible stimulant, such as alcohol, temporarily removes the difficulty in speech.

Stuttering may be successfully overcome in some cases by a careful process of education under a competent tutor. Not a few able public speakers were at first stutters, but a prolonged course of vocal gymnastics has remedied the defect. The patient should be encouraged to read and speak slowly and deliberately, carefully pronouncing each syllable, and when he feels the tendency to stammer, he should be advised to pause for a short time, and then by a strong voluntary effort to attempt to pronounce the word. He should also be taught how to regulate respiration during speech, so that he may not fail from want of breath. In some cases aid may be obtained by raising the voice towards the close of the sentence. Sounds or combinations of sounds that present special difficulties should be made the subject of careful study, and the defect may be largely overcome by a series of graduated exercises in reading. The practice of intoning is useful in many cases. In ordinary conversation it is often important to have some one present who may by a look put the stammerer on his guard when he is observed to be talking too quickly or indistinctly. Thus by patience and determination many stammerers have so far overcome the defect that it can scarcely be noticed in conversation; but even in such cases mental excitement or slovenly inattention to the rules of speech suitable for the condition may cause a relapse. In very severe cases, where the spasmodic seizures affect other muscles than those of articulation, special medical treatment is necessary, as such are on the borderland of serious nervous disturbance. All measures tending to improve the general health, the removal of any affection of the mouth or gums that may aggravate habitual stammering, the avoidance of great emotional excitement, a steady determination to overcome the defect by voluntary control, and a system of education such as has been sketched will do much in the great majority of cases to remedy stammering. (J. G. M.)

STAMPS. The stamp duty is a tax imposed upon a great variety of legal and other documents, and forms a branch of the national revenue. The stamp is a cheap and convenient mode of certifying that the revenue regulations have been complied with. Stamp duties appear to have been invented by the Dutch in 1624. They were first imposed in England in 1694 by 5 and 6 Will. and Mary, c. 21, as a temporary means of raising funds for carrying on the war with France. They now depend upon a very large number of statutes, the principal one being the Stamp Act, 1870, 33 and 34 Vict. c. 97 (which extends to the United Kingdom). The amount of stamp duty varies from one halfpenny (postage) to thousands of pounds (probate or succession). It appears scarcely

necessary in this place to set out at length the various stamp duties payable in the United Kingdom, inasmuch as those of the most usual occurrence will readily be found in ordinary books of reference.

Stamp duties are either fixed, such as the duty of one penny on every cheque irrespective of its amount, or *ad valorem*, as the duty on a conveyance, which varies according to the amount of the purchase money. The duty is denoted generally by an impressed, less frequently by an adhesive, stamp, sometimes by either at the option of the person stamping. Thus an inland bill of exchange (unless payable on demand) must have an impressed stamp, a foreign bill of exchange an adhesive stamp, while an agreement or receipt stamp may be of either kind. It should be noticed that certain documents falling within a class which as a rule is subject to stamp duty are for reasons of public policy or encouragement of trade exempted from the duty by special legislation. Examples of such documents are Bank of England notes, agreements within § 17 (but not those within § 4) of the Statute of Frauds (see *FRAUDS*), agreements between a master of a ship and his crew, transfers of ships or shares in ships, indentures of apprenticeship for the sea service, petitions forwarded by post to the crown or a House of Parliament, and most instruments relating to the business of building and friendly societies.

As a general rule a document must be stamped at the time of execution, or a penalty (remissible by the commissioners of inland revenue) is incurred. The penalty is in most cases £10, sometimes much more; in the case of policies of marine insurance it is £100. Some instruments cannot be stamped at all after execution, even with payment of the penalty. Such are bills of exchange and promissory notes (where an impressed stamp is necessary), bills of lading, proxies for voting at meetings of proprietors of joint-stock companies, and receipts after a month from date. An unstamped instrument cannot be pleaded or given in evidence except in criminal proceedings or for a collateral purpose. If an instrument chargeable with duty be produced as evidence in a court, the officer whose duty it is to read the instrument is to call the attention of the judge to any omission or insufficiency of the stamp, and if the instrument is one which may legally be stamped after execution, it may, on payment of the amount of the unpaid duty and the penalty payable by law, and a further sum of £1, be received in evidence, saving all just exceptions on other grounds. The rules of the Supreme Court, 1883 (Ord. xxxix. r. 8, re-enacting a provision of the Common Law Procedure Act), provide that a new trial is not to be granted by reason of the ruling of a judge that the stamp upon any document is sufficient or that the document does not require a stamp. The stamp upon a document subject to the stamp laws of a foreign state is usually admissible in evidence in a court of the United Kingdom if it conform in other respects to the rules governing the admissibility of such documents, even though it be improperly stamped according to the law of the foreign country. The admissibility of documents belongs to the *ordinatoria litis* rather than the *decisoria litis*, and is governed by the *lex fori* rather than the *lex loci contractus*, unless indeed that law makes a stamp necessary to the validity of the instrument. As to bills of exchange, the Bills of Exchange Act, 1882, 45 and 46 Vict. c. 61, § 72, provides that where a bill is issued out of the United Kingdom it is not invalid by reason only that it is not stamped in accordance with the law of the place of issue, and that where a bill issued out of the United Kingdom conforms as regards requisites in form to the law of the United Kingdom it may for the purpose of enforcing payment thereof be treated as valid as between all persons who negotiate, hold, or become parties to it in the United Kingdom.

By the Stamp Duties Management Act, 1870, 33 and 34 Vict. c. 98, the stamp duties are put under the management of the commissioners of inland revenue, who are empowered to grant licences to deal in stamps, and to make allowance for spoiled or misused stamps. Certain offences, such as forging a die or stamp, selling or using a forged stamp, &c., are made felonies punishable with penal servitude for life as a maximum.

United States.—The subject of stamp duties is of unusual historical interest, as the passing of Grenville's Stamp Act of 1765 (5 Geo. III. c. 12) directly led to the American revolution. The Act was, indeed, repealed the next year as a matter of expediency by 6 Geo. III. c. 11, but 6 Geo. III. c. 12 declared the right of the British legislature to bind the colonies by its Acts. The actual yield of the stamp duties under the Act of 1765 was, owing to the opposition in the American colonies, only £4000—less than the expenses of putting the Act into force. The stamp duties of the United States are now under the superintendence of the commissioner of internal revenue. These duties, which depend upon a great body of statutory law, will be found in the Revised Statutes, tit. xxxv.

The principal authorities on the subject of this article are Tilsley, *Stamp Laws*, and Dowell, *Stamp Duties*.

STANDARDS. See WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

STANFIELD, WILLIAM CLARKSON (1794–1867), marine painter, was born of Irish parentage at Sunderland in 1794. As a youth he was a sailor, and during many long voyages he acquired that intimate acquaintance with the sea and shipping which was admirably displayed in his subsequent works. In his spare time he diligently occupied himself in sketching marine subjects, and so much skill did he acquire that, after having been incapacitated by an accident from active service, he received an engagement, about 1818, to paint scenery for the "Old Royalty," a sailor's theatre in Wellclose Square, London. Along with David Roberts he was afterwards employed at the Cobourg theatre, Lambeth; and in 1826 he became scene-painter to Drury Lane theatre, where he executed some admirable work, especially distinguishing himself by the production of a drop-scene, and by decorations for the Christmas pieces for which the house was celebrated. Meanwhile he had been at work upon some easel pictures of small dimensions, and was elected a member of the Society of British Artists. Encouraged by his success at the British Institution, where in 1827 he exhibited his first important picture—*Wreckers off Fort Rouge*—and in 1828 gained a premium of 50 guineas, he before 1830 abandoned scene-painting, and in that year made an extended tour on the Continent. He now produced his *Mount St Michael*, which ranks as one of his finest works; in 1832 he exhibited his *Opening of New London Bridge and Portsmouth Harbour*—commissions from William IV.—in the Royal Academy, of which he was elected an associate in 1832 and an academician in 1835; and until his death on the 18th of May 1867 he contributed to its exhibitions a long series of powerful and highly popular works, dealing mainly with marine subjects, but occasionally with scenes of a more purely landscape character.

Among these may be named—the *Battle of Trafalgar* (1836), executed for the United Service Club; the *Castle of Ischia* (1841), *Isola Bella* (1841), among the results of a visit to Italy in 1839; *French Troops Forcing the Marga* (1847), the "Victory" Bearing the Body of Nelson Towed into Gibraltar (1853), the *Abandoned* (1856). He also executed two notable series of Venetian subjects, one for the banqueting-hall at Bowood, the other for Trentham. He was much employed on the illustrations for *The Picturesque Annual*, and published a collection of lithographic views on the Rhine, Moselle, and Meuse; and forty of his works were engraved in line under the title of "Stanfield's Coast Scenery." Four of his engraved pictures are in the National Gallery, and his works may also be studied in the South Kensington Museum. A large collection of his productions were included in the Royal Academy's Winter Exhibition for 1870. The whole course of Stanfield's art was powerfully influenced by his early practice as a scene-painter. But, though there is always a touch of the spectacular and the scenic in his works, and though their colour is apt to be rather dry and hard, they are large and effective in handling, powerful in their treatment of broad atmospheric effects, and telling in composition, and they evince the most complete knowledge of the artistic materials with which their painter deals.

STANHOPE, CHARLES STANHOPE, THIRD EARL (1753–1816), was born on 3d August 1753, and educated under the opposing influences of Eton and Geneva, devoting himself whilst resident in the Swiss city to the study of mathematics, and acquiring from the associations connected with Switzerland an intense love of liberty. He contested the representation of the city of Westminster without success in 1774, when only just of age; but from the general election of 1780 until his accession to the peerage on the 7th of March 1786 he represented through the influence of Lord Shelburne the Buckinghamshire borough of High Wycombe, and during the sessions of 1783 and 1784 he gave his support to the administration of William Pitt, whose sister Lady Hester Pitt he married on 19th December 1774. When Pitt ceased to be inspired by the Liberal principles of his early days, his brother-in-law severed their political connexion and opposed with all

the impetuosity of his fiery heart the arbitrary measures which the ministry favoured. Lord Stanhope's character was without any taint of meanness, and his conduct was marked by a lofty consistency never influenced by any petty motives; but his speeches, able as they were, had no weight on the minds of his compeers in the upper chamber, and, from a disregard of their prejudices, too often drove them into the opposite lobby. He was the chairman of the "Revolution Society," founded in honour of the Revolution of 1688, the members of which in 1790 expressed their sympathy with the aims of the French republicans. He brought forward in 1794 the case of Muir, one of the Edinburgh politicians who were transported to Botany Bay, and in 1795 he introduced into the Lords a motion deprecating any interference with the internal affairs of France. In all of these points he was hopelessly beaten, and in the last of them he was in a "minority of one"—a sobriquet which stuck to him throughout life,—whereupon he seceded from parliamentary life for five years. The lean and awkward figure of Lord Stanhope figured in a host of the caricatures of Sayers and Gillray, reflecting on his political opinions and his personal relations with his children. His first wife died on 20th July 1780, and he married on 17th March 1781 Louisa, daughter and sole heiress of the Hon. Henry Grenville (governor of Barbados in 1746 and ambassador to the Porte in 1762), a younger brother of the first Earl Temple and George Grenville. Through his union with this lady, who survived until March 1829, he was doubly connected with the family of Grenville. By his first wife he had three daughters, one of whom was Lady Hester Stanhope (see below), and his second wife was the mother of three sons. Lord Stanhope died at the family seat of Chevening, Kent, on 15th December 1816.

Earl Stanhope was elected a fellow of the Royal Society so early as November 1772, and devoted a large part of his income to experiments in science and philosophy. He invented a method of securing buildings from fire (which, however, proved impracticable), the printing press and the lens which bear his name, and a monochord for tuning musical instruments, suggested improvements in canal locks, made experiments in steam navigation in 1795–97, and contrived two calculating machines. When he acquired an extensive property in Devonshire, he projected a canal through that county from the Bristol to the English Channel and took the levels himself. Electricity was another of the subjects which he studied, and the volume of *Principles of Electricity* which he issued in 1779 contained the rudiments of his theory on the "return stroke" resulting from the contact with the earth of the electric current of lightning, which were afterwards amplified in a contribution to the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1787. His principal labours in literature consisted of a reply to Burke's *Reflections on the French Revolution* (1790) and an *Essay on the rights of juries* (1792), and he long meditated the compilation of a digest of the statutes. His scientific theories, his mechanical experiments, and his studies in music absorbed all his thoughts, and for them he neglected his wives and his children. His youngest daughter, Lady Lucy Rachael Stanhope, eloped with Mr Thomas Taylor of Sevenoaks, the family apothecary, and her father refused to be reconciled to her, an inconsistency in a republican which subjected him to a caricature from Gillray. Lady Hester Stanhope abandoned her home and went to live with her mother's relations. Lord Stanhope's high qualities were marred by an impracticable disposition.

STANHOPE, LADY HESTER LUCY (1776–1839), the eldest child of the third Earl Stanhope (noticed above), by his first wife Lady Hester Pitt, eldest daughter of the first earl of Chatham, lived for the earlier part of her life amid the surroundings of a noble mansion, or in close communion with her uncle William Pitt, the most prominent minister of his age, and on his early death withdrew whilst still young to brood over the past in the solitudes of Palestine. She was born on 12th March 1776, and dwelt at her father's seat of Chevening in Kent until early in 1800, when his excitable and wayward disposition drove her to her grandmother's house at Burton Pynsent. A year or

two later she travelled abroad, but her cravings after distinction were not satisfied until she became the chief of her uncle's household in August 1803. She sat at the head of his table and assisted in welcoming his guests, gracing the board with her stately beauty and enlivening the company by her quickness and keenness of conversation. Although her brightness of style cheered the declining days of Pitt and amused most of his political friends, her satirical remarks sometimes created enemies when more consideration for the feelings of her associates would have converted them into friends. Lady Hester Stanhope possessed great business talents, and when Pitt was out of office she acted as his private secretary. She was with him in his dying illness, and some of his last thoughts were concerned with her future, but any anxiety which might have arisen in her mind on this point was dispelled through the grant by a nation grateful for her uncle's qualities of a pension of £1200 a year, dating from 10th January 1806, which Lady Hester Stanhope enjoyed for the rest of her days. On her uncle's death she lived in Montague Square, London, but life in London without the interest caused by associating with the principal politicians of the Tory party proved irksome to her, and she sought relief from lassitude in the fastnesses of Wales. Whilst she remained on English soil happiness found no place in her heart, and her native land was finally abandoned for the East in February 1810. After many wanderings she settled on Mount Lebanon, and from this solitary position she wielded an almost absolute authority over the surrounding districts. Her control over the natives was sufficiently commanding to induce Ibrahim Pasha, when about to invade Syria in 1832, to solicit her neutrality, and this supremacy was maintained by her commanding character and by the belief that she possessed the gift of divination. Her cherished companion Miss Williams, and her trusted physician Dr Charles Lewis Meryon, dwelt with her for some time; but the former died in 1828, and the latter was not with Lady Hester when she died. In this lonely residence, the villa of Djoun, 8 miles from Sidon, in a house "hemmed in by arid mountains," and with the troubles of a household of twenty-three servants, unregulated by a single English attendant or friend and only waiting for her death to plunder the house, Lady Hester Stanhope's strength slowly wasted away, and at last she died on 23d June 1839, aged sixty-three. The disappointments of her life, and the necessity of overawing her servants as well as the chiefs who surrounded Djoun, had intensified a temper naturally imperious. In appearance as in voice she resembled her grandfather, the first Lord Chatham, and like him she domineered over the circle, large or small, in which she was placed.

Some years after her death there appeared three volumes of *Memoirs of the Lady Hester Stanhope as related by herself in Conversations with her Physician* (i.e., Dr Meryon), 1845, and these were followed in the succeeding year by three volumes of *Travels of Lady Hester Stanhope, forming the Completion of her Memoirs narrated by her Physician*. They presented a lively picture of this strange woman's life and character, and contained many anecdotes of Pitt and his colleagues in political life for a quarter of a century before his death.

STANHOPE, PHILIP DORMER, fourth earl of Chesterfield. See CHESTERFIELD.

STANISLAU (Pol. *Stanislavoff*), the chief town in the district of the same name in Galicia, Austria, on the Albrecht and Lemberg-Czernowitz railways, in 49° 4' N. lat., 24° 30' E. long., has two real-schools, a gymnasium, and large ironworks. It has also a good trade in corn. The population (1885) numbers 18,626.

STANISLAUS (1677-1766), king of Poland. Stanislaw Leszczynski or Leszinski was born at Lemberg on October

20, 1677. His father, Raphael Leszczynski, was a Polish nobleman, distinguished by his rank and the important offices which he held, but still more by his personal qualities. Stanislaus, after visiting the courts of Vienna, Paris, and Rome, was raised to the dignity of voivode of Posen, and in 1704 was sent as ambassador by the assembly of Warsaw to Charles XII. of Sweden, who had just declared the deposition of the recently elected Augustus II. The king was so greatly taken with the ambassador that he recommended him to the diet as a suitable candidate for the vacant throne; the election accordingly followed on 12th July 1704, but the coronation of Stanislaus and his wife Catharina Opalinska did not take place until 4th October of the following year (compare POLAND, vol. xix. p. 297). After the reverse of Poltava in 1709 Augustus returned to Poland, and, assisted by the Russians, compelled Stanislaus to leave the country. The next five years saw him leading a wandering and somewhat adventurous life in Europe, one of his objects being to procure a favourable peace for Charles (compare CHARLES XII.). He then settled on Charles's estate at Zweibrücken, and after Charles's death in 1718 had a residence assigned to him by the French court at Weissenburg in Alsace. In 1725 his daughter Maria became the wife of Louis XV. of France. On the death of Augustus in 1733 Stanislaus once more returned to Poland, where a majority declared for him, but his competitor, the young elector of Saxony, had the advantage of the support of the emperor Charles VI., and also of the empress of Russia. Dantzic, to which Stanislaus had retired, was quickly taken by the Russians and the Saxons, and with great difficulty the unfortunate prince succeeded in making good his escape in disguise, after hearing that the Russians had set a price on his head. In 1736, when peace was concluded between the emperor and France, it was agreed that Stanislaus should abdicate the throne, but that he should be acknowledged king of Poland and grand-duke of Lithuania, and continue to bear these titles during life, and further, that he should be put in peaceable possession of the duchies of Lorraine and Bar, but that immediately after his death those duchies should be united for ever to the crown of France. The remaining years of his life were prosperous and happy. He died at Lunéville on February 23, 1766, in consequence of injuries received from his nightdress accidentally taking fire.

Stanislaus, who was a patron of the arts and sciences, wrote several works in politics and philosophy, which were collected and published at Paris in 1768, in 2 vols. 8vo, under the title *Œuvres du Philosophe Bienfaisant. The Œuvres Choieses de Stanislas, Roi de Pologne, Duc de Lorraine et de Bar*, with an historical notice by Madame de Saint-Ouen, were published in an 8vo volume at Paris in 1825.

STANISLAUS AUGUSTUS, the last king of Poland, was born at Wolczyn in Lithuania in 1732 and died at St Petersburg in 1798. See PONIATOWSKI, vol. xix. p. 453, and POLAND, vol. xix. pp. 297-8.

STANLEY, ARTHUR PENRHYN (1815-1881), dean of Westminster from 1863, was born at Alderley in Cheshire on December 13, 1815. His father, the Rev. E. Stanley, rector of Alderley, bishop of Norwich from 1837 to 1849, was the younger brother of Sir John Stanley of Alderley Park, seventh baronet, who in 1839 was created Baron Stanley of Alderley, and was the representative of a branch of the same family as that of the earls of Derby. His mother, Catherine Stanley, was the daughter of the Rev. Oswald Leicester, rector of Stoke-on-Tern. Both parents were persons of remarkable force and individuality of character. The influence of each is to be traced in the career of their son. It was his father's prayer as bishop of Norwich "that he might be an instrument in God's providence of extending more enlarged and more Christian views among the clergy, and thus the means of disseminating a wider

and more comprehensive spirit of Christianity throughout the land." Of his mother her son not only spoke, after her death in 1862, as "the guardian genius" that "had nursed his very mind and heart," but described her as "gifted with a spiritual insight which belonged to that larger sphere of religion which is above and beyond the passing controversies of the day." Arthur was their third child. His elder brother, Owen, died in 1850 at Sydney, after concluding, as commander of the "Rattlesnake" frigate, the survey of the Coral Sea. His sister Mary, well known for her work in the hospitals at Scutari and among the poor in London, died in 1880. Arthur was a child of highly sensitive organization and precocious intellectual activity. His boyish letters, journals, and poems were singularly like in their characteristic points to his later writings. But his extreme shyness and silence gave no promise of the social gifts which afterwards added so largely to his influence. At the age of fourteen his health, at one time alarmingly delicate, so far improved as to warrant his parents in sending him to Rugby, where Dr Arnold had been recently appointed head master. He remained at Rugby from 1829 to 1834, and of all Arnold's pupils may be said to have been the one who most fully responded to the influence of his master's teaching and character. In 1834 he became an undergraduate of Balliol College, Oxford, having obtained a scholarship in the previous year. Among his tutors at Balliol was Mr Tait, afterwards archbishop of Canterbury, and among his junior fellow scholars Benjamin Jowett, afterwards professor of Greek and master of Balliol. Arthur Stanley, after obtaining the Ireland scholarship and Newdigate prize for a remarkable English poem (on the Gipsies), was placed in the first class in 1837. In 1839, after a period of residence and study at Oxford, he was elected fellow of University College, and in the same year was admitted to holy orders. In 1840 he left England for a prolonged tour in Greece and Italy, and on his return settled at Oxford, where he resided from October 1841 for the next ten years, being actively engaged during term time as tutor of his college. He very shortly became an influential element in university life. His personal relations to his pupils were of a singularly close and affectionate nature, and the charm of his social gifts and genial character won him friends on all sides. His literary reputation was early established by the profound impression made by his *Life of Arnold*, whose sudden death had occurred in 1842, and whose biography, published in 1844, at once secured for its young author a high place among English writers. In 1845 he was appointed select preacher, and published in 1847 a volume of *Sermons and Essays on the Apostolic Age*, which not only laid the foundation of his fame as a preacher, but also marked his future position as a theologian. In university politics, which at that time were mainly the form of theological controversy, he from the first took the place which he always retained of an uncompromising advocate of comprehension and toleration. As an undergraduate he had entirely sympathized with Dr Arnold in resenting the agitation led by, but not confined to, the High Church party in 1836 against the appointment of Dr Hampden to the regius professorship of divinity. As a young M.A., during the long-continued agitation which followed the publication in 1841 of Tract No. 90, and which ended in the withdrawal of the present Cardinal Newman from the English Church, he used all his influence to protect from formal condemnation the leaders and tenets of the "Tractarian" party. In 1847 he did his utmost to resist the movement set on foot at Oxford against Dr Hampden's appointment to the bishopric of Hereford. Finally, in 1850, in an article published in the *Edinburgh Review* in defence of the "Gorham judgment," which had secured

the position in the English Church of the Evangelical clergy, he asserted two principles which he maintained to the end of his life,—first, "that the so-called supremacy of the crown in religious matters was in reality nothing else than the supremacy of law," and, secondly, "that the Church of England, by the very condition of its being, was not High, or Low, but Broad, and had always included, and been meant to include, opposite and contradictory opinions on points even more important than those at present under discussion."

It was not only in theological but in academical matters that his sympathies were on the liberal side. Though on many points of essentially conservative tendencies, he was greatly interested in university reform, and towards the end of his residence at Oxford acted as secretary to the royal commission appointed in 1850 to report on and to suggest improvements in the administrative and educational system of the university. Of the important changes in both these respects which, in the face of much opposition at the university, were carried out in due time under the sanction of parliament by an executive commission, Stanley, who took the principal share in drafting the report printed in 1852, was a strenuous advocate. These changes included the transference of the initiative in university legislation from the sole authority of the heads of houses to an elected and representative body, the opening of college fellowships and scholarships to competition by the removal of local and other restrictions, the non-enforcement at matriculation of subscription to the Thirtynine Articles, and various steps taken to increase the usefulness and influence of the professoriate.

Before the report was issued, Stanley, who had lost his father in 1849, and both his brothers, Captain Stanley mentioned above, and Charles, secretary to the governor of Van Diemen's Land, within a few months of the same date, was appointed to a canonry in Canterbury cathedral. He held the office from 1851 till his return to Oxford. During his residence at Canterbury he published his *Memoir of his father Bishop Stanley* (1851), and completed his *Commentary on the Epistles to the Corinthians* (1855). In the winter and spring of 1852-53 he made the tour in Egypt and the Holy Land, the result of which was his well-known volume on *Sinai and Palestine*, first published in 1856. In 1857 he travelled in Russia, and collected much of the materials for his subsequent *Lectures on the Greek Church*, published in 1861. His *Memorials of Canterbury*, published in 1855, displayed the full maturity of his power of dealing with the events, scenes, and characters of past history which had marked him from childhood. Towards the close of the same period he accepted the office of examining chaplain to Dr Tait, his former tutor at Balliol and afterwards successor to Arnold at Rugby, on his transference from the deanery of Carlisle to the see of London.

At the close of 1856 Stanley was appointed by the crown to the professorship of ecclesiastical history, a post which, with the canonry at Christ Church attached to the office, he held till 1863. In the first of three inaugural lectures the new professor announced his intention of beginning his treatment of the subject with "the first dawn of the history of the church," the call of Abraham; and the first two volumes of his *History of the Jewish Church*, published in 1863 and 1865, consist of the substance of lectures delivered by him in his capacity as professor. In 1861 he published the volume on the Greek Church already referred to. His second residence at Oxford was marked by the same power of winning personal influence which had distinguished him as a college tutor, and by the efforts which he made, in his wider sphere as professor, to bring together in social intercourse