1676"; and a cantata, called *Il Barcheggio*, is known to have been composed by Stradella for the marriage of Carlo Spinola and Paola Brignolo in 1681. These discrepancies are not, however, of sufficient moment to justify the rejection of Bonnet-Bourdelot's account, which has been accepted as genuine by Burney, Hawkins, Fétis, and many other careful writers, including the remarkably accurate and conscientious Wanley.[1] And it must be remembered, in its defence, that Pierre Bourdelot, by whom the materials for the *Histoire de la Musique et de ses Effets* were originally compiled, was an actual contemporary of Stradella, and died as early as 1685, when a host of the composer's friends must still have been living, and able to give evidence on the subject of his fate. It seems therefore only reasonable to assume that the main facts of the narrative are correctly given, though the dates may need confirmation; while for the embroidered versions of later writers the authors of the *Histoire* are certainly not responsible.

The finest collection of Stradella's works extant is that at the Biblioteca Palatina at Modena, which contains 148 MSS., including eleven operas and six oratorios. A collection of *canti a voce sola* was bequeathed by the Contarini family to the library of St Mark at Venice; and some MSS. are also preserved at Naples and in Paris. Eight madrigals, three duets, and a sonata for two violins and bass will be found among the Additional MSS. at the British Museum, five pieces among the Harleian MSS., and eight cantatas and a motet among those in the library at Christ Church, Oxford. Very few of these compositions have been published; but an extremely beautiful *aria di chiesa*, entitled *Pietà Signore*,[2] has been frequently printed, under the name of Stradella, and popularly accepted as the air which produced so marvellous an effect upon the assassins. The piece, however, is not to be found in *San Giovanni Battista*; and its style so little resembles that of Stradella's other works that no less decisive evidence than the discovery of an undoubted autograph could justify its ascription to him. On the other hand, no more extravagant mistake could be made than that of describing it, as some have done, as a forgery, perpetrated either by Fétis, Rossini, or Niedermeyer. Not one of these great musicians could have written it; and it is certainly no forgery, but a genuine work of the 17th century or the opening decade of the 18th. In the absence of trustworthy documentary evidence, all attempts to ascertain the real authorship of the piece must necessarily end in mere conjecture; but the extraordinary similarity of its style to that cultivated by Francesco de' Rossi, who is known to have been flourishing at Bari at the time of Stradella's death, is very significant.

Much controversy has also been excited by another work, lately attributed to Stradella, viz., a *serenata* for voices and instruments, of which two copies only are known to exist,—one at the Conservatoire at Paris, and the other, a late transcript, now at the Royal College of Music in London. The date of this *serenata* is absolutely unknown. Of evidence proving it to be a genuine work by Stradella there is none in existence. Yet the question of its authenticity is a most important one, for upon the strength of it Handel may perhaps be some day gravely accused of having stolen from the Italian composer some of the finest passages in *Israel in Egypt*.

The compositions of Stradella are remarkable for their graceful form and the tenderness of their expression. Detached movements will be found in Burney's *History of Music* and the modern collection called *Gemme d'Antichità*.

STRADIVARIUS. See VIOLIN.

STRAFFORD, THOMAS WENTWORTH, EARL OF (1593–1641), son of Sir William Wentworth, of Wentworth Woodhouse, near Rotherham, was born in 1593 in Chancery Lane, London. He was educated at St John's College, Cambridge, and in 1611 was knighted, and married Margaret, daughter of Francis, earl of Cumberland. In 1614 he represented Yorkshire in the Addled Parliament, but, as far as is now known, it was not till the parliament of 1621 that he took part in the debates. His position towards the popular party was peculiar. He did not sympathize with their eagerness for war with Spain, and he was eager, as no man of that time except Bacon was eager, for increased activity in domestic legislation. He was what, in modern times, would be called a reformer, and in those days a reformer was necessarily an upholder of the authority of the crown, in whose service the most experienced statesmen might be expected to be found, whilst the members of a House of Commons only summoned at considerable intervals would be deficient in the qualities necessary for undertaking successful legislation. On the other hand, James's conduct of the diplomatic struggle with Spain was not such as to inspire confidence, and Wentworth's bearing was therefore marked by a certain amount of hesitation. He was, however, more than most men prone to magnify his office, and James's contemptuous refusal to allow the House of Commons to give an opinion on foreign politics seems to have stung him to join in the vindication of the claims of the House of which he was a member. He was at all events a warm supporter of the protestation which drew down a sentence of dissolution upon the third parliament of James.

In 1622 Wentworth's wife died, and in February 1625 he married Arabella Holles, the daughter of the earl of Clare. Of the parliament of 1624 he had not been a member, but in the first parliament of Charles I. he again represented Yorkshire, and at once marked his hostility to the proposed war with Spain by supporting a motion for an adjournment before the House proceeded to business. His election was declared void, but he was re-elected. When he returned to parliament he took part in the opposition to the demand made under the influence of Buckingham for war subsidies, and was consequently, after the dissolution, made sheriff of Yorkshire, in order to exclude him, as hostile to the court, from the parliament which met in 1626. After the dissolution of that parliament he was dismissed from the justiceship of the peace and the office of *custos rotulorum* of Yorkshire.

Wentworth's position was very different from that of the regular opposition. He was anxious to serve the crown, but he disapproved of the king's policy. "My rule," he wrote December 1625, "which I will never transgress, is never to contend with the prerogative out of parliament, nor yet to contest with a king but when I am constrained thereunto or else make shipwreck of my peace of conscience." In January 1626 he had asked for the presidency of the Council of the North, and had visited and made overtures to Buckingham. His subsequent dismissal was probably the result of his resolution not to support the court in its design to force the country to contribute money without a parliamentary grant. At all events, he refused in 1627 to contribute to the forced loan, and was placed in confinement in Kent for his refusal.

Wentworth's position in the parliament of 1628 was a striking one. He joined the popular leaders in resistance to arbitrary taxation and imprisonment, but he tried to obtain his end with the least possible infringement of the prerogative of the crown, to which he looked as a reserve force in times of crisis. With the approbation of the House he led the movement for a bill which would have secured the liberties of the subject as completely as the Petition of Right afterwards did, but in a manner less offensive to the king. The proposal was wrecked upon Charles's refusal to make the necessary concessions, and the leadership was thus snatched from Wentworth's hands by Eliot and Coke. Later in the session he fell into conflict with Eliot, as, though he supported the Petition of Right in substance, he was anxious to come to a compromise with the Lords, so as to leave room to the king to act unchecked in special emergencies.

On July 22, 1628, not long after the prorogation, Wentworth was created Lord Wentworth, and received a promise of the presidentship of the Council of the North at the next vacancy. Even on political matters he had never been quite at unison with the parliamentary opposition, and in church matters he was diametrically opposed to them. Since the close of the discussion on the Petition of Right, church matters had come into greater prominence than ever, and Wentworth was therefore thrown strongly on the side of Charles, from whom alone opposition to Puritanism could possibly come. This attachment to Charles was doubtless cemented by Buckingham's murder, but if he took the king's part with decision and vigour, it must be remembered that, as has been already said, he was above all a man prone to magnify his office, and that things would look differently to him than they had done before he was in his new position. For the charge of apostasy in its ordinary meaning there is no foundation.

As yet Wentworth took no part in the general government of the country. In December he became Viscount Wentworth and president of the Council of the North. In the speech delivered at York on his taking office he announced his intention of doing his utmost to bind up the prerogative of the crown and the liberties of the subject in indistinguishable union. "Whoever," he said, "ravels forth into questions the right of a king and of a people shall never be able to wrap them up again into the comeliness and order he found them."

The session of 1629 ended in a breach between the king and the parliament which made the task of a moderator hopeless. Wentworth had to choose between helping a Puritan House of Commons to dominate the king and helping the king to dominate a Puritan House of Commons. He instinctively chose the latter course, and he threw himself into the work of repression with characteristic energy, as if the establishment of the royal power was the one thing needful. Yet even when he was most resolute in crushing resistance he held that he and not his antagonists were maintaining the old constitution which they had attempted to alter by claiming supremacy for parliament.

In November 1629 Wentworth became a privy councillor. In October 1631 he lost his second wife, and in October 1632 he married Elizabeth Rhodes. In January 1632 he had been named lord-deputy of Ireland, having performed his duties at York to the king's satisfaction, though he had given grave offence to the northern gentry by the enforcement of his authority. It was a cardinal point of his system that no wealth or station should exempt its possessor from obedience to the king. Not only was the announcement of this principle likely to give offence to those who were touched by it, but in its application Wentworth was frequently harsh and overbearing. In general he may have been said to have worked rather for equality under a strong Government than for liberty.

In Ireland Wentworth would have to deal with a people which had not arrived at national cohesion, and amongst which had been from time to time introduced English colonists, some of them, like the early Norman settlers, sharing in the Catholicism of the natives, whilst the later importations stood aloof and preserved their Protestantism. There was also a class of officials of English derivation, many of whom failed to reach a high standard of efficiency. Against these Wentworth, who arrived in Dublin in July 1633, waged war sometimes with scanty regard to the forms of justice, as in the case of Lord Mountnorris, whom he sent before a court-martial on a merely formal charge, which necessarily entailed a death sentence, not because he wanted to execute him, but because he knew of no other way of excluding him from official life.

The purifying of official life, however, was but a small part of Wentworth's task. In one way, indeed, he conceived his duty in the best spirit. He tried at the same time to strengthen the crown and to benefit the poor by making the mass of the nation less dependent on their chiefs and lords than they had been before, and, though Wentworth could not do away with the effects of previous mistakes, he might do much to soften down the existing antagonism between the native population and the English Government. Unhappily his intentions were frustrated by causes resulting partly from his own character and partly from the circumstances in which he was placed.

In the first place, Wentworth's want of money to carry on the Government was deplorable. In 1634 he called a parliament at Dublin, and obtained from it a considerable grant, as well as its co-operation in a remarkable series of legislative enactments. The king, however, had previously engaged his word to make certain concessions known as the "graces," and Wentworth resolved that some of these should not be granted, and took upon himself to refuse what his master had promised. The money granted by parliament, however, would not last for ever, and Wentworth resolved to create a balance between revenue and expenditure before the supply was exhausted. This he succeeded in doing, partly by making a vast improvement in the material condition of the country, and partly by the introduction of monopolies and other irregular payments, which created wide dissatisfaction, especially amongst the wealthier class.

Towards the native Irish Wentworth's bearing was benevolent but thoroughly unsympathetic. Having no notion of developing their qualities by a process of natural growth, his only hope for them lay in converting them into Englishmen as soon as possible. They must be made English in their habits, in their laws, and in their religion: "I see plainly," he once wrote, "that, so long as this kingdom continues Popish, they are not a people for the crown of England to be confident of." It is true that he had too much ability to adopt a system of irritating persecution, but from time to time some word or act escaped from him which allowed all who were concerned to know what his real opinion was. For the present, however, he had to content himself with forging the instrument by which the hoped-for conversion was to be effected. The Established Church of Ireland was in a miserable plight, and Wentworth busied himself with rescuing from the hands of such men as the earl of Cork the property of the church, which had in troublous times been diverted from its true purpose, and with enforcing the strict observance of the practices of the English Church, on the one hand upon recalcitrant Puritans, and on the other hand upon lawless disregarders of all decency. In this way he hoped to obtain a church to which the Irish might be expected to rally.

Till that time came, he must rely on force to keep order and to prevent any understanding growing up between the Irish and foreign powers. With this object in view he resolved on pouring English colonists into Connaught as James had poured them into Ulster. To do this he had taken upon himself to set at naught Charles's promise that no colonists should be forced into Connaught, and in 1635 he proceeded to that province, where, raking up an obsolete title, he insisted upon the grand juries in all the counties finding verdicts for the king. One only, that of Galway, resisted, and the confiscation of Galway was effected by the Court of Exchequer, whilst he fined the sheriff £1000 for summoning such a jury, and cited the jurymen to the castle chamber to answer for their offence. He had succeeded in setting all Ireland against him.

High-handed as Wentworth was by nature, his rule in Ireland made him more high-handed than ever. As yet he had never been consulted on English affairs, and it was only in February 1637 that Charles asked his opinion on a proposed interference in the affairs of the Continent. In reply, he assured Charles that it would be unwise to

[1] See No. 1272 in *Cat. Harl. MSS., Brit. Mus.* Wanley, however, believed Stradella alone to have been murdered and the lady to have escaped.

[2] Called in some editions *Se i miei sospiri*.

undertake even naval operations till he had secured absolute power at home. The opinion of the judges had given the king the right to levy ship-money, but, unless his Majesty had "the like power declared to raise a land army, the crown" seemed "to stand upon one leg at home, to be considerable but by halves to foreign princes abroad." The power so gained indeed must be shown to be beneficent by the maintenance of good government, but it ought to exist. A beneficent despotism supported by popular gratitude was now Wentworth's ideal.

In his own case Wentworth had cause to discover that Charles's absolutism was marred by human imperfections. Charles gave ear to courtiers far too often, and frequently wanted to do them a good turn by promoting incompetent persons to Irish offices. To a request from Wentworth to strengthen the position of the deputy by raising him to an earldom he turned a deaf ear. Yet to make Charles more absolute continued to be the dominant note of his policy, and, when the Scottish Puritans rebelled, he advocated the most decided measures of repression, and in February 1639 he offered the king £2000 as his contribution to the expenses of the coming war. He was, however, too clear-sighted to do otherwise than deprecate an invasion of Scotland before the English army was trained.

In September 1639, after Charles's failure in the first Bishops' War, Wentworth arrived in England to conduct in the star-chamber a case in which the Irish chancellor was being prosecuted for resisting the deputy. From that moment he stepped into the place of Charles's principal adviser. Ignorant of the extent to which opposition had developed in England during his absence, he recommended the calling of a parliament to support a renewal of the war, hoping that by the offer of a loan from the privy councillors, to which he himself contributed £20,000, he would place Charles above the necessity of submitting to the new parliament if it should prove restive. In January 1640 he was created earl of Strafford, and in March he went to Ireland to hold a parliament, where the Catholic vote secured a grant of subsidies to be used against the Presbyterian Scots. An Irish army was to be levied to assist in the coming war. When in April Strafford returned to England he found the Commons holding back from a grant of supply, and tried to enlist the peers on the side of resistance. On the other hand, he attempted to induce Charles to be content with a smaller grant than he had originally asked for. The Commons, however, insisted on peace with the Scots, and on May 9, at the privy council, Strafford, though reluctantly, voted for a dissolution

After this Strafford supported the harshest measures. He urged the king to invade Scotland, and, in meeting the objection that England might resist, he uttered the words which cost him dear, "You have an army in Ireland,"—the army which, in the regular course of affairs, was to have been employed to operate in the west of Scotland,—"you may employ here to reduce this kingdom." He tried to force the citizens of London to lend money. He supported a project for debasing the coinage and for seizing bullion in the Tower, the property of foreign merchants. He also advocated the purchasing a loan from Spain by the offer of a future alliance. He was ultimately appointed to command the English army, but he was seized with illness, and the rout of Newburn made the position hopeless. In the great council at York he showed his hope that if Charles maintained the defensive the country would still rally round him, whilst he proposed, in order to secure Ireland, that the Scots of Ulster should be ruthlessly driven from their homes.

When the Long Parliament met it was preparing to impeach Strafford, when tidings reached its leaders that Strafford, now lord-lieutenant of Ireland, had come to London and had advised the king to take the initiative by accusing his chief opponents of treason. On this the impeachment was hurried on, and the Lords committed Strafford to the Tower. At his trial in Westminster Hall he stood on the ground that each charge against him, even if true, did not amount to treason, whilst Pym urged that, taken as a whole, they showed an intention to change the Government, which in itself was treason. Undoubtedly the project of bringing over the Irish army, probably never seriously entertained, did the prisoner most damage, and when the Lords showed reluctance to condemn him the Commons dropped the impeachment and brought in a bill of attainder. The Lords would probably have refused to pass it if they could have relied on Charles's assurance to relegate Strafford to private life if the bill were rejected. Charles unwisely took part in projects for effecting Strafford's escape and even for raising a military force to accomplish that end. The Lords took alarm and passed the bill. On May 9, 1641, the king, frightened by popular tumults, reluctantly signed a commission for the purpose of giving to it the royal assent, and on the 12th Strafford was executed on Tower Hill. (S. R. G.)

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS, the collective name given to the British possessions in the MALAY PENINSULA (see vol. xv. p. 320, and Plate VI.), derived from the straits which separate the peninsula from Sumatra and which form so important a sea-gate between India and China. The Straits Settlements are defined, by letters patent 17th June 1885, as consisting of the island of Singapore (which contains the seat of government), the town and province of Malacca, the territory and islands of the Dindings (off Perak), the island of Penang, and Province Wellesley, with their dependencies actual or prospective. The Cocos or KEELING ISLANDS (*q.v.*), formerly attached to Ceylon, were transferred to the Straits Settlements in 1886. These possessions have formed a crown colony since 1867, previous to which they were administered as a presidency of the Indian empire. The governor, appointed for six years, is assisted by an executive and a legislative council. Resident councillors are stationed at Penang and Malacca, and since 1874 British residents have exercised supervision at the native courts of Perak, Selangor, and Sungei Ujong, and are assisted by a staff of European officials.

The following are the area and population (with details of race divisions) of the settlements:—

	Area in sq. miles.	Population in 1871.	Population in 1881.				
			Total.	Europeans.	Malays.	Chinese.	Natives of India.
Singapore...	206	97,131	139,208	2,769	22,155	86,766	12,058
Penang......	107	131,889	90,951	612	21,772	45,135	15,730
Province Wellesley.	270		97,324	76	58,723	21,637	10,616
Malacca....	659	77,755	93,579	40	67,513	19,741	1,891
Dindings....	...	...	2,322	...	...	...	...

The population, which thus was 306,775 in 1871 and 423,384 in 1881, was estimated at 473,000 in 1884. The increase is solely produced by immigration of Chinese and natives of India; for, while the total number of births registered in Singapore, Penang, Province Wellesley, and Malacca was in the three years 1881–83 only 21,134, the deaths were 37,151.[1] In 1883 61,206 Chinese landed at Singapore and 48,419 in Penang; and, though the influx of Indian coolies has been retarded by the stringent protective laws of the Indian Government, the stream of immigration has been steadily increasing in volume. The number of Chinese is probably below the truth, as they were very reluctant to fill up the returns. In 1867, the date of the transfer to the crown, the colony had it was estimated, not more than 283,384 inhabitants.

The revenue, which was in 1868 only about 1,301,843 dollars, had risen by 1886 to 3,710,639, a large proportion being derived from opium and spirit taxation (712,600 dollars in 1868 and 2,152,700 in 1884). The expenditure in the same period increased from 1,197,177 to 3,652,771 dollars. In 1868 12,400 dollars were devoted to education (95,600 in 1884). Public works were credited with 146,800 dollars in 1868 but with 1,170,000 in 1884. The ports of the Straits Settlements are all free. In 1867 the total burden was 1,237,700 tons, in 1873 2,507,000 tons, and in 1883 4,290,600. The value of the united imports and exports was in 1867 about £14,040,000, and in 1883 it was estimated by Sir Frederick Weld at £38,624,200. The imports usually somewhat exceed the exports.

MALACCA.—The territory of Malacca lies between the river Linggi and the Kesang, which separate it respectively from Sungei Ujong to the north-west and the Moar district of Johor to the east. To the north it marches with Negri Sembilan. Forest conservancy is beginning to be carefully attended to, and pepper growing has recently been started with success at Arra Kudah by Achinese settlers. Tapioca and tin are among the exports, the latter, brought from the Selangor mines, being smelted in Malacca. The average birth-rate in 1881–83 was 2046 and the death-rate 2642. The city of Malacca has already been described, vol. xv. p. 312.

PRINCE OF WALES ISLAND (or Penang) and SINGAPORE are treated in separate articles.

PROVINCE WELLESLEY, which lies opposite Penang, was at one time part of the Kedah territory, from which it is now separated by the Kwala Muda river. Southwards it extends (since 1874) a little to the south of the Krian river and marches with Perak. The boundary was rectified by treaty with Siam in 1867. Butterworth is the seat of the Government headquarters. The country consists for the most part of fertile plain, and the remainder, about one-eleventh of the whole, is low wooded hills (highest 1843 feet). Some of the low land is rich dark alluvial soil, and much of it is sandy; in the hills a ferruginous sandy loam of rather poor quality prevails. Sugar-growing has long been a staple industry, and tea plantations began to be formed in 1869–70.

THE DINDINGS belonged originally to the state of Perak. The British territory extends some 26 miles from north to south. Though it has a magnificent natural harbour, "it has not hitherto," says Sir Frederick Weld, "been a progressive district. But I think its time is at hand. It produces tin, timber, and ebony, and turtles frequent the neighbouring islands." Dinding Island lies off the mouth of the river of the same name.

PERAK is an extensive tract of country, comprising the great part of the basin of the Perak river (which runs north and south, almost parallel with the coast of the peninsula, for upwards of 130 miles, excluding the windings, before it turns abruptly west to the Strait) and all the basin of the Bernam river. The boundary towards Patani cuts the Perak river at the rapids of Jeram Panjang. The population of the states is about 110,000, among the more noteworthy tribes being the Sakeis. Perak was brought into closer relation to Britain by the treaty signed at Pankor (Pangkore) in the Dindings, 20th January 1874, which authorized the appointment of a British resident and assistant resident. The first resident, J. W. Birch, was murdered in November 1875; but British troops from India and China, under General (Sir Francis) Colborne, soon suppressed the insurrectionary movement. One column crossed from Larut to Kwala Kungsa and defeated the rebels at Kotah Lamah, Enggar, and Prek, and another advanced from Banda Baru (where Mr Birch was buried) to Blanja, the residence of the ex-sultan Ismail, and thence to Kinta on the Kinta river, the capital of Perak. As it was discovered that Abdullah, the ruling sultan, had been accessory to the murder of Mr Birch, he was deposed in 1877 and banished to Mahe (Seychelles). The residency of Lower Perak was removed from Banda Baru to Durian Sabatang, the place where the Bidor and Batang Padang join the main stream of the Kungsa or Perak, and it has again been removed to Teluk Anson (Teluk Mah Intan), lower down, the centre of the inland trade. The residency of Upper Perak is at Kwala Kungsa. Perak has made wonderful advance since the war. Its revenue was 312,875 dollars in 1877, and in 1884, at a moderate estimate, 1,435,697. In 1877 there was only one line of good road in the country,—from Larut through the pass of Bukit Berapit to Kwala Kungsa; now large tracts have been opened up with roads and bridle-paths. "Rivers have been cleared of obstructions, telegraph lines laid down, court-houses, hospitals, police-stations, &c., built, and a line of railway (8 miles) constructed from Port Weld, the port of Larut, at Teluk Kartang, where vessels drawing 13 to 15 feet can enter to Taipeng (Thaipeng)." The revenue is mainly derived from a duty on tin, which is largely mined in Larut, &c. The mines of the Capitan China in 1883 produced to the value of £105,000. Coffee and tea planting seem to promise well.

SELANGOR lies to the south of Perak, and consists mainly of the basins of the Selangor, the Klang, and the Langat, of which the last two meet in a common delta to the south of 3° N. lat. Previous to 1880 the seat of the British resident and staff was at Klang, at the head of 13-feet navigation on the Klang river; at that date it was transferred to Kwala Lumpur, at the junction of the Gombah with the Klang, the highest point reached by the cargo boats which bring up provisions for the tin-miners and return with tin, gutta-percha, and other produce. There are tin mining settlements at Kanching, Ulu Selangor, Ulu Bernam, Ulu Gombah, Ulu Klang, Ulu Langat, Sungie Pateh Recko, Kajang, Ampagnan, &c. The mine at Ampagnan was bought for 170,000 dollars by Singapore merchants. The population of Selangor (50,000,—29,000 of them Chinese) is rapidly increasing by immigration from China, India, and Sumatra. Since the close of the civil war (1867–74) and the acceptance of the British resident the country has rapidly developed. At the mouth of the Selangor lies the town of that name, with ruins of an old Dutch fort and the stone on which the sultans of Selangor receive investiture. At Klang, up the Klang river, lies the principal port of the country, now connected by railway with Kwala Lumpor (22 miles distant), the capital, which has grown into a considerable town, with a hospital, Government house, residency, &c. The sultan resides at Jugra, on a deltaic branch of the Langat. The revenue of Selangor was estimated at 596,877 dollars in 1884; but the war debt was still 259,000 dollars in 1883.

SUNGEI UJONG (500 square miles, including Lukut and Sungei Riah; population 14,000, the greater part being Chinese) also shows steady progress. Its revenue rose from 67,000 dollars in 1874–75 to 121,176 in 1884. European coffee and cocoa plantations and Chinese tapioca, pepper, and gambier plantations are at work

The interference of the British Government is frequently sought in the territory of the Negri Sembilan (the so-called "Nine States," which are now really seven in number), Sri Menanti, Numbaw, Johole, Jellye, Muar, Jempolt, Segamet.

See *Journal of the Straits Asiatic Society*, Singapore; Dowden, *The Malay Peninsula*, 1882; Vacher, *Twelve Years in Malaya*; M'Nair, *Perak and the Malays*, 1878; W. B. D'Almeida, "Geography of Perak and Salangore," in *J. Roy. Geog. Soc.*, 1876; Sir Frederick Weld, "Straits Settlements," in *Proceedings of Royal Colonial Institute*, 1883–84; *The Straits Directory*, 1886; and the works mentioned in the article MALAY PENINSULA.

STRALSUND, a seaport and small manufacturing town in Western Pomerania, Prussia, is situated on the Strelasund, an arm of the Baltic Sea, 2 miles wide, which separates the island of Rügen from the mainland, 115 miles to the north of Berlin and 85 miles to the north-west of Stettin. The position of the town on a small triangular islet, only connected with the mainland by moles and bridges at the angles, has always rendered its fortification comparatively easy, and down to 1873 it was a fortress of the first rank. The quaint architecture of the houses, many of which present their curious and handsome gables to the street, gives Stralsund an interesting and old-fashioned appearance. The three vast Gothic churches of St Nicholas, St Mary, and St James, erected in the 14th and 15th centuries, and the town-house, dating in its oldest part from 1316, are among the more striking buildings. The public library, founded in 1709, contains 60,000 volumes. The manufactures of Stralsund are more miscellaneous than extensive; they include machinery, beer, oil, paper, playing-cards, and sugar. The trade is chiefly confined to the shipping of grain, malt, and timber, with some cattle and wool. In 1884 542 sea-going ships and 1964 river-craft entered the harbour, which is protected by the fortified island of Dänholm, and 513 ships and 1964 river-craft cleared. In 1882 the port owned a fleet of 247 sea-going ships, with a burden of 41,176 tons, besides numerous smaller craft below 60 tons. The population in 1880 was 29,481, in 1885 28,981. More than a fourth of the inhabitants reside in the Knieper, Tribseer, Franken, and Harbour suburbs on the mainland. About 1000 are Roman Catholics and 140 Jews.

Stralsund was founded in 1209 by Jaromar I., prince of Rügen, and, though several times destroyed, steadily prospered. It was one of the five Wendish towns whose alliance extorted from King Eric of Norway a favourable commercial treaty in 1284–85; and in the 14th century it was second only to Lübeck in the Hanseatic League. Although under the sway of the dukes of Pomerania, the city was able to maintain a marked degree of independence, which is still apparent in its municipal privileges; it is also the only town in Prussia, with the exception of Breslau, which has an independent municipal ecclesiastical consistory. Its early Protestant sympathies placed it on the side of Sweden during the Thirty Years' War; and in 1628 it successfully resisted a siege of eleven weeks by Wallenstein, who had sworn to take it "though it were chained to heaven." He was forced to retire with the loss of

[1] The number of hospital cases, and consequently the death-rate, is affected, however, by the fact that natives from the rest of the peninsula, whose diseases prove beyond native skill, are often brought to the colonial hospitals.

12,000 men; and a yearly festival in the town still celebrates the occasion. After the peace of Westphalia Stralsund was ceded with the rest of Western Pomerania to Sweden; and for more than a century and a half it was exposed to attack and capture as the *tête-de-pont* of the Swedes in Continental Europe. In 1815 it passed to Prussia. In 1809 it was the scene of the death of Major Schill, in his gallant though ineffectual attempt to rouse his countrymen against the French invaders.

STRANGE, Sir Robert (1721–1792), an eminent line engraver, was descended from the Scottish family of Strange, or Strang, of Balcasky, Fife, and was born in the Mainland of Orkney, on July 14, 1721. In his youth he spent some time in an attorney's office; but, having manifested a taste for drawing, he was apprenticed, in 1735, to Richard Cooper, an engraver in Edinburgh. After leaving Cooper in 1741, he started on his own account as an engraver, and had attained a fair position when, in 1745, he joined the Jacobite army as a member of the corps of life guards. He engraved a half-length of the Young Pretender, and also etched plates for a bank-note designed for the payment of the troops. He was present at the battle of Culloden, and after the defeat remained in hiding in the Highlands, but ultimately returned to Edinburgh, where, in 1747, he married Isabella, only daughter of William Lumisden, son of a bishop of Edinburgh.

In the following year he proceeded to Rouen, and there studied drawing under J. B. Descamps, carrying off the first prize in the Academy of Design. In 1749 he removed to Paris, and placed himself under the celebrated Le Bas. It was from this master that he learned the use of the dry point, an instrument which he greatly improved, and employed with excellent effect in his own engravings. In 1750 Strange returned to England. Presently he settled in London along with his wife and daughter, and superintended the illustrations of Dr William Hunter's great work on the *Gravid Uterus*, published in 1774. The plates were engraved from red chalk drawings by Van Rymsdyk, now preserved in the Hunterian Museum, Glasgow, and two of them were executed with great skill by Strange's own hand. By his plates of the Magdalen and Cleopatra, engraved after Guido in 1753, he at once established his professional reputation.

He was invited in 1759 to engrave the portraits of the prince of Wales and Lord Bute, by Allan Ramsay, but declined, on the ground of the insufficient remuneration offered and of the pressure of more congenial work after the productions of the Italian masters. His refusal was attributed to his Jacobite proclivities, and it led to an acrimonious correspondence with Ramsay, and to the loss, for the time, of royal patronage. In 1760 Strange started on a long-meditated tour in Italy. He studied in Florence, Naples, Parma, Bologna, and Rome, executing innumerable drawings, of which many—the Day of Correggio, the Danae and the Venus and Adonis of Titian, the St Cecilia of Raphael, and the Barberini Magdalen of Guido, &c.—were afterwards reproduced by his burin. On the Continent he was received with great distinction, and he was elected a member of the academies of Rome, Florence, Parma, and Paris. He left Italy in 1764, and, having engraved in the French capital the Justice and the Meekness of Raphael, from the Vatican, he carried them with him to London in the following year.

The rest of his life was spent mainly in these two cities, in the diligent prosecution of his art. In 1766 he was elected a member of the Incorporated Society of Artists, and in 1775, piqued by the exclusion of engravers from the Royal Academy, he published an attack on that body, entitled *An Enquiry into the Rise and Progress of the Royal Academy of Arts at London*, and prefaced by a long letter to Lord Bute. In 1787 he engraved West's Apotheosis of the Princes Octavius and Alfred, and was rewarded with the honour of knighthood. He died in London on the 5th of July 1792.

In the technique of engraving Strange was a master. His line is tender and flowing, without monotony or confusion, and his expression of flesh is characterized by uncommon delicacy and transparency. In draftsmanship his works are often defective.

After his death a splendid edition of reserved proofs of his engravings was issued; and a catalogue of his works, by Charles Blanc, was published in 1848 by Rudolph Weigel of Leipsic, forming part of *Le Graveur en Taille Douce*. See *Memoirs of Sir Robert Strange, Knt., and his Brother-in-law Andrew Lumisden*, by James Dennistoun of Dennistoun, 1855.

STRANRAER, a royal burgh of Wigtownshire, Scotland, is situated on the North Channel, at the head of Loch Ryan, 7½ miles north-east of Portpatrick, and 59 miles south-south-west of Ayr. In the centre of the town is the old baronial castle of the 15th century occupied by Claverhouse when he held the office of sheriff of Galloway. The principal public buildings are the old town-hall, the new town-hall and court-house (1873), and the academy (1845). A reformatory provides accommodation for 100 boys, and there is a combination poorhouse for the county and a few parishes beyond it. The town possesses a library and public reading-room. The harbour, which is tidal, only admits the entrance of vessels of 150 tons, but there is good anchorage in the loch, and the east pier permits of the approach of large steamers, which ply in connexion with the railway daily to Larne in Ireland. There is also steam communication with Glasgow, Liverpool, and other towns; but since the construction of the Girvan and Portpatrick Railway the trade of the port has been on the decline. The principal import is coal, and the principal exports are agricultural produce. The town is chiefly dependent on agriculture. The fishing industry is of minor importance. The population in 1881 of the royal burgh (area 55 acres) was 3455, and of the police burgh 6342. The town was created a burgh of barony in 1596, and a royal burgh in 1617. In 1885 its parliamentary representation (it had been one of the Wigtown burghs) was merged in that of the county.

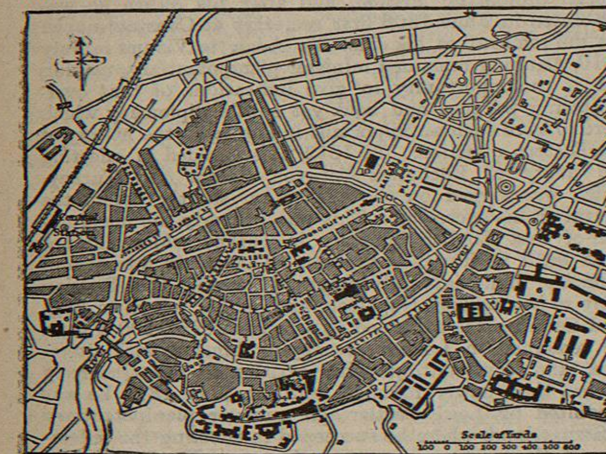
STRASBURG (Germ. *Strassburg*, Fr. *Strasbourg*), the principal town of Alsace, and a fortress of the first rank, is situated at the junction of the Ill and the Breusch, about two miles to the west of the Rhine, in one of the most fertile districts in the upper Rhenish plain. It lies about 90 miles to the north of Basel, 250 miles to the east of Paris, and 370 miles to the south-west of Berlin. Since 1871 it has been the seat of government for the German crownland of Alsace-Lorraine (Elsass-Lothringen); and it is also the see of a Roman Catholic bishop and the headquarters of the 15th corps of the German army.

Environs of Strasburg.

The town proper is divided by the arms of the Ill into three parts, of which the central is the largest and most important. Most of the streets are narrow and irregular, and the quaint aspect of a free mediæval town has to a considerable extent been maintained. The quarters which suffered most in the bombardment of 1870 have, however, been rebuilt in a more modern fashion, and the recent widening of the circle of fortifications, with the destruction of the old walls, has given the city opportunity to expand in all directions.

By far the most prominent building is the minster, or cathedral, which in its present form represents the activity of four centuries. Part of the crypt dates from about 1015; the apse shows the transition from the Romanesque to the Gothic style; and the nave, finished

in 1275, is a fine specimen of pure Gothic. Of the elaborate west façade, with its singular screen of double tracery, the original design was furnished by Erwin of Steinbach (*c.* 1318). The upper part of the façade and the towers were afterwards completed in accordance with a different plan, and the intricate open-work spire on the north tower, 465 feet high, was added in 1435. The sculptural ornamentation both without and within is very rich. The astronomical clock in the south transept, constructed in 1838–42, contains some fragments of the famous clock built by Dasypodius in 1571. The church of St Thomas, a Gothic building of the 13th and 14th centuries, contains a fine monument to Marshal Saxe, considered the *chef d'œuvre* of the sculptor Pigalle. Other notable buildings are the Temple-Neuf, or Neukirche, rebuilt since 1870; the old episcopal palace (1731–41), now the library; the old prefecture; the theatre; the town-house; and the so-called "aubette," containing the conservatorium of music. The university of Strasburg, which was suppressed in the French Revolution as a stronghold of German sentiment, was reopened in 1872, and now occupies


Plan of Strasburg.

1. Cathedral.	6, 6. Barracks.	10. Imp. Palace.	15. Prot. Gymnasium.
2. Library.	7. Akademie.	11. Theatre.	16. Arsenal.
3. St Thomas's Ch.	8. Govt. Tobacco Factory.	12. Law Courts.	17. Military Hospital.
4. Hospital.	9. University.	13. Aubette.	
5, 5. Univ. Med. Fac.		14. Neukirche.	

a handsome new building erected for it in 1884. The university and town library, containing about 600,000 volumes, consists largely of the books sent from all parts of Germany to compensate for the town library destroyed in the bombardment of 1870. The precious incunabula and manuscripts which then perished are, however, irreplaceable. General Kleber, who was a native of Strasburg, and Gutenberg, who spent part of his life here, are both commemorated by statues. Many private houses are most quaint and interesting illustrations of timber architecture. Pleasant public parks and gardens fringe the town.

The population in 1880 was 104,471, including 51,859 Roman Catholics, 48,691 Protestants, and 3521 Jews. In 1885 the total population had risen to 112,091, showing an increase of 7·29 per cent. The town, strictly so called, does not contain more than 90,000 inhabitants, the rest belonging to the suburban villages. Even before the war of 1870–71 more than half of the inhabitants spoke German as their mother-tongue, and this proportion has probably been somewhat increased since. The sympathies of the people, however, like those of most of the Alsatians, lay with France, and it will require the growth of a new generation to bring about a complete reconciliation to German rule.

The chief industries of Strasburg are tanning, brewing, and the making of steel goods, machinery, and tobacco. To these must be added the stall-fattening of geese for its celebrated *pâtés de foie gras*, an occupation which forms a most useful source of income to the poorer classes. The annual value of these "fat liver pies" sent out from Strasburg is over £100,000. The position of the town at the intersection of natural highways between France and Germany, Switzerland and Belgium, early made it a place of considerable commercial importance, and it now carries on a brisk trade in agricultural produce, hams, sausages, sauerkraut, and hops. Its full development in this direction, though favoured by the canals connecting the Rhine with the Rhone and the Marne, has been somewhat hampered by the iron girdle of fortifications.

Strasburg has always been a place of great strategic importance, and as such strongly fortified. The pentagonal citadel constructed by Vauban in 1682–84 was destroyed during the siege of 1870. The new German system of fortifications consists of a girdle of fourteen detached forts, at a distance of three to five miles from the centre of the town. Kehl, the *tête-de-pont* of Strasburg, and several villages are included within this enceinte, and three of the outworks lie on the right bank of the Rhine, in the territory of Baden. In case of need a great part of the environs can be laid under water by the garrison.

The site of Strasburg seems to have been originally occupied by a Celtic settlement, which the Romans conquered and replaced by the fortified station of *Argentoratum*, afterwards the headquarters of the eighth legion. In the year 357 the emperor Julian saved the frontier of the Rhine by a decisive victory gained here over the Alemanni, but about half a century later the whole of the district now called Alsace fell into the hands of that Teutonic people. Towards the end of the 5th century the town passed to the Franks, who named it *Strataburgum*. The famous "Strasburg oaths" (see Germany, vol. x. p. 480) were taken here in 842; and in 923, through the homage paid by the duke of Lorraine to Henry I., began the connexion of the town with the kingdom of Germany which was to last for more than seven centuries. The bishopric of Strasburg was founded in the Merovingian period, and soon attained great wealth and importance. The early history of Strasburg, as in the case of most episcopal cities, consists mainly of a record of the struggle between the bishops and the citizens,—the latter, as they grew in wealth and power, feeling the fetters of ecclesiastical rule inconsistent with their full development. The conflict was finally decided in favour of the citizens by the battle of Oberhausbergen in 1262; and the position of free imperial city, which had been conferred upon Strasburg by Philip of Swabia, was not again disputed. The throwing off of the episcopal yoke was followed by an internal revolution (1332), which admitted the guilds to a share in the government of the city and impressed upon it the democratic character that it bore down to the French Revolution. Strasburg now became one of the most flourishing of all the imperial towns, and the names of natives or residents like Sebastian Brant, Tauler, Fischart, and Geiler von Kaysersberg show that its pre-eminence was not confined to the material sphere. On the other hand, its fair fame is sullied by such acts as the burning in 1349 of 2000 Jews, accused of causing a pestilence by poisoning the wells. In 1381 Strasburg joined the Städtebund, or Swabian League, and about a century later it rendered efficient aid to the Swiss confederates at Granson and Nancy. The Reformation found ready acceptance at Strasburg, its foremost champion here being Martin Bucer, and the city was skilfully piloted through the ensuing period of religious dissension by its "stadtmeister" Jacob Sturm, who secured for it very favourabl terms at the end of the Schmalkald War. In the Thirty Years' War Strasburg escaped without molestation by observing a prudent neutrality. In 1681, during a time of peace, it was suddenly seized by Louis XIV., and this unjustifiable action received formal recognition at the peace of Ryswick in 1697. The immediate effect of the change of superiors was a partial reaction in favour of Roman Catholicism, but the city remained essentially German until the French Revolution, when it was deprived of its privileges as a free town and sank to the level of a French provincial capital. It was at Strasburg that Louis Napoleon made his first ineffectual attempt to grasp power. In the war of 1870 Strasburg, with its garrison of 17,000 men, surrendered to the Germans after a siege of seven weeks. The town and cathedral suffered considerably from the bombardment, but all traces of the havoc have now disappeared.

STRASS, or Paste. See Glass, vol. x. p. 665.

STRATEGY. See War.

STRATFORD, usually designated Stratford-on-Avon, a market-town and municipal borough of England, in Warwickshire, near the Gloucestershire border, is pleasantly situated on the Avon, and on the Great Western and Midland Railway lines, 26 miles south of Birmingham and 8 south-west of Warwick. The Avon is crossed by a stone bridge of fourteen arches, built by Sir Hugh Clopton in the