WALKER'S MANLY EXERCISES AND RURAL SPORTS.

EDITED BY "CRAVEN.'

WALKER'S MANLY EXEECISES CONTAINING

Rowing, Sailing, Riding, Driving, Racing, Punting, Shooting

AND OTHER MANLY SPORTS.

THE WHOLE CAREFULLY REVISED, OR WRITTEN,

BY "CRAVEN."

NINTH EDITION.

IMPORTANCE OE PHYSICAL EXERCISES.

Education may be divided into two parts, physical and

mental. Of the former, Exercises or Gymnastics are the

most extensive and the earliest portion.

Their extent is learnt by an enumeration of them, viz.,

Walking, Running, Leaping, Vaulting, Pole-leaping, Balancing,

Skating, Carrying, Climbing, and Swimming. We have added

Throwing the Discus; and, in a course of British Exercises,

we think Rowing, Sailing, Riding, and Driving, would be very

improperly omitted.

The object of these Exercises is to strengthen the muscular

system, by subjecting it to a regular process of training, and to

teach the means of employing it most advantageously. The

expediency of their early acquisition is rendered evident by the

first tendency of youth being directed to them, by the rapid

progress made in them, and by the delight derived from them,

at a period when the body is incapable, with real or solid ad-

vantage, of higher acquirements.

Their general utility will be questioned only by those who

are not aware that the health and vigour of all the bodily organs

depend on the proportioned exercise of each. In active exer-

tion, the member exercised swells with the more frequent and

more copious flow of blood, and heat is developed in it with

greater abundance; and if we repeat the same motions many

times after intervals of repose, all the muscles exercised become

permanently developed; a perfection of action ensues in the

member exercised, which it did not previously possess, any de-

formity by which it is affected is corrected, and strength and

activity are acquired. That man, therefore, gains the most

strength who engages in muscular exercises that require the

application of much power, but which are sufficiently separated

by intervals of repose.

It must be remembered, however, that, in exercising parti-

cular muscles only, the others become weak. The strength of

Marshal Saxe was sufficiently great to stop a chariot drawn at

speed by four horses, by merely seizing the wheel : he bent

pieces of silver with his fingers, made them into boats as he

would with paper, and presented them to the ladies. Count

Orloff, a Russian general, broke the shoe of a carriage horse in

the same manner ; and there are innumerable examples of

similar feats of extraordinary strength.

Active exercises, at the same time, confer beauty of form;

and they even contribute to impart an elegant air and graceful

manners. If the exercise of a limb be continued for some time,

the member swells, a painful sensation is experienced, which is

termed lassitude, and a difficulty of contraction, which is the

result of it. If the motion has been excessive, and the organic

elements in the member have been acted upon beyond all phy-

siological laws, inflammation would take place, and its functions

be performed with great difficulty, if at all.

Such are the effects of exercise on the locomotive system, to

all the functions of animated beings, so long as they are exer-

cised with moderation, equality, and at due intervals, working

for their own preservation. Of course, the general effect of

active exercises is marked in proportion to the number of parts

that share in the motion, or are brought into energetic action.

In general exercise, the increase of organic action is not con-

fined solely to the parts which are the seat of muscular con-

traction, but is repeated throughout all parts of the economy,

and influences all the functions.

Thus, as to the vital or nutritive system, exercises taken when

digestion is not going on, excite the digestive faculty : taken

during its progress, they disorder that function. The arterial

and venous circulations become more rapid by active exercise,

which concludes by giving greater force to the tissue of the

heart. It is the same with respiration and calorification. The

same takes place with regard to nutrition, a function which ex-

ercise increases, not only in the muscles in movement, as we

have just seen, but also in the bones, ligaments, vessels, and

nerves.

By inducing cutaneous exhalation, it promotes the expulsion

of injurious agents, produces a fresh colour in persons who may

have become pale through a sedentary life, and, to a certain ex-

tent, renders the human constitution, by means of habit, proof

against the action of surrounding objects. The local effects of

excessive action, or those which take place in the members

themselves, are, as before observed, inflammation of the muscles,

rheumatism, like that arising from cold, and inflammation of the

serous articular membranes. The general effects of excessive

exercise may, in the same manner as all physical and moral

stimulants, exhaust the vital faculties too quickly, communicate

too much rigidity to the fibres, render the vessels varicose, bring

on chronic rheumatism, destroy the freshness of the skin, blight

the flower of youth, and produce old age and death before the

time ordained by nature.

Ancient writers inform us that it was a rare thing to meet

with athletes, who, having signahzed themselves from their

earliest youth in gymnastic combats, were of so excellent a con-

stitution as to be able, when they had reached a more advanced

age, to acquire the same honours on contending for the prize

with, grown men. Aristotle assmues us, that amongst the con-

querors in the Olympic Games, not more than two or three at

the most could be found to whom nature had granted such an

advantage.

In relation to the mental or thinking system, " every move-

ment," says Cabanis, " becomes in its turn the principle or

occasion of new impressions, of which the frequent repetition

and the varied character must increase more and more the circle

of our judgments, or tend unceasingly to rectify them. It hence

follows that labour, giving to this word the most general signi-

fication, cannot but have an influence infinitely useful on the

habits of the understanding, and consequently also on those of

the will." This argument is evidently applicable to varied ex-

ercise. On the contrary, "the great division of labour, so favour-

able to the perfecting of the arts, contracts more and more the

understanding of workmen." Exercises, moreover, inspire con-

fidence in difficult situations, and suggest resources in danger.

Then' consequent influence upon the moral conduct of man is

such, that, by a courage which is well founded, because it springs

from a perfect knowledge of his own powers, he is often enabled

to render the most important services to others.

Although the direct effect of exercise is not only to confer

power on the muscular and other organs, but to multiply ex-

ternal impressions, and to occupy with them all the senses at

once ; still minds thus disposed, in general occupy themselves

rather with objects of imagination and sentiment, than with

those which demand more complicated operation. The sense of

muscular power impresses determinations which, carrying man

perpetually out of himself, scarcely permit him to dwell upon

impressions transmitted to his brain. The only action of that

organ, during these exercises, seems to be limited to ordering

the movements.

Hence, exercise, especially taken in the open air, amidst new

and varied objects of sight, is not favourable to reflection — to

labours which demand the assemblage and concentration of all

the powers of the mind. It is, on the contrary, in the absence

of external impressions, that we become more capable of seizing

many relations, and of following a long train of purely abstract

reasoning. As life spent chiefly in active muscular exercises

would leave in a state of repose those central organs that are

subservient to the moral qualities and intellectual faculties, I

agree with Seneca and Camper, in proscribing all such exer-

cises, or such degrees of exercise, as would exhaust the mind,

and render man incapable of aptitude in science, polite litera-

ture, and art.

The cultivation of bodily strength, in preference to every

thing else, would establish only the right of the strongest, as it

is found to exist in the origin of society. To cultivate the

faculties of the mind exclusively, would produce only the weak-

ness of sentiment or excess of passion. There is, for every indi-

vidual, a means of making all these dispositions act in harmony;

and the due blending of physical and moral education alone can

produce it. Let it be remembered that young persons will

much more easily be withdrawn from the application they ought

to pay to the study of the sciences, by insipid recreations and

trifling games, than by the fatiguing exercises necessary for their

developement and the preservation of their health, which, how-

ever, habit soon renders easy and delightful. To what vices

do not a sedentary life and the practice of gaming give rise?

— whilst well-regulated exercises excite ambition to excel, and

energy in the performance of every duty.

The philosophers of antiquity, such as Aristotle and Plato,

regarded gymnastic exercises as of vast importance, and con-

sidered a state defective and badly organized where these exer-

cises were not instituted. Colleges, called Gymnasia, were there-

fore established everywhere, and superintended by distinguished

masters. Accordingly, the illustrious men of the Grecian and

Roman republics, even those who shone in literature and the

fine arts, received the same physical education. The gymnastic

exercises which are here recommended are not intended to pro-

duce athletes, but to strengthen the human constitution. One

exercise gives solidity, another address ; and we may even say

that the various kinds of exercise are sometimes opposed to

each other. The strongest peasant is far from being the best

runner ; and the most vigorous dancer would probably be defi-

cient in strength. There is, however, a mean to be found in

the disposition of every individual to preserve both skill and

strength, and this is what ought to be sought. For this pur-

pose, it will suffice to practise young persons a few hours every

day, sometimes at one exercise, and sometimes at another.

GENERAL DIRECTIONS.

It only remains for us to give a few directions as to the time,

place, and circumstances of exercise. The best time for the

elementary exercises is when the air is cool, as, even in summer,

it is early in the morning, or after the sun has declined ; and

they should never immediately follow a meal. The best place

for these elementary exercises is a smooth grass-plat, or a firm

sandy sea-beach. Chasms, stones, and stakes, are always dan-

gerous. At the commencement, the coat and all unnecessary

clothes should be laid aside ; and all hard or sharp things should

be taken from the pockets of the remaining dress. A very light

covering on the head, as a straw hat, is best ; the shirt-collar

should be open, the breast being either exposed or thinly

covered ; the waistband of the trousers should not be tight, and

the boots or shoes should have no iron about them.

As sudden transitions are always bad, exercise should begin

gently, and should terminate in the same manner. The left

hand and arm being commonly weaker than the right, they

should be exercised till they become as strong. This custom is

advantageous, not only for all military and mechanical gjTiinastic

exercises, but also for all their operations. The being cooled

too quickly is injurious. Therefore, drinking when very hot, or

lying down on the cold ground, should he carefully avoided.

No exertion should be carried to excess, as that only exhausts

and enfeebles the body. Therefore, whenever the gymnast feels

tired, or falls behind his usual mark, he should resume his

clothes, and walk home. The moment exercise is finished, the

clothes should always be put on, and the usual precautions

adopted to prevent taking cold.

The necessary fittings-up of an exercising ground are a leap-

ing stand, a vaulting horse, a balancing bar, a climbing stand,

with ladders, poles, and ropes, which may be seen united as

simply and economically as possible, in a subsequent sketch —

(Plate XVIIIC LIMBING.)

In most exercises, a belt or cincture is of utility; and it seems,

in all ages, to have been naturally employed. The weakest

savage, who could not follow others in the course without pant-

ing, would find, by placing his hand over his abdomen, and

supporting the liver and other organs which descend into that

cavity, that he was aided in running, and breathed more easily ;

and thence he would make for himself a belt. United in socie-

ties, men would still preserve their belt, though it might not

seem particularly advantageous, except to those whose active

mode of life approached a primitive state, such as travellers,

couriers, and porters.

The Greeks put on their belts before they commenced

wrestling; and many physicians, both ancient and modern,

recommend the use of belts, as being to the whole of the body,

and to the parts over which they are placed, what the exterior

sheaths or aponeuroses are to the muscles — bands which em-

brace and keep firm the parts over which they are placed. The

common belt has leathern straps, and buckles to fasten it, an

iron ring and a pocket. A double cincture for wrestling forms

a very strong girth, which is put on by pupils who are very

strong, when they wrestle. These belts may be made of dif-

ferent sizes, for youths of different ages : of five or six inches

for tall youths and men, and of eight or ten inches for wrestlers.

Their length is in proportion to the size of the person who uses

them. These belts are very useful in strengthening the abdominal

region in running and leaping. Riders, also, should furnish

themselves with belts before getting on horseback, to prevent

too violent motion of the viscera of the abdomen, and the dis-

orders which may result from it. The use, indeed, of belts will

by degrees prove their utility, and they will probably be worn

even externally, without reference to physical exercises. They

deserve this the more, because they give an air of lightness and

elegance to the shape, and develope the chest.

The most useful thing in existence is dangerous, if improperly

applied. In very young persons, the chest and abdomen have

been compressed by fastening the belt too tight, or making it

too wide ; and disorders of digestion and respiration have con-

sequently been caused by pushing in the false ribs. This is an

imprudence that should be avoided. If the belt be too low, it

may press too much on the lower part of the belly ; if too high,

it may disorder the chest. It must therefore be placed on the

loins, so as to pass over the navel ; and, as said before, it must

not be too tight. Having given these ideas of the utility of

belts, and the manner of using them, it remains only to explain

the triple use of those adopted for exercises : 1st, they fulfil, by

their size and other circumstances, all the conditions which

render them useful; 2nd, a pocket serves to inclose the articles

that may be wanted, according to the class of exercises per-

forming; 3rd, an iron ring is intended to suspend, by means of

hooks, any thing we wish to carry, so as to leave the hands at

liberty.

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This is important in relation to various exercises to be de-

scribed. The art of training for athletic exercises, or laborious

exertions, consists in purifying the body and strengthening its

powers, by certain processes, which are now to be described.

The advantages of it, however, are not confined to pedestrians,

wrestlers, or pugilists ; they extend to every one : for, were

training generally introduced, instead of medicine, for the pre-

vention and cure of diseases, its beneficial consequences would

assuredly prolong life, and promote its happiness. Every phy-

siologist knows that all the parts which compose the human

body — solids as well as liquids — are successively absorbed and

deposited. Hence ensues a perpetual renovation of them, regu-

lated by the nature of our food and general habits. The health

of all the parts, and the soundness of their structure, depend

on this perpetual absorption and renovation. Now, nothing so

effectually as exercise excites at once absorption and secretion.

It accordingly promotes all the vital functions without hurrying

them, renovates all the parts, and preserves them apt and fit

for their offices.

It follows, then, that health, vigour, and activity, chiefly de-

pend upon exercise and regimen; or, in other words, upon the

observance of those rules which constitute the theory of training.

The effect has accordingly corresponded with the cause assigned

in this view of the subject, in every instance where it has been

adopted ; and, although not commonly resorted to as the means

of restoring invalids to health, there is every reason to believe

that it would prove effectual in curing many obstinate diseases,

such as bilious complaints, obesity, gout, and rheumatism.

The Ancients entertained this opinion. They were, says a

popular writer on medicine, by no means unacquainted with or

inattentive to these instruments of medicine, although modern

practitioners appear to have no idea of removing disease, or re-

storing health, but by pouring drugs into the stomach. Hero-

ditus is said to have been the first who applied the exercises

and regimen of the Gymnasium to the removal of disease, or

the maintenance of health. Among the Romans, Asclepiades

carried this so far, that he is said, by Celsus, almost to have

banished the use of internal remedies from his practice. He was

the inventor of various modes of exercise and gestation, in Rome.

In his own person, he afforded an excellent example of the

wisdom of his rules, and the propriety of his regimen. Pliny

tells US that, in early life, he made a public profession, that he

would agree to forfeit all pretensions to the name of a physician,

should he ever suffer from sickness, or die but of old age ; and,

what is extraordinary, he fulfilled his promise, for he lived up-

wards of a century, and at last was killed by a fall down stairs.

As to the locomotive system, modern experience sufficiently

proves that exercise is the most powerful strengthener of the

muscles, and of every part on which activity depends. In its

operation on the vital system, training always appears to benefit

the state of the lungs. Indeed, one of its most striking effects

is to improve the wind : that is, to enable a man to draw a larger

inspiration, and to hold his breath longer. As to the intellectual

system. Sir J. Sinclair observes, that, by training, the mental

faculties are also improved; the attention being more ready,

and the perception more acute, owing probably to the clearness

of the stomach, and better digestion.

It must, therefore, be admitted, that the most beneficial con-

sequences to general health arise from training. The simplicity

of the rules for it is assuredly a great recommendation to a trial

of the experiment. The whole process may be resolved into

the following principles : — 1st, the evacuating, which cleanses

the stomach and intestines ; 2nd, the sweating, which takes oiF

the superfluities of fat and humours ; 3rd, the daily course of

exercise, which improves the wind and strengthens the muscles ;

and, lastly, the regimen, which nourishes and invigorates the

body. To those who are to engage in corporeal exercises be-

yond their ordinary powers, it is indispensably necessary. Pedes-

trians, therefore, who are matched either against others or

against time, and pugilists who engage to fight, must undergo

the training process before they contend. The issue of the

contest, if their powers be nearly equal, will, in a great measure,

depend upon their relative condition, as effected by training, at

the hour of trial.

Training was known to the ancients, who paid much atten-

tion to the means of augmenting corporeal vigour and activity.

Accordingly, among the Greeks and Romans, certain rules of

exercise and regimen were prescribed to the candidates for

gymnastic celebrity. We are assured, that, among the Greeks,

previously to the solemn contests at the public games, the

strictest temperance, sobriety, and regularity in living, were in-

dispensably requisite. The candidates were, at the same time,

subjected to daily exercise in the Gymnasium, which continued

during ten months, and which, with the prescribed regimen,

constituted the preparatory training adopted by the athletae of

Greece. Among the Romans, the exercises of the palaestra

degenerated from the rank of a liberal art, and became a pro-

fession, which was embraced only by the lowest of mankind j

the exhibitions of the gladiators being bloody and ferocious

spectacles, which evinced the barbarous taste of the people.

The combatants, however, were regularly trained by proper

exercise, and a strict observance of regimen. Pure and salubri-

ous air was deemed a chief requisite. Accordingly, the principal

schools of their athletae were established at Capua and Ravenna,

the most healthy places in Italy ; and previous to entering on

this regimen, the men were subjected to the evacuating process,

by means of emetics, which they preferred to purgatives.

In the more early stages of training, their diet consisted of

dried figs, new cheese, and boiled grain. Afterwards animal

food was introduced as a part of the athletic regimen, and pork

was preferred to any other. Galen, indeed, asserts, that pork

contains more real nutriment than flesh of any other kind,

which is used as food by man. This fact, he adds, is decidedly

proved by the example of the athletae, who, if they live but for

one day on any other kind of food, find their vigour manifestly

impaired the next. The preference given to pork by the ancients,

however, does not correspond with the practice of modern

trainers, who entirely reject it; but in the manner of preparing

the food, they exactly agree — roasting or broiling being by both

preferred to boiling, and bread unfermented to that prepared by

leaven. A very small quantity of liquid was allowed to the

athletae, and this was principally water. They exercised in the

open air, and became familiarized by habit to every change of

the weather, the vicissitudes of which soon ceased to affect

them.

To exercise their patience, and accustom them to bear pain

without flinching, they were occasionally flogged on the back

with the branches of a kind of rhododendron, till the blood

flowed. By diminishing the quantity of the circulating liquid,

this rough kind of cupping was also considered salutary ! as ob-

viating the tendency to plethora or redundancy of blood, to

which they were peculiarly liable — a proof, if true, of the nou-

rishing qualities of their food.

When the daily exercises of the athletae were finished, they

were refreshed by immersion in a tepid bath, where the per-

spiration and sordes — scurf, pustules, or filthy adhesions — were

carefully removed from the surface of the body by the use of

the strygil. The skin was then diligently rubbed dry, and

again anointed with oil. If thirsty, they were permitted to

drink a small quantity of warm water. They then took their

principal repast, after which they used no more exercise that

day. They occasionally also went into the cold bath in the

morning. They were permitted to sleep as many hours as they

chose; and great increase of vigour, as well as of bulk, was

supposed to be derived from long-continued and sound repose.

The sexual intercourse was strictly prohibited.

The manner of training among the ancients bears some re-

semblance to that practised by the moderns. Perhaps it is

because their mode of living and general habits were somewhat

different from those of the present age, that a difference of

treatment is now required to produce the same effects. The

great object of training for running or boxing matches, is to

increase the muscular strength, and to improve the free action

of the lungs, or wind, of the person subjected to the process.

Seeing that the human body is so capable of being altered and

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renovated, it is not surprising that the art of training should be

carried to a degree of perfection almost incredible ; and that, by

certain processes, the muscular power, the breath (or wind), and

the courage of man, should be so greatly improved as to enable

him to perform the most severe or laborious undertakings.

That such effects have been produced is unquestionable : they

are fully exemplified in the astonishing exploits of our most

celebrated pedestrians and pugilists, which are the infallible re-

sults of such preparatory discipline. The skilful trainer attends

to the state of the bowels, the lungs, and the skin ; and he uses

such means as will reduce the fat, and at the same time invigo-

rate the muscular fibre. The patient is purged by drastic medi-

cines ; he is sweated by walking under a load of clothes, and by

lying between feather beds ; and his limbs are roughly rubbed.

His diet is beef or mutton : his drink strong ale. He is gradu-

ally inured to exercise, by repeated trials in walking and running.

By extenuating the fat, emptying the cellular substance, harden-

ing the muscular fibre, and improving the breath, a man of the

ordinary frame may be made to fight for one hour, with the ut-

most exertion of strength and courage, or to go over one hun-

dred miles in twenty-four hours.

The most effectual process for training appears to be that

practised by Captain Barclay, which has not only been sanctioned

by professional men, but has met with the unqualified approba-

tion of amateurs. We are here, therefore, almost entirely in-

debted to it for details. According to this method, the pedes-

trian, who may be supposed in tolerable condition, enters upon

his training with a regular course of physic, which consists of

three doses. Glauber's salts are generally preferred ; and from

one ounce and a half to two ounces are taken each time, with

an interval of four days between each dose. After having gone

through the course of physic, he commences his regular exer-

cise, which is gradually increased as he proceeds in the training.

When the object in view is the accomplishment of a pedes-

trian match, his regular exercise may be from twenty to twenty-

four miles a day. He must rise at five in the morning, run half

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a mile at the top of his speed up-hill, and then walk six miles

at a moderate pace, coming in about seven to breakfast, which

should consist of beef-steaks or mutton-chops under-done, with

stale bread and old beer. After breakfast, he must again walk

six miles at a moderate pace, and at twelve lie down in bed,

without his clothes, for half an hour. On getting up, he must

walk four miles, and return by four to dinner, which should also

be beef-steaks or mutton-chops, with bread and beer, as at

breakfast. Immediately after dinner, he must resume his exer-

cise, by running half a mile at the top of his speed, and walking

six miles at a moderate pace. He takes no more exercise for

that day, but retires to bed about eight ; and next morning he

proceeds in the same manner.

Animal diet, it will be observed, is, according to this system,

alone prescribed, and beef and mutton are preferred. All fat

and greasy substances are prohibited, as they induce bile, and

consequently injure the stomach. The lean of meat contains

more nourishment than the fat ; and, in every case, the most

substantial food is preferable to any other kind. Fresh meat is

the most wholesome and nourishing. Salt, spiceries, and all

kinds of seasonings, with the exception of vinegar, are prohi-

bited. The lean, then, of fat beef cooked in steaks, with very

little salt, is the best ; and it should be rather under-done than

otherwise. Mutton, being reckoned easy of digestion, may be

occasionally given, to vary the diet and gratify the taste. The

legs of fowls are also esteemed.

It is preferable to have the meat broiled, as much of its nutri-

tive quality is lost by roasting or boiling. It ought to be dressed

so as to remain tender and juicy ; for it is by these means that

it will be easily digested, and afford most nourishment. Biscuit

and stale bread are the only preparations of vegetable matter

which are permitted to be given; and every thing inducing

flatulency must be carefully avoided. In general, the quantity

of aliment is not limited by the trainer, but left entirely to the

discretion of the pedestrian, whose appetite should regulate him

in this respect.

With respect to liquors, they must be always taken cold ; and

home-brewed beer, old, but not bottled, is the best. A little

red wine, however, may be given to those who are not fond of

malt liquor ; but never more than half a pint after dinner. It is

an established rule to avoid liquids as much as possible; and no

more liquor of any kind is allowed to be taken than is requisite

to quench the thirst.

After having gone on in this regular course for three or four

weeks, the pedestrian must take a four-mile sweat, which is pro-

duced by running four miles in flannel, at the top of his speed.

Immediately on returning, a hot liquor is prescribed, in order to

promote the perspiration; and of this he must drink one English

pint. It is termed the sweating liquor, and is composed of one

ounce of carraway seed, half an ounce of coriander seed, one

ounce of root-liquorice, and half an ounce of sugar- candy, mixed

with two bottles of cyder, and boiled down to one-half. He is

then put to bed in his flannels, and, being covered with six or

eight pair of blankets, and a feather bed, must remain in this

state from twenty-five to thirty minutes, when he is taken out,

and rubbed perfectly dry. Being then well wrapt in his great

coat, he walks out gently for two miles, and returns to break-

fast, which, on such occasions, should consist of a roasted fowl.

He afterwards proceeds with his usual exercise.

These sweats are continued weekly, till within a few days of

the performance of the match; or, in other words, he must

undergo three or four of these operations. If the stomach of

the pedestrian be foul, an emetic or two must be given about a

week before the conclusion of the training. He is now sup-

posed to be in the highest condition.

Besides his usual or regular exercise, a person under training

ought to employ himself, in the intervals, in every kind of exer-

tion which tends to activity, such as golf, cricket, bowls, throw-

ing quoits,&c., so that, during the whole day, both body and

mind may be constantly occupied. Although the chief parts of

the system depend upon sweating, exercise, and feeding, yet the

object to be obtained by the pedestrian would be defeated^, if

these were not adjusted each to the other, and to his constitu-

tion. The trainer, before he proceeds to apply his theory, should

make himself acquainted with the constitution and habits of his

patient, that he maybe able to judge how far he can, with safety,

carry on the different parts of the process. The nature of the

patient's disposition should also be known, that every cause of

irritation may be avoided ; for, as it requires great patience and

perseverance to undergo training, every expedient to sooth and

encourage the mind should be adopted.

The skilful trainer will, moreover, constantly study the pro-

gress of his art, by observing the effect of its processes, sepa-

rately and in combination. If a man retain his health and spirits

during the process, improve in wind, and increase in strength,

it is certain that the object aimed at will be obtained; but, if

otherwise, it is to be apprehended that some defect exists,

through the unskilfulness or mismanagement of the trainer,

which ought instantly to be remedied by such alterations as the

circumstances of the case may demand. It is evident, there-

fore, that in many instances the trainer must be guided by his

judgment, and that no fixed rules of management can, with

absolute certainty, be depended upon, for producing an invari-

able and determinate result. In general, however, it may be

calculated, that the known rules are adequate to the purpose, if

the pedestrian strictly adhere to them, and the trainer bestow a

moderate degree of attention to his state and condition during

the progress of training.

It is impossible to fix any precise period for the completion

of the training process, as it depends upon the previous condi-

tion of the pedestrian ; but from two to three months, in most

cases, will be sufficient, especially if he be in tolerable condition

at the commencement, and possessed of sufficient perseverance

and courage to submit cheerfully to the privations and hardships

to which he must unavoidably be subjected. The criterion by

which it may be known whether a man is in good condition — or,

what is the same thing, whether he has been properly trained —

is the state of the skin, which becomes smooth, elastic, and well-

TRAINING. 17

coloured, or transparent. The flesh is also firm; and the person

trained feels himself light, and full of spirits. In the progress

of the training, his condition may also be ascertained by the

effect of the sweats, which cease to reduce his weight ; and by

the manner in which he performs one mile at the top of his

speed. It is as difficult to run a mile at the top of one's speed

as to walk a hundred ; and therefore, if he performs this short

distance well, it may be concluded that his condition is perfect,

or that he has derived all the advantages which can possibly re-

sult from the training process.

A few words may be here added on the comparative strength

of different races of men. In order to procure some exact re-

sults on this point, Peron took with him on his voyage an in-

strument called a dynamometer, so constructed as to indicate

on a dial-plate the relative force of individuals submitted to ex-

periment. He directed his attention to the strength of the arms

and of the loins, making trial with several individuals of each of

the races among whom he then was, viz., twelve natives of Van

Diemen's Land, seventeen of New Holland, fifty-six of the Island

of Timor, seventeen Frenchmen belonging to the expedition, and

fourteen Enghshmen in the colony of New South Wales. The

following numbers express the mean result in each case, but all

the details are given in a tabular form in the original : —

Strength of the Arms. Strength of the Loius,

Kilugrammes. Myriagrammes.

1. Van Dieraen's Land . . . 50.6

2. New HoUand .... 50.8 10.2

3. Timor . . . ... 58.7 11.6

4. French 69.2 15.2

5. English 71.4 16.3

The highest numbers in the first and second class were, re-

spectively, 60 and 62 ; the lowest in the Enghsh trials 63, and

the highest 83, for the strength of the arms. In the power of

the loins, the highest among the New Hollanders was 13 ; the

lowest of the Enghsh 12.7, and the highest 21.3. « These re-

sults," observes Mr. Lawrence, " offer the best answer to de-

clamations on the degeneracy of civihzed man. The attribute

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POSITION.

ol superior physical strength, so boldly assumed by the eulogists

of the savage state, has never been questioned or doubted.

Although we have been consoled for this supposed inferiority by

an enumeration of the many precious benefits derived from

civilization, it has always been felt as a somewhat degrading dis-

advantage. Bodily strength is a concomitant of good health,

which is produced and supported by a regular supply of whole-

some and nutritious food, and by active occupation. The in-

dustrious and well-fed middle classes of a civilized community

may, therefore, be reasonably expected to surpass, in this en-

dowment, the miserable savages, who are never well-fed, and

too frequently depressed by absolute want and all other priva-

tions.

POSITION.

Before entering into a detail of exercises, it is necessary to

attend to what is termed position. — A standing position is the

action by which we keep ourselves up. Indeed, this state, in

which the body appears in repose, is itself an exercise, for it

consists in a continued effort of many muscles ; and the expla-

nation we shall give of it will much facilitate that of walking.

Every one has observed that during sleep, or a fainting fit,

the head inclines forward and falls upon the breast. In this

case, it is in accordance with the laws of gravity ^ for the

head, resting upon the vertebrae which support it at a point

of its basis which is nearer the posterior than anterior part,

cannot remain in an upright position in standing, except by

an efibrt of the muscles at the back of the neck : it is the

cessation of this efibrt that causes it to fall forward. The

body also is unable to remain straight without fatigue. The

vertebral column being placed behind, all the viscera or parts

contained by the chest and belly are suspended in front of

it, and would force it to bend forward unless strong muscular

fibres held it back. A proof of this may be seen in pregnant

POSITION.

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and dropsical women, who are compelled, in consequence of the

anterior part of the body being heavier than usual, to keep

the vertebral column more fixed, and even thrown backward.

The same observation may be made with regard to the pelvis,

basin, or lowest part of the trunk, which by its conformation

would bend upon the thighs, if not kept back by the great

mass of muscular fibres that form the hips. In front of the

thighs, again, are the muscles which, by keeping the kneepan

in position, are the means of preventing the leg from bending.

Lastly, the muscles forming the calves, by contracting, are the

means of preventing the leg from bending upon the foot.

Such is the general mechanism of the standing position. It

is, therefore, as we observed, a concurrence of efibrts : almost

all the extending muscles are in a state of contraction all the

time that this position is maintained, and the consequence is,

a fatigue which cannot be endured fo» any great length of time.

Hence we see persons in a standing position rest the weight of

their body, first on one foot, then on another, for the purpose

of procuring momentary ease to certain muscles. For this

reason, also, standing still is more fatiguing than walking, in

which the muscles are alternately contracted and extended.

A question of importance on this subject is, what position of

the feet afibrds the greatest solidity in standing ? We will not

enter into a detail of the numerous controversies by which some

have defended or repudiated the position with the toes turned

forward or outward : it will be sufficient to state the fact, that

the larger the base of support, the firmer and more solid will

the position be, and to adopt, as a fundamental one, the

military position, which has been found practically the best by

those who have nothing else to do but to walk. The equal

squareness of the shoulders and body to the front, is the first

great principle of position. The heels must be in a line, and

closed; the knees straight; the toes turned out, with the

feet forming an angle of sixty degrees; the arms hanging

close to the body ; the elbows turned in, and close to the

sides ; the hands open to the front, with the view of pre-

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EXTENSION MOTIONS.

servinfif the elbow in the position above described; the little

lingers lightly touching the clothing of the limbs, with the

thumb close to the forefinger ; the belly rather drawn in, and

the breast advanced, but without constraint ; the body upright,

but inchning forward, so that the weight of it may principally

bear upon the fore part of the feet ; the head erect, and the eyes

straight to the front — (as in Plate I. fig. 1.)

To these brief directions I must add, that, in standing, the

whole figure should be in such a position that the ear, shoulder,

haunch, knee, and ankle are all in a line; that it must be

stretched as much as possible, by raising the back of the head,

drawing in the chin, straightening the spine, rising on the hips,

and extending the legs ; that the object of keeping the back

thus straight is to allow of standing longer without fatigue ; that

it is important to expand the chest, and to throw the shoulders

back, with the shoulder-blades, or scapulse, quite flat behind ;

and that though, in military instructions, the body is thus in-

clined forward in standing without arms, yet when these are

assumed, the body is immediately thrown about two inches

backward, into a nearly perpendicular position. This position,

therefore, will be modified in walking, and especially in ordinary

walking; but it is an excellent fundamental position, and it

cannot be too accurately acquired.

This is the amount of the drill-sergeant's instructions as to

position, though this last part is omitted in the Manual describing

the Field Exercise and Evolutions of the Army.

EXTENSION MOTIONS.

In order to supple the figure, open the chest, and give free-

dom to the muscles, the first three movements of the extension

motions, as laid down for the sword exercise, are ordered to be

practised. It is indeed, observed, that too many methods can-

not be used to improve the carriage, and banish a rustic air ;

but that the greatest care must be taken not to throw the

body backward instead of forward, as being contrary to every

true principle of movement. I accordingly here introduce these

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Extension Ivfotions. j

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EXTENSION MOTIONS.

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extension motions, adding the fourth and fifth, and prefixing to

each the respective word of command, in order that they mscy

be the more distinctly and accurately executed.

Attention. — The body is to be erect, the heels close together,

and the hands hanging down on each side. First Extension

motion. — This serves as a caution, and the motions tend to ex-

pand the chest, raise the head, throw back the shoulders, and

strengthen the muscles of the back.

One — Bring the hands and arms to the front, the fingers

lightly touching at the points, and the nails downwards ; then

raise them in a circular direction well above the head, the ends

of the fingers still touching, the thumbs pointing to the rear,

the elbows pressed back, and shoulders kept down. (Plate I.

fig. 2.)

Two — Separate and extend the arms and fingers, forcing

them obliquely back, till they come extended on a line with the

shoulders ; and as they fall gradually from thence to the original

position of Attention, endeavour, as much as possible, to ele-

vate the neck and chest. These two motions should be fre-

quently practised, with the head turned as much as possible to

the right or left, and the body kept square to the front: this

tends very materially to supple the neck, &amp;c.

Three — Turn the palms of the hands to the front, pressing

back the thumbs with the arms extended, and raise them to the

rear, till they meet above the head ; the fingers pointing up-

wards, with the ends of the thumbs touching.

Four — Keep the arms and knees straight, and bend over fron;!

the hips till the hands touch the feet, the head being brought

down in the same direction. (Plate I. fig. 3.)

Five — With the arms flexible and easy from the shoulders,

raise the body gradually, so as to resume the position of Atten-

tion. The whole should be done very gradually, so as to feel

the exertion of the muscles throughout. To these extension

motions, drill-sergeants, in their instructions, add the following :

One — the forearms are bent upon the arms upward and to-

ward the body, having the elbows depressed, the shut hands

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INDIAN CLUB EXERCISE.

touching om the little-finger sides, and the knuckles upward, the

latter being raised as high as the chin, and at the distance of

about a foot before it. (Plate I. fig. 4.)

Two — While the arms are thrown forcibly backward, the fore-

arms are as much as possible bent upon the arms, and the

palmar sides of the wrists are turned forward and outward

(Plate I. fig. 5.) The two motions are to be repeatedly and

rather quickly performed. A modification of the same move-

ment is performed as a separate extension motion, but may be

given in continuation, with the numbers following these, as

words of command.

Three — The arms are extended at full length in front, on a

level with the shoidder, the palms of the hands in contact.

(Plate I. fig. 6.)

Four — Thus extended, and the palms retaining their vertical

position, the arms are thrown forcibly backward, so that the

backs of the hands may approach each other as nearly as pos-

sible. These motions, also, are to be repeatedly and rather

quickly performed. Another extension motion, similarly added,

consists in swinging the right arm in a circle, in which, begin-

ning from the pendent position, the arm is carried upward in

front, by the side of the head, and downward behind, the object

being in the latter part of this course to throw it as directly

backward as possible. The same is then done with the left arm.

Lastly, both arms are thus exercised together. These motions

are performed quickly.

THE INDIAN CLUB EXERCISE.

THE PORTION ADOPTED IN THE ARMY.

1st. A club is held by the handle, pendent on each side

(Plate n. fig. 1); — that in the right hand is carried over the

head and left shoulder, until it hangs perpendicularly on the

INDIAN CLUB EXERCISE.

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right side of the spme (Plate II. fig. 2) ; that in the left hand

is carried over the former, in exactly the opposite direction

(Plate II . fig. 2), until it hangs on the opposite side; holding

both clubs still pendent, the hands are raised somewhat

higher than the head (Plate II . fig. 3); with the clubs in the

same position, both arms are extended outward and backward

(Plate II. fig. 6) ; they are lastly dropped into the first position.

All this is done slowly.

2nd. Commencing from the same position, the ends of both

clubs are swung upward until they are held, vertically and side

by side, at arm's length in front of the body, the hands being as

high as the shoulders (Plate II . fig. 4) ; they are next carried

in the same position, at arm's length, and on the same level, as

far backward as possible (Plate II. fig. 5) ; each is then dropped

backward until it hangs vertically downward (Plate II. fig. 6) ;

and this exercise ends as the first. Previous, however, to

dropping the clubs backward, it greatly improves this exercise,

by a turn of the wrist upward and backward, to carry the clubs

into a horizontal position behind the shoulders, so that, if long

enough, their ends would touch (Platelll.fig. 1); next, by a

turn of the vn-ist outward and downward, to carry them hori-

zontally outward (Platelll.fig. 2); then by a turn of the wrist

upward and forward, to carry them into a horizontal position

before the breast (Platelll.fig. 3); again to carry them hori-

zontally outward; and finally to drop them backward as already

explained; and thence to the first position. All this is also

done slowly.

3rd. The clubs are to be svmng by the sides, first sepa-

rately, and then together, exactly as the hands were in the last

extension motion.

THE NEW AND MORE BEAUTIFUL PORTION NOW ADDED

FROM THE INDIAN PRACTICE.

1st. A club is held forward and upright in each hand, the

fore-arm being placed horizontally, by the haunch on each side

(Plate IV. fig. 1 ) ; both are thrown in a circle upward, forward,

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INDIAN CLUB EXERCISE.

and, by a turn of the wrist, downward and backward, so as to

strike under the arms (Plate IV. fig. 2) ; by an opposite move-

ment, both are thrown back again in a similar circle, till they

swing over the shoulders (Plate IV. fig. 3) ; and this movement

is continued as long as agreeable.

2nd. The clubs are held obliquely upward in each hand,

lying on the front of the arms (Plate IV. fig. 4) ; that in the

right hand is allowed to fall backward (Plate IV. fig. 5), and

swings downward, forward to the extent of the arm, and as high

as the head (Plate IV. fig. 6) ; the moment this club begins to

return from this point, in precisely the same direction, to the

front of the arm, that in the left hand is allowed to drop back-

ward, and to perform the advancing portion of this course in

the time that the other performs the returning portion, so that

each is at the same time swinging in an opposite direction.

3rd. From either of the first positions now given, the clubs are,

by a turn of the body and extension of the arms, thrown up-

wards and laterally (Plate V. fig. 1); — make, at the extent

of the arms, and in front of the figure, a circle in which they

sweep downward by the feet and upward over the head (Plate

V. fig. 2), and fall in a more limited curve towards the side

on which they began (Plate V. fig. 3), in such a manner

that the outer one forming a circle around the shoulder and the

inner one round the head, (both passing swiftly through the

position in the last figure of the first exercise,) they return to

the first position ; — this is repeated to the other side ; — and so

on alternately.

4th. Beginning from either first position, the body being

turned laterally, — for example, to the left, the club in the right

hand is thrown upward in that direction at the full extent of the

arm (Plate VI. fig. 1), and makes the large circle in front and

curve behind as in the last exercise (Plate VI. fig. 2), while the

club in the left hand makes at the same time a smaller circle in

front of the head and behind the shoulders (Plate VI. figs, 1,

2, and 3), until crossing each other before the head (rather on

the right side), their movements are exactly reversed, the club

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INDIAN CLUB EXERCISE.

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in the right hand performing the small circle round the head,

while that in the left performs the large one, — and these con-

tinue to be repeated to each side alternately.

5th. The clubs being in either first position, the body is

turned to one side — the left for example, and the clubs being

thrown out in the same direction, make each, by a turn of the

wrist, a circle three times on the outer side of the outstretched

arms (Plate Vllfig. 1) : — when completing the third circle, the

clubs are thrown higher to the same side, sweeping together in

the large circle in front, as in the second exercise, the body

similarly turning to the right ; but, instead of forming the smaller

curve behind, both are thrown over the back (Plate Vllfig. 2) ;

— from this position the clubs are thrown in front, which is now

toward the opposite side, and the same movements are reversed ;

—and so it proceeds alternately to each side.

6th. In this exercise, the clubs are reversed, both being pen-

dent in front, but the ends of their handles being upward on the

thumb sides of the hands. (Pl.VIIfig. 3.) The exercise consists

chiefly in describing with the ends of the clubs two circles

placed obliquely to each other over the head. For this purpose,

the club in the right hand is, in a sweep to that side, first ele-

vated behind the head, and thence passing to the left (Plate VII.

fig. 4), the front, the right (Plate VII. fig. 5) behind, (where its

continuation is indicated in fig. 5, and completed in fig. 6),

thus forms its circle ; — meanwhile the club in the left hand,

commencing when that in the right was behind the head, has

passed on the back of its circle to the right, (Plate VII. fig. 5,)

while that in the right hand has passed on the front of its circle

to the same side (Plate VII. fig. 5, the parts performed in both

being marked by complete lines, and the parts to be done merely

indicated) ; — and they continue, that in the right hand by the

back, and that in the left hand by the front, toward the left

side (PlateVII.fig. 6), and so on at pleasure, circling over the

head.

[Although but two-thirds of the body, viz., from the loins

upward, are called into operation in this exercise, its importance

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INDIAN CLUB EXERCISE.

must be estimated by the fact that they are precisely those

requiring constant artificial practice, being naturally most

exempted from exertion. As an adjunct to Training, there

is nothing in the whole round of gymnastic performances that

will be found of more essential service than this exercise with

the Indian clubs. It demands but httle muscular exertion, and

such as it does require calls chiefly upon that portion of the

system which it finds in a state of comparative repose.]

■4.

LOCOMOTIVE EXERCISES.

In Walking, the position is nearly the same as that already

described under the head Position.

The head should be upright, easy, and capable of free motion,

right, left, up, or down, without affecting the body. The body

must be kept erect and square to the front, having the breast

projected, and the stomach retracted, though not so as to injure

either freedom of respiration or ease of attitude. The shoulders

should be kept moderately and equally back and low ; and the

arms should hang unconstrainedly by the sides. The balance

on the limbs must be perfect. The knees straight, and the

toes turned out as described, the weight of the body should

be thrown forward, as this facilitates progression. The military

position in walkmg does not essentially differ from this, except

in points that exclusively regard the soldier ; as that the head

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BALANCE STEP.

be kept well up, and straight to the front, and the eyes not

turned to the right or left ; the arms and hands kept perfectly

steady by the sides, and on no account suffered to move or

vibrate: care, however, being taken that the hand does not

cling to the thigh, or partake in the least degree of the move-

ment of the limb.

THE BALANCE STEP.

The object of this is to teach the free movement of the limbs,

preserving at the same time perfect squareness of the shoulders,

vdth the utmost steadiness of body ; and no labour is spared

to attain this first and most essential object, which forms, in-

deed, the very foundation of good walking. The instructor

must be careful that a habit be not contracted of drooping or

throwing back a shoulder at these motions, which are intended

practically to show the true principles of walking, and that

steadiness of body is compatible with perfect freedom in the

limbs.

1. — WITHOUT GAINING GROUND.

To insure precision, the military words of command are

prefixed.

Caution — Balance step without gaining ground, commencing

viith the left foot. The left foot is brought gently forward with

the toe at the proper angle to the left, the foot about three

inches from the ground, the left heel in hue with the toe of the

right foot.

Rear — When steady, the left foot is brought gently back

(without a jerk), the left knee a little bent, the left toe brought

close to the right heel. The left foot in this position will not

be so flat as to the front, as the toe will be a little depressed.

Front — When steady, the word Front will be given as above,

and repeated to the Rear three or four times.

WALKING.

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Halt — To prevent fatigue, the word Halt will be given, when

the left foot, either advanced, or to the rear, will be brought to

the right. The instructor will afterwards cause the balance to be

made on the left foot, advancing and retiring the right in the

same manner.

2. GAINING GROUND BY THE WORD "FORWARD."

Front — On the word Front, the left foot is brought gently to

the front, without a jerk ; the knee gradually straightened as

the foot is brought forward, the toe turned out a little to the

left, and remaining about three inches from the ground. This

posture is continued for a few seconds only in the first instance,

till practice gives steadiness in the position.

Forward — On this word of command, the left foot is brought

to the ground, at about thirty inches from heel to heel, while

the right foot is raised at the same moment, and continues ex-

tended to the rear. The body remains upright, but inchning

forward ; the head erect, and neither turned to the right nor

left.

Front — On the word Front, the right foot is brought forward,

and so on.

WALKING.

Of all exercises, this is the most simple and easy. The

weight of the body rests on one foot, while the other is ad-

vanced ; it is then thrown upon the advanced foot, while the

other is brought forward; and so on in succession. In this

mode of progression, the slowness and equal distribution of

motion is such, that many muscles are employed in a greater or

less degree ; each acts in unison with the rest ; and the whole

remains compact and united. Hence, the time of its move-

ments may be quicker or slower, without deranging the union

of the parts, or the equilibrium of the whole. It is owing to

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WALKING.

these circumstances, that walking displays so much of the

character ©f the walker, — that it is light and gay in women and

children, steady and grave in men and elderly persons, irregular

in the nervous and irritable, measured in the affected and

formal, brisk in the sanguine, heavy in the phlegmatic, and

proud or humble, bold or timid, &amp;c., in strict correspondence

with individual character.

The utiHty of walking exceeds that of all other modes of pro-

gression. While the able pedestrian is independent of stage

coaches and hired horses, he alone fully enjoys the scenes

through which he passes, and is free to dispose of his time as he

pleases. To counterbalance these advantages, greater fatigue

is doubtless attendant on walking : but this fatigue is really the

result of previous inactivity j for daily exercise, gradually in-

creased, by rendering walking more easy and agreeable, and

inducing its more frequent practice, diminishes fatigue in such

a degree, that very great distances may be accomplished with

pleasure, instead of painful exertion.

Moderate walking exercises the most agreeable influence over

all the functions. In relation to health, walking accelerates

respiration and circulation, increases the temperature and

cutaneous exhalation, and excites appetite and healthful nu-

trition. Hence, as an anonymous writer observes, the true

pedestrian, after a walk of twenty miles, comes in to breakfast

with freshness on his countenance, healthy blood coursing in

every vem, and vigour in every limb, while the indolent and in-

active man, having painfully crept over a mile or two, returns

to a dinner which he cannot digest. In all individuals, walking

is indispensably joined with the exercise of one or more of the

external senses. It receives from the cerebral faculties a

powerful influence, by which it is either accelerated or prolonged.

Walking upon soft even ground, at a moderate pace, is an ex-

ercise that may be taken without inconvenience, and even with

advantage, after a meal. It is adapted for convalescents, who

are not yet allowed to take stronger exercise. A firm, yet easy

and graceful walk, is by no means common. There are few

GENERAL MECHANISM OF WALKING.

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men who walk well if tliey have not learnt to regulate their

motions by the lessons of a master, and this instruction is stiU

more necessary for ladies. Having, now, therefore, taken a

general view of the character and utility of walking, I subjoin

some more particular remarks on the

GENERAL MECHANISM OF WALKING.

For the purpose of walking, we first bear upon one leg the

weight of the body, which pressed equally on both. The other

leg is then raised, and the foot quits the ground by rising from

the heel to the point. For that purpose, the leg must be bent

upon the thigh, and the thigh upon the pelvis : the foot is then

carried straight forward, at a sufficient height to clear the ground

without grazing it. To render it possible, however, to move

this foot, the haunch, which rested with its weight upon the

thigh, must turn forward and out. As soon as, by this move-

ment, this foot has passed the other, it must be extended on the

leg, and the leg upon the thigh, and in this manner, by the

lengthening of the whole member, and without being drawn

back, it reaches the ground at a distance in advance of the other

foot, which is more considerable according to the length of the

step, and it is placed so softly on the ground as not to jerk or

shake the body in the slightest degree. As soon as the foot

which has been placed on the ground becomes firm, the weight

of the body is transported to the limb on that side, and the

other foot, by a similar mechanism, is brought forward in its

turn. In all walking, the most important circumstance is, that

the body incline forward, and that the movement of the leg

and thigh spring from the haunch, and be free and natural.

Viewed in this way, the feet have been well compared to the

spokes of a wheel : the weight of the body falling upon them

alternately.

This exercise puts in action the extensors and flexors of the

thighs and legs, a great number of the muscles of the trunk,

and more or less those of the shoulder, according to the rapidity

of the pace, and the greater or less degree of projection com-

32 THE MODERATE AND THE QUICK PACE.

inunicated to the arm, which, in this exercise, acts as a balancer

of the body, the motion being exactly the reverse of that

of the corresponding leg. It draws the fluids more into the

inferior than superior members : it gives but httle strength

to the latter. Walking may be performed in three different

times, — slow, moderate, or quick — which somewhat modify its

action.

THE SLOW WALK, OR MARCH.

In the mai-ch, the weight of the body is advanced from the

heel to the instep, and the toes are turned out. This being

done, one foot, the left for instance, is advanced, with the knee

straight, and the toe inclined to the ground, which, without

being drawn back, it touches before the heel, in such a manner,

however, that the sole, at the conclusion of the step, is nearly

parallel with the ground, which it next touches with its outer

edge ; the right foot is then immediately raised from the inner

edge of the toe, and similarly advanced, inclined, and brought

to the ground; and so on in succession. (Plate VIII. figs. 1

and 2.) Thus, in the march, the toe externally first touches,

and internally last leaves the ground ; and so marked is this

tendency, that, in the stage step, which is meant to be especially

dignified, — as the posterior foot acquires an awkward flexure

when the weight has been thrown on the anterior, — in order to

correct this, the former is for an instant extended, its toe even

turned backwards and outwards, and its tip internally alone

rested on the ground, previous to its being in its turn advanced.

Thus the toe's first touching and last leaving the ground, is

pecuUarly marked in this grandest form of the march. This

pace should be practised until it can be firmly and gracefuUy

performed.

THE MODERATE AND THE QUICK PACE.

These wiU be best understood by a reference to the pace

which we have just described ; the principal difference between

THE MODERATE PACE.

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them being as to the advance of the weight of the body, the

turning out of the toes, and the part of the foot which first

touches and last leaves the ground. We shall find that the

times of these two paces require a further advance of the weight,

and suffer successively less and less of turning out the toes, and

of this extended touching with the toe, and covering the ground

with the foot.

THE MODERATE PACE.

Here the weight of the body is advanced from the heel to the

ball of the foot; the toes are less turned out; and it is no longer

the toe» but the ball of the foot, which first touches and last

leaves the ground ; its outer edge, or the ball of the little toe,

first breaking the descent of the foot, and its inner edge, or the

ball of the great toe, last projecting the weight — (Plate VIII

figs. 3 and 4). Thus, in this step, less of the foot may be said

actively to cover the ground ; and this adoption of nearer and

stronger points of support and action is essential to the increased

quickness and exertion of the pace.

The mechanism of this pace has not been sufficiently attended

to. People pass from the march to the quick pace they know

not how ; and hence all the awkwardness and embarrassment of

their walk when their pace becomes moderate, and the misery

they endure when this pace has to be performed by them, un-

accompanied, up the middle of a long and well-lighted room,

where the eyes of a brilliant assembly are exclusively directed to

them. Let those who have felt this but attend to what we have

here said : the motion of the arms and of every other part de-

pends on it,

THE aUICK PACE.

Here, the weight of the body is advanced from the heel to

the toes ; the toes are least turned out ; and still nearer and

stronger points of support aiid action are chosen. The outer

edge of the heel first touches the ground, and the sole of the

foot projects the weight. ^

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THE QUICK PACE.

These are essential to the increased quickness of this pace —

(Plate VIII. figs. 5 and 6) ; and it is important to remark, as

to all these paces, that the weight is successively more thrown

forward, and the toes are successively less turned out. In the

grandest form of the march, the toes, as we have seen, are, in

the posterior foot, though but for a moment, even thrown back-

wards ; in the moderate pace, they have an intermediate direc-

tion ; and in the quick pace, they are thrown more directly for-

ward, as in the six figures of Plate VIII.

It is this direction of the toes, and still more the nearer and

stronger points of support and action, namely, the heel and sole

of the foot, which are essential to the quick pace so universally

practised, but which, together with the great inclination of the

body, being ridiculously transferred to the moderate pace, make

unfortunate people look so awkward, as we shall now explain.

The time of the moderate pace is, as it were, filled up by the

more complicated process of the step — by the gradual and easy

breaking of the descent of the foot on its outer edge, or the ball

of the little toe, by the deliberate positing of the foot, by its

equally gradual and easy projection from its inner edge, or the

ball of the great toe. The quick pace, if its time be lengthened,

has no such filling up : the man stumps at once down on his

heel, and could rise instantly from his sole, but finds that, to

fill up his time, he must pause an instant ; he feels he should do

something, and does not know what ; his hands sulFer the same

momentary paralysis as his feet ; he gradually becomes confused

and embarrassed : deeply sensible of this, he at last exhibits it

externally ; a smile or a titter arises, though people do not well

know at what , but, in short, the man has walked like a clown,

because the mechanism of his step has not filled up its time, or

answered its purpose.

I trust that the mechanism and time of the three paces are

here simply, clearly, and impressively described. The following

is the more imperfect, but still useful, military description, with

its words of command : —

DOUBLE MARCH.

3b

SLOW STEP.

March. — On the word March, the left foot is carried thirty

inches to the front, and, without being drawn back, is placed

softly on the ground, so as not to jerk or shake the body:

seventy-five of these steps to be taken in a minute. (The recruit

is ordered to be carefully trained, and thoroughly instructed in

this step, as an essential foundation for arriving at accuracy in

the paces of more celerity. This is the slowest step at which

troops are to move.)

QUICK STEP.

The cadence of the slow pace having become perfectly habitual,

a quick time is next taught, which is 108 steps in a minute, each

of thirty inches, making 270 feet in a minute.

Quick March. — The command Quick March being given with

a pause between them, the word Quick is to be considered as a

caution, and the whole to remain perfectly steady. On the word

March, the whole move off, conforming to the directions already

given. (This pace is applied generally to all movements by large

as well as small bodies of troops ; and therefore the recruit is

trained and thoroughly instructed in this essential part of his

duty.)

DOUBLE MARCH.

The directions for the march apply, in a great degree, to this

step, which is 150 steps in a minute, each of thirty-six inches,

making 450 feet in a minute.

Double March. — On the word Double March, the whole step

off together with the left feet, keeping the head erect, and the

shoulders square to the front ; the knees are a little bent ; the

body is more advanced than in the other marches ; the arms

hang with ease down the outside of the thighs. The person

marching is carefully habituated to the full pace of thirty-six

inches, otherwise he gets into the habit of a short trot, which

defeats the obvious advantages of this degree of march. In the

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FEATS IN WALKING.

army, great advantage attends the constant use of the plummet;

and the several lengths swinging the times of the different

marches in a minute, are as follow : —

In, Hun.

Slow time . . 75 steps in the minute . . , 24,96

Quick time . . 108 „ „ ... 12,03

Double march . 150 „ „ ... 6,26

A^usket ball, suspended by a string which is not subject to

stretch, and on which are marked the different required lengths,

answers the above purpose, may be easily acquired, and is

directed to be frequently compared with an accurate standard in

the adjutant's possession. The length of the plummet is to be

measured from the point of suspension to the centre of the ball.

In practising all these paces, the pupils should also be accus-

tomed to march upon a narrow plane, where there is room for

only one foot, upon rough uneven ground, and on soft ground

which yields to the foot.

Walking exercises a greater influence over the economy when

it takes place on inclined planes than on a flat surface. In

ascending, the effort is made in a direction directly opposed to

the general tendency of heavy bodies : the body is strongly bent,

the upper part of the trunk in advance ; the action of the poste-

rior and anterior muscles of the thigh is considerable ; and cir-

culation and respiration are speedily accelerated by the violence

of the muscular contractions. In descending, on the contrary,

effort is requisite to keep up the body, which tends to obey the

laws of gravitation ; and to moderate the tendency of gravity to

project forward in the centre, the body is thrown back, the sacro-

spinal mass, and the posterior muscles of the neck, are strongly

contracted, the knees bent, and the steps much shorter. Men

with long flat feet, and the heel bone little projecting, are bad

walkers.

FEATS IN WALKING.

The power of walking great distances without fatigue is an

important matter, in which the English have of late excelled.

A good walker will do six miles an hour, for one hour, on a good

RUNNING.

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road.\* If in perfect training, he may even do twelve miles in

two hours. Eighteen miles in three hours is a much more

doubtful affair, though some are said to have achieved it.

A Cork paper, of recent date, describes a match of ten miles

in 120 minutes, on the Mallow and Fermoy road, by Captain

John T. G. Campbell, of the 91st (Argyleshire) Regiment, ac-

coutred in heavy marching order of a private soldier, viz., with

knapsack and kit, great-coat and mess-tin, musket, bayonet,

and sixty rounds of ball cartridge : total, fifty pounds' weight.

Heavy bets were pending on the issue. The captain started at

eight o'clock, a.m., and performed this undertaking in the short

time of 107 minutes and a quarter, thus winning the match, and

having twelve minutes and three quarters to spare.

At the rate of five miles an hour, pedestrians of the first class

will do forty miles in eight hours, and perhaps fifty in ten.f At

the rate of four miles an hour, a man may walk any length of

time. Robert Skipper walked 1000 miles in 1000 successive

half-hours, on the same ground Captain Barclay walked 1000

miles in 1000 successive hours.

In the art of walking quickly, the circumstance perhaps most

important is, to keep the knees somewhat bent and springy.

RUNNING.

" Running," says one of our gymnasiarchs, " only differs from

walking by the rapidity of the movement." This is quite in-

correct. Running is precisely intermediate to walking and leap-

ing ; and, in order to pass into it from walking, the motion must

be changed. A series of leaps from each foot alternately must

\* Seven miles in one hour are said to have been done by some.

t A clever writer in Blackwood's Magazine says, " There can be no doubt

that, out of the British army, on a war establishment, ten thousand men

might be chosen, by trial, who would compose a corps capable of marching'

fifty miles a day, on actual service, for a whole week. The power of such a

corps is not to be calculated : it would far outgo cavalry."

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POSITION AND ACTION IN RUNNING.

be performed, in order to constitute it ; the foot which is left

behind quits the ground before the foot in advance is firmly-

fixed, so that the centre of gravity remains uncertain in passmg

from one leg to the other, which forms a series of leaps, and

renders a fall a common occurrence.

POSITION IN RUNNING.

The upper part of the body is slightly inchned forward ; the

head slightly thrown backward, to counteract the gravity for-

ward : the breast is freely projected ; the shoulders are steady,

to give a fixed point to the auxiliary muscles of respiration : the

upper parts of the arms are kept near the sides ; the elbows are

bent, and each forms an acute angle ; the hands are shut, with

the nails turned inwards; and the whole arms move but slightly,

in order that the muscles of respiration on the chest may be as

little as possible disturbed, and follow only the impulse com-

municated by other parts — (Plate IX. fig. 1). There exists,

in fact, during the whole time of running, a strong and perma-

nent contraction of the muscles of the shoulder and arm, which,

though very violent, is less serviceable to the extended move-

ments, than to keep the chest immoveable, toward which the

arms are brought close, the flexors and adductors of which are

especially contracted.

ACTION IN RUNNING.

At every step, the knees are stretched out ; the legs kept as

straight as possible ; the feet almost graze the ground ; the

tread is neither with the mere balls of the toes, nor with the

whole sole of the foot ; and the spring is made rapidly from one

foot to the other, so that they pass each other with great velo-

city— (Plate IX. fig. 2).

But the abdominal members are not the only ones in motion,

although it is in them that the greatest developement takes

place. Throughout the whole time of running, a strong and

permanent contraction of the muscles of the shoulder, arm, and

forearm takes place : this, though very violent, is less for the

RESPIRATION MODERATE RUNNING,

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purpose of aiding motion than of preserving the immobility of

the thorax, which is pressed upon the whole thoracic member,

whose flexors and adductors are strongly contracted. The de-

gree of velocity, however, must be proportioned to the length of

the steps. Too slow and long, as well as too quick and short,

steps, may be equally injurious.

RESPIRATION.

Speed, and still more duration in running, are in proportion

to the developement of the lungs, and consequently the volume

of oxygen and blood which they can combine in their parenchyma

at each respiratory movement. Thus, of two men, one having

the abdominal members developed, and the other possessing

good lungs, the former will run with the greatest speed for a

short distance, but if the distance be considerable, he will soon

be gained upon by the latter. A runner, after performing a cer-

tain space, is seized with a difficulty of breathing, long before

the repetition of the contractions has produced fatigue in the

abdominal members. To excel, therefore, in running, requires,

like walking and dancing, a peculiar exercise. As the muscular

contractions depend, for their principle of excitement, on the

respiration, the chest should be firmly fixed, so as both to faci-

litate this, and to serve as a point of support for the efforts of

the lower members. The best runners are those who have the

best wind, and keep the breast dilated for the longest time.

During the whole time of running, long inspirations and slow

expirations are of the greatest importance ; and young persons

cannot be too early accustomed to them. To facilitate respira-

tion towards the end of the race, the upper part of the body

may be leant a little forward. Running should cease as soon as

the breath becomes very short, and a strong perspiration takes

place.

MODERATE RUNNING-

This is performed gently and in equal time, and may be ex-

tended to a considerable space. In practising this pace, it is

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RAPID RUNNING.

necessary to fix the distance to be run ; and this should always

be proportioned to the age and strength of the runners. This

exercise, more than all others, requires to be proceeded with in

a progressive manner. If, at the first trial, you run too fast or

too long a time, it may produce spitting of blood and headache,

or aneurisms of the heart and principal vessels, especially if the

weather be dry and cold.

A moderately cool day may accordingly be chosen, a distance

of three hundred feet measured, and the runners placed in a hne

at one end. They may then start, trot at the rate of about seven

feet in a second to the opposite end, turn, and continue until

they reach the spot whence they started. Frequent repetition

of this is sufficient at first. Afterwards, they may run over this

space, two, three, or four times without stopping ; and the ex-

ercise may then be limited to this. It may, on subsequent days,

be extended to five, six, and seven times the distance.

Fatigue is then generally quite removed ; and the run may

either be continued farther, or the runners, if neither heated nor

winded, may accelerate their pace. They may next attempt a

mile in ten minutes ; and repeat this, till, being gradually less

and less heated, they can either extend the distance, or diminish

the time, in any measured proportion. At this pace, six miles

may afterwards be run in an hour.

RAPID RUNNING.

This is best applied to a short space in a little time. Three

hundred feet upon an open plain wiU not generally be found too

great. At each end of this, a cross hne may be drawn, and the

runners may arrange themselves on one hne, while the umpire

is placed at the other. On the latter giving the signal, the

running commences, and he who first passes him gains the race.

It is extremely useful always to run beyond the hne at a gentler

pace, as it gradually lowers the actions of the respiratory and

circulating systems.

Running is more easy on a level surface, but should be prac-

tised on ground of every variety : upon long, square, and circular

/

EFFECTS OF RUNNING.

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plots of ground. The pupils should be accustomed to turn

promptly out of the direct line — a faculty not possessed by ani-

mals, and exceedingly useful when pursued. They should also

run up hill, and particularly down, as it is dangerous unless fre-

quently practised,

FEATS IN RUNNING.

The practice of running may be carried to a great degree of

perfection.

A quarter of a mile in a minute is good running ; and a mile

in four minutes, at four starts, is excellent.

The mile was perhaps never run in four minutes, but it has

been done in four minutes and a half.\*

A mile in five minutes is good running. Two miles in ten

minutes is oftener failed in than accomplished. Four miles m

twenty is said to puzzle the cleverest.

Ten miles an hour is done by all the best runners. Fifteen

miles in an hour and a half has never perhaps been done.

It is reported that West ran forty miles in five hours and a

half. This, it is said, was done by one individual in four hours

and three quarters, or less.

As to great distances, Rainer failed in two attempts to accom-

phsh 100 miles in eighteen hours. West is said to have accom-

plished this.

EFFECTS OF RUNNING.

In running, the mass of our organs is agitated by violent and

constant shocks, which succeed with rapidity; but the abdominal

members are not the only ones in motion, although they are

those in which the developement is most considerable. Runnmg

developes not only the abdominal members, but has a strong

influence upon the respiratory parts. This exercise is particu-

larly suited to young persons, especially those of a lymphatic

temperament. It should not, however, be practised after meals.

\* Half a mile was recently run in two minutes ; but it was down a fall as

precipitous as a mountain's side, and the performer was blind in the last

twenty yards.— Ed. Fifth Edition.

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LEAPING.

LEAPING.

Leaping consists principally in the sudden straightening of

the articulations, performed by a strong and instantaneous con-

traction of the extensors, by which the body is rapidly projected

from the ground.

The leaping-stand consists of two moveable posts, above six

feet high, having, above the second foot from the ground, holes

bored through them, at the distance of an inch from each other;

two iron pins to be placed in the holes at any height; a cord, at

least ten feet long, passed over these pins, and kept straight by

two sand-bags at its ends; and weights upon the feet of the

posts, to prevent them from falling — (Plate X. fig. V). The

leap over the cord is made from the side of the stand towards

which the heads of the pegs are turned; so that, if the feet touch

the cord, it will easily and instantly fall.

In all kinds of leaping, it is of great importance to draw in

and retain the breath at the moment of the greatest effort, as it

gives the chest more solidity to support the rest of the members,

impels the blood into the muscular parts, and increases their

strength. The hands, also, should be shut, and the arms pendent.

The extent of the leap in height, or horizontally, is proportioned

to the power employed, and the practice acquired. As it is per-

formed with facility only in proportion to the strength exerted,

and the elasticity and suppleness of the articulations and muscles

of the lower extremities, much exercise is necessary to attain

that degree of perfection which lessens all obstacles, and supplies

the means of clearing them without danger. Lightness and firm-

ness are the qualities necessary for leaping : every thing should

be done to acquire these two qualifications, for without them

leaping is neither graceful nor safe.

THE HIGH LEAP.

Without a Run.

In this, the legs and feet are closed ; the knees are bent till

the calves nearly touch the thighs ; the upper part of the body,

THE HIGH LEAP.

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kept straight, is inclined a little forward ; and the arms thrown

in the direction of the leap, which increases the impulse, pre-

serves the balance, and may be useful in a fall. (Plate. X.

fig. 1.)

The vertebral column, and consequently the whole of the

trunk, being thus bent forward, a strong contraction of the

muscles preserves this bending till the moment when the leap

takes place : then, by sudden contraction of the extensors, the

body stretches out like a bow when the string breaks, is thus

jerked forward, and remains suspended a longer or shorter time

in the air.

In descending, the person should be rather inclined forward ;

and the fall should take place on the fore part of the feet,

bending the knees and haunches, to deaden the shock and

descent ; for, the direct descent in this leap, if not thus broken,

would send its shock from the heels to the spine and head, and

might occasion injury. To perpendicularity in this leap, should

be added lightness, so that scarcely any noise from the leap

should be heard.

This leap, without a run, may be practised at the height, — ■

1. Of the knees. I 3. Of the hips.

2. Of the middle of the thighs. 1 4. Of the lower ribs.

With a Run. '

The run preceding the leap should never exceed ten paces,

the distance between the point of springing and the cord being

equal to half the cord's height from the ground. The view of

the leaper should be directed first to the spot whence he is to

spring ; and, the moment he has reached that, to the cord,

accustoming himself to spring from either foot, and from both

feet.

The mstant the spring is made, or (if it be made with one

foot) immediately after, the feet should be closed, and the knees

drawn forcibly towards the chin. Thoughout, flexibility and

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LEAPING.

skill, not violent exertion, should be displayed. This leap, with

a run, may be practised at the height, —

1 . Of the hips. 5. Of the chin.

2. Of the lower ribs. 6. Of the eyes.

3. Of the pit of the stomach. 7. Of the crown of the head.

4. Of the breast.

Feats in High Leaping.

A good high leaper will clear five feet ; a first-rate one, five

and a half; and an extraordinary one, six feet. Ireland is men-

tioned as having cleared an extended cord at the height of

fourteen feet. Another man, it is said, jumped to the height

of seventeen feet, which was three times the height of his own

body.\*

THE LONG LEAP.

Without a Run.

This IS generally performed upon straight firm ground, on

which there are marks, or parallel hues, at equal distances.

The first of these lines is the place to leap from. The leapers

succeed each other, and clear a greater number of Unes accord-

ing to their strength and skill. Here the feet are closed ; the

whole weight rests upon the balls of the toes ; and the body is

inclined forward. Both arms are then swung forward, — ^back-

ward, — then drawn strongly forward, — and at the same instant

the limbs, having been bent, are extended with the utmost

possible force.

In performing this leap, the hands and body must be bent

forward, especially at the end of the movement, when the

leaper alights. On level ground twelve feet is a good standing

leap ; and fourteen is one of comparatively rare occurrence.

With a Run.

This leap is best executed with a run ; and we have there-

\* l\*he author means, with the aid of a spring-board.— £d. Fifth Edition.

THE LONG LEAP.

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fore dwelt less upon the former. Here, also, the body must be

inclined forward.

The run should be made over a piece of firm, and not slip-

pery ground, to the extent of ten, fifteen, or twenty paces ;

should consist of small steps, increasing in quickness as they

approach the point of springing ; and these should be so calcu-

lated as to bring upon the point that foot with which the leaper

is accustomed to spring. The spring, as here implied, should

be performed with one foot, and the arms thrown forcibly to-

wards the place proposed to be reached. The height as well as

the length of the leap, must be calculated; for the leap is

shortened by not springing a proper height. (Plate X. fig. 2.)

In the descent, the feet are closed, the knees bent, the upper

part of the body inclined forward, and the toes first touch the

ground, at which moment, a light spring, and afterwards some

short steps, are made, in order to avoid any sudden check.

In a much extended leap, however, alighting on the toes is

impossible. A sort of horizontal swing is then achieved, by

which the leaper's head is little higher than his feet, and his

whole figure is almost parallel with the ground ; and, in this

case, to alight on the toes is impossible. Care must here be

taken not to throw the feet so much forward as to cause the

leaper to fall backward at the moment of descent. The ground

must be cleared, or the leap is imperfect and unfair.

This leap may be practised at, —

1. Double the length of the body.

2. Twice and a half that length.

3. Three times that length.

Feats in Long Leaping.

On level ground, twenty feet is a first-rate leap ; twenty-one

is extraordinary ; and twenty-two is very rarely accomphshed.\*

With a run and a leap, on a slightly inclined plane, twenty-

three feet have been done.

\* I have seen twenty- two feet covered forwards and backwards, by an Irish

tailor.— Ed. Fifth Edition.

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LEAPING.

Of the various kinds of leaps, the first or simple leap, which

is produced principally by the extension of the abdominal mem-

bers, which impel the body either straight upwards, in the

vertical leap, or obliquely upwards and forwards, in the hori-

zontal or rather parabolic leap, requires, in addition to the

contraction of the abdominal members, especially if the leap be

executed with the feet close together, a violent action of the

muscles of th§ abdomen, upper parts of the back, anterior parts

of the loins, and of the thorax and shoulders.

THE DEEP LEAP.

This may be made either with or without the hands. In

either way, to avoid the shock, the body must be kept in a bent

position, and the fall be upon the balls of the toes. When the

hands are used, the leaper places them in front of the feet ; and

during the descent, the weight of the body is checked by the

former, and passes in a diminished state to the latter ; so that

the shock is obviated.

A flight of steps serves the purpose of this exercise. The

leaper ascends a certain number ; leaps from the side ; gradually

increases the number ; and, by practising progressively higher,

finds it easy to leap from heights which at first appalled him.

He afterwards combines the long and deep leaps. For this

purpose, a rivulet, which has one bank high and the opposite

one low, is very favourable. Children can easily take a leap of

nine feet in descending.

THE DEEP LEAP BACKWARDS, FROM A REST ON THE

HANDS.

This exercise is first performed from platforms of various

heights, and from walls of various elevations. The object is to

lessen the shock that the legs and body experience in reaching

the ground at a depth of more than six or seven feet, and to

diminish the distance if possible, at the same time that it

diminishes the violence and velocity of the fall. All this is

easily managed by observing the following rules.

THE DEEP LEAP BACKWARDS.

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Suppose the pupil placed upon a platform of four or six feet

in height, he must first examine the place he is about to leap

to, so as to select the most favourable part, free from stones and

other obstacles. He will then approach the extremity of the

platform, with his back towards it, and bend his body, placing

his hands in the position shown in Plate X. fig. 3. Having

taken up this position securely, he will lean his head a little

forward, raise his toes from the platform, and remain for an

instant supported by the arms. The body then begins to ex-

tend, and the legs to lengthen downward and backwards ; the

arms follow this movement, bend, and support the body by the

hands, which have a secure resting-place on the edge of the

platform, as in Plate X fig. 4. This descending movement is

executed as slowly as possible : the arms stretch out to their

utmost length, till the body is sustained by the last phalanx of

the fingers, or touches the ground with the feet. If it does not

reach the ground, the pupil di-ops gently down on the tips of his

toes, bends himself, and recovers his upright position.

There is another mode of descending, when the last resting-

place for the hands is the top of a counterfort, or prop on a

wall without a counterfort. This consists (see Plate X. fig. 3)

in seizing the last hold with the right hand for instance, and in

hangmg firmly by that hand, whilst the left, being at liberty, is

lowered and pushes back the body from the projecting stones in

the walls, to prevent injury in the descent. The impulse thus

given is, however, very trifling, and solely to avoid hurt, without

increasing the violence of the fall, which ought to be facilitated

on reaching the ground by the rules already given. By these

means, the height of a wall is relatively diminished, for a man

who hangs suspended by his arms, has six feet less to di'op than

he who has his feet w^here he might put his hands.

The down leap, unless gradually practised, may produce

ruptures of the diaphragm. When, however, the elevation from

which the leap is taken is gradually increased, the eye becomes

accustomed to measure the most extensive distances fearlessly,

at the same time that by practice the abdominal members learn

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VAULTING.

to bend properly under the weight of the trunk, and thereby

preserve the organs contained in it from serious injuries. In

this kind of leap, the shocks will be diminished by retaining the

air in the chest, which may be done by closing the glottis.

Persons who have long toes, powerful calves, and prominent

heels, are the best adapted for leaping.

VAULTING.

In vaulting, by a spring of the feet, the body is raised, and by

leaning the hands upon a fixed object, it at the same time re-

ceives, in oblique vaulting, a swing which facilitates the action.

As the inclination thus given to the body depends not merely

on the feet, but on the hands, we have the power to guide the

body in any direction.

This exercise is conveniently practised on the vaulting bar,

which rests upon two or three posts. It may be performed with

or without running. The beginner may at first be allowed a

run of a few paces, ending in a preparatory spring ; and he may

afterwards be allowed only a spring.

OBLIQUE VAULTING.

To mount, the vaulter must place himself in front of the bar ;

make a preparatory spring with the feet close ; fix at that mo-

ment both hands upon the bar ; heave himself up, and swing

the right leg over. The body, supported by the hands, may

then easily descend into the riding position. To dismount, the

vaulter, supported by the hands, must extend the feet, make a

little swing forward, and a greater one backward, so as to heave

both feet behind over the bar, and spring to the ground with

them close.

To do this he must first clearly define to himself the place

where he intends to fall. Then, having placed both hands

upon the bar, he should first bend and then extend the joints.

STRAIGHT-FORWARD VAULTING.

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SO as to raise the body with all his strength, and throw his legs,

kept close, high over the bar. (Plate fXI. fig. 1.) When the

right hand (if he vault to the right) quits the bar, the left re-

mains, the feet reach the ground on the opposite side, and he

falls on both feet, with the knees projected, and the hands

ready, if necessary, to break the fall.

In vaulting to the right, the left foot passes in the space

which was between both the hands, the right hand quits the bar,

and the left guides the body in the descent. In vaulting to the

left, the right foot passes in the space which was between both

hands, the left hand quits the bar, and the right guides the body

in its descent. As, however, it is difficult for beginners to vault

either way, this is not to be attempted until after sufficient

practice in the way which may be easiest. The vaulter may

then, with a preparatory spring, try the following heights, —

1. That of the pit of the stomach.

2. That of a middling-sized horse,

3. His own height or more.

STRAIGHT-FORWARD VAULTING,

For this purpose, both hands must be placed at such distance

on the bar as to give room for the feet between them ; the body

should be forcibly raised; the knees drawn up towards the

breast ; and the feet brought between the hands, vdthout moving

them from their place. (Plate XI. fig. 2.) This should be

practised until it can be done easily.

This straight-forward vault may have three different termina-

tions. When the feet are in the space between the hands, the

vaulter may stand upright. He may pass his feet to the op-

posite side, whilst he seats himself. He may continue the leap

over the seat, through the arms, letting both hands go at once

after the legs have passed.

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LEAPING WITH A POLE.

LEAPING WITH A POLE.

This is a union of leaping and vaulting, in which the vaulter,

instead of supporting himself upon a fixed object, carries with

him a pole, which he applies to whatever spot he chooses. In

supporting the body by a pole dui-ing the leap, a great deal also

depends upon balancing, as well as on the strength of the arms

and legs.

THE HIGH LEAP V^ITH A POLE.

The pole prescribed for this exercise is the planed stem of

a straight-grown fir, from seven to ten feet long, and about two

inches thick at the bottom. Such a pole naturally diminishes

towards the top ; and it is better to plane ofi^ the lower end a

httle. Care must be taken that it be sufficiently strong ; such

as make a crackling noise during the leap should be immediately

thrown aside.

The learner, supposed to be abeady expert in leaping and

vaulting, may at first place himself before a small ditch, w^th a

pole, which he holds in such a manner, that the right hand be

about the height of the head, and the left about that of the hips,

and in this case he must fix it in the ditch. (See Plate XII.

fig. 1.) He must then, by making a spring with his left foot,

endeavour to rest the weight of his body upon the pole, and,

thus supported, s^ing himself to the opposite bank. In this

swing, he passes his body by the right of the pole, making, at

the same time, a tm-n, so that, at the descent, his face is

directed to the place whence he leaped. The faults usually

committed by the beginner, consist in his trusting to the pole

the whole weight of the body ; and in losing the necessary

purchase by keeping at too great a distance from it.

This leap cannot be made with proper force and facility unless

the fixing of the pole in the ground and the spring are made

exactly at the same moment. To acquire this, the learner should

place himself at the distance of a moderate pace in front of the

THE HIGH LEAP WITH A POLE.

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ditch ; raise the left foot and the pole together ; plant both to-

gether, the former in the spot whence he intends making the

spring, and the latter in the ditch ; then instantly swing him-

self round the pole, to the opposite bank. As soon as he can

easily take the proper position and balance, he may endeavour

to swing his legs higher ; and in proportion as he becomes more

expert, he must place his hands higher up the pole, in order to

have a greater swng. He must afterwards make a previous

run of tw^o, three, or four paces, gradually increasing in velocity ;

and always taking care that the springing foot and the pole

come to the ground at the same moment. When this difficulty

is overcome, he may practise the exercise over the leaping-

stand.

In leaping over the cord, the learner must take the pole in both

hands ; make a rather quick run : conclude this with the spring,

and planting the pole at the same moment ; raise rapidly his

whole body, by means of this spring and a powerful support on

the pole, and swing over the cord; turning his body so that,

at the descent, his face is directed to the place whence he

sprung. This is a general description of the high leap ; but it

is necessary to explain the parts into which it may be divided,

as follows, —

1. In the handling the pole (Plate XII. fig. 1), it is im-

material, as to the lower hand, whether the thumb or the httle

finger be uppermost : the upper hand must have the thumb

upward. The position of the upper hand is regulated by that

of the lower one : as this advances higher up, the former must

be proportionally raised. The lower hand then must be placed

at a height proportionate to that of the leap : thus, if the latter

be six feet, the lower hand must be at least from five and a half

to six feet from the lower end of the pole. The leaper is, after

a little practice, enabled to seize the pole in the proper way,

from a mere glance at tlie leap.

• 2. The preparatory run of from twelve to fifteen paces is

accelerated as the leaper approaches the cord. Upon this nm

principally depend the facility and the success of the leap. As

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LEAPING WITH A POLE.

the spring can take place only with one foot, and as this must

arrive correctly at the springing place, it is necessary that the

order of the steps should be arranged so as to effect this object.

If the leaper should be obliged to correct himself by making a

few steps, either longer or shorter, just before making the spring,

the leap is rendered difficult.

3. The fixing of the pole in the ground, and the spring, must

take place at the same instant, because by that means the upper

and lower members operate together, no power is lost, and the

swing is performed with the greatest facility. The place of the

pole, however, varies with the height of the leaps ; in leaps of

about four feet, the distance of one foot from the cord is suffi-

cient ; in higher leaps, it should be from one and a half to two

feet. The best plan is to have a small pit dug in front of the

cord (see Plate XII. figs. 2 and 3), and to remove the stand

from it, as the height of the leap increases ; or the stand may

remain at a foot and a half from the pit, and the learner be

taught to make all the leaps from it. The spring is made with

one foot, at the distance of two, three, four, or five feet from

the plant of the pole. If the leaper keep the left hand lowest,

he must spring with the left foot, and vice versa,

4. The swing upward is effected by the force of the spring,

the support of the lower, and the pull of the upper hand ; but

principally by the propulsion of the run, which being sud-

denly modified by the fixing of the pole, has its horizontal

direction changed into a slanting ascent, and carries the body of

the leaper over the cord. The leaper must carefully observe

that the spring of the foot, and the plant of the pole, be in the

direction of the preparatory run.

5. The turning of the body during the swinging upward, is

necessary. When the leaper is going to spring, he has his face

turned towards the object of the leap, as in Plate XVII. fig. 1 ;

but as his feet swing, his body turns round the pole. When his

feet have passed over the other side of the cord, the head is still

considerably on this side : the leaper then appears as in fig. 2.

Speedily, the middle of his body is ou the other side of the

THE HIGH LEAP WITH A POLE.

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cord, and he begins the descent, as in fig. 3. It would be im-

possible to descend in this position otherwise than with his face

directed to the place where the leap was commenced.

6. The quitting of the pole during the leap is effected by

giving it a push with one hand, at the moment of greatest

height, and this causes it to fall on the inner side of the cord.

7. The carrying of the pole over the cord is more difficult.

The leaper must then raise the pole a little from the ground at

the moment of beginning the descent, and instantly elevate the

lower part of it with the lowest hand, and depress the upper

part with the other ; the consequence being, that, at the descent,

the lower end of the pole will point upward, and the upper end

downward. This should be practised first in low leaps.

8. The descent depends entirely upon the manner in which

the leap is m.ade : if the leap be perfect, the descent will be so.

The usual fault in descending is, that the leaper, having passed

the cord, falls to the ground almost perpendicularly instead of

obhquely. In the annexed figure, a is the place whence the

spring is made, c the section of the cord, b the position of the

leaper over it, d his right, and e his wrong descent. The latter

is faulty because it throws him so much out of balance, that in

order not to fall backward, he must run backward to d. If, on

the contrary, he descends in proper balance to the ground, he

moves not an inch from the spot where his feet ahght ; and this

complete rest following the descent is the sign of a perfect leap.

The descent, as already explained, must take place upon the

balls of the toes, and with a sinking of the knees. The position

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LEAPING WITH A POLE.

of the body is sufficiently explained by Plate XII. figs. 1, 2,

and 3; but many learn to swing the legs so well as to raise them,

during the highest part of the leap, considerably above the head.

Order of exercises in the high leap, to be very gradually at-

tempted : —

1. The height of the hips.

2. That of the pit of the stomach.

3. That of the chin.

4. That of the crown of the head.

5. That of the points of the fingers

—that is, as high as the latter can

reach.

In performing these leaps, the pole is parted with. As many

more may form a repetition of the preceding, vdth this difference,

that the leaper carries the pole over with him. A similar num-

ber may repeat the first, except that the leaper, between the

spring and descent, makes a complete turn round the pole, so

as again to bring his face in the direction of the leap. This en-

larged turn is rendered easier by leaping a Uttle higher than the

cord requires.

\*rHE LONG LEAP W^ITH A POLE.

This leap is the most useful, being applicable almost every-

where ; and particularly in a country intersected with small

rivers, ditches, &amp;c. It should be first practised over a ditch

about three feet deep, eight feet broad at one end, and about

twenty-one feet at the other, and of any convenient length. In

this exercise, the pole should be rather stronger and longer than

in the preceding one — depending, however, on the length of the

leap, and the height of the bank it is made from. The usual

length is from ten to thirteen feet.

The handling of the pole is the same as in the high leap. The

preparatory run is rapid, in proportion to the length of the leap.

The spring takes place as in the preceding exercise. The swing

is also the same, except that the curve of the leap is voider. The

turning of the body may likewise be similar, but it is convenient

to make only a quarter turn. In the descent, the hand presses

more upon the pole ; and the feet are stretched out to reach the

THE DEEP LEAP WITH A POLE.

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opposite bank, as in Plate XIII. fig. 1, in which the leaper is

descending. Another method of leaping a mev, is to force the

body up so high by the pressure of the hands (of which one rests

upon the end of the pole, or very near it), as to swing over the

top of the pole, and allow it to pass between the legs when de-

scending, (Plate XIII. fig. 2.)

Try the following : —

1. The leap of two lengths of the 3. That of four lengths of the body,

body. 4. Persons of equal strength try to

2. That of three lengths of the body. outleap one another.

The lengths of 18, 20, 22, and 24 feet are frequently done by

practised leapers.

THE DEEP LEAP WITH A POLE.

Here neither the preparatory run nor the spring occur : there

is nothing which requires the exertion of the lower members.

The use of the hands and arms, however, is peculiarly requisite,

as well as a little of the art of balancing. The leaper fixes the

pole, at a convenient distance from the place where he stands,

in a chasm, ditch, or river, having one bank high, and the oppo-

site one low. Seizing it with both hands in the usual way, he

slips along it lower and lower ; the whole weight of his body, at

last, resting upon it. Thus, if the depth is considerable, as two

lengths of the body, he may slide so far down upon it, that his

head appears slanting downward. In this position, he makes a

slight push against the bank, or merely quits it, with his feet,

which he sTsdngs by the side of the pole to the opposite bank.

Here, also, the descent is performed upon the balls of the toes,

with bending of the knees. The principal advantage in this lea])

lies in the art of supporting the body, without tottering; and

for this purpose, it is absolutely necessary that the feet should

be stretched out far from each other, in an angular form, other-

wise the balance might be lost. The best way of practising this

in an exercise ground, is by a flight of steps.

To the exercise of the abdominal members, these leaps unite

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BALANCING.

a strong action of the muscles of the thorax, arms, and fore-

arms, and even of those of the palms of the hand. The body is

only half impelled by the abdominal members; but this impulse

is rendered complete by considerable ejffort on the part of the

thoracic members. The latter, in the vertical leap, being sup-

ported by the narrow and moveable base afforded by the pole,

assist greatly in raising the body, and even keep it a moment

suspended for the legs to pass over (if the object to be cleared

is very high) before it allows the body to obey the force of

gravity which carries it down.

This exercise communicates what is termed great lightness to

the body, and great suppleness — that is to say, great relative

strength of the abdominal members ; and it also developes the

superior members. It is good for lymphatic temperaments and

young persons, but it should not be indulged in immediately

after meals. It may occasion accidents of the brain and spinal

marrow, unless all the articulations are bent on returning to the

ground.

BALANCING.

Balancing is the art of preserving the stability of the body

upon a narrow or a moving surface. The balancing bar consists

of a round and tapering pole, supported horizontally, about three

feet from the ground, by upright posts, one at its thicker ex-

tremity, and another about the middle, between the parts of

which it may be raised or lowered by means of an iron peg

passing through holes m their sides. The unsupported end of

the bar wavers, of course, when stepped upon — (Plate XIV.)

The upper surface of the bar being smooth in dry weather,

the soles of the shoes should be damped ; the ground about the

bar should consist of sand, and the exercises be cautiously per-

formed.

TURNS IN BALANCING.

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POSITION AND ACTION IN BALANCING.

In this exercise, the head should he held up, the body erect,

the shoulders back, the arms extended, the liands shut, and the

feet turned outwards. At first, the balancer may be assisted

along the bar ; but he must gradually receive less and less aid,

till at last the assistant only remains by his side.

The pole may be mounted either from the ground or from the

riding position on the beam. In the latter case, the balancer

may raise the right foot, place it flat on the beam, with the heel

near the upper part of the thigh, and rise on the point of the

foot, carrying the weight of the body before him. (Plate XIV.

fig. 1.)

In this case, the beam must not be touched with the hands ;

the left leg must hang perpendicularly, with the toe towards the

ground, and the arms be stretched forward. After keeping the

balance for some minutes in this position, he must stretch the

left leg out before him, place his heel on the middle of the beam,

with the toe well turned outward, and transfer the weight of

the body from the point of the right foot to the left heel —

(Plate XIV. fig. 2). These steps he must perform alternately,

till he reaches the end of the beam.

TURNS IN BALANCING.

When the balancer is able to walk firmly and in good position

along the bar, and to spring off whenever he may lose his

balance, he may attempt to turn round, first at the broad, then

at the narrow end, and to return. He may next try to go

backward.

In accomplishing this, it is no longer the heel, but the tip of

the toes, which receives the weight ; the leg which hangs being

stretched backward, with the hip, knee, and heel forming a right

angle, till the toes, by a transverse motion, are so placed on the

middle of the beam, that the balancer can safely transfer to them

the whole weight of the body.

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BALANCING.

To acquire tlie art of passing an obstacle placed laterally, two

balancers may pass each other thus : — They must hold one an-

other fast by the arms, advance breast to breast, place each his

right foot close forward to that of his comrade, across the bar

(Plate XIV. fig. 3), and turn completely round each other, by

each stepping with his left foot round the right one of the other,

as in Plate XIV. fig. 4.

To acquire the art of passing an obstacle placed inferiorly, a

large stone may be laid upon the bar, or a stick may be held

before the balancer, about the height of the knee. (Plate XIV.

fig. 5.)

To pass over men placed upon a beam, the pupil or pupils

who are astride in front lie down on the beam, which they grasp

firmly by passing their arms round it. The pupil a (fig. 1, Plate

XX.) having to pass to the point on the beam marked h, places

his hands on the waistband of his comrade c : he then leans

upon his arms, and raises his body to pass forward over his

comrade, opening his legs widely, so as not to touch him, till he

places himself astride at c. He then extends his hands and

arms for a second movement, places them at h, and leans the

body well forward, as shown in fig. 2, Plate XV. Being thus

placed, he makes the last movement, raises his body upon the

arms to pass over his comrade's head vdthout touching it, which

is the chief rule of this exercise, and places himself astride upon

the beam at h, moving his hands immediately, and extending

them to rest at d. This movement being finished, he continues

advancing astride, along the beam, over the others, if there be

any ; raises himseK to an upright position, and lies down in his

turn on the beam. This last attitude requires some care, be-

cause the head must incline either to the right or left of the

beam, as shown in the plates, and the pupil must hold tight

to the beam with the arms and thighs, which requires both skill

and strength.

The pupil may also pass as shown in fig. 3, Plate XV. This

method is very easy for the person passing, and indeed more so

TURNS IN BALANCING.

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than any other ; but it is necessary that the pupil who is in the

position b should have learnt to raise himself up on the beam,

or know how to advance along it underneath, in a reversed

position.

It is impossible for any one who has not seen the carnivals of

Venice, and other towns in Italy, to form an idaa of all the

difficulties that have been surmounted in the art of equilibrium.

To acquire the art of carrying any body, the balancer may at

first walk along the bar with his hands folded across his breast,

instead of using them to balance himself; and he may after-

wards carry bodies of various magnitudes.

To this notice of the rules by which the art of Balancing may

be best acquired, it will not be out of place to subjoin a slight

outline of its importance to all who desire to arrive at excellence

in any of the Manly Exercises. Motion — the source of them

all — if not absolutely dependent for existence upon equilibrium,

without it would be but the infancy of action — movement

tottering, uncertain, powerless. The first effort of locomotion

— the walk, without it, possesses neither force nor decision : in

the same ratio that a higher degree of muscular exertion is de-

manded, increases the value and importance of the art which

teaches how best to apply the vital energies to its service.

What a wise economy is to the social, this art is to the physical

system : both serve to augment our resources, by instructing us

so to husband them that the term " necessity" be not known to

our vocabulary.

While in every instance equilibrium adds greatly to physical

power, in many it stands altogether in its stead. To the most

casual observer of our usual sports it will be manifest that this

is the case in Skating ; — the more attentive and competent will

have little difficulty in tracing its effects in Leaping, Vaulting,

Swimming, and through almost the whole catalogue. It is to

the later veriters on horsemanship that we are indebted for the

knowledge of its vital service to the equestrian. The truth of

60 CARRYING WEIGHT.

their theory is proved by the fact that, where formerly scarce a

tithe of a hunting-field was found to ride to hounds, now

nine-tenths are ordinarily to be seen in good places.

Scouring along,

In pleasing hurry and confusion toss'd,

Happy the man, who with unrivall'd speed

Can pass his fellows.

CARRYING WEIGHT.

The power of raising and carrying weight is of great import-

ance in a general view. Many advantages will be derived from

it; for besides strengthening the locomotive muscles, upon

which all our physical operations depend, it will fortify also all

the system and all the organs. All persons, moreover, may

find themselves under the necessity of raising and carrying a

wounded or fainting person, and may be glad to have cultivated

and acquired the power necessary to perform such an act.

In accustoming young persons to carry burdens, they should

be taught to support what is on the back first with one hand

and then with the other : by these means the muscles are equally

exercised on each side, and acquire an equal developement.

These burdens, however, must not exceed their strength ; and

they should be taught not to carry on one side in preference,

for fear of deforming the limbs. There are several modes of

supporting weights, and of trying the amount of power pos-

sessed for this kind of exercise.

Fig. 1, Plate XVII. represents one method. It consists in

loading the shoulders vdth sacks full of articles wliose weight

is previously known. The position of the arms and hands is sucli

that the pupil can support a great weight : but in this way he

CARRYING WEIGHT.

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can walk but very slowly ; and it is therefore, so far, disadvan-

tageous.

Fig. 2, in the same plate, supports a weight by means of a

hod. This is filled with balls or stones, of v^^hich the weight is

known.

The form of the weight is of consequence. A soldier now

carries with ease a knapsack full of articles, and additional

weight above it, because the flat shape that has been lately

adopted fits the body, and Hes close to the back, as in fig. 3,

and the centre of gravity is thus very httle deranged. But if

the knapsack were of the old shape, very projecting and very

round, as in fig. 4, the soldier would be forced to inchne his

body forward, and would not be able to carry as great a weight,

nor march as long a time, in consequence of fatigue. It is for

this reason, among others, desirable to extend the knowledge of

the most simple rules of mechanics, because these rules are

serviceable in avoiding many dangers, and diminishing the

fatigue and the efforts that vacillation in the movements pro-

duces. We may make use of a hook to beaj\* boxes or bags in

addition, with the weights marked, and thus learn the carrier's

strength.

Milo, says history, first carried a calf immediately after its

bu-th, and continued to do so every day till it had reached its

full size. It was said by this means that he was able to carry

even the ox itself, and afterwards throw it on the ground and

kiU it vdth. his fist.

Augustus the Second, King of Poland, carried a man upon

his hand.

A man named Roussel, a labourer in the environs of Lisle,

who on a smaller scale (being but four feet ten inches in height),

•was formed exactly like the Farnese Hercules, raised on his

shoulders a weight of eighteen hundred pounds. He cleared a

circle six feet in height with very little spring and one hundred-

weight in each hand. When seated on the ground, he rose up

without aid, carrpng two men on his arms. Equally astonishing

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THROWING THE DISCUS.

in the strength of his loins, he took up two hundred-weight

leaning backwards over a chair. " I have seen this remarkable

man/' says Friedlander: "the whole of his family are very

strong : his sister and brother are equally remarkable in this

point." It is very strikmg to find in him the characteristic

traits witli which antiquity depicted the ideal of bodily strength.

In the EncyclopEedia of Krumtz, vol. Ixxii., we find instances

of some men similar to Roussel, who lived at the commence-

ment of the last century. A man named Eckenberg raised a

cannon of two thousand five hundred pounds weight ; and two

strong men were unable to take from liim a stick that he held

between his teeth.

In number 446 of the Bibhotheque Britannique, is to be

found a report of some trials made by a Mr. Shulze, in his

manufactory, of the strength of men of difi'erent heights.

These trials show what influence an elevated stature has upon

the vertical height to which a man can raise any weight. A

short man is, in his turn, capable of employing more force in

another direction.

THROWING THE DISCUS.

Among the Greeks, throwing the discus did not form part of

the games till the eighteenth Olympiad. This exercise consisted

in throwing, as far as possible, a mass of wood or stone, but

more commonly of iron or copper, of a lenticular form. From

the testimony of ancient authors, there was no mark or butt

fixed, except the spot where the discus thrown by the strong-

est of the discoboU alighted. Mercm\*iali has handed down to

us three engravings, in which the discus is not of the same shape.

The first engraving represents four discoboli in the act of throw-

ing with the right hand a discus which is as thick at the circura-

THROWING THE DISCUS.

ference as at the centre, which has been bored. The second re-

presents the statue of a discobolus holding a discus apparently of

a spherical form, in the left hand. The third shows the arm of

an athlete with a flat discus. The discus in the last two en-

gravings now mentioned, covers the greater part of the front of

the forearm ; and all that the ancients have written respecting,,

this instrument, tends to show that it was of enormous size and

weight. Homer tells us, that the athletes threw the discus

either up into the air merely as a prelude to accustom their arms

to it, or horizontally when they were striving for the prize.

To perform this exercise properly, the thrower should not

only balance the discus well on the right arm, (supposing it to

be on that arm, as in Plate XVII. fig. 1) ; but at the moment

it leaves the hand, he should throw the whole of the right side

forward, so that the impulse may be assisted by the weight of

the whole body. — (Plate XVII. fig. 2.) This exercise very

much strengthens the body, and developes, in a particular man-

ner, the limb by which the discus is thrown. It may be usefully

employed in cases where it is desirable to remedy weakness in

either of the arms ; and it is well calculated to bring up the

power of the left arm to that of the right. The modern quoit

differs from the ancient discus only in this, that the instrument

so called is much smaller than the discus, that its use is a mere

idle pastime, and that the object is always to throw it as close as

possible to a fixed mark, requiring more skill than strength.

It is evident that the discus may be heaved from above the

shoulder as well as flung from below. — (See Plate XVII. fig. 3.)

No exercises can excel these for the acquirement of power.

They ought to be much practised with both hands. A man of

moderate strength will throw a pound weight of lead a distance

of 140 feet, or thereabouts.

Silex 14 . . . 12G feet.

Ditto i . . . -$45

Bficic i . . . ICQ

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CLIMBING.

CLIMBING.

Climbing is the art of transporting the body in any direction,

by the aid, in general, both of the hands and feet. The chmb-

^ ing-stand consists of two strong poles, abont fifteen feet high,

and from fifteen to twenty-five feet distant, which are firmly

fixed in the ground, and support a beam strongly fastened to

them. One pole is two inches and a half in diameter; the

other, which serves as a mast, should be considerably thicker ;

and both serve the purpose of climbing. To the beam are at-

tached other implements of climbing : viz. a ladder, an inclined

board, a mast, an inclined pole, a horizontal bar, a rope ladder,

an upright, an inclined, and a level rope. — (Plate XVIII.)

KINDS OF CLIMBING.

Climbing on fixed bodies should first be practised.

The Ladder.

Exercises on the ladder may be practised in the following

ways : —

1. By ascending and descending as I 3. Without using the hands,

usual. I 4. Passing another on the front of

2. With one hand, carrying some- I the ladder, or swinging to the back,

thing in the other. 1 to let another pass.

The Inclined Board.

This should be rather rough, about two feet broad, and two

inches thick. To climb it, it is necessary to seize both sides

with the hands, and to place the feet flat in the middle, the in-

clination of the board being diminished with the progress of

the pupil.

At first, it may form with the ground an angle of about

thirty degrees ; and the climber should not go more than half-

way up. This angle may gradually be augmented to a right

angle, or the direction of the board may be made perpendicular.

When the board is thus little or not at all inclined, the body

KINDS OF CLIMBING.

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must be much curved inward, and the legs thrust up, so that the

Iiigher one is nearly even mth the hand. In descending, small

and quick steps are necessary.

The Upright Pole.

The upright pale should be about two inches and a half in

diameter, perfectly smooth and free from splinters.

The position of the climber is shown in Plate XVIII. fig. 1,

where nothing touches the pole except the feet, legs&gt; knees, and

hands. He grasps as high as possible with both hands, raises

himself by bending the body and drawmg his legs up the pole,

holds fast by them, extends the body, again grasps higher up

with his hands, and continues the same use of the legs and

arms. The descent is performed by shding down with the legs,

and scarcely touching with the hands, as in Plate XVIII. fig. 2.

The Mast.

This is more difiicult, as it cannot be grasped with the hands ;

and it consequently should not be practised until the chmber is

expert in the previous exercises. The position of the legs is

the same as for the pole ; but, instead of grasping the mast, the

climber lays hold of his left arm with his right hand, or the re-

verse, and chngs to the mast with the whole body, as in Plate

XVIII. fig 3.

The Slant Pole.

This must be at least three inches thick ; and as, in this ex-

ercise, the hands bear more of the weight than in climbing the

upright pole, it should not be attempted until expertness in the

other is acquired.

The Horizontal, or Slightly Inclined Bar.

This may be about two inches wide at top, from ten to fifteen

feet long, and supported by two posts, respectively six and seven

feet high. The climber must grasp with both hands as high a

Iiart of the bar as he can reach, and, vidth arms extended, sup-

port his own weight as long as possible. He must next endea-

vom- to bend the elbows so much, that one shoulder remains

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CLIMBING.

close under the bar, as seen in PI XVIII. fig. 4. Or he may-

place both hands on the same side, and draw himself up so far

as to see over it, keeping the legs and feet close and extended.

He may then hang with his hands fixed on both sides, near

to each other, having the elbows much bent, the upper parts of

the arms close to the body, and one shoulder close under the

bar ; may lower the head backwards, and may, at the same time,

raise the feet to touch each other over the bar. — (PI XVIII.

fig- 5.) In the last position, he may move the hands one before

the other, forward or backward, and may either slide the feet

along the bar, or alternately change them like the hands, and

retain a similar hold.

Hanging also by the hands alone, as in PI XVIII. fig. 6, he

moves them either forward or backward, keeping the arms firm,

and the feet close and extended. Or he may place himself in

front of the bar, hanging by both hands, and move laterally.

Being likewise in front of the bar, with his hands resting upon

it, as in PI XVIII. fig. 7, he may move along the bar either to

the right or left. In the position of PI XVIII. fig. 5, the

climber may endeavour to sit upon the bar, for instance, on the

right side, by taking hold with the right knee-joint, grasping

firmly vdth the right hand, and bringing the left armpit over

the bar. The riding position is thus easily obtained. From the

riding position, he may, by supporting himself with one thigh,

turn towards the front of the bar, allowing the leg of the other

side to hang down ; and he may then very easily move along the

bar sideways, by raising his body with his hands placed laterally

on the bar. ^ „

The Rope Ladder.

This should have several rundles to spread it out, and ought,

in all respects, to be so constructed, as not to twist and en-

tangle. The only difiiculty here is that, as it hangs perpendicu-

larly, and is flexible, its steps are liable to be pushed forward,

and in that case, the body is thrown into an oblique position,

and the whole weight falls on the hands. To prevent this, the

climber must keep the body stretched out and upright. — (Plate

XVIII. fig. 8.)

THE OBLIQUE ROPE.

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The Upright Rope.

In this exercise, the securing the rope may be effected iu

various ways. In the first method, shown m PI XVIII.

fig. 9, the hands and feet alone are employed. The feet are

crossed ; the rope passes between them, and is held fast by

their pressure ^ the hands then grasp higher; the feet are

drawn up ; they are again applied to the rope ; and the

same process is repeated. In the second, which is the sailor's

method, shown at PI XVIII. fig. 10, the rope passes from the

hands, generally along the right thigh, just above the knee;

winds round the inside of the thigh, under the knee-joint, over

the outside of the leg, and across the instep, whence it hangs

loose ; and the climber, by treading with the left foot upon that

part of the rope where it crosses the right one, is firmly sup-

ported. This mode of climbing requu'es the right leg and foot

to be so managed that the rope keeps its proper winding when-

ever it is quitted by the left foot. In descending, to prevent

injury, the hands must be lowered alternately.

To rest upon the upright rope, shown in PI XVIII. fig. 11,

the climber must swing the right foot round the rope, so as to

wind it three or four times round the leg ; must turn it, by

means of the left foot, once or twice round the right one, of

which the toes are to be bent upwards ; and must tread firmly

with the left foot upon the last winding. Or, to obtain a more

perfect rest he may lower his hands along the rope, as in Figure

11, hold with the right hand, stoop, grasp with the left the

part of the rope below the feet, raise it and himself again, and

wind it round his shoulders, &amp;c., until he is firmly supported.

The Oblique Rope.

The climber must fix himself to the rope, as in PI XVIII.

fig. 12, and advance the hands along it, as already directed.

The feet may move along the rope alternately ; or one leg,

banging over the rope, may slide along it ; or, which is best.

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CLIMBING.

the sole of one foot may be laid upon the rope, and the other

leg across its instep, so that the friction is not felt.

The Level Rope.

This may have its ends fastened to posts of equal heights ;

and the same exercises may be performed upon it.

Climbing Trees.

In attempting this exercise, the kind of the wood and strength

of the branches must be considered. Summer is the best time

for practising it, as withered branches are then most easiH

discerned; and even then it is best to climb low trees, until

some experience is acquired. As the surface of branches is

smooth, or moist and slippery, the hands must never for a

moment be relaxed.

SKATING.

Skating is the art of balancing the body, while, by the im-

pulse of each foot alternately, it moves rapidly upon the ice.

CONSTRUCTION OF THE SKATE.

The wood of the skate should be slightly hollowed, so as to

adapt it to the ball of the foot ; and, as the heel of the boot

must be thick enough to admit the peg, it may be well to lower

the wood of the skate corresponding to the heel, so as to permit

the foot to regain that degree of horizontal position which it

would otherwise lose by the height of the heel ; for the more of

the foot that is in contact with the skate, the more firmly will

these be attached. As the tread of the skate should correspond,

as nearly as possible, with that of the foot, the wood should be

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SKATING.

of the same length as the boot or shoe ; the irons of good steel,

and well secured in the wood.

These should pass beyond the screw at the heel, nearly as far .

as the wood itself; but the bow of the iron should not project

much beyond the tread.

If the skate project much beyond the wood, the whole foot,

and more especially its hind part, must be raised considerably

from the ice when the front or bow of the skate is brought to

bear upon it ; and, as the skater depends upon this part for the

power of his sJ;roke, it is evident that that must be greatly dimi-

nished by the general distance of the foot from the ice. In short,

if the skate be too long, the stroke will be feeble, and the back

of the leg painfully cramped : if it be too short, the footing will

be proportionally unsteady and tottering.

As the position of the person in the act of skating is never

vertical, and is sometimes very much inclined, and as consider-

able exertion of the muscles of the leg is requisite to keep the

ankle stiff, this ought to be relieved by the lowness of the skates.

Seeing, then, that the closer the foot is to the ice, the less is

the strain on the ankle, it is clear that the foot ouglit to be

brought as near to the ice as possible, without danger of bring-

ing the sole of the shoe in contact with it, while traversing on

the edge of the skate. The best height is about three-quarters

of an inch, and the iron about a quarter of an inch thick.

The grooved or fluted skate, if ever useful, is of service only

to boys, or very light persons, whose weight is not sufficient to

catch the ice in a hard frost. It certainly should never be used

by a person who is heavier than a boy of thirteen or fourteen

years of age usually is, because the sharp edge too easily cuts

into the ice, and prevents figurmg. Fluted skates, indeed, are

even dangerous : for the snow or ice cuttings are apt to collect

and consolidate in the grooves, till the skater is raised from the

edge of his skate, and thrown.

In the general inclination of the foot in skating, no edge can

have greater power than that of rectangular shape : the ten-

dency of its action is downwards, cutting through rather than

CONSTRUCTION OF THE SKATE.

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sliding on the surface; and greater hold than this is unnecessary.

The irons of skates should be kept well and sharply ground.

This ought to be done across the stone, so as to give the bottom

of the skate so slight a concavity as to be imperceptible, which

insures an edge whose angle is not greater than right. Care

must be taken that one edge is not higher than the other ; so

that, when the skate is placed upon an even surface, it may

stand quite perpendicularly. The wear of the iron not being

great with a beginner, one grinding will generally last him

through an ordinary winter's skating on clean ice.

The bottom of the iron should be a little curved ; for, if per-

fectly straight, it would be capable of describing only a straight

line, whereas the skater's progress must be circular, because, in

order to bring the edge to bear, the body must be inclined, and

inclination can be preserved only in circular motion. This curve

of the iron should be part of a circle, whose radius is about two

feet. That shape enables the skater to turn his toe or heel out-

wards or inwards with facility.

A screw would have a firmer hold than a mere peg in the hole

of the boot ; but, as it is less easily removed, skaters generally

prefer the peg. The skater should be careful not to bore a

larger hole in the heel than is sulRcient to admit the peg. The

more simple the fastenings of the skate the better. The two

straps — namely, the cross strap over the toe, and the heel strap —

cannot be improved, unless perhaps by passing one strap through

the three bores, and so making it serve for both.

Before going on the ice, the young skater must learn to tie

on the skates, and may also learn to walk with them easily in a

room, balancing alternately on each foot.

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DRESS OF THE SKATER.

A skater's dre&amp;s should be as close and unincumbered as

possible. Large skirts get entangled with his own limbs, or

those of the persons who pass near him ; and all fulness of

dress is exposed to the wind. Loose trousers, frocks, and more

especially great- coats, must be avoided ; and indeed, by wearing

additional under-clothing, they can always be dispensed with.

As the exercise of skating produces perspiration, flannel next

the chest, shoulders, and loins, is necessary to avoid the evils

produced by sudden chills in cold weather. The best dress is

what is called a dress-coat, buttoned, tight pantaloons, and

laced boots (having the heel no higher than is necessary for the

peg), which hold the foot tightly and steadily in its place, as

well as give the best support to the ankle ; for it is of no use to

draw the straps of the skate hard, if the boot or shoe be loose.

PRELIMINARY AND GENERAL DIRECTIONS.

Either very rough or very smooth ice should be avoided. The

person who for the first time attempts to skate, must not trust

to a stick. He may make a friend's hand his support, if he

require one ; but that should be soon rehnquished, in order to

balance himself. He will probably scramble about for half an

hour or so, till he begins to find out where the edge of his

skate is.

The beginner must be fearless, but not violent ; nor even in

a hurry. He should not let his feet get far apart, and keep his

heels still nearer together. He must keep the ankle of the foot

on the ice quite firm ; not attempting to gain the edge of the

skate by bending it, because the right mode of getting to either

edge is by the inclination of the whole body in the direction

required; and this inclination should be made fearlessly and

decisively.

The leg which is on the ice should be kept perfectly straight ;

for, though the knee must be somewhat bent at the time of

THE ORDINARY RUN.

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striking, it must be straightened as quickly as possible without

any jerk. The leg which is off the ice should also be kept

straight, though not stiff, having an easy but slight play, the

toe pointing downwards, and the heel within from six to twelve

inches of the other.

The learner must not look down at the ice, nor at his feet, to

see how they perform. He may at first incline his body a little

forward, for safety, but hold his head up, and see where he

goes, his person erect, and his face rather elevated than other-

wise.

When once off, he must bring both feet up together, and

strike again, as soon as he finds himself steady enough, rarely

allowing both feet to be on the ice together. The position of

the arms should be easy and varied ; one being always more

raised than the other, this elevation being alternate, and the

change corresponding with that of the legs ; that is, the right

arm being raised as the right leg is put down, and vice versa,

so that the arm and leg of the same side may not be raised to-

gether.

The face must be always turned in the direction of the line

intended to be described. Hence, in backward skating, the

head will be inclined much over the shoulder; in forward

skating, but shghtly. All sudden and violent action must be

avoided. Stopping may be caused by shghtly bending the

knees, drawing the feet together, inclining the body forward,

and pressing on the heels. It may also be caused by turning

short to the right or left, the foot on the side to which we turn

being rather more advanced, and supporting part of the weight.

THE ORDINARY RUN, OR INSIDE EDGE FORVTARD.

The first attempt of the beginner is to walk, and this walk

shortly becomes a sliding gait, done entirely on the inside edge

of the skate.

The first impulse is to be gained by pressing the inside edge

of one skate against the ice, and advancing with the opposite

foot To effect this, the beginner must bring the feet nearly

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SKATING.

together, turn the left somewhat out, place the right a httle in

advance and at right angles with it, lean forward with the right

shoulder, and at the same time move the right foot onwards,

and press sharply, or strike the ice with the inside edge of the

left skate, — care being taken instantly to throw the weight on

the right foot. (Plate XIX. fig. 1.) While thus in motion,

the skater must bring up the left foot nearly to a level with

the other, and may for the present proceed a short way on both

feet.

He must next place the left foot in advance in its turn, bring

the left shoulder forward, inclining to that side, strike from the

inside edge of the right skate, and proceed as before.

Finally, this motion has only to be repeated on each foot

alternately, gradually keeping the foot from which he struck

longer ofi' the ice, till he has gained sufficient command of

himself to keep it off altogether, and is able to strike directly

from one to the other, without at any time having them both on

the ice together. Having practised this till he has gained some

degree of firmness and power, and a command of his balance,

he may proceed to

THE FORWARD ROLL, OR OUTSIDE EDGE.

This is commonly reckoned the first step to figure skating, as,

when it is once effected, the rest follows mth ease. The im-

pulse is gained in the same manner as for the ordinary run ;

but, to get on the outside edge of the right foot, the moment

that foot is in motion, the skater must advance the left

shoulder, throw the right arm back, look over the right

shoulder, and inchne the whole person boldly and decisively on

that side, keeping the left foot suspended behind. (Plate XIX.

fig. 2.)

As he proceeds, he must bring the left foot past the inside of

the right, with a slight jerk, which produces an opposing balance

of the body ; the right foot must quickly press, fij-st on the

outside of the heel, then on the inside, or its toe ; the left foot

must be placed down in front, before it is removed more than

THE CROSS BOLL.

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about eight or ten inches from the other foot ; and, by striking

outside to the left, giving at the same moment a strong push

with the inside of the right toe, the skater passes from right to

left, incHning to the left side, in the same manner as he did to

the right. He then continues to change from left to right, and

from right to left, in the same manner. At first he should not

remain long upon one leg, nor scruple occasionally to put the

other down to assist ; and throughout he must keep himself

erect, leaning most on the heel.

The Dutch travelling roll is done on the outside edge for-

ward, in the manner just represented, except that there is

described a small segment of a very large circle, thus :

diverging from the straight line no more than is requisite to

keep the skate on its et^ge.

The cross roll or figure 8 is also done on the outside edge

forward. This is only the completion of the circle on the out-

side edge ; and it is performed by crossing the legs, and striking

from the outside instead of the inside edge. In order to do

this, as the skater draws to the close of the stroke on his right

leg, he must throw the left quite across it, which will cause him

to press hard on the outside of the right skate, from which he

must immediately strike, at the same time throvidng back the

left arm, and looking over the left shoulder, to bring him well

upon the outside of that skate. By completing the circle in

this manner on each leg, the 8 is formed :

each circle being small, complete, and well-formed, before the

foot is changed.

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SKATING.

The Mercury figure is merely the outside and inside forward

succeeding each other on the same leg alternately, by which a

serpentine line is described, thus :

Outside. Inside. Outside.

This is skated with the force and rapidity gained by a run.

When the run is complete, and the skater on the outside edge,

his person becomes quiescent, in the attitude of Mercury, hav-

ing the right arm advanced and much raised, the face turned

over the right shoulder, and the left foot off the ice, a short

distance behind the other, turned out and pointed.

FIGURE OF THREE, OR INSIDE EDGE BACKWARDS.

This figure is formed by turning from the outside edge for-

ward to the inside edge backward on the same foot. The head

of the 3 is formed like the half circle, on the heel of the out-

side edge; but when the half circle is complete, the skater

leans suddenly forward, and rests on the same toe inside, and a

backward motion, making the tail of the 3, is the consequence.

The figure described by the right leg should be nearly in the

form of No. 1 ; and on the left leg should be reversed, and

resemble No. 2.

1. 2.

At first, the skater should not throw himself quite so hard as

hitherto on the outside forward, in order that he may be able

the more easily to change to the inside back. He may also be

for some time contented with much less than a semicircle be-

fore he turns. Having done this, and brought the left leg

nearly up to the other, he must not pass it on in advance, as

he would to complete a circle, but throw it gently off sidewise,

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Statin^

OUTSIDE EDGE BACKWARDS.

at the same moment turning the face from the right to the left

shoulder, and giving the whole person a slight inclination to the

left side. These motions throw the skater upon the inside of

his skate ; but as the first impulse should still retain most of its

force, he continues to move on the inside back, in a direction

so httle difi'erent, that his first impulse loses Kttlebythe change.

(Plate XIX. fig. 1.)

If unable to change the edge by this method, the skater may

assist himself by shghtly and gently swinging the arm and leg

outward, so as to incline the person to a rotatory motion. This

swing, however, must be corrected as soon as the object is

attained ; and it must generally be observed that the change

from edge to edge is to be effected merely by the inchnation of

the body, not by swinging.

When the skater is able to join the ends of the 3, so as to

form one side of a circle, then, by striking off in the same man-

ner, and completing another 3, with the left leg, the combina-

tion of the two 3's will form an 8. In the first attempts, the 3

should not be made above two feet long, which he will acquire

the power of doing almost imperceptibly. He may then

gradually extend the size as he advances in the art.

Though, in this section, backward skating is spoken of, the

term refers to the skate only, which in such case moves heel

foremost, but the person of the skater moves sidemse, the face

being always turned in the direction in which he is proceeding.

OUTSIDE EDGE BACKWARDS.

Here the skater, having completed the 3, and being carried

on by the first impulse, still continues his progress in the same

direction, but on the other foot, putting it down on its outside

edge, and continuing to go backwards slowly.

To accomphsh this, the skater, after making the 3, and

placing the outside edge of his left foot on the ice, should at

once turn his face over the right shoulder, raise his right foot

from the ice, and throw back his right arm and shoulder. (Plate

XIX. fig. 2.) If, for awhile, he is unable readily to raise that foot

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which has made the 3, and leave himself on the outside of the other

skate, he may keep both down for some distance, putting himself,

however, in attitude of being on the outside only of one skate,

and gradually hfting the other off the ice as he acquires ability.

When finishing any figure, this use of both feet backward

has great convenience and beauty.

Before venturing on the outside backward, the skater ought

to take care that the ice is clear of stones, reeds, &amp;c., and also

be certain of the good quality of his irons. When going with

great force backward, the course may be deflected, so as to stop

by degrees ; and, when moving slowly, the suspended foot may

be put down in a cross direction to the path.

Such are the four movements of which alone the skate is

capable : namely, the inside edge forward ; the outside for-

ward; the inside back; and the outside back; in which has

been seen how the impulse for the first two is gained, and how

the third flows from the second, and the fourth from the third.

By the combination of these elements of skating, and the varia-

tions with which they succeed each other, are formed all the

evolutions in this art.

The Double Three is that combination in which the skates

are brought from the inside back of the first three, to the

outside forward of the second. Here the skater, after having

completed one 3, and being on the inside back, must bring the

whole of the left side forward, particularly the leg, till it is

thrown almost across the right, on which he is skating. This

action brings him once more to the outside forward, from which

he again turns to the inside back. While he is still in motion

on the second inside back of the right leg, he must strike on

the left, and repeat the same on that.

It is at first enough to do two 3's perfectly and smoothly. Their

number from one impulse may be increased as the skater gains

steadiness and skill; the art of accomplishing this being to

touch as hghtly as possible on each side of the skate successively,

so that the first impulse may be preserved and made the most of.

The Back Roll is a means of moving from one foot to another.

THE BACK ROLL.

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Suppose tlie skater to have put himself on the outside edge

back of the left leg, with considerable impulse, by means of

the 3 performed on the right, — not bearing hard on the edge, for

the object is to change it, and take up the motion on the right

foot, — this is effected by throv^dng the left arm and shoulder

back, and turning the face to look over them ; when, haA^ng

brought the inside of his left skate to bear on the ice, he must

immediately strike from it to the outside back of the other, by

pressing it into the ice as forcibly as he can at the toe. Having

thus been brought to the backward roll on the right foot, he

repeats the same with it.

The Back Cross Roll is done by changing the balance of the

body, to move from one foot to the other, in the same manner

as for the back roll. The stroke is from the outside instead of

the inside edge of the skate ; the edge on which he is skating

not being changed, but the right foot, which is off the ice, being

crossed at the back of the left, and put down, and the stroke

taken at the same moment, from the outside edge of the left

skate, at the toe. As in the back roll of both forms, the strokes

are but feeble, the skater may, from time to time, renew his

impulse as he finds occasion, by commencing anew with the 3.

The large outside backward roll is attained by a run, when

the skater, having gained all the impulse he can, strikes on the

outside forward of the right leg, turns the 3, and immediately

put down the left on the outside back. He then, without fur-

ther effort, flies rapidly over the ice ; the left arm being raised,

the head turned over the right shoulder, and the right foot

turned out and pointed.

It must be evident, that the elements described may be com-

bined and varied infinitely. Hence waltz and quadrille skating,

&amp;c., which may be described as combinations of 3's, outside

backwards, &amp;c. These are left to the judgment of the skater,

and his skill in the art.

In the North it is common to travel in skates on the gulfs

and rivers ; and, with a favourable wind, they go faster than

vessels. It is a kind of flight, for they only touch the ground

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TREATMENT OF DROWNED PERSONS.

in a very slight thin line. As to feats in skating, we are told,

tliat the Frieslander, who is generally a skilful skater, often

goes for a long time at the rate of fifteen miles an hour. In

1801, two young women, going thirty miles in two hours, won

the prize in a skating race at Groningen. In 1821, a Lincoln-

shire man, for a wager of 100 guineas, skated one mile within

two seconds of three minutes.

DANGERS IN SKATING.

If the chest be irritable, it is neither salutary nor easy to

skate against the wind. In countries where these exercises are

general, inflammations of the chest are very common in winter.

Skating sometimes exposes to much danger. If the skater find

that he cannot get away from rotten ice, he must crawl over it

on his hands and knees, in order to reduce his weight on the

supporting points. If he fall on it at length, he must roll away

from it towards ice more firm. If he fall into a hole, he must

extend his arms horizontally over the edges of the imbroken

ice, and only tread water, till a ladder or a plank is pushed

towards him, or a rope is thrown for his hold.

TREATMENT RECOMMENDED IN THE CASE OF DROWNED PERSONS.

Cautions.— 1. Lose no time. 2. Avoid all roug-h usage. 3. Never hold ths

body up by the feet. 4. Nor roll the body on casks. 5. Nor rub the body

Avith salt or spirits. 6. Nor inject tobacco-smoke or infusion of tobacco.

Restorative means if apparently drowned. — Send quickly for

medical assistance ; but do not delay the following means.

I. Convey the body carefully, with the head and shoulders supported in a

raised position, to the nearest house.

II. Strip the body, and rub it dry ; then wrap it in hot blankets, and place

it in a warm bed in a warm chamber.

III. Wipe and cleanse the mouth and nostrils.

IV. In order to restore the natural warmth of the body :

1. Move a heated covered warming-pan over the back and spine.

2. Put bladders or bottles of hot water, or heated bricks, to the pit of the

stomach, the arm-pits, between the thighs, and to the soles of the feet.

TREATMENT OF DROWNED PERSONS.

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3. Foment the body with hot flannels ; but, if possible,

4. Immerse the body in a warm bath, as hot as the hand can bear without

pain, as this is preferable to the other means for restoring warmth.

5. Rub the body briskly with the hand ; do not, however, suspend the use

of the other means at the same time.

V. In order to restore breathing, introduce the pipe of a common bellows

(where the apparatus of the Society is not at hand) into one nostril, carefully

closing the other and the mouth : at the same time draw downwards and

push gently backwards the upper part of the windpipe, to allow a more free

admission of air : blow the bellows gently in order to inflate the lungs, till the

breast be a little raised : the mouth and nostrils should then be set free, and

a moderate pressure should be made with the hand upon the chest. Repeat

this process till life appears.

VI. Electricity should be employed early by a medical assistant.

VII. Inject into the stomach, by means of an elastic tube and syringe, half

a pint of warm brandy and water, or wine and water.

VIII. Apply sal-volatile or hartshorn to the nostrils.

If apparently dead from intense cold.— Rub the body with snow,

ice, or cold water. Restore warmth by slow degrees ; and after some time,

if necessary, employ the means recommended for the drowned. In these

accidents, it is highly dangerous to apply heat too early.

G

SAYIMMING.

Swimming, considered with regard to the movements that

it requires, is useful in promoting great muscular strength ;

but the good effects are not solely the result of the exercise

that the muscles receive, but partly of the medium in which

the body is moved. Both the considerable increase of general

force, and the tranquillizing of the nervous system produced

by swimming, arise chiefly from this, that the movements, in

consequence of the cold and dense medium in which they take

place, occasion no loss.\* It is easy to conceive of what utility

swimming must be, where the very high state of the atmo-

\* The expression " loss" here, is used as the result produced by increased

evaporation from the pores, consequent upon violent bodily exertion.

PREPARATORY INSTRUCTIONS.

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splieric temperature requires inactivity in consequence of the

excessive loss caused by the slightest movement. It then

becomes an exceedingly valuable resource, the only one, in-

deed, by which muscular weakness can be remedied, and the

energy of the vital functions maintained. We must therefore

regard swimming as one of the most beneficial exercises that

can be taken in summer.

The ancients, particularly the Athenians, regarded swimming

as indispensable ; and when they vdshed to designate a man

who was fit for nothing, they used to say, " he cannot even

swim," or " he can neither read nor swim." At many seaports,

the art of swimmmg is almost indispensable ; and the sailors'

children are as famihar with the water as with the air. Copen-

hagen is perhaps the only place where sailors are trained by

rules of art ; and there, this exercise is more general and in

greater perfection than elsewhere. It may here be observed,

that it is not fear alone that prevents a man swimming. Swim-

ming is an art that must be learnt ; and fear is only an obstacle

to the learning.

PREPARATORY INSTRUCTIONS AS TO ATTITUDE AND ACTION

IN SVV^IMMING.

As it is on the movements of the limbs, and a certain attitude

of the body, that the power of swimming depends, its first

principles may evidently be acquired out of the water.

Attitude.

The head must be drawn back, and the chin elevated, the

breast projected, and the back hollowed and kept steady. (Plate

XX. figs. 1 and 2.) The head can scarcely be thrown too

much back, or the back too much hollowed. Those who do

otherwise, swim with their feet near the surface of the water,

instead of having them two or three feet deep.

Action of the Hands.

In the proper position of the hands, the fingers must be kept

close, with the thumbs by the edge of the fore-fingers; and the

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SWIMMING.

hands made concave on the inside, though not so much as to

diminish their size and power in swimming. The hands, thus

formed, should be placed just before the breast, the wrist

touchmg it, and the fingers pointing forward. (Plate XXI.

fig. 1.)

The first elevation is formed by raising the ends of the

fingers three or four inches higher than the rest of the hands.

The second, by raising the outer edge of the hand two or three

inches higher than the inner edge.

The formation of the hands, their first position, and their

two modes of elevation, being clearly understood, the for-

ward stroke is next made, by projecting them in that direc-

tion to their utmost extent, emplojdng therein their first eleva-

tion, in order to produce buoyancy, but taking care the fingers

do not break the surface of the water. (Plate XXI. fig. 2.)

In the outward stroke of the hands, the second elevation

must be employed ; and, in it, they must sweep downward and

outward as low as, but at a distance from, the hips, both laterally

and anteriorly. (Plate XXI. figs. 3 and 4.)

The retraction of the hands is efi^ected by bringing the arms

closer to the sides, bending the elbow joints upwards and the

wrists downwards, so that the hands hang down, while the

arms are raising them to the first position, «. the action of the

hands being gentle and easy. In the three movements just

described, one arm may be exercised at a time, until each is

accustomed to the action.

Action of the Feet.

In drawing up the legs, the knees must be inclined inward,

and the soles of the feet outward. (Plate XXII. fig. 1.) The

throwing out the feet should be to the extent of the legs,

as widely from each other as possible. (Plate XXII. fig. 2.)

The bringing down the legs must be done briskly, until

they come close together. In dramng up the legs, there is

a loss of power ; in throwing out the legs, there is a gain

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TIME AND PLACE OF SWIMMING.

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equal to that loss ; and in bringing down the legs, there is an

evident gain.

The arms and legs should act alternately ; the arms descend-

ing while the legs are rising — (Plate XXII. fig. 3); and, op-

positely, the arms rising while the legs are descending. (Plate

XXII. fig. 4.) Thus the action of both is unceasingly inter-

changed ; and, until great facility in this interchange is effected,

no one can swim smoothly, or keep the body in one con-

tinued progressive motion. In practising the action of the

legs, one hand may rest on the top of a chair, while the

opposite leg is exercised. When both the arms and the legs

are separately accustomed to the action, the arm and leg of

the same side may be exercised together.

PLACE AND TIME OF SWIMMING.

Place.

Of all places for swimming, the sea is the best; running

waters next ; and ponds • the worst. In these a particular

spot should be chosen, where there is not much stream, and

which is known to be safe.

The swimmer should make sure that the bottom is not out

of his depth; and, on this subject, he cannot be too cautious

when he has no one with him who knows the place. If

capable of diving, he should ascertain if the water be suffi-

ciently deep for that purpose, otherwise, he may injure himself

against the bottom. The bottom should be of gravel, or

smooth stones, and free from holes, so that he may be in

no danger of sinking in the mud or wounding the feet. Of

weeds he must beware; for if his feet get entangled among

them, no aid, even if near, may be able to extricate him.

Time.

The best season of the year for swimming is during the

months of May, June, July, and August. Morning before

breakfast — that is to say, fi:'om seven till eight o'clock — is the

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SWIMMING.

time. In the evening, the hair is not perfectly dried, and coryza

is sometimes the consequence. Bathing during rain is bad, for

it chills the water, and, by wetting the clothes, endangers catch-

ing cold. In practising swimming during those hours of the

day when the heat of the sun is felt most sensibly, if the hair

be thick, it should be kept constantly wet ; if the head be bald,

it must be covered with a handkerchief, and frequently wetted.

It is advisable not to enter the water before digestion is

finished. The danger in this case arises less from the violent

movements which generally disorder digestion, than from the

impression produced by the medium in which these movements

are executed. It is not less so when very hot, or quite cold.

It is vn-ong to enter the water in a perspiration, however trifling

it may be. After violent exercises, it is better to wash and em-

ploy friction than to bathe. Persons of plethoric temperament,

who are subject to periodical evacuations, such as hemorrhoids,

or even to cutaneous eruptions, will do well to abstain from

swimming during the appearance of these affections.

Dress.

Every swimmer should use short drawers, and might, in par-

ticular places, use canvass slippers. It is even of great import-

ance to be able to swim in jacket and trousers.

Aids.

The aid of the hand is much preferable to corks or bladders,

because it can be withdrawn gradually and insensibly. With

this view, a grown-up person may take the learner in his arms,

carry him into the water breast high, place him nearly flat upon

it, support him by one hand under the breast, and direct him as

to attitude and action. If the support of the hand be very gra-

dually withdrawn, the swimmer will, in the course of the first

ten days, find it quite unnecessary. When the aid of the hand

cannot be obtained, inflated membranes or corks may be em-

ployed. The only argument for their use is, that attitude and

action may be perfected while the body is thus supported; and

CRAMP.

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that, with some contrivance, they also may gradually be laid

aside, though by no means so easily as the hand.

The best mode of employing corks is to choose a piece about

a foot long, and six or seven inches broad ; to fasten a band

across the middle of it ; to place it on the back, so that the

upper end may come between the shoulder-blades, where the

edge may be rounded; and to tie the band over the breast.

Over this, several other pieces of cork, each smaller than the

preceding, may be fixed, so that, as the swimmer improves, he

may leave them off one by one. Even with all these aids, the

young swimmer should never venture out of his depth, if he

cannot swim without them.

Cramp.

As to cramp, those chiefly are liable to it who plunge into the

water when they are heated, who remain in it till they are be-

numbed with cold, or who exhaust themselves by violent exer-

cise. Persons subject to this affection must be careful with

regard to the selection of the place where they bathe, if they

are not sufficiently skilful in swimming to vary their attitudes,

and dispense instantly with the use of the limb attacked by

cramp. Even when this does occur, the skilful swimmer knows

how to reach the shore by the aid of the limbs which are un-

affected, while the uninstructed one is liable to be drowned.

If attacked in this way m the leg, the swimmer must strike

out the limb with all his strength, thrusting the heel downward

and drawing the toes upward, notwithstanding the momentary

pain it may occasion ; or he may immediately turn flat on his

back, and jerk out the affected hmb in the air, taking care not

to elevate it so high as greatly to disturb the balance of the

body. If this does not succeed, he must paddle ashore with his

hands, or keep himself afloat by their aid, until assistance reach

him. Should he even be unable to float on his back, he must

put himself in the upright position, and keep his head above the

surface by merely striking the w^ater downward with his hands

at the hips, without any assistance from the legs.

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SWIMMING.

PROCEDURE WHEN IN THE WATER, AND USUAL MODE GT\*

FRONT SWIMMING.

Entering the Water.

Instructors should never force young swimmers reluctantly to

leap into the water. It would be advisable for delicate persons,

especially when they intend to plunge in, to put a little cotton

steeped in oil, and afterwards pressed, in their ears, before

entering the water. This precaution will prevent irritation of

the organ of hearing. In entering, the head should be wetted

first, either by plunging in head foremost, or by pouring water

on it, in order to prevent the pressure of the water driving up

the blood into it too quickly, and increasing congestion. The

swimmer should next advance, by a clear shelving shore or

bank, where he has ascertained the depth by plumbing or other-

wise, till the water reaches his breast ; should turn towards the

piace of entrance ; and, having inflated his breast, lay it upon

the water, suffering that to rise to his chin, the lips being closed.

Buoyancy in the Water.

The head alone is specifically heavier than salt water. Even

the legs and arms are specifically lighter ; and the trunk is still

more so. Thus the body cannot sink in salt water, even if the

Jungs were filled, except owing to the excessive specific gravity

of the head.

Not only the head, but the legs and arms, are specifically

heavier than fresh water ; but still the hoUowness of the trunk

renders the body altogether too light to sink wholly under water,

so that some part remains above until the lungs become filled.

In general, when the human body is immersed, one-eleventh of

its weight remains above the surface in fresh water, and one-

tenth in salt water.

In salt water, therefore, a person throwing himself on his

back, and extending his arms, may easily lie so as to keep his

mouth and nostrils free for breathing; and, by a small motion

of the hand, may prevent turning, if he perceive any tendency

BUOYANCY IN THE WATER.

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to it. In fresh water, a man cannot long continue in that situ-

ation, except by the action of his hands ; and if no such action

be employed, the legs and lower part of the body will gradually

sink into an upright position, the hollow of the breast keeping

the head uppermost. If, however, in this position, the head be

kept upright above the shoulders, as in standing on the ground,

the immersion, owing to the weight of the part of the head out

of the w^ater, will reach above the mouth and nostrils, perhaps a

little above the eyes. On the contrary, in the same position, if

the head be leaned back, so that the face is turned upwards, the

back part of the head has its weight supported by the water, and

the face will rise an inch higher at every inspiration, and will

sink as much at every expiration, but never so low that the water

can come over the mouth.

For all these reasons, though the impetus given by the fall of

the body into water occasions its sinking to a depth proportioned

to the force of the descent, its natural buoyancy soon impels it

again to the surface, where, after a few oscillations up and down,

it settles with the head free.

Unfortunately, ignorant people stretch the arms out to grasp

at anything or nothing, and thereby keep the head under ; for

the arms and head, together exceeding in weight one-tenth of

the body, cannot remain above the surface at the same time.

The buoyancy of the trunk, then and then only, occasions the

head and shoulders to sink, the ridge of the bent back becoming

the portion exposed ; and, in this attitude, water is swallowed,

by which the specific gravity is increased, and the body settles

to the bottom. It is, therefore, most important to the safety of

the inexperienced to be firmly convinced that the body naturally

floats.

To satisfy the beginner of the truth of this. Dr. Franklin ad-

vises him to choose a place where clear water deepens gradually,

to walk into it till it is up to his breast, to turn his face to the

shore, and to throw an egg into the water between him and it —

so deep that he cannot fetch it up but by diving. To encourage

him to take it up, he must reflect that his progress will be from

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SWIMMING.

deep to shallow water, and that at any time he may, by bringing

his legs under him, and standing on the bottom, raise his head

far above the water. He must then plunge under it, having his

eyes open, before as well as after going under ; throw himself

towards the egg, and endeavour, by the action of his hands and

feet against the water, to get forward till within reach of it. In

this attempt, he will find that the water brings him up against

his inclination, that it is not so easy to sink as he imagined, and

that he cannot, but by force, get down to the egg. Thus he feels

the power of water to support him, and learns to confide in that

power ; while his endeavours to overcome it, and reach the egg,

teach him the manner of acting on the water with his feet and

hands, as he afterwards must in swimming, in order to support

his head higher above the water, or to go forward through it.

If, then, any person, however unacquainted with swimming,

will hold himself perfectly still and upright, as if standing with

his head somewhat thrown back so as to rest on the surface, his

face will remain above the water, and he will enjoy full freedom

of breathing. To do this most efi'ectually, the head must be so

far thrown back that the chin is higher than the forehead, the

breast inflated, the back quite hollow, and the hands and arms

kept under water. If these directions be carefully observed, the

face will float above the water, and the body will settle in a dia-

gonal direction. (Plate XXIII. fig. 1.)

In this case, the only difficulty is to preserve the balance of

the body. This is secured, as described by Bernardi, by extend-

ing the arms laterally under the surface of the water, with the

legs separated, the one to the front and the other behind : thus

presenting resistance to any tendency of the body to incline to

either side, forward or backward. This posture may be pre-

sei-ved any length of time. (Plate XXIII. fig. 2.)

The Abbe Paul Moccia, who lived in Naples in 1760, per-

ceived, at the age of fifty, that he could never entirely cover

himself in the water. He weighed three hundred pounds (Italian

weight), but being very fat, he lost at least thirty pounds in the

water. Robertson had just made his experiments on the specific

R-wTTTiTm-ng ExLOTSLUC Y m Water.

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ATTITUDE — ACTION — RESPIRATION.

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weight of man; and everybody was then occupied with the Abbe,

who could walk in the water mth nearly half his body out of it.

Attitude and Action in the Water.

The swimmer having, by all the preceding means, acquired

confidence, may now practise the instructions already given on

attitude and action in swimming : or he may first proceed with

the system of Bernardi, which immediately follows. As the

former have already been given in ample detail, there is nothing

new here to be added respecting them, except that, while the

attitude is correct, the limbs must be exercised calmly, and free

from all hurry and trepidation, the breath being held, and the

breast kept inflated, while a few strokes are made. In swim-

ming in the usual way, there is, first, extension, flexion, abduc-

tion and adduction of the members ; secondly, almost constant

dilation of the chest, to diminish the mobihty of the point of

attachment of the muscles which are inserted in the elastic sides

of this cavity, and to render the body specifically lighter ; thirdly,

constant action of the muscles of the back part of the neck, to

raise the head, which is relatively very heavy, and to allow the

air free entrance to the lungs.

Respiration in Sivimming.

If the breath is drawn at the moment when the swimmer

strikes out with the legs, instead of when the body is elevated

by the hands descending towards the hips, the head partially

sinks, the face is di-iven against the water, and the mouth be-

comes fiUed. If, on the contrary, the breath is drawn when the

body is elevated by the hands descending towards the liips, when

the progress of the body forward consequently ceases, when the

face is no longer driven against the water, but is elevated above

the sm\*face, — then, not only cannot the water enter, but if the

mouth were at other times even with, or partly under the sur-

face, no water could enter it, as the air, at such times, driven

outward between the lips, would efl'ectually prevent it. The

breath should accordingly be expired while the body, at the

next stroke, is sent forward by the action of the legs.

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SWIMMING.

Coming out of the Water.

Too much fatigue in tlife water weakens the strength and pre-

sence of mind necessary to avoid accidents. A person who is

fatigued, and remains there without motion, soon becomes weak

and chilly. As soon as he feels fatigued, chill, or numbed, he

should quit the water, and diy and dress himself as quickly as

possible. Friction, previous to dressing, drives the blood over

every part of the body, creates an agreeable glow, and

strengthens the joints and muscles.

UPRIGHT SWIMMING.

BernardVs System.

The principal reasons given by Bernardi for recommending the

upright position in swimming are — its conformity to the ac-

customed movement of the limbs ; the freedom it gives to the

hands and arms, by which any impediment may be removed, or

any offered aid readily laid hold of ; vision all around ; a much

■ greater facihty of breathing ; and lastly, that much less of the

body is exposed to the risk of being laid hold of by persons

strugghng in the water.

The less we alter our method of advancing in the water from

what is habitual to us on shore, the more easy do we find a

continued exercise of it. The most important consequence of

this is, that, though a person swimming in an upright posture

advances more slowly, he is able to continue his course much

longer ; and certainly nothing can be more beneficial to a swim-

mer than whatever tends to husband his strength, and to enable

him to remain long in the water with safety.

Bernardi's primary object is to enable the pupil to float in

an upright posture, and to feel confidence in the buoyancy

of his body. He accordingly supports the pupil under the

shoulders until he floats tranqmlly with the head and part of

the neck above the surface, the arms being stretched out hori-

zontally under water. From time to time, the supporting arm

is removed, but again restored, so as never to suffer the head

BERNARDI S SYSTEM.

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to sink, which would disturb the growing confidence, and give

rise to efforts destructive of the success of the lesson. In this

early stage, the unsteadiness of the body is the chief difficulty

to be overcome.

The head is the great regulator of our movements in water.

Its smallest inchnation to either side instantly operates on the

whole body ; and, if not corrected, throws it into a horizontal

posture. The pupil must, therefore, restore any distui-bance of

equilibrium by a cautious movement of the head alone in an

opposite du-ection. This first lesson being familiarized by prac-

tice, he is taught the use of the legs and arms for balancmg the

body in the water. One leg being stretched forward, the other

backward, and the arms laterally, he soon finds himself steadily

sustained, and independent of further aid in floating.

When these first steps have been gained, the sweeping semi-

circular motion of the arms is shown. This is practised slowly,

without motion forwards, until attained with precision. After

this, a shght inchnation of the body from the upright position

occasions its advancing. The motion of striking with the legs

is added in the same measured manner ; so that the pupil is not

perplexed by the acquisition of more than one thing at a time.

In this method, the motions of both arms and legs differ from

those we have so carefully described, only in so far as they are

modified by a more upright position. It is optional, therefore, with

the reader, to practise either method. The general principles of

both are now before him.

The upright position a httle inclined backwards, (which, like

every other change of posture, must be done dehberatelv, by

the corresponding movement of the head,) reversing in this case

the motion of the arms, and striking the flat part of the foot

down and a little forward, gives the motion backward, which is

performed with greater ease than when the body is laid hori-

zontally on the back. According to this system, Bernardi says,

a swimmer ought at every stroke to urge himself forward a dis-

tance equal to the length of his body. A good swimmer ought

to make about three miles an hour. A good day's journey may

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SWIMMING.

thus be achieved, if the strength be used with due discretion,

and the swimmer be famihar with the various means by which

it may be recruited.

Of Bernardi's successful practice, he says, " Having been ap-

pointed to instruct the youths of the Royal Naval Academy of

Naples in the art of swimming, a trial of the proficiency of the

pupils took place, under the inspection of a number of people

assembled on the shore for that purpose, on the tenth day of

their instruction. A twelve-oared boat attended the progress of

the pupils, from motives of precaution. They swam so far out

in the bay, that at length the heads of the young men could

with difficulty be discerned with the naked eye ; and the Major

General of Marine, Forteguerri, for whose inspection the exhi-

bition was intended, expressed serious apprehensions for their

safety. Upon their return to the shore, the young men, how-

ever, assured him that they felt so little exhausted as to be

willing immediately to repeat the exertion." An official report

on the subject has also been drawn up by commission (appointed

by the Neapolitan government), after devoting a month to the

investigation of Bernardi's plan ; and it states as follows :

" 1st. It has been established by the experience of more than

a hundred persons of different bodily constitutions, that the

human body is lighter than w^ater, and consequently will float

by nature ; but that the art of swimming must be acquired, to

render that privilege useful.

"2dly. That Bernardi's system is new, in so far as it is

founded on the principle of husbanding the strength, and ren-

dering the power of recruiting it easy. The speed, according

to the new method, is no doubt diminished; but security is

much more important than speed; and the new plan is not

exclusive of the old, when occasions require great effort.

" 3dly. That the new method is sooner learnt than the old,

to the extent of advancing a pupil in one day as far as a month's

instruction on the old plan."

BACK SWIMMING.

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Treading Water.

This differs little from the system just described. As in it,

the position is upright ; but progression is obtained by the action

of the legs alone. There is little power in this method of swim-

ming : but it may be very useful in rescuing drowning persons.

The arms should be folded across, below the breast, or com-

pressed against the hips, and the legs employed as in front

s\^imming, except as to time and extent. They should perform

their action in half the usual time, or two strokes should be

taken in the time of one ; because, acting perpendicularly, each

stroke would othen^ise raise the swimmer too much, and he

would sink too low between the strokes, were they not quickly

to follow each other. They should also work in about two-

thirds of the usual space, preserving the upper or stronger, and

omitting the lower or weaker, part of the stroke.

There is, however, another mode of treading water, in which

the thighs are separated, and the legs slightly bent, or curved

together, as in a half-sitting posture. Here the legs are used

alternately, so that, while one remains more contracted, the

other, less so, describes a circle. By this method, the swimmer

does not seem to hop in the water, but remains nearly at the

same height. PI XXIII. f. 3 represents both these methods,

and shows their peculiar adaptation to relieve drowning persons.

BACK SWIMMING.

. In swimming on the back, the action of the thoracic mem-

ber is weaker, because the swimmer can support himself on the

water without their assistance. The muscular contractions take

place principally in the muscles of the abdominal members, and in

those of the anterior part of the neck. Though little calculated

for progression, it is the easiest of aU methods, because, much

of the head being immersed, httle effort is required for support.

For this purpose, the swimmer must He down gently upon the

water ; the body extended ; the head kept in a line with it, so

that the back and much of the upper part of the head may be

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SWIMMING.

immersed ; the head and breast must remain perfectly unagitated

by the action of the legs ; the hand laid on the thighs (Plate

XXIV. fig. 1), and the legs employed as in front swimming,

care being taken that the knees do not rise out of the water. —

(Plate XXIV. fig. 2.) The arms may, however, be used in

various ways in swimming on the back.

In the method called winging, the arms are extended till in a

line with each other; they must then be struck down to the

thighs, with the palms turned in that direction, and the thumbs

inclining downward to increase the buoyancy, (Plate XXIV.

fig. 3) ; the palms must then be moved edgewise, and the arms

elevated as before (Plate XXIV. fig. 4) ; and so on, repeating

the same actions. The legs should throughout make one

stroke as the arms are struck down, and another as they are

elevated. The other mode, called finning, differs from this only

in the stroke of the arms being shorter, and made in the same

time as that of the legs.

In back swimming, the body should be extended after each

stroke, and long pauses made between these. The act of passing

from front to back, or back to front swimming, must always be

performed immediately after throwing out the feet. To turn

from the breast to the back, the legs must be raised forward, and

the head thrown backward, until the body is in a right position.

To turn from the back to the breast, the legs must be dropped,

and the body thrown forward on the breast.

FLOATING.

Floating is properly a transition from swimming on the back.

To effect it, it is necessary, while the legs are gently exercising,

to extend the arms as far as possible beyond the head, equi-

distant from, and parallel with its sides, but never rising above

the surface ; to immerse the head rather deeply, and elevate

the chin more than the forehead ; to inflate the chest while

taking this position, and so to keep it as much as possible ; and

to cease the action of the legs, and put the feet together. (Plate

XXV. fig. 1.) The swimmer will thus be able to float, rising

SIDE SWIMMING PLUNGING.

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a little with every inspiration, and falling with every expiration.

Should the feet descend, the loins may be hollowed.

SIDE SVVriMMING.

For this purpose, the body may be turned either upon the

right or left side : the feet must perform their usual motions :

the arms also require peculiar guidance. In lowering the

left, and elevating the right side, the swimmer must strike

forward with the left hand, and sidewise with the right ; the

back of the latter being front instead of upward, and the thumb

side of the hand downward to serve as an oar. In turning on

the right side, the swimmer must strike out with the right hand,

and use the left as an oar. In both cases, the lower arm

stretches itself out quickly, at the same time that the feet are

striking ; and the upper arm strikes at the same time that the

feet are impelling, the hand of the latter arm beginning its

stroke on a level with the head. While this hand is again

brought forward, and the feet are contracted, the lower hand is

drawn back towards the breast, rather to sustain than to impel,

(Plate XXV. fig. 2.) As side swimming presents to the water

a smaller surface than front swimming, it is preferable when

rapidity is necessary. But, though generally adopted when it

is required to pass over a short distance with rapidity, it is

much more fatiguing than the preceding methods.

PLUNGING.

In the leap to plunge, the legs must be kept together, the

arms close, and the plunge made either with the feet or the

head foremost. With the feet foremost they must be kept

together, and the body inclined backwards. With the head

foremost, the methods vary.

In the deep plunge, which is used where it is known that

there is depth of water, the swimmer has his arms outstretched.

Ids knees bent, and his body leant forwards (Plate XXVI.

fig. 1,) till the head descends nearly to the feet, when the spine

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SWIMMING.

and knees are extended. This plunge may be made without

the slightest noise. When the swimmer rises to the surface,

he must not open his mouth before previously repelhng the

water.

In the flat plunge, which is used in shallow water, or where

the depth is unknown, and which can be made only from a

small height, the swimmer must fling himself forwards, in order

to extend the line of the plunge as much as possible under

the surface of the water; and, as soon as he touches it, he

must keep his head up, his back hollow, and his hands stretched

forward, flat and inclined upward. He will thus dart forwards

a considerable way close under the surface, so that his head

will reach it before the impulse ceases to operate. (Plate

XXVI. fig. 2.)

DIVING.

The swimmer may prepare for diving by taking a slow and

full inspiration, letting himself sink gently into the water,

and expelling the breath by degrees, when the heart begins

to beat strongly. In order to descend in diving, the head

must be bent forward upon the breast ; the back made round ;

and the legs thrown, out with greater vigour than usual ; but

the arms and hands, mstead of being struck forward as in

swimming, must move rather backward, or come out lower,

and pass more behind. (Plate XXVII. fig. 1.) The eyes

should, meanwhile, be kept open, as, if the water be clear, it

enables the diver to ascertain its depth, and see whatever lies at

the bottom ; and, when he has obtained a perpendicular position,

he should extend his hands like feelers.

To move forward, the head must be raised, and the back

straightened a httle. Still, in sviimming between top and bot-

tom, the head must be kept a Httle downward, and the feet be

thrown out a little higher than when swimming on the surface

(Plate XXVII. fig. 2) ; and if the swimmer thinks that he ap-

proaches too near the surface, he must press the palms upwards.

THRUSTING — SPRINGING. 99

To ascend, the chin must be heid up, the back made concave,

the hands struck out high, and brought briskly down. (Plate

XXVII. fig. 3.)

THRUSTING.

This is a transition from front swimming, in which the atti-

tude and motions of the feet are still the same, but those of the

hands very different. One arm, the right for instance, is lifted

entirely out of the w^ater, thrust forward as much as possible,

and, when at the utmost stretch, let fall, with the hand hollowed,

into the water, which it grasps or puUs towards the swimmer in

its return transversely towards the opposite arm-pit. While the

right arm is thus stretched forth, the left, with the hand ex-

panded, describes a small circle to sustain the body (Plate

XXVIII. fig. 1) ; and, while the right arm pulls towards the

swimmer, the left, in a widely-described circle, is carried rapidly

under the breast, towards the hip. (Plate XXVIII. fig. 2.)

When the left arm has completed these movements, it, in its

turn, is lifted from the water, stretched forward, and pulled

back, — the right arm describing first the smaller, then the larger

circle. The feet make their movements during the describing

of the larger circle. The thrust requires much practice ; but,

when w ell acquired, it not only relieves the swimmer, but en-

ables him to make great advance in the water, and is applicable

to cases where rapidity is required for a short distance.

SPRINGING.

Some swimmers, at every stroke, raise not only their neck and

shoulders, but breast and body, out of the water. This, when

habitual, exhausts without any useful pm'pose. As an occa-

sional effort, however, it maybe useful in seizing objects above;

and it may then best be performed by the swimmer drawing his

feet as close as possible under his body, stretching his hands

forward, and, with both feet and hands, striking the water

strongly, so as to throw himself out of it as high as the hips.

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SWIMMING.

ONE-ARM SWIMMING.

Here the swimmer must be more erect than usual, hold his

head more backward, and use the legs and arm more quickly

and powerfully. The arm, at its full extent, must be struck out

rather across the body, and brought down before, and the breast

kept inflated. This mode of swimming is best adapted for

assisting persons who are drowning, and should be frequently

practised — the learner carrying first under, then over the water,

a weight of a few pounds.

In assisting drowning persons, however, great care should be

taken to avoid being caught hold of by them. They should be

approached from behind, and driven before, or drawn after the

swimmer to the shore, by the intervention, if possible, of any-

thing that may be at hand, and if nothing be at hand, by means

of their hair ; and they should, if possible, be got on their backs.

Should they attempt to seize the swimmer, he must cast them

loose immediately; and, if seized, drop them to the bottom,

when they will endeavour to rise to the surface.

Two swimmers treading water may assist a drowning person

by seizing him, one under each arm, and carrying him along

with his head above water, and his body and hmbs stretched

out and motionless.

FEATS IN SWIMMING.

Men have been known to swim in their clothes a distance of

4000 feet.

Others have performed 2200 feet in twenty-nine minutes.

Some learn to dive and bring out of the water burdens as

heavy as a man.

[This art, however, has made little if any progress from the

earliest records that we possess of it. Leander's feat of passing

from Abydos to Sestos was the crack performance of antiquity ;

and it was the ultra achievement of Lord Byron, probably one

of the best swimmers of our day. — Ed. Fifth Edition.]

ROWING.

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EOWING.

RIVER ROWING,\* WITH TWO SCULLS.

THE BOAT.

It may be laid down as a general rule, that, in calm weather,

a Ught and sharp boat is preferable ; and, in rough weather, a

heavier and broader one. The learner, however, should not at

first begin in too light a boat, nor should he practise in rough

weather, until he gets acquainted with its management.

TO LEAVE THE LANDING-PLACE.

To leave the shore, the rower should, with the boat-hook,

shove the boat off, head upon tide, or opposite to the current.

To leave stairs, the rower must either shove the boat off with

the boat-hook, or place the blade of the scull forward, and per-

form what the London watermen call belaying the boat's head

out from the shore, accordingly as there is deep or shallow

water.

This being done, the rower sits down to his sculls. These

he puts in the ruUocks, and turns the concave front, or filling of

the scull, towards the stern of the boat.

THE SEAT.

The rower must sit a-midships on the thwart or seat of the

boat, else she will heel to the side on which he is sitting, and

much of his labom' will be lost. He should sit with ease to

himself, having his feet on the middle of the stretcher, and his

legs not quite extended ; but his knees, as he rows, should be

brought down, and his legs stretched.

THE PULL.

The rower should make long strokes in a heavy boat, and

\* This should have the preference here, because the art is best learned on

the smooth watei, and in the lighter boats, of rivers.

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ROWING.

shorter and quicker strokes in a light boat. At the beginning

of the pull, he must, in general, bend his body till his head is

over his knees, and extend his arms as far aft as convenient,

that the blades of the sculls may be thrown correspondingly for-

ward. Plate XXIX. f. 1. With regard to the back in particular,

some think that, if a short distance is to be rowed, it should be

bent ; and that, if a long distance, it is less fatiguing to keep it

straight. When the arms are extended as far aft, and the blades

of the sculls as far forward as convenient — which must never be

so far as to jam in the ruUocks — (Plate XXIX. f. 1. the rower

must dip the sculls into the water, and pull towards him, by at

once bending the arms and the body.

When in the middle of the pull, if the sculls are not short

enough, or even if the head and body are slightly turned, one of

the hands will go higher than the other ; and, as the right is

genei'ally the stronger, it may go above, and the left below. It

is often found difficult to keep one hand clear of the other in

pulling a pair of sculls. This is so much the case, indeed, that

the inexperienced frequently suffer more from the knocking

and rubbing of the backs and sides of the hands against each

other, than fi-om the friction of the handles of the oars in the

palms of the hands. This may be easily obviated by attending

to the following advice :—

Having seated yourself in the centre of the thwart, with your

feet close together against the centre of the stretcher, ship your

sculls, but, before pulling a stroke, move your body three or

four inches to the right hand, and still retain your feet in the

centre : thus you will be sitting rather obliquely ; this will throw

your right shoulder more forward, and consequently the right

hand; and thus the hands will work perfectly clear of each other.

This rule, however, must be modified by the circumstances of

river-rowing. A waterman \sTites us as follows : — " As to car-

rying one hand above the other, my way is, that if, for instance,

I go from Greenvdch to Blackwall against tide, I keep dovm on

the Greenwich side, in general look toward the shore, and bav-

ins my face over the left shoulder, my right hand is then above.

THE TIDE OR CURRENT.

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If I go from Greenwich to London, my face is turned over the

right shoulder, and the left hand is then uppermost."

(The usual position in the middle of the pull is shown in

Plate XXIX. fig. 2.)

The end of the pull must not take place till the elbows have

approached the tops of the hips, the hands are brought towards

the chest, and the body is thrown well back. There would be

a loss of power, however, if the hands were brought too near

the chest ; and the body should not be thrown further back than

it may easily and quickly recover its first position for the next

stroke. — (Plate XXX. As the water is being delivered from

the sculls, the elbows sink, the wrists are bent up, and the backs

of the hands are turned towards the fore-arms, in order to

feather the sculls.— (Plate XXX. fig. 1.)

In the return of the sculls, the hands must remain turned up

until the sculls are put into the water. — (Plate XXX f. 2 In the

middle of the return, if the sculls are not short, or if the head

and body be turned, one of the hands also goes higher than the

other.

As to the degree of the immersion of the sculls. — In the mid-

dle of the pull, the blades must be covered by the water. The

learner in general dips them very deep ; but that ought to be

avoided, especially in calm weather. In the whole of the return,

the tips should, in calm weather, be two or three inches above

the w^ater ; and, in rough weather, they should be higher, in

order to clear it, as represented in the preceding Plates. The

head ought throughout to be very moveable — first to one side,

then to the other, but generally turned towards the shore when

against the tide. The same movements have only to be repeated,

throughout the course.

THE TIDE OR CURRENT.

In river-rowing, when the tide or current is with the rower,

a learner should in general take the middle of the stream. In

rowing with the tide, however, watermen generally cut off" the

points, in order to keep a straight course. When the tide or

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ROWING.

current is against the rower, he should take the sides, preferring

that side on which, owing to the course of the river, the current

is least. As there is an eddy under the points, watermen gene-

rally, when rounding them, shoot the water to the next point,

and so on.

TO TURN.

Back water with one scull, by putting the one on the side

you wish to turn to into the water, with its concave front or

filling towards you, and pushing against it ; and at the same

time pull strongly with the other scull, until the boat's head is

turned round.

MEETING OR PASSING.

In meeting, the boat which comes with the tide must get out

of the way. In this case, both boats, if close, lay the blades of

their sculls flat on the water, hft them out of the rullocks, and

let them drift alongside. Each replaces them when the other

has passed. In passing a boat, the rower who passes must take

the outside, unless there is ample room within, and must also

keep clear of the other's sculls or oars. If one boat is crossing

the water, and another coming with the tide, the one coming

with tide must keep astern of the other, and have a good look-

out ahead.

TO LAND.

Give the boat its proper direction, and keep its head incUning

towards the tide, and its stern will turn up or down, as the tide

runs ; unship the sculls by the manoeuvre directed above ; but,

instead of letting them drift alongside, lay them in the boat, the

blades forward and the looms aft; seize the headfast; jump

ashore ; and take two half-hitches round the post or ring.

SEA-ROW^ING, OR ROWING IN A GALLEY ON THE RIVER.

In launching a boat from the sea-beach, when it is rough,

and there is a heavy surf, the two bowmen must get into the

boat with their oars run out ; and the other rowers follow the

SEA-ROWING.

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boat quickly in her descent ; but they should not jump in till

she is quite afloat, lest their weight might fix her on the beach,

and she might ship a sea.

It may happen, that immediately on the boat floating, a sea

shall take the bow (before the rowers are sufficiently prepared

with their oars to keep her head out), and place her broadside

to the waves. In this situation, the boat is in danger of being

swamped, and the lives of those on board are in peril. When

thus situated, it is best for two of the rowers to go near the bow

of the boat, and immediately force each his boat-hook or oar

on the ground, on the shore side of the boat, as the most

effectual, safe, and expeditious method of bringing her head

again to the sea. Should there be more than a usual swell, both

the rowers and the sitter, or steersman, cannot be too particular

in keeping, throughout, the head of the boat to the swell, as

lying broadside to a heavy sea is extremely dangerous.

In rowing, each man has in general a single oar, and sits on

the opposite side of the galley from the rullock through which

- his oar passes. The oar must consequently cross the boat, and

be held on its opposite side, so as to clear the back of the man

before.

It should be neither held nor pulled obliquely to the side by

twisting the body, as is practised by many, because the muscles

in that case act disadvantageously, and are sooner fatigued. The

stroke must he longer in sea than in river rowing. The oar

must be thrown out with a heave, caused by the simultaneous

extension of the body and the arms. It is still more essential

to feather in sea than in river rowing.

The oar must be drawn back with, great power, caused by the

simultaneous contraction of the body and arms; time with

the other rowers being accurately kept, and distinctly marked.

When the oars are delivered from the water, the time, until

they go into it again, may be counted, one, two, three, — when

they pass through the water. This time is kept by the strokes-

man, or sternmost man of the rowers.

In landing, the word is, " in bow," when the bowman or

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SAILING.

foremost man gets the boat-hook ready to dear away for the

shore, or the stairs. The next word is from the coxwain,

"rowed off all," or "well rowed;" when all the oars are laid

in, with the blades forward, and the boat is made fast.

In landing on the sea-beach, when there is a surf, the rowers

may watch for a smooth, and then give good way ashore, when

the bowman should instantly jump out mth the headfast or

penter, and pull her up, to avoid shipping a sea. The distances

run in this way are very great. We have known four men, in

a short galley, row thirty miles in four hours, namely, from

Dover to eight miles below Calais, or abreast of Gravelines, on

the opposite coast. In such a row, a London waterman would

have no skin left on his hands ; and a member of the Funny

Club would, we suppose, have no hands left on his arms !

SAILING.

BOATS, ETC.

Cutters, owing to their excellent sailing qualities, are much

employed as packets\*, revenue cruisers, smugglers, privateers,

and in aU cases requiring despatch. The boats commonly em-

ployed in parties of pleasure, &amp;c., are also cutters.

On the size of these vessels, however, it is necessary to re-

mark, that a cutter under one hundred tons is sufficiently

handy ; but, when the size is equal to that of the larger yachts,

a strong crew is necessar)?^, as the spars are very heavy, and a

number of men requisite to set or shorten sail. As a single-

masted vessel, in the event of springing a spar, becomes helpless,

even large cutters are used only in short voyages, or on the

coast ; for, in case of accident, they can always manage to reach

some harbour or anchorage to repair any damage they may

\* In the packet line, since the general adoption of steam, cutters are seldom

if ever met with.— Ed. Fifth Edition.

BOATS, ETC.

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sustain. The peculiar qualities of beating well to windward,

and working on short tacks, adapt cutters peculiarly for Channel

cruising.

Although, some years back, large cutters were confined prin-

cipally to the navy and revenue, the Royal Yacht Squadron, in

theirs, have exceeded these not only in size, but in beauty and

saiUng quaUties. Some of the finest and fastest cutters in the

world are the property of this national club ; and two of them,

the Alarm (Mr. Weld's), and the Arundel\*, (the Duke of Nor-

folk's, measure 193 and 188 tons. The inconvenient size, however,

of a cutter's boom and mainsail has caused the very general intro-

duction of a ketch rig, which, by the addition of a mizen, per-

mits the boom to be dispensed with, and reduces the mainsail

considerably. This rig, indeed, when the mizen stands well, is

elegant ; and, if a vessel is short-handed, it is very handy. As

cutter-rigged vessels, instead of a regular mainsail, with its

boom and gaff", have sometimes a mere spritsail, it is necessary

we should observe, that the inferior convenience and safety of

these preclude our noticing them here. It is also necessary

that we should explain why, in the sequel, we do not even refer

to lugger-rigged vessels.

Luggers are more difficult to work or manoeuvre ; they re-

quire a greater number of men ; their spars are so heavy that

they require all hands to move them : their decks are inevitably

lumbered with spars, &amp;c. ; their canvass gets rotted from ex-

posure ; and their expense is much greater than that of cutters.

They generally have two sets of lugs — ^large ones, which require

dipping every time they tack, and small working lugs, which do

not require dipping, the tack coming to the foot of the mast.

The latter are generally used, except in making long reaches

across the Channel, &amp;c. A lugger, moreover, is seldom fit to

be altered to any thing but a schooner, not having breadth

enough for one mast, which, after all, is the best for beauty and

speed.

\* The tonnage of the Arundel is not given here according to the Royal

Yacht Squadron list : there it is stated to be 210 tons.— Ed. Fifth Edition.

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SAILING.

Sailing men, indeed, are now so perfectly aware of the inferior

speed of luggers, that we never see a lugger or schooner enter

against a cutter at all near its tonnage. At sea, luggers would

have a better chance ; though even there many would prefer

cutters, except in foul weather and a long reach. In short,

these vessels suit only a few noblemen and gentlemen who have

enough of patriotic ambition to desire to look like smugglers,

enough of dehcacy to disregard the being thought dirty lubbers

by their own men — some of whom are not dirty from mere taste

or choice, and enough of penetration not to discover, that on

their landing with filthy clothes and tarry hands, every old

sailor grins or laughs at their imagining, that it was they, and

not the man at the helm, who had kept the canvass from crack-

ing, or the sticks from going over the side. Our descriptions

apply, therefore, to cutters alone ; and the Plates at the end of

this article illustrate the various parts therein referred to.

Upon the Thames, the sailing clubs comprise the Royal

Sailing Society, the Royal Thames Yacht Club, the Loyal

Victoria Yacht Club, the Clarence, British, Royal Yacht, and

several minor associations. Several cups and prizes are

annually given during the season; and the spirited contests

between the beautiful small craft which form these fancy fleets,

are highly interesting. The sailing matches on the river are of

two sorts — one above, and the other below the bridges. The

smaller yachts, of from six to twenty- six tons, are commonly

entered for the former, and a larger class for the latter, which

take place between Greenwich and Gravesend. These national

amusements appear to be rapidly gaining the first place among

fashionable recreations, and now occupy the season, from the

period when hunting ends, till shooting begins.

The Royal Yacht Squadron has nearly six hundred persons

on its lists, of which above one hundred are members, and

about fom\* hundred and fifty honorary members. The number

of yachts is one hundred and nine\* ; of which eighty-seven are

\* As the number is constantly fluctuating, we had better take the average at

a hundred, which will be found quite as high a one as we should be justified

in suggesting.

BOATS, ETC,

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cutters, ten schooners, three brigs, four yawls, two ships, two

ketches, and one lugger. The greater pare of these vessels

hail from Cowes or Southampton. The shipping belonging

to the club amounts to 7250 tons. Now, a vessel of one

hundred tons seldom perhaps stands the owner in less than

from five to six thousand pounds, varying from that to ten,

according to the profusion of ornamental parts, the internal

fittings, and other contingencies. At this rate, the shipping

of the club would have cost more than three millions and

a half of money : but it is impossible to speak decisively on

this point, as the first cost of the yachts varies much, and the

numerous styles of rig are attended with expenses so widely

diflPerent. At a moderate computation, each vessel belonging

to the club carries ten men on an average : this gives the total

number employed 1090. During the summer months, then,

while regattas are celebrated, it may be said that the Royal

Yacht Squadron alone employs more than 11 00 men. These, with

some few exceptions, are discharged on the approach of winter,

and the yachts are laid up for the season, retaining the master

and one man in pay. The crews thus discharged obtain em-

ployment in merchant-vessels, or otherwise, during the winter ;

and in the middle of spring, are generally re-shipped in the

yachts in which they have previously served. On these con-

ditions, active and industrious men of good character are gene-

rally sure of employment in the club; and many members

justly pride themselves on the high discipline, manly bearing,

^nd crack appearance of their crews. The situation of master,

in particular, is one of much responsibihty, and is on all ac-

counts respectably filled. In some of the largest craft, junior

officers of the navy are found to accept this office. The sailing

regulations of the Royal Yacht Squadron are as follow ;

First — Members entering their yachts must send the names

of them to the secretary one week previous to the day of sailing,

and pay two guineas entrance at the same time.

Second — All vessels starting or entering must be the bond Jide

property of members, as well as their spars, sails, boats, &amp;c.

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SAILING.

Third — Each member is allowed to enter one vessel only for

all prizes given by the club.

Fourth— Cutters may carry four sails only, viz., mainsail,

foresail, jib, and gaff top-sail ; yawls, luggers, schooners, and

all other vessels, in like proportion. No booming out allowed.

Fifth — No trimming with ballast, or shiftmg of ballast allowed ;

and all vessels to keep their platforms down, and bulkheads

standmg.

Sixth — Vessels on the larboard tack must invariably give way

to those on the starboard tack ; and in all cases where a doubt

of the possibility of the vessel on the larboard tack weathering

the one on the starboard tack shall exist, the vessel on the

larboard tack shall give way ; or, if the other vessel keep her

course, and run into her, the owner of the vessel on the lar-

board tack shall be compelled to pay all damages, and forfeit

his claim to the prize.

Seventh — Vessels running on shore shall be allowed to use

their own anchors and boats actually on board to get them off,

afterwards weighing anchor and hoisting the boat in ; but, upon

receiving assistance from any other vessel or vessels, boats, or

anchors, shall forfeit all claim to the prize.

Eighth — That nothing but the hand-line be used for sounding.

Ninth — Any deviation from these rules shall subject the

aggressor to forfeit all claim to the prize.

Tenth — If any objection be made "with regard to the sailing

of any other vessel in the race, such objection must be made to

the stewards, withm one hour after the vessel making the ob-

jection arrive at the starting-post.

Eleventh — No vessel shall be allowed to take in ballast, or

take out, for twenty-fom\* hoiu-s previous to starting ; and no

ballast shall be thrown overboard.

Twelfth — Vessels shall start from moorings laid down at a

cable-length distance, with then- sails set ; and every vessel not

exceeding one hundred tons shall carry a boat not less than

ten feet long ; and vessels exceeding one hundred tons, a boat

not less than fourteen feet long.

COURSES, ETC.

Ill

Thirteenth — There shall be a member, or honorary member,

on board each vessel.

Fourteenth — The time of starting may be altered by the

stewards ; and all disputes that may arise are to be decided by

tliera, or such persons as they shall appoint.

The Northern Yacht Club is a highly interesting society,

although its plan is not so extensive as that of the Royal Club.

It contains about three hundred and fifty members. The docu-

ments for 1830 comprise ninety-two in the Scottish, and ninety

in the Irish division, with fifty- two honorary members, in ad-

dition to ninety-three members of the Cork Yacht Club, who

are also entered on the honorary lists. It had, in 1830, sixty

yachts, not equal in proportion to the tonnage of the Cowes

Club, as smaller vessels are admitted. Many R. Y. S. men are

found in the Northern Club. There are many fine vessels in

this club. Cutters, as usual, excel in number.

At the lowest computation, the number of vessels at present

employed for pleasure in this country cannot be less than from

three to four hundred, ranging in bulk from ten to three hun-

dred and fifty tons. These are variously distributed along our

shores, carrying their opulence into every port and harbour.

But there is another advantage arising from yacht clubs —

namely, that national spirit, which, to a maritime people, is

above all in worth. The yacht clubs keep alive this feeling in

an eminent degree.

COURSES, ETC.

Even in describing the elementary nautical operations which

such boats require, it is necessary to lay down a position for the

HARBOUR, direction for the wind, and trip for the vessel.

Let us suppose, then, that the mouth of the harbour lies

towards the south ; that the wind blows from the north, with

a little inclination to east, and that we wish first to sail due

south to get out of the harbour, next direct our course east-

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SAILING.

ward, then return westward till we get abreast the mouth of the

harbour, and lastly, northward, to enter the harbour and come

to our moorings.

These courses will, with variations in the force of the wind,

illustrate every common and useful manoeuvre.

GETTING UNDER VV^AY.

Ship\* the tiller.t

Set the mainsail J; hoist the throat § nearly close up; and

half hoist the peak. ||

Bend^ and haul the jib out to the bowsprit end.

Bowse the bobstay\*\* and bowsprit shrouds ft well taut.

Hoist the jib, and bowse it well up.

Get the topmast stayJJ, backstays §§, and rigging well

taut.

Hoist the foresail ready to cast^^ her when the moorings

are let go.

Send a hand to the helm.\*\*\*

\* Fix in its proper place.

t The piece of wood or beam put into the head of the rudder to move it.

t Unfurl it by casting- the stops or g-askets oflf.

§ The foremost end of the gaiF, or that end next the mast.

II The outermost end of the gaff, or that farthest from the mast.

H Hook it to the traveller, or ring on the bowsprit.

\*\* A rope or chain from the end of the bowsprit to half-way down the stem.

tt Ropes from the bowsprit end on each side to the bows.

a A rope from the topmast head to the outer end of the bowsprit, where it

passes through a sheave or small block, comes in by the stem head, and is

belayed or made fast (done g-enerally by winding several times backwards and

forwards in the manner of a figure 8), to its cleat or pin.

§§ Ropes from the after-part of the head of the topmast to the after-part of

the channels on each side.

nil Or shouds— ropes from each side the top-mast head, through the cross-

tree arms, to the fore part of the channels, between the first and second lower

shroud. They are set up or hauled taut, as are the backstays, by means of a

small tackle, one block of which is hooked to the thimble spliced into the

lower end of the shroud or backstay, and the other to an eye-bolt in the

channels.

To turn her head in the most advantageous direction.

\*\*\* This term includes both the tiller and the wheel ; but, as the yawing

motion of a small light vessel is correspondingly light and feeble, though

BEFORE THE WIND.

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Overhaul the main-sheet\*, and the leef runner and tackle J ;

lower the throat, and hoist the peak of the mainsail taut§ up.

Hoist the gaif topsail |1, keeping the tack^ to windward\*\* of

the peak halyards ft? and hauUng the slack of the sheet out

before you hoist the sail taut up.

Set the tack, and heave the sheet well taut.

BEFORE THE WIND.JJ

With the Main Boom over to Starboard.^%

In managing the helm, be careful not to jibe the mainsail.

When a vessel is going large ||||, the helmsman should always

place himself on the weather side of the tiller, or the side opposite

to that which the main boom is over, as his view of the vessel's

head will then be unobstructed by the sails. The boat now

running before the wind, haul the tack of mainsail up. If the

wind come dead aft, you may flatten aft the jib and foresail

sheets or haul the foresail down to prevent chafing. If

much quicker than that of a large vessel, she is best without a wheel, which

is meant to gain power at the expense of time.

\* A rope or tackle for regulating the horizontal position of the main boom.

t The leeward or lee-side is the opposite to windward.

% A compound tackle, used in cutter-rigged vessels, instead of a backstay to

the lower mast, on account of its easy removal allowing the main boom to go

forward, in going large.

§ The nautical way of pronouncing and writing tight.

I The sail above the mainsail. The sheet hauls out to a small block on the

outer end of the gaff.

% Tack is the lowermost corner opposite to the sheet, in all fore-and-aft sails

and studding sails.

\*\* The windward or weather side, is that side on which the wind blows.

ft The rope by which the peak of the gaff or boom, to which the head of the

mainsail is fastened, is hoisted. Halyards always signifies a rope by which a

sail is hoisted.

X± That is, going the same way the wind blows. Her course is then sixteen

points from the wind. (See Compass.)

§§ Starboard is the right, and larboard the left hand side, when looking

toward the head of the vessei .

II II Or free, not close-hauled. Generally understood as having the wind

abaft the beam, or that her course is then eight points from the wind.

Ropes fast to the aftermost lower corner of the jib and foresail, to hold

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SAILING,

the wind come at all round on the starboard quarter\*, slack

off the boom guyf; haul in the main-sheet till you get the

boom a-midshipsj, or nearly so port§ the helm, and jibe the

mainsail ; slack off the main-sheet again, and hook the guy on

the larboard side ; haul taut the starboard runner and tackle,

and overhaul the larboard one ; the same with the topping-lift 1| ;

hoist the head sails ^, and shift the sheets over.

N.B. If you are obliged to jibe as above, you must, in the

following directions for bringing the wind on your beam, read

larboard for starboard, and vice versa.

BRINGING THE VESSEL WITH THE WIND ON THE LARBOARD

BEAM.\*\*

Supposing that you have not jibed, starboard the helm

a little, and let the vessel spring her luff ft with her head

to the northward. Slack the boom guy, and haul in the

them down. ITie jib has two ropes or sheets fast to its corner, one of which

comes on each side the forestay, for the convenience of tacking, &amp;c. Tlie

foresail has only one sheet, which is fast to the traveller, or ring on the horse

or bar of iron, which crosses from one gunwale to the other, just before the

mast.

\* The point on either side where the side and stern meet,

t A small tackle, one end of which is hooked to the main boom, and the

other forward, to keep the boom from swinging.

t Midway between the sides of the vessel.

§ Instead of larboard, when speaking of the helm, port is the proper term,

in contrariety to starboard, used for the sake of distinctness in directing the

helmsman,

II Stout ropes which lead, one from each side the main boom, near its outer

end, through a block on its respective side the mast, just under the cross-

trees, whence it descends about half-way, and is connected to the deck or

gunwale by a tackle.

% Jib and foresail.

\*\* That is, athwart or across the waist of the vessel, called a-beam, because

it is in the same direction that her beams lay, or at right angles with her

keel. Her head is then eight points from the wind.— The wind is said to be

abaft the beam, or before the beam, according as the vessel's head is more or

less than eight points from the wind.

tt Sail nearer to the wind.

CLOSE-HAULING THE VESSEL.

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main-sheet. Haul aft \* the jib-sheet, and bowUne t the fcie-

sail.

If she come up fast, port the helm;]: a httle, and meet her.

then right § it when she la5"s her proper course.

Hook and haul taut the lee runner and tackle. You ■will now

find it necessary to carry the helm a little a-port or a-weather.

If, instead of directing our course eastward, we had preferred

doing so westward, we must have jibed previous to bringmg

the wind on the beam, and then the preceding operations would

necessarily have been, to a corresponding extent, reversed.

CLOSE-HAULING THE VESSEL.]!

To haul the vessel to the wind, ease the helm down^I a little.

Haul in the main-sheet upon the proper mark. Bowse the fore-

sheet, and haul the jib-sheet well aft. Bowse the runner and

tackle well taut.

The vessel is now on the wind, plies to windward, or is close-

hauled.\*\*

Being now apt to gripe, or come up into the wind v^ith a

sudden jerk, now and again, she will carry her helm more or

less a-weather. The helmsman must watch the weather-leach

of the mainsail, to prevent the vessel getting her head in the

wind.

\* That is, toward the hinder part or stern.

t A rope made fast to the foremost shroud, and passed through a thimble in

the after-leach of the foresail, then round the shroud again, and round the sheet.

? Always put the helm the contrary way to that which you want the

vessel's head to tuni.

§ That is, bring it a-midships ; the same with steady.

II To haul the sheets aboard, or more a-midships, by which means the

vessel's head will come closer to the point the wind blows from.

\*i To leeward.

\*\* These terms all imply one thing, viz., that the vessel is saihng as near as

possible to the point whence the wind blows. No square-rigged vessel w ill

sail witlun less than six, and no fore-and-aft rigged vessel within less thac

five, points of the wind, to have any head- way.

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SAILING

TACKING.\*

Having got abreast or opposite the mouth of the harbour,

haul the fore bowhne. " Ready about."t Put your helm up,

or to windward a little, and let the vessel go rather off the wind,

to get good way on her ; then gently down or to leeward with

it, which is announced by the helmsman calling " Helm's a-lee."

Let fly the jib-sheet : this takes off the balance of wind from

her head, and acts in concert with the helm in sweeping her

stern to leeward, or rather in allowing her head to come quicker

up into the wind.

The man who attends the jib -sheet must carefully gather in

the slack J of the one opposite to that which he let go. When

the jib comes over the larboard side of the stay§, haul the lar-

board jib-sheet well aft. When the mainsail is filled, let draw

the foresail.il Right the helm, and shift over the tack of the

mainsail.

One hand should attend the main-sheet, to gather in the

\* To turn a vessel from one side to the other with her head toward the

wind. When a vessel is oblig-ed to tack several times successively to get to

windward, she is said to be beating to windward ; when to get up or down a

harbour, channel, &amp;c., beating up or down, &amp;c. ; when trying to get off a lee

shore, clawing off.

A vessel's tacks are always to windward and forward ; and her sheets, to

leeward and aft ; whence the terms larboard or starboard tack, meaning that

she has her tacks aboard on the larboard or starboard side.

t A command that all hands are to be attentive, and at their stations for

tacking.

t Or loose rope.

§ The fore-stay, or large rope from the lower mast head to the stem head,

to prevent the mast from springing when the vessel is sending deep, or fallen

into the hollow between two waves, after pitching.

II That is, let go the bowline which holds the sail to this, now weather

shroud. It was held there till now, that the wind might act upon it with

greater power to turn the vessel, from the time her head was about half-way

round. The expression is derived from its being necessary, in larger vessels

of a similar rig, to ease the rope gradually as the sail draws it. From the

time the jib-sheet is let fly, till the foresail is let draw, the vessel is said to be

in stays.

REEFING, TAKING IN SAIL, ETC. 117

slack till the boom is a-midships, and then ease it off as the

sail fills, and the vessel lays over to port. When the vessel is

in stays, and it is doubtful whether she will come round, or, in

order to make her come round when she gathers stern-way,

shift the helm to the opposite side. She is now about upon

the starboard tack.

REEFING, TAKING IN SAIL, ETC.

Haul the fore-sheet up to windward ; bowUne it there, and

heave her to. Keep the tiller shipped, and lash it a-lee. In gaff

topsail ; lower the halyards ; and haul down. Send a hand aloft

to unbend the sheet from the sail, and make it fast to the main

halyard bolt; and unlash the gaff topsail, and send it down.

Lower the main halyards and peak to the second reef cringle,

and reef the mainsail.

Hook the reef tackle\* to the first earing f ; haul upon it till

the cringle J is close down upon the boom ; and belay the tackle.

Pass a small gasket § through the tack and the first reef cringle,

and lash the two firmly together, taking care to gather in snug

the luff of the sail, so that the leach rope belonging to it forms a

sort of snake near the mast. Haul up the tack, and bowse upon

the weather peak line, keeping the other part fast a-midships of

the boom. This will hold the belly of the sail partly to wind-

ward, and make it easier to tie the reef-points. Observe to

keep the foot-rope outside and under the sail.

Let one man jump upon the boom to tie the outer points so

\* A small tackle formed of two hook blocks, one of wliich is hooked to the

under part of the boom about one third from the mast, and the other farther

aft. The fall is belayed to a cleat under the boom,

t A stout rope, one end of which is made fast to the boom at the same

distance from the mast as the reef cringle to which it belongs. It ascends,

passes through the cringle, descends and passes through a sheave on the side

of the boom, then in board, and is stopped to the boom by means of its lan-

yard, or small line spliced into its end for the purpose. This lanyard is also to

make it fast when the sail is reefed, and you wish to remove the tackle.

t A short loop of rope with a thimble or small ring of iron inside it, spliced

to the leach of the sail.

§ A rope made by plaiting rope-yams.

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far that the rest can be tied on board. Let go the tack and

peak Une, always keeping the ends of this fast under the boom.

Hoist the sail taut up ; and set taut the tack tackle. Shift the

jil) to No. 2. Overhaul the jib purchase ; let go the outhaul ;

haul the jib down ; unhook the tack ; unbend the sheets ; and

send the sail down below.

You have now got one reef in the mainsail. If it come on

to blow harder, and you want a second reef, lower the sail, and

haul on the peak line as before ; nipper the first reef-earing so

as to hold it a short time ; let go the reef tackle, and unhook it

from the earing, which make fast with its lanyard round the

boom.

You have now got the tackle to use for the second reef. Pro-

ceed as for the first reef. Shift the jib to No. 3, and proceed

as before. If third, the same, after rigging the bowsprit. Take

the fid\* or bolt out of the heel of the bowsprit, and rig the

bowsprit in about one fid hole. Haul taut the topmast stay and

bowsprit rigging. Bend and set the small jib in the same way

as any other.

You may want to stow the mainsail, set the trysail, and make

her otherwise snug in proportion. Sway away upon tlie top

rope ; lift the mast a little to let the man unfid it ; and lower

topmast down in the slings. Lower the fore halyards, and reef

the foresail. Gather the luff of the sail up ; make the fore-

most reef-earing cringle fast to the tack ; shift the sheet from

the clue of the sail to the after reef cringle ; and tie the points.

If the weather is very heavy, haul down the stay-sail, and tend

the vessel with a tackle upon the weather jib-sheet.

When it comes fine weather again, make sail in precisely the

reverse order to that in which you shorten it. Continue to

tack in the wind's eye till you are to windward of the harbour.

\* A bar of wood or iron, which passes horizontally through a hole in each

bitt and the heel of the bowsprit, to secure it in its place, much in the same

way that a carriage pole is secured.

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PASSING OTHER VESSELS.

All vessels sailiug before the wind keep out of the way of

those upon the wind. In the river Thames, vessels which sail

with the larboard tack aboard, keep away for those with the

starboard tack aboard.

Lower and haul down the gaff topsail. Let go the jib tack

or outhaul\*; lower the jib; and pull on the dov^n-hauler, to

bring the traveller in. Haul the tack of the mainsail up ; and

lower the peak. Down foresail.

Let a small boat run away the vn\*ap to the quay. Lower, and

stow the mainsail. Unbend the jib, and stow it below if dry

and not immediately wanted, and hook the halyards to the

traveller, close in by the stem. If otherwise, hoist upon the

halyards, and let it hang to dry if it require it, or stop it up

and down the foremost shroud. Haul the vessel to the moor-

ings, and moor properly, putting fenders over to keep her from

the quay.

DESCRIPTION OF PLATE XXXI.

Fig. 1.

The mariner's compass.

BRINGING THE VESSEL INTO HARBOUR.

Fig, 2.

Plan of the deck, with the bowsprit rigged out, &amp;c.

1. Bowsprit.

2. 2. Bowsprit shrouds.

3. Stem head.

4. Bowsprit bitts.

5. Fore hatchway.

6. Windlass and bitts.

7. Fore-sheet horse.

8. Place of the mast.

9. 9. Channels.

10. Main hatchway.

IL Companion and binnacle.

12. Tiller.

13. Cabin skylight.

14. Rudder-head and case.

15. Taflrail.

\* A rope made fast to the traveller, to haul it out to the bowsprit end.

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SAILING.

PLATE XXXII. fig. 1.

Pleasure boat, cutter-riggedj lying at anchor; foresail and

mainsail bent and stowed.

1. Vane and spindle.

2. Truck.

3. Topmast.

4. Cap.

5. Trussel trees.

6. Lower mast.

7. 7. Cross trees.

8. Bowsprit.

9. Gaif, with mainsail furled.

0. Main boom.

11. Tiller.

12. Rudder.

13. Stem.

14. 14. Topmast shrouds.

15. Topmast backstay.

Topmast stay.

Runner and tackle.

Traveller.

Channel.

Forestay with the foresail furled

to it.

Bobstay.

Topping-'lifts.

Topping-lift blocks.

Main-sheet.

25. Peak halyards.

Jib halyards.

Cable.

Fore-sheet.

PLATE XXXII. fig. 2.

The vessel going down the harbour with all sails set, steering

south, before a light breeze.

1. Gaff topsail.

2. Foresail.

3. Mainsail.

4. Tack tricing line.

5. Peak line, or signal halyards.

6. 7. 8. The 1st, 2nd, and 3rd reefs.

9. 9. 9. Reef-earings.

10. 10. 10. Cringles.

11. Balance reef.

12. Anchor stock.

13. Windlass.

14. Foresheet horse.

15. Main hatch.

16. Companion and binnacle.

PLATE XXXIII. fig, 1.

The vessel outside the harbour, steering east, with a smai-f:

breeze on the larboard beam.

1. Jib.

2. Foresail.

3. Anchor.

4. Eyebolt of the bowsprit shrouds.

PLATE XXXIII,

fig. 2.

The vessel trying for the harbour in a heavj' gale, close to the

wind as she can lay, on the starboard tack, under a reefed main-

sail and foresail, bowsprit reefed, and topmast lowered.

Boat close to tKewmcLoTLtlie StcLflDoax-cl\_tack.

RIDING.

The general art of riding, sometimes called manege riding, to

distinguish it from its modifications in road-riding, hunting,

racing, &amp;c., teaches us to place every part of the body so that it

can act upon the horse in every emergency, shows the effect of

all the aids or modes of guiding him, and enables us to render

him obedient to the slightest touch. By never suffering the

ascendancy to be transferred to the horse, by in general pre-

venting him from making all his speed, and by exhausting him

the sooner the more he exerts himself without permission, it

bestows upon the rider perfect security.

An intimate knowledge of this method is necessary even to

our abandoning it when convenient, to our adopting the styles,

afterwards to be described, for more extended and rapid paces,

or for long continued riding, to our suffering the horse to take

more or less of ascendancy, and to our, when necessary, easily

recovering that superiority of the hand, of which those who are

ignorant of this fundamental method are less capable.

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RIDING.

The recent practice has been to carry the foot rather more

forward than is represented in our Plates, approaching in this

respect, to the ancient position, as seen in the Elgin marbles, &amp;c.

A Parisian bit, which is attached to the mouth of the horse,

without a headstall, has been lately used. It is, however, appli-

cable only to horses, on account of its being retained in the

mouth by means of the side tusks, which mares do not possess.

It is composed of a semicircular bar of iron, which goes under

the chin, to which its concavity applies; while a short bar, firmly

attached to one of its ends, passes nearly balf-way through the

mouth. Through the other end of the semicircle is a hole, into

which, when the bit is on, must be screwed a bolt, similar to the

one just described. These two bolts, it is easily understood,

pass behind the tusks, and nearly meet in the centre of the

mouth.\*

THE HORSE AND EQUIPMENTS.

Plates XXXIV.XXXV.f.lgive better ideas of the horse and

his equipments than the longest and most detailed description.

The reader will therefore examine them in succession. We have

here only to add those circumstances as to the equipment of the

horse, which could not be communicated by that otherwise

briefer and more impressive method.

The shoes of a horse have much to do with his, and conse-

quently with his rider's, comfort. It is therefore important to

know that he is properly shod. To effect this, the shoe should

be fitted to the foot, and not the foot to the shoe.

Neither heel nor frog should be pared more than merely to

take ofi' what is ragged ; for no reproduction takes place here,

as in the case of the hoof. Farriers ruin nearly all horses by

\* The Sapdle {Fig. 1). — a, pommel ; b, cantle ; c, panel ; d, flaps ; e, stirrup

leather ; /, girths.

Bridles (Fig. 2)— a, b, headstall with the cheekstraps ; c, do. of the curb ;

d, do. of the bridoon or snaffle passing- through it over the poll ; e, nosetrap

(seldom found in any but military bridles) f, throatlash. Fig. 3. A twisted

snaffle-bit. Fig. 4. A plain snaffle-bit. Fig. 5. A Weymouth curb, with

chain and chainstrap (a) attached. Fig. 6. A common curb-bit, with the

upset in the mouthpiece.

n

I

THE HORSE AND EQUIPMENTS.

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doing otherwise. Indeed, they are not to he trusted with this

operation, which, after shoeing, any gentleman may perform

with his pocket-knife. The sole of the foot must not be hol-

lowed out, but only the outer wall pared flat or even with the

sole, and most at the toe. Nor, above all things, oug]\t the

farrier's finishing rasp all round the edge of the horn immedi-

ately above the shoe to be permitted. Neither ought nails to

be diiven far backward towards the heel, where the horn is softer

and more sensible, especially at the inner quarter. When a

horse has a high heel, the foot, except the frog, may be pared

flat, but not hollowed out or opened. When a horse has a low

heel, the foot should be pared only at the toes.

It is common to allow the fore part or toe of the hoof to grow

long, thereby throwing the horse much on his heels. This posi-

tion is unnatural, because, were the horse in a state of nature,

without shoes, the toe, from constant contact with the ground,

would be worn down to its proper level with the heel. This

growth, then, of the fore part of the hoof, by throwing him on

his heels, renders them tender, and causes lameness : while the

foot, not being flat on the ground, also strains the ligaments of

the fetlock joint. These evils may be obviated by doing as

nature directs — by cutting away the toe to the proper level with

the heel, so as to allow the foot to bear flat upon the ground.

When a horse has a short pastern, he should have a short shoe,

because a long one would compel him to bring his heel more

backward than the unpliableness of his pastern would easily

admit.

The saddle should be proportioned to the size of the horse.

Before, the bearings should be clear of the plate bone ; behind,

they should not extend further than within four inches of the ■\*

hips ; and their pressure should be equal on every part intended

to be touched. The closer the saddle then comes the better, if

neither the weight of the rider nor settling of the panel can

possibly injure the withers or chine. Before mounting, the

rider should examine whether the saddle, girths, straps, bits,

bridle, &amp;c,, are all good and well fixed.

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RIDING.

When the saddle is on the horse, the lowest part of the seat

should rather be behind its centre, as it is there that the weight

of the body should fall, and by that means the thighs can keep

their proper position. The best test of the adaptation of the

seat is, when the rider, without stirrups or effort, easily falls into

his proper place in the saddle.

Stirrups should not be used until the pupil is capable of riding

"without them. Their proper length is when the upper edge of

the horizontal bar reaches a finger's breadth below the inner

ankle-bone. When the feet are in the stirrups, the heels should

be about two inches lower than the toes. No more than the

natural weight of the limbs should be thrown upon them. It is

by an accurate position, and an easy play of the ankle and in-

step, that the stirrup is retained, so as to shp neither forward

nor backward, even if the toe be raised for a moment"

The position on horseback with stirrups differs from that

without them only in this, that the thigh being, by the stirrup,

relieved from the weight of the leg and foot, the knee is slightly

bent, and rather before the lines which these form in the posi-

tion without stirrups. In hussar riding, hunting, &amp;c., the breadth

of four fingers should intervene between the fork and the saddle

when the rider stands up.

Spurs should never be used but by an accomplished rider.

When it is necessary to employ them, they should be applied a

few inches behind the girth, as low as possible, and with the

lightest touch capable of producing the effect.

As to the bridle, in order to give the greatest possible ease to

the snaffle, a large and polished bit is necessary. Most bits are

too small and long, bend back over the bars of the horse's jaw,

work like pincers, and cut his mouth.

To give the greatest degree of severity, the bit, while hot, is

twisted into a spiral form, so as to present to the jaw a rough

and sharp surface, capable of pressmg the bars or lips with

greater or less severity. The degrees of punishment which this

bit is capable of inflicting are generally sufficient for all the pur-

poses of correction. It is therefore best to ride with a snaffle^

THE HORSE AND EQUIPMENTS.

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and to use a curb only occasionally when absolutely necessary.

In all cases, the rider should observe that the horse is furnished

with a bit proper for him. If too light, it may have the effect

already described. If too heavy, it may incline him to carry the

head low, or to rest upon the hand, which jockeys call " making

use of a fifth leg." The simplest and most useful of the curb

kind is the Weymouth bit, which consists of a strong plain

mouth-piece of uniform thickness, without any upset, but merely

a curve forwards, to give ease to the tongue.

The centre of the reins should be accurately marked ; and,

when both reins are held in one hand, and the near rein has to

pass under the little finger, and over the fore-finger, on the out-

side of the ofi'-rein, the latter should be held about half an inch

shorter, and the centre should be brought proportionally towards

the left. In adjusting the bridle on the horse's head, the head-

stall, parallel to and above the cheekbone, must have its length

so regulated as to permit the mouth-piece of the curb to rest on

the bars, an inch above the lower tushes in horses, and about

two inches above the corner teeth in mares, which have no

tushes. The nose-band, lying under the snaffle headstall, must

be buckled so loosely that a finger can pass freely under it and

over the horse's nose. The bit of the snaffle must be higher,

but not so much so as to wrinkle the corner of the mouth. The

throat-lash must be buckled rather loose. The mane is usually

cut close under the headstall ; the finger clears any part of the

foretop interfering with it ; and the remainder, when combed

smooth, is put either over or under the front.

If the rider uses a curb, he should make it a rule to hook on

the chain himself ; for the quietest horse may bring his rider

into danger, if the curb hurt him. The curb-chain must pass

under the snaffle. The rider should, therefore, put his right

hand under the snaffle reins to take hold of the curb-chain, and

introducing two fingers of Ks left within the cheek of the bit,

and aiding these with his thumb, take hold of the curb hook. The

end links of the curb-chain being in his right hand, he should

turn the chain to the right and under, or as he would a screw, till

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every link lies flat and smooth, and then, without losing a half

turn, put that link on the hook which appears to be neither

tight nor slack. The finger should pass between the horse's

jaw and curb, which in this case hangs down upon his under

lip. It is necessary also to see how it operates. If the branch

has liberty to move forty-five degrees, or to a right angle, it is

the degree which is in general best. If, however, one link of

the chain confine it to thirty-five degrees, and if one link lower

give it fifty-five degrees, then the manner of the horse's carry-

ing his head must determine which is most proper : if the horse

natm'ally carry his nose high, the branch may have fifty-five, if

he bring his nose in, he should have thu'ty-five degrees. If

there be a chain-strap, it must be placed so high on the branch,

that when passed through the ring in the curb-chain, it may be

buckled tight enough to prevent the horse lodging the branch

on his teeth.

When a horse's head is steady, when he is light in hand, can

obey its motions mth ease, and stop readily, the bit is properly

adjusted. On the contrary, if he open his mouth as if gagged,

writhe his jaws, draw his tongue above the mouth-piece, or

thrust it out sidewise ; if he fear the impression of the bit, have

no appuy, toss his head up and down, carry it low, and en-

deavour to force the hand, or refuse to go forward, or run back-

ward, the bit is not properly adjusted,

MOUNTING AND DISMOUNTING.

In mounting, the rider, — presenting himself rather before the

horse's shoulder, with his left breast towards that shoulder,

and with his whip or switch in his left hand, — takes, with the

right hand, the snaffle reins in the centre ; — introduces the little

finger of the left hand between them from before, the back of

that hand being towards the horse's head; — places the left

hand below the right on the neck of the horse, about twelve

inches from the saddle ; — draws with the right hand the reins

through the left, and shortens them, till the left has a light and

equal feeling of both reins on the horse's mouth ; — thi'ows, with

MOUNTING AND DISMOUNTING.

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the right hand, the reins to the oif side ; — takes, with the same

hand, a lock of the mane, brings it through the left hand, and

turns it round the left thumb : — and closes the left hand firmly

on the mane and reins.

The right hand, after quitting the mane, lays hold of the left

stirrup, the fingers being behind, and the thumb in front of it ;

— the left foot is raised and put into the stirrup as far as the

ball of it,PlXXXVf 2 the right foot is then moved until the

rider's face is turned to the side of the horse, and looking across

the saddle ; while the right hand is placed on the cantle, the

left knee against the saddle on the surcingle, with the left heel

drawn back, to avoid touching the horse's side with the toe ; —

by a spring of the right foot from the instep, not by any pull

with the right hand, the rider raises himself in the stirrup, the

knees firm against the saddle, the heels together, but drawn

back a little, and the body erect, and partially supported by the

right handP XXXVI f Ithe right hand moves from the cantle to

the pommel, and supports the body ; — the right leg at the same

time passes clearly over the horse's quarters to the off side; —

the right knee closes on the saddle ; the body comes gently into

it ; — the left hand quits the mane, and the right the pommel.

The left, or bridle hand, with the wrist rounded outwards,

is placed opposite the centre of the body, and at three

inches' distance from it ; — the right hand is dropped by the side

of the thigh ; — the stirrup is taken instantly with the right foot,

without the help of hand or eye; — the clothes are adjusted; —

and the whip is exchanged from the left hand to the right,

being held with the lash upwards, but inclining a little towards

the left ear of the horse, and never leaving the right hand,

except while mounting or dismounting, — (Plate XXXVI. f. 2.)

The horse is to be accustomed to stand till the rider request

him to move. The habit of unsteadiness is acquired from

grooms, who, on going out to water and exercise, throw them-

selves over a horse from some elevation, and give a kick to the

animal even before being fairly upon it. If a groom attend at

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mounting, he ought not to be suffered to touch the reins, but

only that part of the bridle which comes down the cheek.

In dismounting, the whip is to be returned into the left

hand ; — ^the right hand takes hold of the rein above the left ; —

the right foot quits the stirrup ; — the left hand slides forward

on the rein, to about twelve inches from the saddle, feeling

the horse's mouth very lightly ; — the right hand, dropping the

reins to the off side, takes a lock of the mane, brings it through

the left, and twists it round the left thumb ; — the fingers of the

left hand close on it ; — the right hand is placed on the pommel ;

the body being kept erect. The body is supported with the

right hand and left foot ; — the right leg is, without touching

the horse's hind-quarters or the saddle, brought gently to the

near side, with the heels close, care being take not to bend the

right knee, lest the spur should touch the horse ; — the right

hand passes at the same time to the cantle, to preserve the

balance, as in the act of mounting ; — ^the body is gently lowered

until the right toe touches the ground ; — resting on the right

foot, the left stirrup is quitted, and the left foot placed in hue

with the horse's hoofs ; — the hands remaining as in the former

motion. Both hands then quit their holds of the mane and

cantle ; — and the right hand lays hold of the snaffle rein near

the ring of the bit.

In mounting without stirrups, — after taking up the reins,

instead of seizing the mane, the rider lays hold of the pommel

and cantle, and, by a spring of both legs from the insteps,

raises the body to the centre of the saddle. By a second spring

of both arms, the right leg is carried over the horse, and the

rider enters his proper seat by closing the knees on the saddle,

and sliding gently into it.

In dismounting without stirrups, on either side of the horse,

the rider throws the weight of the body on the hands placed on

the pommel, and, by a spring, raises the body out of the saddle

before the leg is brought over the horse.

THE SEA.T.

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THE SEAT.

The seat must be understood in an extended sense as the

disposition of the various parts of the body, in conformity with

the action of the horse ; and its effect is the rider's being firm

in the saddle, when he might be otherwise thrown forward over

the horse's head, or backward over his tail.

The fundamental seat is that intermediate one of which all

others are modifications, and in which the rider sits when the

horse is going straight forward, without any bend in his posi-

tion. In describing this, it is first necessary to consider the

rider's relation to the horse. — He must sit on that part of the

animal's body which, as he springs in his paces, is the centre of

motion : from which, of course, any weight would be most

difficultly shaken. The place of this seat is that part of the

saddle into which the rider's body would naturally slide were he

to ride without stirrups. This seat is to be preserved only by

a proper balance of his body, and its adaptation to even the

most violent counteractions of the horse. Turf jockeys neces-

sarily sit further back, that they may employ the pulls.

It is necessary to consider the horseman in various parts, and

to explain their different functions: 1st, the lower part, as be-

ing here the principal one, namely, the thighs, with the legs as

dependent on them ; 2dly, the upper part, namely, the body,

with the arms dependent on it. The thighs, from the fork to

the knees, are commonly called the immovable parts, and upon

them the whole attitude depends. They must not wriggle or

roll, so as either to disturb the horse, or render the seat loose ;

but they may be relaxed when the horse hesitates to advance.

The legs occasionally strengthen the hold of the thighs by a grasp

with the calves ; and they likewise aid, support, and chastise the

horse. The body, from the fork upwards, must always be in a

situation to take the corresponding motion, and preserve the

balance. The position of the arms is dependent on that of the,

body, but they also exercise new functions. k

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As a good seat is the basis of all excellence in riding, we shall

consider these parts in detail.

In relation to the thighs, the rider, sitting in the middle of

the saddle, must rest chiefly upon their division, vulgarly called

the fork, and very slightly upon the hips. The thighs, turned

inward, must rest flat upon the sides of the saddle, without

grasping ; for the rider's weight gives sufiicient hold, and the

pressure of the thighs on the saddle would only lift him above

it. The knees must be stretched down and kept back, so as to

place the thighs several degrees short of a perpendicular ; but

no gripe must be made with them, unless there be danger of

losing all other hold. If the thighs are upon their inner or flat

side in the saddle, both the legs and the feet vnR be turned as

they ought to be. Thus turned, they must be on a line parallel

to that of the rider's body, and hang near the horse's sides, but

must not touch ; yet they may give an additional hold to the

seat, when necessary, and the calves must act in support of the

aids of the hands. The heels are to be sunk, and the toes to

be raised, and as near the horse as the heels, which prevents the

heel touching the horse.

As to the body. — The head must be firm, yet free. The

shoulders thrown back, and kept square, so that no pull of

the bridle may bring them forward. The chest must be advanced,

and the small of the back bent a little forward.

The upper parts of the arms must hang perpendicularly from

the shoulders, the lower parts at right angles with the upper, so

as to form a horizontal line from the elbow to the little finger.

The elbows must be lightly closed to the hips, and, without

stiffness, kept steady, or they destroy the hand. The wrist must

be rounded a little outwards. The hands should be about three

inches from the body, and from the pommel of the saddle, and

from four to six inches apart ; the thumbs and knuckles point-

ing towards each other, and the finger nails towards the body,\*

When the rider is in the proper position on horseback with-

\* When in motion round the manage, or the circle, the inward hand, or

that towards which we turn, is to be a httle lower than the outward one.

THE BALANCE.

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out stirrups, liis nose, breast, knee, and instep are nearly in a

line ; and, with stirrups, his nose, breast, knee, and toe, are in

a line. — (PlXXXVI.The man and the horse throughout are to

be of a piece. When the horse is at liberty, or disunited, as

it is termed, the rider sits at his ease ; and, as he collects and

unites hxs horse, so he collects and unites himself. There must,

however, be no stiffness of manner, more than in sitting on

a chair; for it is ease and elegance which distinguish the

gentleman.

THE BALANCE.

The balance in riding preserves the body from that inclination

to one side or the other which even the ordinary paces of the

horse, in the trot or gallop, would otherwise occasion. It ac-

companies and corresponds with every motion of the animal,

without any employment of strength, and consequently, the

rider sits so firmly that nothing can move his seat. His skill

consists essentially in balancing himself on the horse in such a

manner as not to fetter the animal's movements. To illustrate

this, if the horse work straight and upright on his legs, the

body must be in the same upright direction : as the horse moves

into a trot, the body must be inclined a little more back ; in the

gallop, also in leaping, or in any violent movements, the body

must chiefly be kept back ; and, when the horse bends and

leans, as he does when on a circle, or trotting briskly round a

corner, the body must lean similarly, or the balance will be

lost. Throughout the whole, the figure must be pliant to every

action of the horse ; for the balance can be maintained only by

as many different positions as he is capable of working in.

To help his balance, the rider must never take the slightest

assistance from the reins. Whatever the position of the body,

the hand must be fixed, and the reins of such a length as to

feel and support the horse, but never to hold on. To acquire

the balance, the practice on circles, or the longe, is useful ;

working equally to both hands, and not using stirrups till the

pupil has acquired the balance without them. Experience

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proves that the body, if in the manege seat and fundamental

position, almost involuntarily takes the corresponding motiom,

whether the horse stumbles, rears, springs forward, or kicks.

THE KEIN-HOLD.

There are various methods of holding the reins, according

to the style of riding, the design of the rider, and the propen-

sities of horses.

In holding the snaffle-reins separately, one rein passes into

each hand, between the third and fourth fingers, and out of it

over the fore-finger, where it is held down by the thumb. —

(PI XXXVII f. I.) When afterwards further advanced, the

reins are held in the left hand, as at first taken up ; the left

rein passing under the little finger, and the right under the

third finger, both lying smooth through the hand, the super-

fluous rein hanging over the first joint of the fore-finger, and

the thumb being placed upon it.\*— (Plate XXXVII. fig. 2.)

Riders should not throw their right shoulders back, as they

are apt to do, when they first take the reins in one hand. The

right arm should hang by the side, with the hand by the side of

the thigh ; or, if holding the whip, it may be kept a little lower

than the left, in order not to obstruct the operation of the

bridle.

We have abeady said, that we think it best to ride with the

snaffle alone, and use the curb only occasionally. In this case,

the cm-b reins may have a slide upon them, and may hang on

the pommel of the saddle, or the horse's neck. When the rider,

however, holds the curb as well as the snaffle, having both, as

is most usual, in the left hand, — Avhile the curb reins are placed

as above described of the snaffle reins, the snaffle reins are placed

within them ; that is, the left snaffle rein enters under the

second, and the right under the first finger, and both pass up

\* Sometimes, however, the rij?ht rein is made to enter the hand from above

over the fore-finger, and crosses the left rein in the palm, where the fingers

close upon them, a loop or bow being formed of the residue between the

hand and body, whence it hangs down.— (Plate XXXVII. fig. 3.)

THE REIN-HOLD.

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through the hand, and out of it, over the fore-finger, precisely

as do the curb reins, except that they lie at first above, then

within, and lastly, under them.— (Plate XXXVII. fig. 4.)

Shifting the reins should be done expertly, without stopping

the horse, altering the pace, breaking the time, or looking to

the hands. When the snaffle reins are held in one hand, the

method of shifting from the left hand is as follows : — Turn the

thumbs towards each other ; carry the right hand over the left ;

in place of the little finger of the left hand, put the fore-finger

of the right hand downwards between the reins ; lay the reins

smoothly down through the right hand, and place the thumb

upon the left rein between the first and second joint of the

fore-finger.— (PI XXXVII . f. 5.) To shift them again into the

left hand, it is only necessary to carry the left hand over the

right ; to put the little finger of the left hand downwards be-

tween the right and left reins ; to place them smoothly upward

through the hand, and to let the ends hang over the fore-finger,

as at first.— (Plate XXXVII. fig. 6.)

When both curb and snaffle reins are held in the usual

method, we shift them into the right hand in a similar manner,

by turning the thumbs toward each other ; carrying the right

hand over the left ; putting the fore-finger of the right hand

into the place of the little finger of the left ; the second finger

of the right into the place of the third finger of the left ; and

the third finger of the right into the place of the second finger

of the left ; and laying the reins smoothly down through the

right hand.— (PI XXXVII. f. 7-) When we shift the reins

again to the left hand, we put the fingers of the left hand into

the places we took them from, and turn the reins smoothly

upward through the hand, and over the fore-finger. — (Plate

XXXVII. fig- 8.)

Separating the reins is sometimes necessary. When a horse

refuses obedience to one hand, we use two. It is seldom, how-

ever, necessary to take more than one rein in the right hand ;

and this is the right rein of the snaffle only. For this purpose,

the rider turns the back of his right hand upwards, puts the

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iirst three fingers over the snaffle rein, receives it between his

httle and third fingers, lets the superfluous end hang over the

fore-finger, with the thumb upwards, as he does the bridle hand.

(Plate XXXVII. fig. 9.)

Adjusting the reins is shortening or lengthening them, wholly

or partially, as occasion may require. To adjust the whole, we

take the superfluous reins that hang over the fore-finger of the

left hand into the right, so that with that hand we support the

horse, and feel every step he takes; and we then open the

fingers of the left hand so as to slip it up and down the reins

smoothly and freely, and thereby adjust them to our pleasure.

To shorten the curb rein, and lengthen the snafile, we take in

the right hand the centre of the curb rein, that hangs over the

fore-finger, slip the whole of the reins too long, pass the left

hand down them, and feel with the fingers whether both the

curb reins are of equal length, before we grasp with the left

hand, or quit with the right. Similarly, we shorten the snafile,

and lengthen the curb, by taking in the right hand the centre of

the snaffle that hangs over the fore-finger, and proceeding in the

same way.

When any single rein wants shortening, we apply the right

hand to that part which hangs over the fore-finger, and draw it

tighter. When the reins are separate, or occupy both hands,

and want adjusting, we bring the hands together to assist each

other; remembering that the inner hand, or that which supports

the attitude the horse works in, is not to depart from its situa-

tion, so as to occasion any disorder, but that the outer hand is

to be brought to the inner, for the purpose of adjusting them.

THE CORRESPONDENCE.

To have a correct notion of the manner in which the hand

operates on the horse's mouth, it must be understood that the

reins, being held as described, are collected to such definite

length, that bracing the muscles of the hand would rein the

horse back, and easing them permit him freely to advance ; the

hand, for preserving a medium eflfect on the mouth, being only

THE ACTION.

half shut, and the knuckles near the wrist nearly open. The

hand, then, being connected to the reins, the reins to the bit,

the bit operating in the curb on the bars, and in the snaffle on

the lips, the rider cannot move the hand, and scarcely even a

finger, without the horse's mouth being more or less affected.

This is called the correspondence.

If, moreover, the hand be held steady, as the horse advances

in the trot, the fingers will feel, by the contraction of the reins,

a slight tug, occasioned by the cadence of every step ; and this

tug, by means of the correspondence, is reciprocally felt in the

horse's mouth. This is called the appuy

While this relation is preserved between the hand and mouth,

the horse is in perfect obedience to the rider, and the hand

directs him, in any position or action, with such ease, that the

horse seems to work by the will of the rider rather than by the

power of his hand. This is called the support\*

Now, the correspondence or effective communication between

the hand and mouth, — the appuy, or strength of the operation

in the mouth, — the support, or aid, the hand gives in the posi-

tion or action, — are always maintained in the manege and all

united paces. Without these, a horse is under no immediate

control, as in the extended gallop, or at full speed, where it may

require a hundred yards to pull before we can stop him.

THE ACTION.

The degree of correspondence, appuy, and support, depends,

in horses otherwise similar, on the relative situation of the hand.

The act of raising the rider's hand increases his power ; and

this, raising the horse's head, diminishes his power. The de-

pressing of the rider's hand, on the contrary, diminishes his

power; and this, depressing the horse's head, increases his power.

On these depend the unitedness or disunitedness in the action of

the horse.

A writer on this subject (Beranger, we believe) gives the fol-

lowing useful illustration : — " If a garter were placed across the

pupil's forehead, and a person behind him held the two ends in

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a horizontal direction, the pupil, if he stood quite upright, could

not pull at the person's hand, nor endure the person's hand to

pull at him, without falling or running backwards.'\* This is the

situation of a horse when united.

Accordingly, when the pupil felt the hand severe, or expected

it to pull, he would guard against it by bending the body, pro-

jecting the head, and planting one foot behind. This is the

situation of a horse when disunited, or defending himself against

the heaviness of the hand. Hence the perpetual pull of a timid

rider, or a heavy insensible hand, cannot keep a horse united,

because the horse cannot then bear its severity. Thus heavy

hands make hard-mouthed horses ; and hence it is in this con-

dition that we generally find horses, for the best broke become

so, if ridden a few times by an ignorant horseman. In such

cases, the horse makes the rider support the weight both of his

head and neck, or goes on his shoulders, and is apt to stumble.

If, then, the appuy be heavy, from the head being carried too

low, and the horse not sufficiently united, the rider must raise

the hand, and let the fingers, by moving, rather invite than

compel the head, or more properly the neck, to rise, for the

object is to bring in the head by raising the neck, the legs at

the same time pressing the haunches under. By these means,

the horse will be united, and the appuy will be lightened. Should

the hand, however, be too confining to the horse when united,

he may become so balanced on his haunches that he can neither

disunite himself nor advance one step; and, should the rider

then press him without yielding or di-opping the hand, he would

compel him to rear.

Such are the tw^o extremes, where the horse is disunited, and

where he is too much united. The intermediate effect of the

hand and heel must be acquired by practice.

THE HAND.

To a masterly hand, firmness, gentleness, and hghtness, are

very properly described as being essentially necessary.

Firmness of the hand does not, however, do more than cor-

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respond exactly with the feeling ia the horse's mouth, unless

the horse attempts to get the ascendancy, to abandon that deli-

cate correspondence producing the appuy, and keeping him

under the strictest obedience, and to make a dull or insensible

pull on the hand. To frustrate these attempts, the hand is kept

firm, and the fingers braced ; and, should the horse plant his

head low to endure this, the fingers are moved, the reins shaken,

&amp;c., to raise the head and divert him from his purpose; or, if

this be unavailing, the hand is yielded that the reins may become

slack, and a snatch is given in an upward direction, which will

not only make him raise his head, but will deter him from putting

it down again.

Gentleness of the hand relaxes a little of its firmness, and

mitigates the feeling between the hand and the horse's mouth,

without passing, however, from one extreme to another. Light-

ness of the hand lessens still more the feeling between the rider's

hand and the horse's mouth, and consists in a slight alternate

feeling and easing of the bridle, regulated by the motion of the

horse; for, if the appuy were always in the same degree, it

would heat the mouth, dull the feeling, and render the horse's

bars callous. The rider must also distinguish whether the horse

wishes to disengage himself from restriction, or wants a mo-

mentary liberty to cough, to move if cramped, to dislodge a

fly, &amp;c.

The curb, if used, requires always a hght hand to manage it ;

and the horse should never be put to do any thing in a curb at

which he is not perfectly ready. The curb is adapted for acting

in a direct line only : the snaffle should be used in all other

cases. Still, as to all these qualities, the transitions must be

gradual. Were the rider, passing over that degree of restraint

which is derived from the easy or gentle hand, to go at once

from a firm to a slack one, he would deprive his horse of the

support he trusted to, and precipitate him on his shoulders. On

the contrary, were he to pass from the slack to the tight rein all

at once, he would give a violent shock to the horse's mouth.

All the operations of the hand, then, should be firm, gentle.

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and light ; and in these, the fingers and wrist alone must act.

Certain liberties called descents of the hand, are also taken with

well-bred horses. These are made three difi'erent ways : — by

advancing the arm a Httle, but not the shoulder, still keeping

the usual length of rein, or by dropping the knuckles directly

and at once upon the horse's neck ; — by taking the reins in

the right hand, about four fingers' breadth above the left, and

letting them shde through the left, dropping the right hand at

the same time upon the horse's neck ; — and by taking the end

of the reins in the right hand, quitting them entirely with the

left, and letting the end of them fall upon the horse's neck.

These graceful freedoms must never be used but wdth great

caution, when the horse is quite together, and in hand ; and

the rider, by throwing back his body, must counterbalance the

weight of the horse upon his haunches.

There are still minuter rules belonging to this head ; for in-

stance, both snaJffle reins being in one hand, and that in the

first position, — if we open the first and second fingers, we

slacken the right rein ; — if we open the little finger, we slacken

the left rein ; — if we shut the hand entirely, and immediately

open it again, we lessen the tension of both reins. By these

methods, we may reheve and freshen the two bars in which the

feehng and appuy resides. So also in the second descent of the

hand. While the right hand holds the reins, we may shde the

left hand up and down these in that degree of appuy which belongs

to the easy and slack hand : during which the horse will endea-

vour to preserve that mutual sensation between the mouth and

the hand, which makes him submit with pleasure to constraint.

By this play of the rein and movement of the bit to avoid

pressure in one continued way, the horse's head is kept high,

and his neck and crest are raised.

THE GUIDANCE OR AIDS.

The modes of guiding the horse are called aids, because they

not only direct, but assist him to execute. They also check

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him in acting contrarily. These aids are certain positions of

the hand, body, legs, and sometimes of the switch or whip. The

hand is so far the principal of these, that the others are some-

times called accompaniments, as only giving power and efficacy

to the hand.

Aids of the Hand.

A horse can move four different ways — forward, to the right,

to the left, and backward ; but he cannot perform these motions

unless the hand of the rider makes four corresponding motions.

There are accordingly five different positions for the hand, in-

/ eluding the general one from which the other four proceed.

The five Positions when one Rein is held in each Hand.

In the first position, the reins pass up between the third and

fourth fingers of each hand, their ends are thrown over the

fore-fingers, the thumbs are closed on them, and the fingers are

shut : — the hands being held as already described in treating

of the seat. The second position consists of a slight relaxation

of the preceding, and permits the horse to advance. The third

position shortens the right rein rather upward, and turns the

horse to the right. The fourth position shortens the left rein

rather upward, and turns the horse to the left ; and the fifth

position shortens both reins, and stops or reins the horse

backwards.

The Jive Positions when the Reins are held in one Hand.

The aids of the hand, as forming these positions, when the

reins are held in one hand, may be very simply given by a

little extending, or bending the wrist, to make the horse advance,

or go backward, — and by slightly carrying the hand to the

right or to the left, and in both cases rather upward, to make

the horse turn in these directions.

The Twistings of the Bridle Hand.

Several modifications of the rules already given occur. We

do not, however, approve of these positions, as they, in a great

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measure, reverse and desti'oy the natural aids of tlie hand, by

leaving the right rein slack in the turn to the right, and the

left rein slack in the turn to the left. Indeed, they could not

possibly be obeyed by the horse, vrere it not that, on this point,

he seems to have more understanding than his rider, and draws

his conclusions as to the latter's intentions, not from the incon-

sistent action of his hand, but from the more natural accom-

panying aids of his body and legs. Fortunately, however, these

twistings of the bridle hand, though always taught, are, we

believe, rarely practised.

We give these positions here, only in compliance mth custom.

In the first position the under surface of the fore-arm and

hand forms a horizontal hue from the elbow to the joint of the

little finger ; the elbow is lightly closed to the hips ; the wrist

is rounded ; the knuckles are kept directly above the neck of

the horse, the hand being at three inches from the body, and as

much from the pommel of the saddle; the nails are turned

towards the body, the little finger being nearer to it than the

others ; the reins, in entering the hand, are separated by the

little finger ; and the thumb is placed flat upon them as they

pass out over the fore-finger.

In the second position the hand is yielded to the horse by

turning the nails downward, so as to carry the thumb nearer

the body, and the little finger further from it, yet somewhat

obliquely, for the thumb passes nearly into the place where the

knuckles were in the first position, the nails being now directly

above the horse's neck. This permits the horse to advance.

In the third position the hand, leaving the first, is turned

upside down, so that the thumb is carried out to the left, and

the little finger brought into the right. This carries the opera-

tion of the reins nearly three inches more to the right, by which

the left reins press the neck, the right reins are slack, and the

horse is turned to the right.

In the fourth position the hand, leaving the first, the back is

turned upward, so that the httle finger is carried out to the left,

and the thumb brought in to the right. This carries the opera-

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tion of the reins to the left, by which the right reins press the

neck, the left reins are slack, and the horse is turned to the left.

In the fifth position, quitting the first, the wrist is rounded,

the nails tiu'ned upwards, and the knuckles towards the horse's

neck. This stops him, or compels him to go backward.

These aids, however, when the reins are held in one hand,

are not so efi'ective as those where the reins are separate.

Aids of the Body.

To aid the second position of the hand, and cause the horse

to advance, the body may be thrown a httle forward, but not

so as to press hea\aly on his fore-parts. To aid the thii'd and

fourth positions of the hand, a mere turn of the body is suffi-

cient. — Thus, in entering an angle, it is only necessary to turn the

body imperceptibly toward the corner, just as if the rider intended

to go into it himself ; his body then turning to the right or

left, his hand must necessarily turn likemse, and the leg of the

side on which he turns will infallibly press against the horse,

and aid him. In coming out of a corner, it is only necessary to

turn the body again, the hand will follow it, and the other leg,

approaching the horse, will put his croupe into the corner, in

such a manner that it will follow the shoulders, and be upon the

same hne. — The same motion of the body is likewise necessary

to turn entirely to the right or left. To aid the fifth position

of the hand, and make the horse go backward, the body must

be thrown gently back, and the hand will go with it.

Aids of the Legs.

To aid the second position of the hand, and make the horse

advance, the legs must be closed. Even when a horse stands

still, the legs held near him will keep him on the w^atch, and

\\ith the shghtest upward motion of the bridle, he will raise his

head and show his forehead to advantage. To aid the third

position of the hand, and tm-n to the right, the right leg must

determine the croupe to the left, and facihtate the action of the

shoulder, which the hand had turned to the right. To aid the

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fourth position of the hand, and turn to the left, the left leg

must determine the croupe to the right. In making a change

to the right, the left leg confines the croupe, so that it must

follow the shoulders. In changing again to the left, the right

leg acts similarly. To aid the fifth position of the hand, and

stop the horse, while he is held in, the legs must be gently

brought to the sides.

The aids of the legs have their degrees progressively increas-

ing, thus : — the leg being brought nearer the side is the

lightest ; placing the leg further back, with the toe turned out,

is the next ; a touch with the calf of the leg, is the thu'd ; a

stroke with it, having the toe kept up firmly, that the muscles

of the leg may be hard, is the fourth ; and the strongest is the

scratch, which, when the legs are laid on hard without eff'ect, is

given by dropping the toe, when, if the spur be properly placed,

the rowel vdll scratch the horse's side, and this is succeeded by

giving the spur sharply. Aids with the whip are also used to

give greater efi"ect to the heel. These are gentle taps on the

hind quarters, and sometimes on the shoulders. Wlien given

on the near side, the hand is either apphed behind the back,

with the whip held by the fingers hke a pen, the lash being

downwards, or across the bridle-hand before, the whip being

held with the lash upwards.

ANIMATIONS, SOOTHINGS, AND CORRECTIONS.

Animations proceed from the hand, the leg, the whip, or the

tongue ; those of the hand and of the legs have been described

among the aids. Animations of the whip are mild taps to

quicken the horse, or, if the lash is upwards, switching it in the

air. Those of the leg and whip threaten punishment; and

accordingly, with sluggish horses, both may be necessary. The

animation of the tongue is produced by placing the tongue flat

against the roof of the mouth, and suddenly displacing the

posterior part of it by drawing the air laterally between

it and the palate. This noise is animating to the horse;

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but, if too much continued, or too frequent, its effect is

destroyed.

Sooth ings are the reverse of animations, and are used to

dispel the fears of horses, and to give them confidence. The

voice soothes by soft and mild tones ; the hand, by gentle

patting, or stroking : the body and legs, by relinquishing all

unnecessary firmness, and sitting easy. A horseman should

have perfect command of his temper, as well as invincible

patience and perseverance, to make the horse comprehend and

perform. He must demand but little the first time ; he will

be more readily obeyed the next ; and he may increase his

demands as the horse improves in habit and temper.

Corrections are given either with the spurs or switch, or by

keeping the horse in a greater degree of subjection. In these

a good horseman endeavours rather to work upon the mind

than the body of the horse. The corrections which render a

horse most obedient, and yet dishearten him least, are not

severe, but rather oppose him by restraint, and make him do

directly the contrary. If, for example, he do not go off readilv,

or if he be sluggish, make him go sidewise, sometimes to one

hand, sometimes the other, then drive him forward. — If he go

forward too fast, moderate the aids, and make him go back-

ward more or less according to his conduct. — If he be disorderly

and turbulent, walk him straight forward, with head in and

croupe out.

When correction is given with the whip, it should be with

strength ; the lash being upwards, the arm lifted high, and the

whip appKed behind the girths round the belly : or it may be

given forward, over the shoulders, between the fore-legs.

Should the horse kick at the application of the whip to his

flank or quarter, the rider must instantly apply it smartly, and

must repeat it more sharply, should he kick at that. By this,

he may be made sensible of his fault.

To give a horse both spurs properly, the rider must change

the posture of his legs, and, bending his knee, strike him with

them at once, quickly and firmly. Some horses disregard the

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whip, but fly at the spurs ; others disregard the spurs, and are

terrified at the whip; the rider consequently will apply that

which is most likely to produce the desired effect. When,

however, the whip or spurs are applied two or three times

sharply to restive horses without effect, the rider must desist,

and try other methods.

THE WALK.

The rider should not suffer his horse to move till his clothes

are adjusted, and whip shifted, when, collecting his reins, and

taking one in his right hand, he must close his legs, to induce

the horse to move slowly forward in the walk. If he wish to

increase the pace, the pressure of the knees must be increased.

When the horse moves, the legs must resume their former posi-

tion, — the hands remain perfectly steady, — and the body yield

to the movement.

As to character, the walk is the pace performed with the least

exertion; only one leg at a time being off the ground, and

three on. In this pace, accordingly, four distinct beats are

marked, as each foot comes to the ground in the following

order : — first the off fore foot, next the near hind foot, then

the near fore foot, and lastly, the off hind foot.\*

The perfection of the walk consists in its being an animated

quick step, measuring exact distances, and marking a regular

time, by putting the feet flat to the ground. Its excellence

depends on that uniting of the horse which supports his head

and raises his feet, without shortening or retarding the step ;

and that animation which quickens the step and sharpens the

beats without altering the time or the action.

In performance, if the rider do not support the horse sufii-

ciently, his head will be low, and his walk slovenly : if he

support him too much, he will shorten his step so that he cannot

\* The amble may perhaps be considered as a natural pace, as most foals,

following their dams, amble more or less to keep up with them. The diflfer-

ence between the walk and the amble is. that two legs of a side are raised in

the latter at the same instant.

Tie Stop

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walk freely. If the rider do not aniinate hira^ he will not exert

himself: if he animate him too much, he will trot. If the

liorse trot when the rider designs him to walk, he will find

either his hand or the degree of animation communicated by

the whip, tongue, legs, or bracing of the body, too high, and

this he must instantly modify, as well as check the horse.

(Plate XXXVIII. fig 1.)

Turns in the Walk.

Turns in general should be made slowly ; and all the aids

should combine in producing them.

In performance, the hand to which we turn, or inner hand, is

to be a little below the outer one, and the inner rein held with

double the force of the outer one, which is to be exerted by the

little finger pulling gently upwards and towards the body,

v.'hile the outer hand retains a steady hold of the outer rein.

At the same time, the legs, by a slight pressure with the calves,

must support the horse, keep him up to the bridle, make him

bring his haunches under him, and obey the leading rein. The

pressure of the inward leg alone would make him throw his

haunches too much outwards. All this is to be done in pro-

portion to the effect meant to be produced ; and great precision

and delicacy are required in the execution.

Wheels may also be briefly noticed here. A horse may wheel

or turn on his own ground, on three pivots, — on his centre, on

his fore feet, and on his hind feet. In all these, the hand

directs all before the horseman, and the heel all behind him. In

wheeling on centres, the hand and heel operate together — the

hand leading the shoulder round — the leg directing the croupe,

by which means, in going about, the fore feet describe one half-

circle, and the hind feet another. Here the aids of the hand,

body, and legs, must exactly correspond; and the degree of

appuy must be merely such as wiW carry its aid into effect ; for,

if the appuy is too weak, the horse will advance over his ground,

and if too strong, he will retire from it.

On terminating the wheel or quarter circle, the about or

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half-circle, or the about and about, or whole circle, the hand,

the body, and leg, must instantly resume their proper position.

The wheel on the fore, and that on the hmd feet, are still more

rarely of use in common practice.

Stops in the Walk.

Horses and horsemen generally stop by a gradual cessation of

action, in a time and distance which depend on circumstances.

As. to character, however, the stop, when properly performed,

is an instant cessation of advance, without any previous indi-

cation.

When the stop is properly performed, it shows the gi-eat

superiority of the rider's hand over the horse. It confirms him

in obedience, unites him, supples the haunches, and bends the

houghs. Much mischief, however, may occur from a too fre-

quent or injudicious practice of it. The perfection of the stop

consists in the action ceasing at the finish of a cadence, without

breaking the previous time ; and in the horse being so balanced

on his haunches, and so animated, that, with liberty given, he

can advance with the same rapidity as before.

In performance, the time to be seized is when the first part of

the cadence is coming to the ground ; so that its finish com-

pletes the stop. If this is not done, the cadence will be broken,

and the stop rendered irregular. At such a moment, the stop

is performed by the rider bracing his arms to his body, holding

both reins equally and firmly, drawing the fingers towards the

body, closing for an instant both legs, to press the horse up to

the bridle, and throwing the body back, with precisely such

strength of aU the muscles as is proportioned to the effect ; all

this being done at the same instant, and making but one motion.

If the rider do not close his legs, the horse may not bring his

haunches under, the stop will be on the shoulders, and its effect

will be destroyed.

If, in stopping, a horse toss up his nose, or force the hand, the

bridle hand must be kept low and firm, no liberty must be

given, his neck must be pressed with the right hand till he has

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brought down his nose, and immediately all his bridle may be

given him. (Plate XXXVIII. " fig. 2.) If the horse'^has

not readily obeyed, he should be made to go backwards, as a

proper punishment for the fault.

Going Backicard in the Walk.

The action of the horse when he goes backward is to bend

his haunches, to have always one of his hinder legs under his

belly, on which to rest and balance himself, and to push his

croupe backwai'd. In performance, the horse's head must be

steady and right, his body gathered up under him, he must be

upon his haunches, and his feet be even. To aid him in this,

there should be an equal and steady feeling of both reins ; the

hand must be held centrically, and kept from rising, with the

knuckles a little do\^^l, inviting the horse to back ; the body

bent a little forward, with the belly drawn in; and the legs

gently pressing the sides of the horse, in order to keep him up

to the bridle, and to prevent him from sv/erving.

The instant he yields to the hand, the body and hand yield to

the horse, that he may recover his balance ; and he may then

be pressed to back again. If either the deviation of the hand

from its centrical situation, or any other cause, make the croupe

go off the line m an opposite direction, the heel must support

and dii-ect him. Thus, should the croupe traverse to the right,

the right leg must direct ; and, to assist, the hand must be

carried a little to the right ; but this must be done with delicacy,

lest the croupe be thrown too much to the left. Here the hand

and the heel change their functions ; the hand compels the

action, and the heel du\*ects it.

THE TROT.

As to the character of the trot, when we m-ge the horse to

proceed faster than he can by moving one leg after the other

in the walk, we oblige him to take up two at a time in the trot.

Here the off fore-foot and the near hind-foot give one beat ;

and the near fore-foot and the off hind-foot give another ; so

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that there are two legs crosswise off the ground, and two legs

on ; the beats being sharp and quick, in proportion to the degree

of animation and extension.

The perfection of the trot consists in its suppleness, giving

the horse a free use of his limbs ; in its union, distributing his

labour more equally, his fore legs having more to sustain than

the hind, especiallj\* when he is disunited, or on the shoulders ;

and in its action, which should be true and equal, the liberty

of the fore-quarters not exceeding the hind, nor the hind the

fore — the knee being up, the haunches bent, springy, and pliant,

the step measuring exact distances, and marking a regular time.

In the trot, there is a leading foot, either right or left, by which

the corresponding side is a little more advanced than the other.

This leading with either foot is valuable, as, in horses that have

not been thus suppled, if chance or fatigue makes them change

their leg for that which they are not accustomed to, the action

is stiff, confined, and irregular.

Kinds of Trot.

There are three kinds of trot — the extended, the supple, and

the even.

In the extended trot, the horse steps out without retaining

himself, being quite straight, and going directly forwards.

In the supple trot, at every motion he bends and plays the

joints of his shoulders, knees, and feet.

In the even trot, he makes all his limbs and joints move so

equally and exactly, that his limbs never cover more ground one

than the other, nor at one time more than at another.

These three kinds of trot depend upon each other. We can-

not pass a horse to the supple trot without having first worked

him to the extended trot ; and we can never arrive at the even

and equal trot without having practised the supple. To pass

from the extended to the supple trot, the horse must be gently

and by degrees held in. When, by exercise, he has attained

sufiicient suppleness to manage his limbs readily, he must

insensibly be held in more and more, till he is led to the equal

trot.

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The Trot in particular.

Tn performance the rider must apply, for an instant,

both legs to his horse's sides ; aiid at the same time raise the

fore hand by drawing the lower finger on each side rather

upwards and towards the body, avoiding all jerks or sudden

motions.

During the trot he must sit close to the saddle, preserving

his seat by the balance of his body, and not by the pressure of

the knees ; he must neither rise nor stand in the stirrups ; his

body must incline a little backwards ; the whole figure must

partake of and accompany the movements of the horse ; and

he must keep the hands up in their proper situation, steady and

pliant, preserving a due correspondence, and just appuy. If

the action be too rapid, it must be checked by strengthening

the hand. If the action be too slow, it may be quickened by

easing the fingers, and giving more animation.

To give more animation, and encourage the horse to put his

foot out freely, the rider must support his fore hand up, and

his haunches under, by a touch of the fingers, the excitement

of the tongue, the switch of the whip, or the application of the

legs, varied so as not to lose their efi'ect. If the action be not

sufficiently united, that also must be corrected.

To unite the horse, the reins must be collected, and the

head raised. By bringing his haunches under him, he may

be pressed up to the bridle by the aid of the legs; care being

taken that this is not done hastily or violently. He must

not, however, be confined in the hand, in expectation of

raising him, and fixing his head in a proper place, as by this

means his bars and mouth would soon grow callous.

The most certain sign of a horse's trotting welZ is, that

when, in his trot, the rider presses him a little, he offers to

gallop. If the horse gallop when he ought not, the waist

should be pushed forwards toward the pommel of the saddle,

and a bend or hollow at the same time be made in the loins.

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Turns, Stops, 8fC. in the Trot.

As to turnSj seeing that the operations directed to be per-

formed at the walk are to be practised in the trot, nothing

fui'ther need be said of them. As stops are required to coin-

cide with cadences, it must be observed, that the first part of the

cadence in the trot is performed by the two feet that lead ; and

that the conclusion of the cadence is performed by the two feet

that follow, and this should complete the stop. The rider should

occasionally alter the measure of the action, by strengthening

the hand, and at the same time keeping up a sufficient degree

of animation to prevent the horse from stopping. He may then

give him liberty, and proceed with the same spirit as before.

He may make a stop ; and may even rein him back two or

three steps ; in both cases keeping him so united and animated

iLat the instant the hand gives him liberty he advances as

rripidly as before. (Plate XXXIX. fig 1.)

ROAD RIDING.

Road riding is here introduced, because the trot is its most

appropriate pace.

The difference between manege and road riding, consists

chiefly in a shorter seat and a shorter stirrup being used in the

latter. A certain freedom and ease are also admissible. These,

however, must not exceed propriety, lead to neglect of the

horse, or risk security. The hand should keep its situation and

l)roperty, though the body be turned to any extreme for the

purpose of viewing or conversing ; and the body must not, by

any freedom it takes, throw itself out of balance, or take

liberties when it cannot be done with safety.

When the trot is extended to an unpleasant roughness, the

jolting may be eased by rising upward and slightly forward in

the stirrups. T«e faster the horse trots, the easier it is to rise ;

for it is the action of the horse, and not any effort of the rider,

that must raise him. The foot he leads with determines that

which the rider must rise to ; and, if the horse change his foot.

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he must cliange with him. He must accordingly rise aud fall

with the leading foot, rising when the leading foot is in the air,

and falhng when it comes to the ground. The rise and fall of

the body are to be smooth, and as regular as the beats of the

feet.

Though this is called rising in the stirrups, no great stress or

dependence is to be put on them. Such improper use of the

stirrups causes many persons to be thrown, by the horse shying

or suddenly turning round. The rising of the body must not

be accompanied by any motion of the arms, or lifting of the

shoulders. The hand is to be held steady as well as low, to

prevent galloping (which the forwardness of the haunches

would render inevitable if the hand were either eased or lifted),

and the reins should be of that precise length which preserves

as much correspondence as possible between the hand and

mouth. The steadiness of the hand is also necessary for the

support of the horse.

The slight inclination of the body permitted in road riding

must not occasion any roundness in the back, which is invariably

to be hollow, not only for appearance sake but for safety. The

action of the body likewise must not cause the legs to move or

press the horse, which might cause him to gallop. In trotting,

the rider must pay the greatest attention to correct every pro-

pensity to lift, hitch, overrate, or gallop; and, whenever he

feels these propensities, he must check them with the greatest

nicety, in order not to retard the horse's speed.P XXXIX. f. 2.

iUustrates the Seat, &amp;c., in Road Riding.\*)

\* In road riding, the rule of taking the right hand of all you pass is well

known ; but there are some exceptions, which are thus noticed by Mr.

Bunbury, in his ironical style : —

" In riding the road, should a man on horseback be in your way leading

another horse, always dash by the led one ; you might otherwise set the man's

horse capering, and perhaps throw him off ; and you can get but a kick or

two by observing my instructions.— In passing a waggon, or any tremendous

equipage, shoiild it run pretty near a bank, and there be but a ditch, and an

open country on the other side, if you are on business, and in a hurry, dash

up the bank without hesitation ; for, should you take the other side, and the

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THE GALLOP.

As to the character of the gallop, when we press a horse m

the trot beyond his capacity, or animate him with the legs while

we raise or retain him with the hand, we compel him to lift his

two fore-feet after each other, which commences the gallop.

The near fore-foot is first raised from the ground ; then the off

fore-foot, which, however, passes the other, and they come to

tlie ground in the same order, the near fore-foot making one

beat, and the off fore-foot another, that being the most advanced

or leading foot. The hind feet follow in the same manner; the

near hind-foot marking a third beat, and the off hind-foot

passing forward, and marking a fourth beat. Thus, when this

pace is united and true, the feet mark a regular, sharp, and

quick time of one, two, three, four. The perfection of the gal-

lop consists in the suppleness of the limbs, the union of the

horse, the justness of the action, and the regularity of the

time.

The gallop is of three kinds — that of the racer, that of the

hunter, and that of the pleasure horse, commonly called the

canter. The last of these is by far the most difficult, as it re-

quires skill to fore-shorten and throw the horse on his haunches.

In the gallop, as in the trot, there is a leading foot. On a

straight line, it is immaterial with which fore-leg the horse

leads, provided the hind-leg of the same side follows it. Bvft to

lead always with the same leg is injurious. In galloping to the

right, the horse must lead with the inward or off fore-leg, fol-

lowed by the off hind- leg. This action is termed true or united.

— (Plate XL. \* shows this in the canter.) In galloping to

horse shy at the carriage, you may be carried many hundred yards out of your

road ; whereas, by a little effort of courage, you need only graze the wheel,

fly up the bank, and by slipping or tumbling down into the road again, go

little or nothing out of your way."

\* In galloping to the right, if the horse lead with the off fore-leg and near

hind-leg, or if he lead with the near fore-leg and off hind-leg, he is said to be

disunited. If, in galloping to the right, he lead with both near legs, he is

said to be false.

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the left, he must lead with the inward or near fore-leg, followed

by the near hind-leg. This also is termed true or united.\*

The Canter in particular.

To put the horse to the canter from rest at any spot, or from

any pace, he must be pressed with the legs, or animated with

the tongue, and at the same time, by a motion of the fingers, and

a little raising of the hand, be invited to raise the fore-legs. If

he do not obey this, the animation must be increased, and the

hand kept more firm, to prevent his trotting ; and this will con-

strain him to raise his fore-legs together. It is also necessary

to direct the foot he is to lead with. That of course is the inner,

which he will readily take by putting the croupe in, by means

of the opposite thigh, thereby enabling him to advance the

inner side.

As the position of the horse renders necessary a correspond-

ing position of the horseman, it will readily be seen that which-

ever side the horse leads with, the rider's thigh on that side

must be rather more turned in towards the saddle, and the hip

on that side brought more forward, and consequently that the

other thigh must be a little turned outward, and the hip brought

backward ; and all this more or less in proportion to the position

of the horse. This turn of the hip effects a turn of the body.

The hands are carried with it, and at the same time kept up, rather

above than below the elbow, and quite steady, that the cadence

of every step, and the support given by the hand, may be

felt. The rider's head is of course to be directed to the horse's

nose, his eye glancing on the ground the horse's fore-feet go over.

If the horse strike off" with the wrong leg, false or disunited,

the rider, at the first corner, must endeavour, by an additional

feeling of the inward rein, and application of the outward leg,

to make him change, and lead with the proper one. When he

\* In galloping' to the left, if the horse lead with the near fore-leg and off

hind-leg, or if he lead with the off fore-leg and near hind-leg, he is said to be

disunited. If, in galloping to the left, he lead with both off legs, he is said

to be false.

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leads with the proper leg, the hand must resume its usual posi-

tion, the rider bending him a little inwards by shortening the

inward rein ; the fingers slackened, if necessary, to let him

advance; but the hand kept up, and every cadence felt of tl e

fore-feet coming to the ground.

There is far more skill displayed in keeping up an animated

action in the canter, at the rate of three miles an hour, than in

the gallop, at that of twelve or fifteen. If the animation fail,

or the action be not supported by the hand, the horse will

break into a trot, particularly as the gallop is shortened or

united. If the action is felt to be declining, it must be cor-

rected instantly, by an animating touch of the fingers, the leg,

or the tongue. The hand first discovers this declension, and is

the first to correct it.

When the rider can put his horse ofi" to either hand wdth the

proper leg, and support the action, he must particularly attend

to its truth and union, and try to raise it to the highest anima-

tion, riding sometimes rapidly, sometimes slowly, yet always

united.

When the gallop is disunited and extended to speed, even

though the horse is supple and just on his legs, it loses its har-

mony and regularity of time. The fore-legs then measure less

space from each other, and so do the hind-legs, which makes

the beats quicker in each, and leaves a space between the beats

of the fore-legs and the beats of the hind. In these gallops, it

would be highly imprudent to circle or turn, but on a very large

scale.

Turns, Changes, Stops, §-c. in the Gallop.

In turning the horse to the right and left, at a canter, his

fore-hand must be raised with the leading rein, and the haunches

pressed forward and under him : at the same time, the outward

rem must assist to steady him, and a pressure of the calf of

the outward leg keep the haunches from falling too much out.

If he is turned suddenly with the inward rein only, without

lifting the fore-hand, or applying the outward leg, he must turn

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on liis shoulders, lose power to halt on his haunches, and being

twisted round unprepared, will change to the outer leg.

In changing, the operation must be performed smoothly and

evenly at the same instant ; so that, at the finish of the cadence,

the body, hands, thighs, and legs of the rider are reversed, for

the horse to commence his next cadence mth the contrary

leg.

In stopping in the gallop, the rider must seize the time when

the horse's fore-feet are coming to the ground, which is the

beginning of the cadence : and he must take care that the hind

feet, coming up to their exact distance, and finishing the cadence,

complete the stop : leaving the horse so balanced that he can

readily set ofi" again with the same rapidity as before. Besides

seizing the exact time, a due degree of power must thus be

exerted, conformably to the readiness, obedience, union, or

rapidity of the action ; for, should the power be deficient, the

stop would not be properly effected ; and if it be excessive, the

horse mil be overbalanced on his haunches, and compelled con-

sequently to move his feet after the cadence is finished. Till

horses are ready and obedient to the stop, it should not be

attempted in \dolent and rapid gallops ; nor even then if they

are weak, or the rider heavy. — In these cases, the double arret

is used.

The double arret is the stop completed in two cadences of the

gallop, which is far less distressing both to man and horse.

The body being gently thrown back, will not make the action

instantaneously cease ; but the obedience of the horse makes

the effort which checks half his career in the first cadence ; and,

the body still being kept back, he completes it in the second.

However, till practised and made obedient to the stop, he will

not easily perform the double arret ; for, in the first instance,

he must be taught to stop by compulsion ; and it is only when

practice has brought him to obedience, that he readily stops at

the easy throwing back of the body.

The half stop is a pause in the gallop, or the action suspended

for half a second, and then resumed again. Here the body is

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thrown back less determinately, lest we should so overbalance

the horse that he cannot readily set off again after the finish of

the cadence, which no sooner occurs than the body is brought

forward, to permit the action to go on. Thus the half stop is

only a pause in the gallop, and it is mostly used to effect a

change from the right leg to the left, or the opposite. The

cadence of the stop should be no shorter than the readiness and

obedience of the horse will admit ; the half stop not quite so

short ; and the two arrets still more moderate.

LEAPING.

The moveable bar for leaping should be ten feet in length,

which will admit of two horses leaping abreast ; at first from

one to two feet high ; and never very high.

As to the seat, it should be again observed that stirrups are

no security in any situation on horseback ; and those who can-

not forbear pressing a weight on them, had better have none

when learning to leap. An accurate balance must prevent all dis-

turbance of the seat ; for the slightest, whether the rider is thrown

up from the saddle, or his body falls forward, or he gets out

of balance, is as disgraceful as falling to the ground. He should

sit so close as to carry a shilhng under each thigh just above

the knee, one in each stirrup under the toe, and one under his

breech.

When any action of the horse tends to lift the rider from the

saddle, stirrups cannot keep him down. Bearing on the stirrup,

indeed, must lift the rider from the saddle, and would even

loosen any hold he might take with the thighs or legs. Nothing

but the weight of the body can press to the saddle. When the

action is violent, however, the pressure of the thighs may be

employed to hold it down ; and, when the hold of the thighs is

not sutficient, the legs may take a deeper, and stronger hold,

licaps are taken standing or flying; the first being most difficult

to sit, though always practised first, because the slow and steady

leaping of a properly managed horse gives the rider time and

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recollection, and the riding-mastej an opportunity to direct, and

to prevent accidents.

Standing Leap.

In the standing leap, the horse first shortens, and then ex-

tends himself. Readiness in the hand of the rider is therefore

requisite to give the appropriate aids. These, if well timed,

assist the horse : if othermse, they check or embarrass him, and

endanger both the animal and his rider. (Plates XLI. XLII.

illustrate the Leap.)

The rider must therefore, by a ready and fearless yielding of

the bridle, leave the horse at liberty to extend himself, preserving

his own equilibrium only by leaning forward, as the horse rises,

and backward as he alights. When he is brought to the bar,

the body is to be upright. The legs are to be applied to his

sides with such firmness as to keep the rider down to the saddle,

and in such a manner — viz., perpendicularly from the knee —

that the action of the body shall not loosen or disturb them.

The toes must be pulled up, to make the muscles firm, and to

prevent the spur from approaching too near the horse ; and, if

necessary, they may be turned out a little to strengthen the

hold. The hand must be kept in the centre, and quite low;

and the reins not too short, but just by the pressure of the

fingers to feel the horse's mouth. When at the bar, the pres-

sure of the legs and fingers vdll invite the horse to rise ; and, as

he rises, the body comes forward and preserves its perpendicular.

The back must then be kept in, and the head firm.

As the horse springs from his hind legs, and proceeds in the

leap, the rider must slip his buttock under him, and let his body

go freely back, keeping his hands down, legs close, and body

back, till the horse's hind legs have come to the ground. The

propriety of applying the legs to hold firm in the saddle is obvi-

ous. The hand being kept low is essential ; and the bad con-

sequences of raising it are numerous, as confining the horse,

preventing the body going back, throwing the rider forward, &amp;c.

The body coming forward to preserve its perpendicular as the

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horse rises before, prevents the weight of the rider from hang-

ing on his mouth, and checking his leap, if not pulling him over

backwards. The back being hollow when the spring forward is

made, the body will of itself fall backward, if the hand be not

raised to prevent it; and the head being firm may prevent a

wrench of the neck, or a bite of the tongue. Slipping the breech

under gives the body more liberty to lean back, and prevents

the shock of the horse's feet meeting the ground, from throwing

it forward.

While the seat is thus maintained, the hand must not be neg-

lected. In riding up to a leap, the rider should yield the bridle

to the horse, guiding him straight to the bar at an animated pace;

halt him with a light hand, and upon his haunches ; when he

rises, only feel the reins to prevent their becoming slack ; when

he springs forward, yield the hand without reserve ; and, when

his hind feet come to the ground, again firmly collect him, re-

sume his usual position, and move on at the former pace. If the

horse be too much collected previous to his leap, he will bound,

or buck over, as it is called. If not sufficiently collected or ani-

mated, he will probably not clear the leap. The degree in which

a horse should be collected and animated depends on the tem-

perament of the animal, and must be left to the judgment of

the rider.

Flying Leap.

The flying leap is distinguished from the standing leap by its

being made from any pace without a previous halt; and although

the action is quicker, it is much easier. The pace, however, at

which the rider goes at a flying leap, should always be moderate,

in order that the horse may not rise too soon or too late.

A horse who rises too far from the bar seldom clears his leap,

and risks straining by the effort to cover it ; one who rises too

near is hkely to strike his knees against it, and throw his rider,

or hurt himself. If a horse be indolent, and require animation,

it is better to rouse his apathy by the spur just before his head

is turned towards the leap, than while he is running at it. If he

leap wilhngly, let him take his own pace to it, and he will spring

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from bis proper distance, and give himself due velocity. Twelve

yards from the leap, the rider may turn his horse to it in a trot ;

he will strike into a gallop ; and, by a stroke or two before he

springs, increase his velocity, if he perceive that the height he

has to cover requires that exertion.

The seat in the flying leap is exactly the same as in the stand-

ing one ; but, as the horse keeps a more horizontal position, it

is easier. The rider, however, must not bring his body forward

at the raising of the fore legs, because the spring from the hind

legs immediately follows, and the body not only might not get

back in time, but, if the horse did not come fair, or refused to

take his leap, and checked himself, the body, if forward, might

cause the rider to tumble over his head. He should therefore

keep his body upright; take hold with his legs; keep his hand

down ; and, as the horse springs forward, his body is sure to

take the corresponding action of leaning back, particularly if he,

at the instant, slip his breech under him, and bring his waist

forward with an exertion proportioned to the spring the horse

makes. He must also take care not to bring his body upright,

nor slacken the hold with his legs, till after the hind feet have

come to the ground.

In this leap, the horse requires but little support or assistance

from the hand till he is coming to the ground, when the hand

aids in bringing the body upright, and in supporting the horse.

The assisting and lifting a horse over leaps may be done only

by experienced riders, and even by them only when he lea])S

freely and determinedly. Whips should not be used when the

rider first practises leaping.

CRITICAL SITUATIONS.

When a horse is addicted to stumbling, rearing, kicking and

bolting, plunging, shying and restiveness, the seat is maintained

as in leaps ; and the arms are held firm to the body, the hands

kept up, and the reins separate, rather short than otherwise.

By these means, the horse's head being raised, he can with less

ease either rear or kick, because, for such purposes, he mi^st

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liave his head at liberty. It is fortunate that horses which rear

high seldom kick, and vice versa.

On these occasions, the first operation of the rider is to sepa-

rate the reins, &amp;c. The body must be kept upright, but flexible,

to repel every effort the horse may make ; the balance must be

preserved by the muscles of the thighs ; the legs are to be kept

near the horse, but not to grasp till absolutely necessary. When

he lifts his fore legs, the breech must be thrust out behind, by

which the rider is prepared if he rears. As the fore feet come

to the ground, the breech must be slipped under, which prepares

for his kicking or springing forward ; the legs being then in a

situation to grasp, and the hands to keep a firm hold. In all

displays of vice, the rider should first see that the saddle or

girths do not pinch the horse, that the bit does not hurt his hps

by being too high in his mouth, &amp;c.

Stumblitig.

By the rider pressing his legs to the horse's flanks, and keep-

ing up his head, he may be made to go light on his fore legs ;

and the same should be done if he actually stumble, so as to

afibrd him instant assistance. Hence it is evident that the bridle

should be of such length in the hand, that, in case of stumbling,

the rider mav be thus able to raise the horse's head by the

strength of his arms and the weight of his body thrown back-

ward. If the rein be too long, it is evident that, in effecting

this manoeuvre, the rider is in danger of falling backward as the

horse rises. By thus pressing the legs to the horse's sides, he

may be made to keep his haunches under him in going down

hill, or may be helped on the side of a bank.

Rearm ff.

The principal danger in rearing is the hazard of the horse's

falling backwards. When, therefore, he rises straight up, the

rider must throw his body forward, giving him all the bridle.

The weight of the body will oblige him to come down ; and the

moment that his fore feet are near the ground, and before he

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touches it, both the spurs must be given him as firmly and as

quickly as possible.

Another mode of subduing him is, whenever the rider is aware

of the horse's disposition to rear, to have the reins separated ;

and the instant he perceives him going to rise, to slack one hand

and bend him with the other, keeping the hand low. This com-

pels him to move a hind leg, and being thrown off his balance,

he necessarily comes down with his fore feet. He should then

be twisted round two or three times, to convince him of the

rider's superiority, which confuses, baffles, and deters him from

rearing to any dangerous height. To break horses of this dan-

gerous vice, it has been sometimes expedient to leap from them,

and pull them backwards. This so frightens them that they are

wary of giving the opportunity again. It is, however, an expe-

dient to be attempted only at a particular crisis, and by persons

perfectly collected, active, and agile.\*

Kicldng.

Horses apt to kick, either when they go forward or stand still,

must be kept much together, or held in closely. When this is

\* On this subject, an anonymous writer, in answer to a query, says, " T would

advise you by no means to try the experiment in question, either as operator

yourself, or on your own horse. At all events, pray make trial first of the fol-

lowing- prescription, which will in most cases be found an excellent preventive,

if not a total cure, of the propensity complained of, and which has the advan-

tage over the method respecting which you inquire, of being much easier and

safer in its application, and, I may perhaps add, surer in its effects, and less

expensive on the whole.

" Get a strong thick curb bit, with a good deep port reversed— that is, the

curve of the mouth-piece must project towards the outside of the horse's

mouth, and not inwardly towards his throat, as in the common port bit. The

thickness and exact curve of the bit should be calculated according to the

size, strength, and hardness of mouth of the animal for which it is intended.

For a very hard-mouthed horse, the bit should be made with a very deep port,

and as thin as possible, consistently with the strength requisite.

" In nine cases out of ten, 1 have found that confirmed rearers are tender-

mouthed, and the habit has been probably induced by their being bitted and

handled too severely. A martingale will be found a useful addition to the bit

I have described. Its full efficacy can only be sufficiently appreciated by its

bomg used several times, till the horse has become in some degree accus-

tomed to it."

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attempted, the hands, though fixed, must not pull at the horse,

if he does not attempt to force the hand, and get his head, but

leave him at liberty to go forward. If, however, he attempt to

get his head down, which would enable him to kick with such

violence as to throw himself, he may have the head confined up.

This disarms him, and he makes a bolt from all-fours.

When a horse kicks, the rider must throw the body backward.

It is an effective punishment to twist him round a few times for

this fault. If this is done towards his weak or unprepared side

(for every horse has a favourite side), astonishment and confusion

Vt'ill deter him from farther contention. In case of bolting, the

rider must not exert one continued pull, but make repeated pulls

until the horse obeys. Horses accustomed to be allowed to bear

on the bit would not understand the steady pull as a signal to

desist ; and some would so throw up their heads as to deprive

the rider of all power without dropping his hand, when the horse

would drop his head. In that case, a second pull would find his

mouth, and thus speedily his progress might be stopped.

Plj.7iging.

In plunging, a horse gets his head down, cringes his tail be-

tween his quarters, sets his back up, swells his body to burst his

girths, and, in this position, kicks and plunges till his breath

can be held no longer — that is, till he makes six or eight plunges.

To sit these is to cure them ; and to do this, the rider must take

a firm hold with his legs, and be mindful that the horse, in

getting his head down, does not pull him forward. There is no

danger of his rearing ; and therefore the rider has only to keep

his body back, and hold firmly with his hands, to prevent him

throwing himself down.

Shying.

When a horse, either by shying or restiveness, springs to one

side, or turns short round, the rider's security depends on strict

conformity to the rules already laid down, as to not bearing on

the stirrups ; keeping the legs near to the horse, to be ready on

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these audden and unexpected occasions to lay hold; and yielding

the body to go with him.

When a horse is about to fly to one side, he may be stopped

by his rider's leg being pressed on the side he would fly to, and

by keeping his head high and straight forward, so as to prevent

his looking towards the object he starts at, unless indeed it be

something you desire to accustom him to the sight of, and then,

whether you keep his face to it throughout, or avert it at first,

and turn it gently towards it at last, great steadiness is neces-

sary. When he curvets irregularly, and twists himself to and

fro, his head should be turned to one side, or both alternately,

without permitting him to move out of the track; and the rider's

leg should be pressed against the opposite side. In this case,

}ie cannot spring on one side, because the pressure of the leg

prevents him, nor will he spring to the other, because his head

is turned that way, and a horse never starts to the side to which

he looks.

Moreover, he will not fly back from anything, but go forward,

if both legs be pressed against his sides. Thus he may be made

to pass a carriage or other object in a narrow road ; and here

perseverance is especially necessary when the object is just

reached, or partly passed, for if in the habit of going back and

turning round when frightened, he will certainly do so when, if,

by the hands slackening and legs failing to press, he discovers

that you are irresolute ; and this he would probably do at the

most dangerous moment, when there was scarcely room for

him to turn, and the wheels might take him in the rear. To

touch his curb rein at such a moment would add to the confusion

and danger.

Restiveness.

The horse generally commences his attack by stopping, turn-

ing short round, mostly to the right hand, as taking the rider

to the greatest disadvantage. He expects the rider will oppose

the opposite hand, designedly attacks the weakest, and is so

prepared against its efforts that it is vain to attempt them. It

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must be tlie rider's rule never to contend mth the horse on that

point on which he is prepared to resist.

Instead, therefore, of attempting to prevent the horse with

his left hand, the rider must attack him with his right, turn him

completely round, so that his head is again presented the right

way, and then apply the whip. If he turns round again, the

rider must still attack his unguarded side, turn him two or three

times, and let the heel and spur, if necessary, assist the hand,

before he can arm or defend himself against it.

If he still refuse to go the right way, the rider must take care

that he go no other, and immediately change his attack, turning

him about and reining him backward, which the horse is easily

compelled to do when he sets himself against going forward. In

these contests, the rider must be collected, and have an eye to

the surrounding objects ; for restive horses try their utmost to

place their riders in awkward situations, by sidling to other

horses, carriages, the foot-pavement, the houses, &amp;c.

In this case, the rider, instead of pulling him from the wall,

must bend his head to it, by which his side next the wall is ren-

dered concave, and his utmost endeavom-s to do injury are pre-

vented. The iustant, therefore, that the rider perceives his horse

sidling to any object, he must tm-n his head to that object, and

back him from it.

There are some horses who fix themselves like stocks, setting

all endeavours to move them at defiance. There, happily, their

defence can in no way endanger the rider. It must, how^ever,

be converted to punishment. Let them stand, make no attempt

to move them, and in a short space — frequently less than a

minute — they will move of themselves.

When these various defences, however, are not powerfully set

up, the general rule is to push the horse forward ; and, for this

purpose, at first to make use of the switch, as it alarms him

least, for the spurs surprise a horse, abate his courage, and are

likely to make him restive. Indeed, the application of the whip

or spurs, except to shift the croupe, or give efficacy to the hands,

is of httle use ; and to repeat either, to make a restive horse go

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forward, is certainly wrong. When passion possesses tlie rider,

It prevents that concord and unity taking place which ever should

subsist between the rider and his horse. He should always be

disposed to amity, and never suffer the most obstinate resistance

of the horse to put him out of temper. If the contest does not

demand his utmost exertion of strength, he should be able to

hum a tune, or converse with the same composure and indif-

ference as though his horse were all obedience. By these means,

the instant a horse finds himself foiled, he desists, ha\ang no

provocation to contend farther, and is abashed at his own weak-

ness. It is the absence of passion which, added to cool ob-

servation, makes the English the best riders and drivers in the

world.

TREATMENT OF THE HORSE.

Stables are generally too dark and too hot. They should be

kept quite cool, though without any draughts.

" A way," says De Beranger, in Helps and Hints, " of making

the most of your horses, is to rise early in the summer, in order

to do half your day's work before the heat of the day ; for lying

by the whole of the rest of the day, not only affords a traveller

time and opportunity for examining what is worthy of being

seen, but enables him to start with horses quite fresh, and to

fimsh the remaining stage after sunset: not only will your horses

go through their task mth less labour in the cool of the even-

ing, but you will find them travel more freely towards a resting-

place, which darkness leads them to expect.'\*

A horse ought not to be ridden a stage while in physic, nor on

the day of its coming off. If he be pushed at first setting out

on a journey, or be compelled to make long stages, or be de-

prived of his customary baits, he gets jaded, and every additional

mile adds to his uneasiness. Moreover, at setting out in the

morning, a well-kept horse is necessarily full of food, and con-

sequently, until his great gut be properly emptied, brisk action

occasions uneasiness or pain, which causes restlessness.

" When I travel on horseback," says the same writer, " I make

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it a rule to walk every seventh mile, be the roads ever so level :

it affords a wonderful relief both to man and horse, and, instead

of producing a loss of time, helps you on. When you dismount

for such ends, always slacken your girths, slightly lift up the

saddle to let a little air under it, and teach your horse (what he

soon will learn) to walk briskly by your side, and keep the step

with you, taking care to hold either of the reins lightly in your

hand, and without shifting it over the horse's head. Your steed

will soon give you demonstrations of his gratitude, for he will

be full of affectionate playfulness as he jogs along at your side,

only to be rivalled by his willingness to let you mount after you

have tightened the girths again. I need hardly tell you not to

put your arm or wrist through a rein whilst walking or running

by the side of a horse, for it is replete with danger. A good ruu

with one hand on the horse's withers is pleasant, and greatly

removes the stiffness of the joints so frequently occasioned by

much riding ; but the reins should be held between the fingers

only, and rather loosely."

Hence, it follows that, although expedition be indispensable,

the horse ought not to be put on his best pace at first, but con-

siderably within it. Even this pace should be for a short space

only ; the reins should be loosened ; the mouth played with ;

and if he do not evacuate, the pace may be repeated once more,

— unless, indeed, he sweat much with the first, which is a sign

of weakness, or that his dung is hard, and he requires purging.

While on the journey, the rider should be less attentive to

his horse's nice carriage of himself, than to his own encoiirage-

raent of him, and keeping him in good humour. Though gene-

rally he should raise his horse's head, yet when he flags in

consequence of a long day or hard work, he may indulge

him with bearing a httle more upon the bit than he would in

taking a mere airing exercise, or afternoon's canter in the Park.

Keeping company with some other horseman facilitates a stage,

by the emulation it excites ; so that a dull animal, which one

can scarcely get seven miles an horn\* from, will do nine or ten

without fatigue when in company.

TREATMENT OF THE HORSE.

1C7

Tn road-riding, a picker is indispensable both in winter and

summer. In winter, it is necessary to relieve the sole when

snow accumulates there. When, however, the traveller knows

that snow is on the ground, he may avoid the trouble of dis-

mounting, by previously ordering his horse's soles to be payed

over with tar, or with tallow having no salt in it. At all times,

when the roads have received fresh dressings, a picker is indis-

jiensable, because a loose stone is very liable to lodge in the

hollow of the foot, and is dangerously driven backwards between

the frog and the shoe, at every step the horse takes.

Pace and length of stage must be adapted to the heat of the

weather in summer, and to the depth of the roads in winter ;

both seasons having the effect of knocking up the horse. In

either case, a cordial promptly administered recovers him for

the prosecution of his journey. The cordial readiest provided,

and which should be kept at hand by the provident traveller, is

in the form of a ball, and composed of aniseeds, ginger, carra-

way, of each, powdered, half an ounce, and mixed up with treacle

and meal to the proper consistence. But good ale or porter,

from one pint to a quart, made warm, operates sooner, and,

upon emergency, is nearly as readily obtained as the ball.

Walking a horse the last mile, especially of a long stage, is

a practice highly beneficial. As, upon setting out, we should

not go off at the quickest pace, so upon coming in, we should

not dash into our quarters with the perspiration streaming from

each pore, in the mild season, nor covered over with dirt, in

consequence of the pace, in wet weather. Even in winter, the

])erspiration flies from a strong horse, if in condition, upon

coming in more sheltered ])laces, and the practices he is then

subjected to are commonly of such a nature as to cause disease

in one way or another, in embryo, if not immediately.

The rider is greatly to be blamed who stands quietly by, or

hides himself in the parlour, while his horse is brought in hot,

stripped of every thing, and led about to cool, in the draught of a

gateway, or has the dirt washed off by plunging him in a norse-

trough or pond, or his legs brushed in cold water in the open

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yard, while pailfulls, at the same time, are thrown over them ;

the consequence of all which is cough or colic, bad eyes, swelled

legs, or inflammation of some vital part, which deprives the

animal of life.

The horse should have a large and comfortable stall, and

without any door behind him, a draught from which, by blowing

up his coat, might expose him to cold. On coming in, after

being coaxed to stale, he should undergo (in winter-time in

doors) a wisping all over with straw, beginning at the head,

and proceeding to the neck and fore-quarters. His eyes,

nostrils, &amp;c., should also be cleansed vdth a sponge, and his

ears rubbed. He should, at the same time, have before him

a lock of sweet hay, in his rack, or a prickle, or the hand ; and

the rider should see whether he eats or not, whether he en-

joys the wisping, and whether he chiefly evince a desire to lie

down or a craving for food.

The girths having been already loosened, but the saddle still

remaining on his back, his head should be turned to the

rack, and his hind-quarters, legs, and belly, sheath and fork,

wisped, and his feet picked clean and washed. After this, the

saddle should be removed by sliding it back over the croupe ;

and the dressing be extended to the withers, back, and so com-

pletely all over the carcass, until it is dry. The saddle should

be hung out, with the inside toward the sun ; and when the

pannels have been duly aired and dried, they should be slightly

beaten and well brushed.

If the horse refuse the first proffer of hay, the rider may con-

clude that he has been pushed too much, as to time or length.

If he still refuse his food, though the dressing be finished, he

may be assured that his stomach is disordered, and he must be

cordialled. In winter, a warm mash of malt is most eligible ;

but, if not at hand, a bran mash with an admixture of oatmeal,

and a quart of good ale, may be given. In summer, a cordial

ball will restore the tone of his stomach, without increasing the

heat of his body so much as a mash would. If he is not aged,

nor inured to cordialling, a small pail of stout water-gruel.

TREATMENT OF THE HORSE.

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almost cold, excels all other cordials, and supersedes the neces-

sity of watering ; he will take his supper an hour or so after-

wards, with a relish.

The traveller ought to look to every particular himself. — In

the next place, let him see that his horse gets his allowance of

corn, that it be good, and that it contain no indications of hav-

ing been in a manger before ; for, in that case, he must wait by

him until all the food is devoured. Dry food is alone proper to

travel upon, and oats are the best ; much hay being apt to

engender flatulencies. When, however, a very long stage is to

be taken, or it is cold, dreary, wet, or windy, a handful of

crushed beans sustains him admirably, staying by him, and im-

parting vigour for a long time. The horse should not be denied

water often ; though too much at one time should not be

given, nor, without its being chilled, any immediately after

being fed.

His feet and shoes should be looked to, to ascertain if

aught require repair, in order that it may be furnished as

soon as he has recovered from his fatigue. — His limbs, more-

over, should be examined all over, for cracks, pricked foot, &amp;c.,

and the body, for saddle-galls, &amp;c. Now, as ever, his dunging

should be looked to. Even if in full condition, having been

well and regularly fed, and as regularly worked, he will contract

a tendency to constipation ; the least ill consequence of which

is defective pace, or short step, arising from more laboured

action. As the inconvenience may be suffered to last, he sweats

immoderately at the least extra exertion, his eyes lose their

wonted brightness, his mouth becomes hot, and his manner is

languid. All these evils may be prevented by timely physicking,

whenever the dung is seen to fall upon the ground without the

pellets breaking. Even a little green food, or a day's mashing

with bran, thin oatmeal gruel, and the like, will soften the dung

considerably. It must be remembered that these things are

to be undertaken on blank days, when the traveller is certain

the horse will not be ridden a stage. The following aUowauce

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DRIVING.

per week is generally enough to keep a horse in good con-

dition : —

Oats. Beans. Hfy.

For a horse of from

14i to 16 hands / U bushel; 2 quarterns; U truss.

For a horse under | bushel; H quartern ; I truss.

14^ hands

DRIVING.

Among the ancients, for more than one thousand years, the

greatest honour that could be bestowed upon a man was a

sprig of the wild olive tree entwined round his brow, for having

gained a victory in the chariot-race at the Olympic games of

Greece. This sprig of ohve, moreover, was accompanied by

other marks of distinction : the wearer of it was not only

honoured with statues and inscriptions during his hfe-time, but

the immortal Pindar, or some other great poet, was called upon

to hand his name down to posterity in an ode. The Olympic

games were revived, as a rehgious ceremony, by Iphitus, an

Elean, about nine hundred years before Christ. They were

celebrated near Olympia, in the territory of Elis. Horse and

chariot races were considered their noblest sports. No one was

there prevented from driving his own chariot ; and kings were

often seen contending agamst kings.

The Greeks were the most enhghtened of the ancients, and

their taste in the arts has never been even rivalled. What they

did, therefore, on this occasion, could not be considered as in

bad taste ; and, when we remember that the celebration of

these pastimes outhved the laws, customs, and liberty of their

country, we need not say more in their vindication. The

honours of victory were not even confined to the brave and

skilful man who won the race : even the horses were crowned

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amidst the applauses of the spectators ; and in one race, where

forty chariots were broken, the victorious one was preserved

in the temple of Apollo. Such being the havoc among the com-

petitors, it is not wonderful that Ovid should say, that the

honour of contending for the Olympic prize was almost equal to

the winning of it.

Sophocles modestly speaks of ten starting at the same time

in the race ; but Pindar, availing himself, perhaps, of poetic

licence, makes the number forty. Four horses driven abreast

was the usual number. The length\* of the course on which

they ran did not exceed an English mile, and as they had to

make twenty-two turnings round the two pillars — generally,

we may suppose, at full speed — it is not difficult to imagine

what dreadful accidents must have happened.

Nothing indeed but the form of chariot used could have en-

sured safety to any one. From the representations on ancient

coins, it appears to have been very low, and only on two wheels,

somewhat resembling our curricle. It had of course no springs ;

and, as there was no seat for the charioteer, much of his

skill consisted in preserving his balance, and keeping upon

his legs.

According to Pausanias, the following was the method of

startmg : — The chariots entered the course according to order,

previously settled by lot, and drew up in a line. They started

at a signal given, and to him who passed the pillar at the top of

the course twelve times, and that at the bottom ten times, in

the neatest manner, vnthout touching it, or overturning his

chariot, was the reward given. — As, however, it was the aim of

every one who started to make for this pillar, as to a centre, we

can easily imagine the confusion there must have been in forty,

twenty, or even ten chariots, all rushing to one given point,

amidst the clanging of trumpets, &amp;c.

\* The Circus Maximus at Rome, in which the Romans exhibited their

chariot-races, was an oval building of one thousand eight hundred feet in

length, and four hundred in breadth.

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DRIVING.

The following translation of a description of a chariot -race,

from the Electra of Sophocles^ is worthy of a place.

\*' When on the sacred day, in order next

Came on the contest of the rapid car,

As o'er the Phocian plain the orient sun

Shot his impurpled beams, the Pythic com'se

Orestes enter'd, circled with a troop

Of charioteers, his bold antagonists.

One from Achaia came ; from Sparta one ;

Two from the Lybian shores, well practised each

To rule the whirling car : with these the fifth,

Orestes, vaunting his ThessaUan mares :

.^tolia sent a sixth, with youthful steeds

In native gold arrayed : the next in rank

From fair Magnesia sprang : of Thrace the eighth

His snow-white coursers from Thesprotia drove :

From heaven-built Athens the ninth hero came :

A huge Boeotian the tenth chariot filled.

These, when the judges of the games by lot

Had fix'd their order, and arranged their cars,

All, at the trumpet's signal, all at once

Barst from the banier ; all together cheer'd

Their fiery steeds, and shook the floating reins.

Soon with the din of rattling cars was filled

The sounding hippodrome, and clouds of dust

Ascending, tainted the fresh breath of morn.

Now mix'd and press'd together, on they drove.

Nor spared the smarting lash ; impatient each

To clear his chariot, and outstrip the throng

Of dashing axles, and short-blowing steeds,

They panted on each other's necks, and threw

On each contiguous yoke the milky foam.

" But to the pUlar as he nearer drew,

Orestes, reining-in the nearmost steed.

While in a larger scope, with loosen'd reins.

And lash'd up to their speed, the others flew,

Tum'd swift around the goal his grazing wheel.

" As yet erect, upon their whirhng orbs

RoU'd every chariot, till the hard-mouth'd steeds

That drew the Thracian car, unmaster'd, broke

With violence away, and turning short,

(When o'er the hippodrome with winged speed

They had completed now the seventh career),

Dash'd their wild foreheads 'gainst the Lybian car.

From this one luckless chance a train of iU\*

IMPORTANCE OF DRIVING, ETC.

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Succeeding', rudely on each other fell

Horses and charioteers, and soon was fill'd

. With wrecks of shatter'd cars the Phocian plain.

" This seen, the Athenian, with consummate art,

His course obliquely veer' d, and, steering wide

"With steady rein, the wild commotion pass'd

Of tumbiing chariots and tumultuous steeds.

Next, and, though last, yet full of confidence

And hopes of victory, Orestes came ;

But when he saw of his antagonists

Him only now remaining, to his mares

Anxious he raised his stimulating voice.

And now with equal fronts abreast they drove,

Now with alternate momentary pride

Beyond each other push'd their stretching steeds.

" Erect Orestes, and erect his car,

Through all the number'd courses now had stood;

But luckless in the last, as round the goal

The wheeling courser turn'd, the hither rein

Imprudent he relax'd, and on the stone

The shatter'd axle dashing, from the wheels

Fell headlong ; hatnper'd in the tangling reins

The frighted mares flew diverse o'er the course.

" The throng'd assembly, when they saw the chief

Hurl'd from his chariot, with compassion moved.

His youth deplored ; deplored him, glorious late

For mighty deeds, now doom'd to mighty woes ;

Now dragg'd along the dust, his feet in air :

Till, hasting to his aid, and scarce at length

The frantic mares restraining, from the reins

The charioteers released him, and convey'd.

With wounds and gore disfigured, to his friends.

The just Amphictyons on the Athenian steeds

The Delphic laurel solemnly conferr'd."

In a political view, these games were productive of local

advantages ; for, being sacred to Jupiter, they protected the

inhabitants of Elis against all the calamities of war. In an

economical point of view, they were of general use ; for, as

Greece was generally short of horses, nothing was so likely to

encourage the breeding of them as the emulation thus raised

among the different states. The circulation of money also was

not a trifling consideration ; for the olive crown was obtained

at great expense. By these games being celebrated at the

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beginning of every fifth year, the Greeks settled their chrono-

logy and dates ; and as they lasted a thousand years, a great

part of the traditional history of Greece rests upon their base.

That the honour of the prize was above all price, the following

anecdote shows : — A Spartan having gained the victory at the

Olympic games with much difficulty, was asked what he should

profit by it ? "I shall have the honour," said he, " of being

posted before my king in battle." As a further proof of the

value and the moral effect of these contentions for honour, it is

stated that, when a conqueror returned to his native city, he

made his entry through a breach in the wall — by which was

implied that cities inhabited by such men had no need of walls.

A senator of Rome, indeed, says Gibbon, " or even a citizen,

conscious of his dignity, would have blushed to expose his

person or his horses in a Roman circus. There, the reins were

abandoned to servile hands ; and, if the profits of a favourite

charioteer sometimes exceeded those of an advocate, they were

considered as the effect of popular extravagance, and the high

wages of a disgraceful profession." The Romans, with more

pride, were far less intellectual than the Greeks ; but it must

still be borne in mind, that, inconsistently enough, the interest

taken in the charioteers of Rome shook the very foundation

of the government.

In modern times, notwithstanding the sneers directed against

gentlemen-coachmen and driving-clubs, it is to them chiefly

that this country is indebted for the present excellent state of

the roads, and for safe and expeditious travelling. The taste

for driving produced, between men of property and those

connected with the road, an intercourse which has been pro-

ductive of the best results. Road-makers, and those who

have the care of roads, if they have not acted under the

immediate direction of these amateur drivers, have been greatly

benefited by their advice — doubly valuable, as proceeding

from knowledge of what a road ought to be. The intercourse

also that has lately been carried on between proprietors of

inns and of coaches, and gentlemen fond of driving, has

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greatly tended to direct the attention of tlie former to the

accommodation and comfort of travellers. The improvement

in carriages — stage-coaches more especially — vrould never have

arrived at its present height, but for the attention and sug-

gestions of such persons.

Moreover, the notice taken by gentlemen of coachmen,

who are at once skilful and w^ho conduct themselves well, has

worked the reformation which has been of late years witnessed

in that useful part of society.

Gentleman- driving, however, has received a check, very few

four-in-hands being visible. The B. D. C, or Benson Driving

Club, which now holds its rendezvous at the Black Dog, Bed-

font, is the only survivor of those numerous driving associa-

tions whose processions used, some twenty years ago, to be

among the most imposing, as well as peculiar spectacles in and

about the metropolis.\*

THE ROADS.

The excellence of our present mail-coach work reflects the

highest credit on the state of our roads. The hills on great

roads are now^ cut triangularly, so that drivers ascend nearly ail

of them in a trot. Coachmen have found out that they are

gainers here, as, in the trot, every horse does his share, whereas,

very few teams are all at work together when walking.

As, however, dreadful accidents have occurred to coaches when

descending hills, a very simple expedient has been suggested,

by vv'hich these accidents may be avoided. It is merely a strip

of gravel, or broken stone, about one yard wide, and four

or five inches deep, left on the near side of the hill, and

never suffered to bind or diminish. This would afford that

additional friction (technically called a bite) to the two near-side

wheels, so that the necessity of a drag-chain (never to be

trusted) would be done away with, and even in case of a hame-

\* The reader will bear in mind that this is many years after date. The

ll.D.C, which is now in the " Crescent," promises an ascendant of no mean

clfulgence.— Ed. Fifth Edition.

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strap or pole-cliain giving way, one wheel-horse would be able

to hold back a coach, however heavily laden. No inconvenience

to the road, it is observed, could arise from this precaution, as

carriages ascending the hills would never be required to touch

the loose gravel, it not being on their side of the road. This

has been objected to, because some of the loose stones might

find their way into the middle of the road. But, admitting

this might be the case, a trifling attention on the part of the

surveyor would obviate the objection. A man might be em-

ployed every second or third day to rake these stones back again.

At the same time, it is obvious that the neat appearance of a

road is not to be put in the scale against the limbs and lives of

the people. — Some more permanent contrivance than loose

stones even might be found.

CARRIAGES.

Of carriages, those with two wheels are the cheapest, lightest,

and most expeditious ; but, however sure-footed the horse, and

however skilful the driver, they are comparatively dangerous

vehicles.

As to gentlemen's carriages, in this country, it has justly been

observed, that the view at Hyde Park Corner, on any fine after-

noon, in the height of the London season, is enough to confound

any foreigner, from whatever part of the world he may come. He

may there see what no other country can show him. Let him

only sit on the rail, near the statue, and in the space of two

hours he will see a thousand well-appointed equipages pass before

him to the Mall, in all the pomp of aristocratic pride, in which

the horses themselves appear to partake. The stream of equi-

pages of all kinds, barouches, chariots, cabriolets, &amp;c., and

almost all got up " regardless of expense," flows on unbroken

until it is half-past seven, and people at last begin to think of

what they still call dinner. Seneca tells us that such a blaze

of splendour was once to be seen on the Appian Way. It might

be so — it is now to be seen nowhere but in London.

As to stage-coaches, their form seems to have arrived at

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perfection. It combines prodigious strength with ahnost in-

credible Ughtness ; many of them not weighing more than about

18 cwt., and being kept so much nearer the ground than for-

merly, they are of course considerably safer. Nothing, indeed,

can be more favourable to safety than the build of modern

coaches. The boots being let down between the springs, keep

the load, and consequently the centre of gravity, low ; the

wheels of many of them are secured by patent boxes ; and in

every part of them the best materials are used. The cost of

coaches of this description is from ,5^130 to £150 ; but they are

generally hired from the maker at 2id. to 3c?. per mile.

It is said to be the intention of Government\* to substitute

light carriages with two horses for the present mail-coaches

drawn by four. On this, a writer in the Quarterly Review ob-

serves, that when the mail-coach of the present day starts from

London for Edinburgh, a man may safely bet a hundred to one

that she arrives to her time ; but let a light two-horse vehicle

set out on the same errand, and the betting would strangely

alter. It is quite a mistaken notion that a carriage is less

liable to accidents for being light. On the contrary, she is more

liable to them than one that is laden in proportion to her sus-

taining powers. In the latter case, she runs steadily along,

and is but little disturbed by any obstacle or jerk she may

meet on the road : in the former, she is constantly on

" the jump," as coachmen call it, and her iron parts are very

liable to snap.

It may in this place be observed, that no stage-coach should

be permitted to travel the road with wheels secured only by the

common linchpin. It is in consequence of this that mnumer-

able accidents have happened to coaches from wheels coming

off; and in these improving and fast times, such chances should

not be allowed to exist. It may not be uninteresting to the

uninitiated to learn from the same clever and experienced writer

how a coach is worked. Suppose a number of persons to enter

\* The era of rail-roads has however now arrived, and there remains no need

for such an experiment.— Ed. Fifth Edition.

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into a contract to horse a coach eighty miles, each proprietor

having twenty miles ; in which case he is said to cover both

sides of the ground, or to and fro. At the expiration of twenty-

eight days a settlement takes place, and if the gross earnings of

tlie coach be ,^10 per mile, there will be MSOO to divide between

the four proprietors, after the following charges have been de-

ducted, viz., tolls, duty to government, mileage (or hire of the

coach to the coach-makers), two coachmen's wages, porters\*

wages, rent or charge of booking-offices at each end, and wash-

ing the coaches. These charges may amount to ^150, whicli

leaves ,^650 to keep eighty horses, and to pay the horse-keepers

for a period of twenty-eight days, or nearly ^160 to each pro-

prietor for the expenses of his twenty horses, being ^2 per week

per horse. Thus it appears that a fast coach properly appointed

cannot pay, unless its gross receipts amount to j^lO per double

mile ; and that even then the proprietor's profits depend on the

luck he has with his stock.

COACH-HORSES.

A great change has lately taken place as to the English

coach-horse ; and this is the foundation of many other accom-

panying changes. Fifty years ago, the putting a thorough-bred

horse into harness would have been deemed preposterous. In

the carriages of gentlemen, the long-tailed black, or Cleveland

bay — each one remove from the cart-horse — was the prevailing-

sort ; and six miles an hour was the extent of the pace. Now,

however, this clumsy-barrelled, cloddy-slK)uldered, round-legged

animal, something between a coach and a dray horse, as fat as

an ox, and, with all his prancing at first starting, not capable of

more than six miles an hour, and rendered useless by a day's

hard work, is no more seen ; and, instead of him, we find a

horse as tall, deep-chested, rising in the withers, slanting in

the shoulders, flat in the legs, with more strength, and with

treble the speed.

The animal formerly in use cost from 301. to 50Z. — Two hun-

di\*ed guineas is now an every-day price for a cabriolet horse ; and

COACH-HORSES.

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1-30 guineas for a coach-horse, for a private gentleman's work.

A pair of handsome coach-horses, fit for London, and well

broken and bitted, cannot be purchased under 200 guineas ;

and even job-masters often give much more for them to let out

to their customers. The origin of this superior kind of coach-

horse is still, however, the Cleveland bay, confined principally

to Yorkshire and Durham, with perhaps Lincolnshire on one

side, and Northumberland on the other, but difficult to be met

with pure in either county. Cleveland indeed, and the Vale of

Pickering, in the East Riding of Yorkshire, are the best breed-

ing counties in England for coach-horses, hunters, and hackneys.

When the Cleveland mare is crossed by a three-fourth or

thorough-bred horse of sufficient substance and height, the pro-

duce is the coach-horse most in repute, with his arched crest

and high action. From the same mare and the thorough- bred

of sufficient height, but not of so much substance, we obtain

the four-in-hand, and superior curricle horse. From less

height and more substance, we derive the hunter, and better

sort of hackney. From the half-bred, we have the machiner,

the poster, and the common carriage-horse.

7'he best coach-horse is a tall, strong, over-sized hunter. The

hackney has many of the quahties of the hunter on a small scale.

There is some deception, however, even as to the best of these

improved coach-horses. They prance nobly through the streets,

and they are capable of more work than the old clumsy, sluggish

breed, but still they have not the endurance that is desirable ;

and a pair of poor post-horses, at the end of the second day,

would beat them hoUoAv.

In this carriage-horse, the bending of the upper joints, and

the consequent high lifting of the feet, are deemed an excellence,

because they add to the grandeur of his appearance ; but this is

necessarily accompanied by much wear and tear of the legs and

feet, the eff'ect of which is very soon apparent. The most de-

sirable points in the coach-horse are — substance well placed, a

deep and well-proportioned body, bone under the knee, and

sound, open, tough feet.

IPO

DRIVING.

One part of the old system, however, remains — namely, that

although Httle horses, well bred, are the fashion, large horses

are still employed in heavy work. It must indeed be so. Horses

draw by their weight, and not by the force of their muscles,

although these, by carrying forward the centre of gravity, assist

the application of that w^eight. It is the weight of the animal

which produces the draught, and the power of the muscles serves

to direct it. The hind feet form the fulcrum of the lever by

which this weight acts against a load, and the power exerted is

in proportion to the length of the lever, if the weight remains

the same. Large animals, therefore, draw more than small ones,

though they may have less muscular power, and are unable to

carry weight so well. Nothing can better show that horses draw

by their weight than the frequent occurrence that a horse is un-

able to draw a cart out of a slough until a sack of corn is thrown

on his back, when he has little difficulty in doing it. Thus it is,

that what are technically called lobbing-goers take more weight

with them than horses of better action.

As the application of the weight or force proceeds from the

fulcrum formed by the hind feet, good hind legs and well-spread

gaskins are essential points in a coach-horse. We even some-

times see that a waggon-horse, when brought to pull, will not

touch the ground at all with his fore feet. Another reason why

little horses are unfit for hea\^ work is, that they will seldom

walk and draw at the same time ; for if they w^alk, they catch at

their collars, and do but little. They never take anything like

an even share of draught.

By calculations as to the mean strength of animals, it appears

that a horse drawing horizontally, and at the rate of two miles

and a half in an hour, can work for eight hours in succession

against a resistance of 200 pounds. If that pace be quadrupled,

he finds an eighth part of the time sufficient. Thus we can

pretty nearly measure a horse's power in harness. Whether

we are carrying supposed improvement too far, and sacrificing

strength and endurance to speed, is a question not difficult to

be resolved.

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A horse at a pull is enabled, by the power and direction of

his muscles, to throw a certain weight against the collar. If he

walk four miles in the hour, part of the muscular energy is ex-

pended in the act of walking ; and consequently, the power of

drawing must be proportionally diminished. If he trot eight

miles in the hour, more of that energy is expended in the trot,

and less remains for the draught ; but the draught continues the

same, and, to enable him to accomplish his work, he must exert

his energies in a degree so severe and cruel, that it must speedily

wear him out. Hence, there is no truth so easily proved, or so

painfully felt by the postmaster, as that it is the pace that kills.

Moreover, many a horse used on our public roads is unable to

employ all his natural power, or to throw his weight into the

collar, in consequence of being tender-footed, or lame. Being

bought, however, at little price, he is worked on the brutal prin-

ciple that he may be " whipped soimd !" — and so he is appa-

rently. At first he sadly halts; but, urged by the torture of the

lash, he acquu-es a peculiar mode of going. The faulty limb

keeps pace with the others, but no stress or labour is thrown

upon it ; and he gradually contrives to make the sound hmbs

perform among them all the duties of the unsound one. Thus

he is barbarously " whipped sound," and cruelty is for the time

undeservedly rewarded. After all, however, what is done? Three

legs are made to do that which was almost too much for four.

Of course, they are most injuriously strained, and quickly worn

out; the general power of the animal is rapidly exhausted; and,

at no remote time, death releases him from his merciless perse-

cutors.

Happily, art is doing what humanity refuses. Railroads are

rendering draught comparatively easy. An instance has been

described of the power of a horse when assisted by art, as exhi-

bited near Croydon. The Surrey iron railway being completed,

a wager was laid that a common horse could draw thirty-six tons

for six miles along the road, dra\^'ing his weight from a dead pull,

and turning it round the occasional windings of the road. A

numerous party assembled near Merstham to see this. Twelve

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waggons loaded with stones, each waggon weighing above three

tons, were chained together, and a horse taken promiscuously

from a timber cart, was yoked to the train. He started from a

house near Merstham, and drew the chain of waggons with, ap-

parent ease almost to the turnpike at Croydon, a distance of six

miles, in one hour and forty-one minutes, which is nearly at the

rate of four miles an hour. In the course of the journey he

stopped four times, to show that it was not by any advantage of

descent that his power was facilitated ; and, after each stoppage,

he again drew off the chain of waggons mth great ease. A person

who had wagered on the power of the horse then desu'ed that

four more loaded w-aggons should be added to the cavalcade,

and with these the same horse set off again with undiminished

pace. Still further to show the effect of the railway in facili-

tating motion, the attending workmen, to the number of fifty,

were directed to mount on the waggons, and the horse proceeded

without the least distress. Indeed, there appeared to be scarcely

any limit to the power of his di'aught. After this trial, the

waggons were taken to the weighing-machine, and it appeared

that the whole weight was as follows : —

It is fortunate for breeders of horses that a perfect form is not

necessary to a good coach-horse. Some of those, indeed, which

the London dealers sell at high prices for gentlemen's work, are

such brutes, when out of harness, that no man would ride them

for their worth. The strong and lengthy shoulder, with well-

bent hind legs, are not absolutely necessary ; and a good head

and tail, mth a little high action, are all that is essential.

The following are useful hints for purchasers of coach-horses :

No gentleman should purchase a horse without a good trial of

his mouth and temper. To be perfect in the first respect, he

should be what is called on the road " a cheek horse," — that is.

12 waggons first linked together .

4 ditto, afterwards attached

Supposed weight of fifty labourers

tons. cwt. qrs.

38 4 2

13 2

4

55 6 2

COACH-HORSES.

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should require very little curb, should always be at play with his

bit. and yet not afraid of it, and should have each side of his

mouth alike. To a gentleman's leader, a good mouth is most

essential, and then, the higher his courage, the safer he is to

drive. With stage-coach horses, mouth is not of so much con-

sequence, because they are always running home, and there is

no tm'ning and twisting, as in gentlemen's work, which is often

in a crowd. A whistle, or a click with the tongue, should make

a gentleman's leader spring to his collar in an instant : one that

requires the whip should be discharged.

With wheel horses which are steady, and hold well, a coach-

man may almost set his leaders at defiance ; but if they are

otherwise, danger is at hand. It is not a bad plan to purchase

wheelers out of coaches, after they have been about six months

in regular work. For from sixty to eighty guineas, the best of

any man's stock may be picked ; and a sound, well-broke coach-

horse is not dear at that price. The coach-horses of gentlemen

should be high in flesh, as it enhances their appearance, and is

no obstacle to pace. A sound five-year-old horse, with good legs

and feet, and driven only in harness, will last, on an average,

from six to ten years in gentlemen's work, and will afterwards

be very useful for other purposes.

The average price of horses for fast stages is about 231. Fancy

teams, and those working out of London, may be rated consider-

ably higher ; but, taking a hundred miles of ground, well horsed,

this is about the mark. The average period of each horse's ser-

vice does not exceed four years in a fast coach — perhaps scarcely

so much. In a slow one, it may extend to seven. In both cases,

horses are supposed to be put to the work at five or six years old.

The price named as the average may appear a low one ; but

blemished horses find their way into coaches, as do those of bad

temper, &amp;c. As no labour, while it lasts, is harder than that of

coach-horses in fast work, it is wrong to purchase those which

are infirm, as many proprietors do. Generally speaking, such

horses are out of their work half their time, and are certain to

die in their owner's debt. As the roads now are, bhnd horses

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are less objectionable than infirm ones. A blind horse that goes

up to his bit is both pleasanter and safer to drive than one with

good eyes that hangs away from his work. Blind horses, how-

ever, work best in the night.

A horse cannot be called a coach-horse unless he has good legs

and feet. As a wheel-horse, he is never to be depended upon

down hill, if he has not sound hmbs. He cannot resist weight,

if he be weak in his joints. To bad legs and feet are owing

numerous accidents to coaches, many of which the public hear

nothing of. If horses, on the contrary, have good legs and feet,

they will last, even in the fastest work, many years, provided

they are shod with care, and well looked after. Proprietors of

coaches have at length found out that it is their interest to be

humane and liberal to their horses, because the hay and corn

market is not so expensive as the horse market. They have,

therefore, one horse in four always at rest; in other words, each

horse lies still on the fourth day. Generally considered, per-

haps, no animal toiling solely for the profit of man, leads so

comfortable a Ufe as the English coach-horse : he is sumptuously

fed, kindly treated, and if he does suffer a little in his work, he

has mostly twenty-three hours in the twenty-four of perfect ease;

he is now almost a stranger to the lash, nor do we ever see him

with a broken skin. No horse lives so high as a coach-horse.

Hunters, in the hunting season, do not eat the quantity of corn

that coach-horses do; for the former are feverish after their

work, which is not the case with the latter, as they become

accustomed to this almost daily excitement. In the language of

the road, the coach-horse's stomach is the measure of his corn —

he is fed ad libitum\* The effect of this is that he soon gathers

flesh, even in this severe work, — for there is none more severe

while it lasts ; and good flesh is no obstacle to speed, but the

contrary.

It is not found, however, that (barring contagious diseases)

\* Some coachmasters give their horses all manger-meat ; but this is wrong:,

Rs it often produces indigestion and disease. A certain portion of long liay is

necessary.

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where their owners are good judges of condition, coach-horses

are much subject to disease. After a hot summer, coach-horses

are most liable to derangement ; and the month of October is

the worst in the year for them, in consequence of it being their

moulting season. Coach-horses, indeed, are certain to sweat

three days out of four, which keeps their blood pure, and ren-

ders almost unnecessary medicine, of which, in general, they

have but a small portion — perhaps less than they should have.

It is a mistake, however, that fleshy horses cannot go fast in

harness ; they are more powerful in draught than thin ones ; and,

having only themselves to carry, flesh does not injure their legs,

as in riding. In a fast coach, then, a horse ought not to work

more than four days without rest, as he becomes leg-weary, and

wears out the sooner ; and he becomes also too highly excited.

A horse a mile, reckoning only one side of the ground, is about

the proportion. Thus we may suppose that ten horses work

the coach up and down a ten-mile stage, which gives eight at

work, and two at rest. Every horse, then, rests the fourth day.

In slow, heavy work, however, coach-horses will do their ground

every day, barring accidents or illness.

In slow work, the average duration of coaching stock may be

from six to seven years, provided they are at first fresh, and firm

on their legs. In fast work, their time may be from three to

fom' years, or scarcely perhaps so much. Coach proprietors on

a large scale should have a break for their young horses,

previous to going into regular work. The practice of putting a

young horse unaccustomed to harness into a coach laden with

passengers is most reprehensible ; and when injury is sustained

by it, it should be visited by the severest penalties the law can

inflict.

HARNESS.

In the manufacture of harness we have arrived at a degree of

perfection, to which the invention of the patent shining leather

has mainly contributed. A handsome horse well harnessed is a

noble sight ; yet in no country, except England, is the art of

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putting a horse into harness at all understood. If, however,

our road horses were put to their coaches in the loose awkward

fashion of the continental people, we could not travel at the

rate we do. It is the command given over the coach-horse that

enables us to do it.

In regard to mails, it should be observed that the proprietors

who horse them are not sufficiently attentive to the state of the

harness on the ground worked by night ; whereas it should in

reahty be the best. If anything break by daylight, it is in-

stantly observed ; but it is not so in the night, as lamp-hght is

uncertain and treacherous. In speaking of particulars, it may

be observed, that bearing-reins are a relief to the arm of the

driver, but by no means to the horses. Indeed, they materially

lessen the power of horses in drawing, become insufferable to

them in a long journey, and fatigue them much sooner than

they would otherwise be. Not only do these reins by no means

serve to keep horses up ; but they prevent their rising after

having fallen.

When a wheel-horse has the habit of throwing up his head,

which greatly annoys the mouth of the leader before him, a

nose-martingale should be used. This, however, is rarely suffi-

cient. Indeed, it is a bad custom to run the leader's reins

through terrets over the heads of the wheelers ; for then every

movement which the wheelers make with their heads, acts

powerfully on the mouths of the leaders, whether they be good

or bad. If the former, it is sometimes attended with danger :

thus, a wheeler throws up his head, suddenly and powerfully

shortens the rein of the leader, who is checked, and as the

wheeler goes on, he brings the bar with force against the hocks

of the leader, which instantly flies forward, and mischief ensues.

This, perhaps, does not last long ; but one evil only takes

the place of another : leaders soon learn to be, from custom,

equally heedless of this check and of their driver's hand : and

their mouths become steeled by the constant tossing of the

wheeler's heads. It is thus that we sometimes hear of leaders

choosing their own road in spite of the best efforts of good

HARNESS.

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coachmen ; and so it will always be till terrets are totally

abolished. This may easily be done by conducting the leader's

rein through the rosette in which the wheeler's outside bearing-

rein, of which we have just disapproved, at present passes, and

thus supersede the terret.

Terrets, however, are supposed to look well, and to have the

advantage of keeping the head steady. To obviate their disad-

vantages, therefore, in some measure, rollers are placed in the

bottom of each terret, over which the rein passes. This, in

some degree, obviates the evil, as the rein no longer holds in the

terret, but slides easily, giving the wheeler's head more freedom.

In all kinds of work, a tool-box is a necessary appendage to the

coach. It should contain a strong screw-wrench, wheel and

spring clips, a spring shackle or two, with bolts and nuts, and

two chains — one for a trice, and the other shorter, with a ring

at one end and hook at the other, in case of a tug giving way.

In his pocket the coachman should have a short strap with a

buckle at each end, as in case of almost any part of the reins,

or indeed most parts of the harness breaking, it comes into use

in a moment.

The following are interesting extracts on this subject, from

an article in a late number of the Quarterly Review j and the

work quoted and referred to in the article is intitled Bubbles

from the Brunnens of Nassau. " With regard to the manage-

ment of horses in harness, perhaps the most striking, feature to

English eyes is, that the Germans intrust these sensible animals

with the free use of their eyes. ' As soon as, getting tired, or,

as we are often apt to term it, lazy, they see the postilion

threaten them with his whip, they know perfectly well the

limits of his patience, and that after eight, ten, or twelve threats,

there will come a blow. As they travel along, one eye is always

shrewdly watching the driver ; the moment he begins his slow

operation of lighting his pipe, they immediately slacken their

pace, knowing as well as Archimedes could have proved, that he

cannot strike fire and them at the same time : every move-

ment in the carriage they remark ; and to any accurate ob-

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server who meets a German vehicle, it must often be per-

fectly evident that the poor horses know and feel, even better

than himself, that they are drawing a coachman, three bulky

baronesses, their man and their maid, and that to do this on a

hot summer's day is no joke.'

" Now, what is our method ? \* In order to break-in the

animal to draught, we put a collar round his neck, a crupper

under his tail, a pad on his back, a strap round his belly, with

traces at his sides ; and, lest he should see that, though these

things tickle and pinch, they have not power to do more, the

poor intelligent creature is blinded with blinkers, and in this

fearful state of ignorance, with a groom or two at his head,

and another at his side, he is, without his knowledge, fixed

to the pole and sphnter-bar of a carriage. If he kick, even

at a fiy, he suddenly receives a heavy punishment which he

does not comprehend ; something has struck him, and has hurt

him severely; but, as fear magnifies all danger, so, for aught

we know or care, he may fancy that the splinter-bar which has

cut him is some hostile animal, and expects, when the pole

bumps against his legs, to be again assailed in that direction.

Admitting that in time he gets accustomed to these phjenomena

— ^becoming, what we term, steady in harness, still, to the last

hour of his existence, he does not clearly understand what it is

that is hampering him, or what is that rattling noise which

is always at his heels; — ^the sudden sting of the whip is a

pain with which he gets but too well acquainted, yet the unde

derivatwr of the sensation he cannot explain — he neither knows

when it is coming, nor what it comes from. If any trifiing

accident or even irregularity occurs — if any little harmless strap

which ought to rest upon his back happens to fall to his side,

the unfortunate animal, deprived of his eyesight, the natural

lanterns of the mind, is instantly alarmed ; and, though from

constant heavy draught he may literally, without metaphor, be

on his last legs, yet if his blinkers should happen to fall off, the

sight of his own dozing master, of his own pretty mistress, and

of his own fine yellow chariot in motion, would scare him so

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dreadfully, that off he would probably start, and the more they

all pui-sued him the faster would he fly !' "

In placing horses in a team, we speak of near and off horses.

The term of " near " is probably a borrowed one. In a waggon,

the near horse is the one which is nearest the driver, who

always walks with the horses to his right hand ; and the other,

running abreast of him, is called the off or far horse, because

he is the farthest from the driver. This term indeed does not

refer to coaching so well as to waggoning, as the coachman

does not walk by the side of his horses ; but many of the terms

of coachmanship are drawn from the same source, and the ex-

pression " near " horse seems to be among the number.

The word " near " having been thus made use of in its ori-

ginal acceptation, has, in some counties, gradually superseded

the word left, in contradistinction to right; as we hear oc-

casionally of the " near side of the road," the " near wheel of

a carriage," the " near leg of a horse in short, it is substituted

for the word left. Or the term may have arisen intermediately

DESCRIPTION OF PLATE XLIL

1. Face-strap.

2. Terret for the leader's rein,

3. Leader's rein.

4. Head-piece.

5. Hame-strap.

6. Bearing-rein hook.

7. "Winker.

8. Cheek-strap.

9. Nose-strap.

10. Rosette.

11. Throat-lash.

12. Bearing-rein roller.

13. Front piece, or fore-top.

14. Bearing-rein.

15. Hames.

16. Hame-tug.

17. Collar.

18. Hame-terret.

19. Wheeler's rein.

20. Crupper.

21. Pad.

22. Terret for wheeler's rein.

23. Belly-band.

24. Trace-bearer.

25. Trace-buckle.

26. Trace.

27. False belly-band.

28. Bit.

29. Swiyel-hook.

30. Pole-hook.

31. Pole-chain.

32. Pole.

33. Shackle or swing-bars.

34. Tug.

35. Splinter-bar.

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from this : tliat on the first introduction of carriages into this

country there was no driving on the box, but on the saddle, and

that hence the term " near " was used to distinguish the saddle-

horse, and the term " off," of course, the other horse. These

terms were afterwards apphed to the road, where, in meeting

carriages, according to the adage, "If you go to the left,

you are sure to go right; — if you go to the right you are

wrong."

Wheel-horses have the hardest place, as they are at work up

hill and down. Nevertheless, if favour be shown, it must be to

the leaders, because a tired wheeler may be dragged home ; but,

in the road phrase, if a leader cuts it, you are planted. It is a

rule always to put the freest leader on the near side, as he is

better in hand than on the other. If a leader be weak, and

cannot take his bar, the wheeler that follows him must be tied

up, and this will place him by the side of his partner. Leaders

should be fast trotters for fast coaches ; for, if they gallop, the

bars are never at rest, and consequently much of the draught is

lost in the angles described. To a coach-horse in fast work,

wind is almost as essential as to a hunter. Many high-blowers,

however, keep their time very well, with a little attention on

the part of the driver. If he see them distressed, he ought to

keep them off their collar, and let them only carry their harness

for a hundred yards or so, when they will recover, if their con-

dition be good. They work best as night-horses ; and, if driven

in the heat of the sun, they ought to be out of the tln-oat-lash.

Indeed, a leader should never be throat-lashed in very hot

weather, if he can be driven without it. Many horses pull, and

are unpleasant in it, but go temperately out of it.

In coach-horses, temper is much to be regarded. Some con-

tend that a horse should never know his place, — should go

either wheeler or leader, and on either side. If, however, a

horse working constantly in a coach prefer any place, he should

have it, and he v\ill generally pay for the indulgence. Some

horses, indeed, care not where they are put — working equally

well or ill in all places. As to the mode of putting young

RELATIVE PLACES OF HORSES.

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horses in harness, the best way is to put one, for the first time,

with only one other, which ought to be steady, good-coilared,

and quick. A great deal of room should be given his head,

and he should be driven at the cheek of an easy bit, with his

pole-piece rather slack. There is great want of judgment in

throat-lashing a young horse — either wheeler or leader.

Many horses go perfectly quiet as leaders, that would never

go as wheelers, because they will not bear being confined by

the pole-piece. All ought to have their sides frequently changed,

particularly young ones. As to horses' mouths, some will not

bear a curb-chain at all, while the bars and chins of others are

so hard, that it is difficult to make an impression upon them ;

the latter being most prevalent.

It is difficult, however, to handle a coach-horse, particularly

a leader, whose mouth is very tender. A snaffle is not safe, as,

in case of his dropping or bolting, it has not sufficient power to

catch him up quickly, at such a distance from the driver's hand.

For a gig-horse, it may occasionally answer. The usual plan

then is to " cheek him," as it is technically called, that is, to

put his coupling-rein to the cheek instead of the bottom of the

bit. Should this be severe for him, and he swing his head too

much towards his partner, his draught-rein should be put down

to the bit, which will bring him straight. He should have

liberty in his bearing-rein, and his curb-chain should not be

tight. A check-rein to a nose-martingale is often of service in

this case, as it keeps his head steady, and makes him face his

work. Such horses in general work more pleasantly out of the

throat-lash.

Horses with very hard mouths require the bit with double

port, the ChifFney bit, or the plan of putting the curb-chain

over the tongue instead of under the chin, which in some pre-

vents what is termed a dead mouth. Letting out the head of

the bridle in the middle of a stage, has also considerable elfect,

as causing the bit and curb-chain to take hold in a fresh place.

A check-rein likewise is sometimes put to the middle hnk

of the curb-chain, to retain the bit in the middle of the

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DRIVING.

mouth, and to keep it alive, as it is termed. In hard pullers,

moreover, putting the bearing-rein to the top, and the coupling-

rein to the lowest loop in the bit, creates a counter-action, not

only making the bit more severe, but keeping the mouth in

play. A hard puller is generally safest, and more in place be-

fore the bars than at wheel ; for, with a good pair of wheel-

horses, leaders are soon checked, and he pulls less with a free

than with a slack partner.

A coach-horse, if obedient to the hand, cannot well carry his

head too high, while a horse that goes with his head down has a

mean appearance in harness. The horse, however, that carries

his head higher than his partner, should have his couphng-rein

uppermost. A coach-horse should not be broken in a fast

coach, as in fast work there is no time to try his temper, and

to humour him. By being put at first into quick work, many

horses get into a habit of cantering, and never trot well after-

wards.

A kicking wheel-horse should be put on the near side, where

he is less liable to be touched by any thing that might annoy him ;

for, on the off side, throwing the reins on his back, or touching

his tail when getting any thing out of the boot, may set him off,

and cause mischief. — A kicking leader should have a ring on the

reins, for many accidents arise by a leader's getting a rein under

his tail, owing to the want of this. With first-rate coachmen,

however, this precaution is the less essential, that they generally

have their horses better in hand. With horses very fresh in

condition it sometimes happens, especially in a turn, that a

wheeler kicks over his trace, and an accident is sometimes the

consequence. A light hip-strap prevents this, by taking the

trace up with him when he rises. In London, this is particularly

useful ; for, when horses are turning short, or in a crowd, they

frequently have their traces slack, and therefore more easily

kicked over. The hip-strap looks slow, but it is safe.

COACHMEN.

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COACHMEN.

Of late years, a superior class of men form our coachmen ; i\\&lt;\

for this we are mainly indebted, first, to the dnvmg- clubs, and

the notice taken of coachmen by men of fortune ; and, secondly,

to the boxes being placed on springs. The latter renders it o

common practice for passengers to pay an extra snillina- for "Mie

box-place, whereas formerly a man would have given something

to be any where else. We are told that good coachmen are be^-

coming, in proportion to their number, more scarce every ve;ir,

because, owing to the fine state of the roads, the condition of

the cattle, and the improved method of road-work, coach-

horses are so above their work, that the assistance of the driver

is seldom required. When in town, says a writer in the Sport-

ing Magazine, " I sometimes take a peep at the mails coming

up to the Gloucester Coffee-house ; and such a set of spoons

are.. I should hope, difficult to be found : they are all legs and

wings ; not one of them has his horses in hand ; and they sit

on their boxes — as if they were sitting on something else."

Certain it is that coach-work in perfection is not to be seen

a hundred miles from the metropolis — seldom so far. The

build of coaches, the manufacture of harness, and the stamp and

condition of horses are greatly inferior in the northern counties ;

and as to the coachmen, few that at all deserve the appellation.

There are few things in which knowledge of an art without

execution is of less value than in driving four-in-hand; for,

although a coachman may have knowledge, it is possible that,

from natural awkwardness, he may be unable to put it into

practical efi^ect with a neat and appropriate movement of his

arms and hands ; and seldom is a certain propriety and neat-

ness more required than in handling the reins and whip. To

make a man a good driver, there is one requisite, and that is,

what are called on the roads "hands" — a nice faculty of touch.

No man with a hard, heavy hand can ever make a good horse-

man or driver. Neither will a nervous man ever be safe on a

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coach-box, for presence of mind and strong nerve are there very

often called into action.

The air and manner of a coachman have been cleverly de-

scribed by some periodical writers. Let us, say they, suppose

the horses put to their coach, all ready for a start — the reins

thrown across the off wheel-horse's loins, with the ends hanging

upon the middle terret of his pad, and the whip thrown across

the backs of the wheelers. — The coachman makes his appear-

ance. If he be a coachman, a judge will immediately perceive

it ; for, as a certain philosopher observes, " every situation in

life serves for formation of character," and none more so than

a coachman's. I was going to say — only let a judge see him

come out of his office, pulling on his glove ; but this I will say

— let one see him walk round his horses, alter a coupling-rein,

take up his whip and reins, and mount his box, and he wdll at

once pronounce him a neat, or an awkward one. — The moment

he has got his seat and made his start, you are struck with the

perfect mastership of his art — the hand just over his left thigh,

the arm without constraint, steady, and with a holding com-

mand, that keeps his horses like clockwork, yet, to a super-

ficial observer, with reins qmte loose. So firm and compact

is he, that you seldom observe any shifting, except perhaps to

take a shorter purchase for a run down hill, which he accom-

plishes with confidence and skill untinctured with imprudence.

In a coachman, temper is also one of the essentials to a

good workman. — We are told of a great artist, that, having four

\*'rum ones" to deal with, and being unable to make them work

to please him, he threw the reins on the footboard, and ex-

claimed, " Now, d — n your eyes, divide it among you, for I will

be troubled with you no longer." The impertinences of pas-

sengers sometimes increase this irritability. In steam-vessels,

they adopt the plan of writing in large letters on the wheel

which directs the helm, " Do not talk to the helmsman." It

would be as well in some coaches to have the same rule adopted

— " Do not babble to the coachman."

It is not possible to obtain a better idea of a good coachman

COACHMEN.

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tlian from the following account of one who is said to be the

first coachman in England for bad horses. " Having all his

Hfe had moderate horses — some strong and heavy, some light

and blood-like, old hunters, old posters, — most of the teams

going and returning, — their work at the utmost stretch, always

overpowering, — having also had always, besides difference in

character, weak horses to nurse, — this ordeal has worn him

down to a pattern of patience. With these, and great weight

upon severe ground, he is steady, easy, very economical in

thong and cord, very light-handed and sometimes playful. — I

observed him closely, and discovered from his remarks, as well

as from what I saw, that his great secret of keeping his nags in

any thing like condition, and preserving them when apparently

worn out, is by putting them properly together, by constantly

shiiling their situations, and by the use of check -reins with re-

markable judgment — by which means he brings their powers

as near to equahty as possible, besides preventing the evil of

boring. Indeed, his horses all go light and airy ; and though

at times his hold of necessity becomes powerful, yet, generally

speaking, he takes his load without a severe strain upon his

arms. — I own it is this particular knack which always wins me.

Both in driving and riding, give me the man who can accomplish

his object with a light hand."

The duty of a coachman is apt to injure the eyes — particularly

in cold blowing weather. He must keep his eye forward ; and

it is found that the sight cannot be fixed upon any thing be-

yond the head of the wheel-horses (not so far as this, in short

men,) without raising the eyelids, and consequently exposing

the eyes to the weather. Six parts of cold spring water, to one

of brandy, is a good lotion when the eyes suffer from this

cause. — Coachmen should also preserve their feet and bodies

from cold. In very cold weather, the chin should be protected

by a shawl, and the knees by thick cloth knee-caps. In very

severe weather, the breast should be protected ; for which pur-

pose hare-skins are now manufa/'tured, and are getting into use

on the road.

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DRIVING.

A coachman ought not to drive more than seventy miles a

day ; and, if this is done at two starts, so much the better.

The wearing of the frame, under daily excitement, must tend to

produce premature old age, and to shorten life ; and this excite-

ment must be very considerable when a man drives a fast coach

.eighty or a hundred miles a day without a stop — particularly if

his coach be strongly opposed. Coachmen who wish to keep

themselves light, take walking exercise in their hours of rest

from road- work.

As to amateur coachmen, it has been observed, that if a diet

were formed, before whom gentlemen-coachmen were to be

examined previous to their being considered safe, it would not

be amiss if they were put to the test of having the harness of

four horses taken to pieces, strap from strap, and then requested

to put it together again in the presence of the judges. There

would be no hesitation in pronouncing him safe who succeeded

in this, as his experience on the road must have been consider-

able. How these amateurs are trusted with the reins, coach-

men are now obliged to be careful, owing to the speed of coaches,

and the improved breed and condition of coach-horses. Hence,

we see fewer amateurs at work than formerly. It would indeed

be highly culpable in a coachman to trust the lives of pas-

sengers and his master's property to any one whom he did not

know to be safe, or even without reflecting that a man may be a

very safe coachman with horses he knows, and a very unsafe

one on some roads with horses to which he is a stranger.

To gentlemen who wish to drive, and are really capable of

doing so, the following is recommended as not a very bad way

of doing business : — " When travelling with a coachman I do

not know," says an amateur, " I always adopt the following

plan — that is, if I wish to work. In the first place, I never got

upon a coach-box yet with any thing like half-pay about me :

such as a black handkerchief around my neck, or in blue panta-

loons ; neither do I think I ever shall. I always take care to

have a good deal of drag about me : — a neat pair of boots, and

knee-caps, if cold weather : a good drab surtout — if not a

COACHMEN.

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poodle ; a benjamin or two about the coach, and a little of the

spot about the neck. For the first mile, I always observe a

strict silence, unless broken by coachee ; but at this time he

generally runs mute. He is perhaps but just awake, or is con-

sidering about his way-bill — reckoning his passengers, thinking

what he has to do on the road, and, if a worKman, looking over

his team to see if all is right. Leave him alone for a short time,

and when his mind is at ease, he will look you over as you sit

beside him. He will begin with your boots, proceeding up-

wards to the crown of your hat, and if he like you, and you

make a remark or two that please him, and show you to be a

judge of the art, the first time he stops he will say — ' Now, sir,

have you got your driving gloves on ; w ould you like to take

'em?' — I am here alluding to country work, and not to the

roads near London."

Coachmen's expenses on the road being heavy, should be

taken into consideration by passengers. They have their horse-

keepers to pay every week, or they will not do their best for

them ; and the wear and tear of their clothes is a heavy tax on

their pockets. They are satisfied, however, with one shilhng

under, and two shillings for anything over, thirty miles ; and

they are well entitled to that sum — more especially when we

recollect that they are liable to have empty coaches. No man,

certainly, should give them less than a shilling, and if lie often

travel the same road, his money is not ill bestowed. In re-

spectable coaches, no great diff\*erence is now made between the

fees given by in and outside passengers, as it often happens that

the latter are best able to pay.

Guards on mail coaches are necessary appendages to the

establishment ; and, that they may be equal to their duty, they

go only moderate distances — as from sixty to eighty miles,

when they are relieved by others. Those on the long stages,

however, are imposed upon by their masters ; and, by being

made to do more than they are equal to — many of them two

nights up for one in bed, are half their time asleep. Some go

from London to Exeter, Shrewsbury, and other places equally

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distant, witLoiit stopping more than three quarters of an hour

on the road, which, in bad weather, is hard enough. Indeed, it

is wonderful how with their means they always contrive to live.

Guards are by no means useless appendages to stage coaches ;

for no coach, running a long distance and in the night, should

be without one ; but sucb guards should be provided witli fire-

arms in good repair. Setting aside the idea of highway rob-

bery, it is impossible that, in the night, a coachman can see

to the luggage on his coach, — nor indeed, can the guard, if he

be asleep, and asleep he must be a great part of his time, if

worked in the way above stated. He should not go more than

one hundred miles, and he should be paid by the proprietors.

But if the public should not be left to pay an armed guard, it

is monstrous that they should pay an unarmed one. As to

mail-guards, government allows them only a mere pittance of

a few shillings a week, leaving the public to pay them;

whereas the public have nothing to do with them, and it is the

most impudent imposition that these servants of government

should be paid by persons travelling. That they carry fire-

arms is true ; but it is to protect the letter-bags — property

which government is paid to protect — that they would use

these arms, and not on account of passengers. Strictly speaking,

they have nothing to do with the passengers, nor their lug-

gage ; their sole duty being to protect the mail. As, therefore,

government is paid for carrying the mails, government, and

not the public, should pay the persons who actually do protect

them.

MOUNTING AND DISMOUNTING.

Before getting upon the box, a coachman should walk round

his horses' heads, to see that his curb-chains and coupling reins

are right, and, above all, that the tongues of his billet-buckles

are secure in their holes. Many accidents have arisen from

the want of this precaution. No man is a safe coachman

who does not see to these things. Of mounting and dismounting,

tiiere is nothing particular to be said ; except that, in the former.

THE SEAT — STARTING.

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the reins are to be taken in the right hand, and transfen-ed to

the left as soon as the seat is reached.

THE SEAT. ,

The dnver should sit in the middle of the box, quite straight

towards his horses, rather upright or backward, than forward,

with his knees nearly straight, and with his feet together, to-

ward the edge of the footboard. With the exception of a pliant

motion of his loins, on any jolting of the coach, his body

should be quite at rest, and particularly so when he hits a

horse. Independently of appearance, a firm seat on a box

is very necessary for safety to a coachman and his passengers,

for a trifle w^ill otherwise displace him.

STARTING.

Before starting, four horses should stand clear, or at their

proper length from each other. They should have some notice

— a click, or a whistle given them to move. If the whip is

used, the wheelers should be touched, as generally the ablest

horses.

It is with coach-horses as with mankind — that where the

physical strength is in the governed, they must be humoured a

little. When starting, the coachman must not pull at their

heads, but feel their mouths lightly, or they may bolt, throw

'themselves down, or break through their harness. If they are

old, and the stage commences with a descent, they should be

allowed to go a couple of hundred yards before they are put to

their usual pace. A young horse should be started very quietly,

making the old horse take collar first. This is especially ne-

cessary if the young one is inchned to be hot, as it will prevent

his plunging.

A young horse should first be started in a wide space, so that

he may get off without a check. If he be alarmed, and inchned

to bounce, he should not be held hard, and still less stopped ;

for, if so, he may not like, particularly if high mettled, to start

again. The old horse will prevent his running far. If a young

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horse be sliy of his collar, he should not at first be pressed to

it ; as he may thereby take a dislike to it, and become a jibber.

A young horse, when first put to a coach, should be turned to

the pole very carefully, to prevent its touching his hind quarter,

which might make him kick. When he has been driven long

enough to be steady, he should be taken up in his bearing-rein,

put down lower on his bit, and driven in a wide circle, or figure

eight — ^keeping the inner horse well up to his collar and bit.

In breaking, he should be frequently stopped, but not held

after being pulled up, as, if high mettled, it will make him

restless, and if dull, he does not require it. If, on the contrary,

a young horse is heavy, and not ready to start when the com-

mand is given, he should be whipped till he answer it.

THE PACES.

These, in driving, must always be a walk or a trot— never

a canter, which, owing to the draught, would be equally in-

jurious to the horse and to the carriage. Either of these

paces, moreover, should be suited to the nature of the road.

Rapid driving, on the stones especially, exposes a carriage to

injury, both from shocks against others, and from those which

attend its own motion. However, it is sometimes for a moment

necessary, in order to get out of the way of carts, waggons, &amp;c.

In public coaches, the pace is often too rapid ; and, should

any passenger plead for the horses, on the score of the excessive

heat, the coachman with the utmost sang froid replies that he

must keep his time, although the probability sometimes is, that

one or more of them may drop, by which considerable time

may be lost, as well as reduction in force ensue for the rest of

the stage. Horses should be more frequently watered during

hot weather than they generally are ; increased perspiration

renders it necessary.

However well pleased thoughtless people may be at going at

an accelerated rate, it is certainly hard that other passengers

should be obliged to hazard their existence at the pleasure of a

reckless driver, who, in answer to all remonstrance, coolly

answers, he must " keep his time." Something should certainly

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be done to prevent the cantering system\* j for no coach, be it

ever so well built, can preserve its equilibrium so well when the

horses are in the canter or gallop, as when in the trot. At the

same time, it is to be borne in mind, that, at the rate our

coaches now travel, some slight degree of it may sometimes be

unavoidable, owing to horses trotting so variably, and its being

very difficult to obtain teams every individual of which shall be

able to trot through the distance at the required rate.

In driving four-in-hand, it is not every man who knows when

a coach-horse is at work, as a horse may keep a tight trace, and

yet be doing little. There is, however, an increased tension of

the horse's frame when taking weight with him, which is the

surest test, and which never escapes a quick and experienced

eye. As already observed, those called lobbing-goers take greater

weight with them than horses of finer action, provided they are

equally close workers. Heavy draught shortens the stride of

horses, after they have been a few years at work.

THE TIME.

In short distances, to know precisely at what time it is neces-

sary to start, to arrive at any place at a certain hour, the driver

has only to ascertain the distance, and to regulate the pace by

the following table : —

4 miles an hour, 1 mile in 15 minutes.

5

ditto

ditto

12

ditto

6

ditto

ditto

10

ditto

7

ditto

ditto

84

ditto

8

ditto

ditto

74

ditto

9

ditto

ditto

64

ditto

10

ditto

ditto

6

ditto

In the streets of London, ten minutes at least, in every hour,

must be allowed for stoppages.

\* There is an act which requires that all four shall not gallop together ; and

many teams, especially in the neig-hbourhood of town, have one good trotter

to defeat the informer, known as the " Act of Parliament horse." — Ed. Fifth

Edition.

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THE WHIP.

" We are too apt," said the late Lord Erskine, " to consider

animals under the domination of man in no view but that of

propert§r. We should never forget that the animal over which

we exercise our power has all the organs which render it suscep-

tible of pleasm-e and pain. It sees, it hears, it smells, it tastes,

it feels with acuteness. How mercifully, then, ought we to ex-

ercise the dominion intrusted to our care ! "

Speaking to coach-horses from the box is now considered

slow, but it is not without its effect. Whipping, however, is

sometimes indispensable. The manufacture of four-horse whips

has arrived at great perfection, and affords employment to many

hundred hands.

Refined management of the whip is not of many years' birth ;

and even now there are but few who execute this effectually and

with grace. There are as many ways of whipping coach-horses,

says a clever writer in the Sporting Magazine, as there are horses

in the coach ; and, as there is a right and a wrong way of doing

most things, a young beginner may observe the following direc-

tions, beginning with the wheel-horses : —

Before a coachman hits a wheel-horse, he should twist his

thong three times round the crop of his whip, holding the crop

at that moment somewhat horizontally, by which means the

thong will twist towards the thin end of the crop, when the

thong, being doubled, will not exceed the length of a pair-horse

thong, and in some measure resemble it. Being double renders

it of course more severe, as it falls more heavily on the horse ;

and by the two ends of the thong not being spread, but close

together at the time of the blow, it falls with increased force.

When the off-side wheeler is struck, the coachman's right arm

should be put out from his body in the same position in which

he presents it to his tailor to measure him for a coat, but the

blow should proceed entirely from the vtTist. The part on which

the horse should be struck is about four inches behind his false

belly-band, or somewhere near the short rib on his right side.

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The stinging part of the blow is then felt under the helly ; and,

unless he is quite beaten, or of a sulky and bad disposition, he

seldom fails to answer it. If he do not answer it here, he must

be struck before the belly-band, when the blow falls just behind

the fore-arm, on a part on which the skin is very thin. In hitting

a near-wheeler, the coachman brings his right hand exactly oppo-

site to his face, and, turning the crop three times around, as

before directed, he lets the thong fall sharply across the horse's

loins three times in succession, if he do not answer sooner, —

observing that, after the third blow, he draws the thong obliquely

across the horse's back, by which means his arm returns to a

state of rest, and the crop falls gently across his reins, just about

his left hand, the crop pointing a little upwards to prevent the

thong getting under or touching the near wheel-horse's tail.

Should the latter be the case, if the driver lower his crop, the

thong will almost always get released; but should it not, he must

let the thong loose, and draw it out from the point. When it

comes up from the tail, let the coachman throw back his crop a

little to his right hand, and the point of the thong will fall across

his fingers, when he catches it, and puts it back into his hand.

It must be observed, that, in striking the near wheel horse, the

wrist only, as in sword exercise, is at work : the body must be

quite at rest ; and, after the whip is brought to bear, the arm

must be quiet also, until the third blow is struck.

There is only one other method of hitting a wheel-horse, which

is called pointing him. This is done by hitting him with the

point of the thong, when loose, just behind his shoulders, but it

is not considered neat execution. If there should be a free leader

before the bars it causes him to fret, and is only to be had re-

course to in emergencies — as, for instance, in turning round a

corner, or into a gateway, when a leader is to be hit, and before

the coachman can recover his thong a wheel-horse requires

whipping also.

If a wheel-horse show symptoms of vice, as a disposition to

kick, &amp;c., or, in short, if he refuse to answer either of the other

ctdls upon his exertions, a blow with the double thong on his

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ears generally brings him to his senses. Without great neces-

sity, however, it is very reprehensible to strike a coach-horse

over the ears, the parts being very sensible.

It is generally supposed it is in whipping a leader that neat-

ness of execution is more especially displayed. It is, however, '

quite a mistake to suppose that it is in the power of a coachman

to punish a leader with the single, as he can a wheel- horse with

the double thong. No doubt, however, the blow from the loose

thong falls very sharp, as it falls on a tender part — the inside of

the thigh.

As the off-leader presents himself more fully to the right hand

of the coachman than his partner does, the horse that is the less

free of the two is generally put on that side. There are but two

ways of hitting an off-leader: one, by letting the thong fall gently

over his neck, or just behind his pad, when his driver merely

wishes to refresh his memory, and let him know that he has a

whip in his hand ; and the other, when he wants to hit him

sharply, by striking him with the point of the thong just under

his bar. The hard hitters of the old school never conceived they

had done the latter effectually, unless they struck their horse

twice at least, if not three times, the last stroke always ending

in a draw.

As this word " draw" is peculiar to the road, it must be ex-

plained to such as may not exactly comprehend it. Suppose a

coachman to hit his off-leader three times. The first two blows

are given, as it were, under-handed — that is to say, the hand is

lowered so as to admit of the thong going under the bar the first

two strokes. When the third or last is given, the point of the

elbow is thrown outwards, so as to incline the thong inwards,

which brings it up to the coachman's hand after the stroke, it

generally falling across his breast, which would not be the case

were it not for the draw. Another advantage also attends the

draw : a thong so throvm very seldom hangs in the bars, and

nothing is more uncoachman-like than to hit a leader above his

bar. A horse's mouth should always be felt before his coachman

hits him.

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Hitting the near leader with neatness and effect is tlie most

difficult part of the use of the whip. There are two ways of

doing it : one, by two common strokes and the draw ; and the

other by a sort of back-handed stroke, which is a very neat one,

and sufficiently severe, but it does not bring the thong so imme-

diately up to the coachman's hand as the drawn stroke does. In

the back-handed stroke, the wrist describes an exact figure of

eight, and the arm cannot be kept, as before, quite stili. In the

other method of hitting, the coachman's arm is brought about

opposite his chin, the first two blows yjroceeding from the wrist

alone ; but in the third, or the di-aw, the hand descends, tne

elbow is thrown outwards, and by two jerks of the arm, which it

is difficult to describe on paper, the draw is effected, and tne

thong comes, as before stated, across the coachman's breast, so

as to enable him to catch it instantly.

There is one other way of hitting a leader ; and that is, by

what IS called the chop. This is done by throwing out the right

arm rather forward, and with it, of course, the thong, and then

bringing it back sharply with the wrist inclined downwards. The

thong falls severely on the horse's thigh, and comes up to the

hand again, as in the draw. This is a very useful blow in a

narrow confined place, or when it is necessary to lose no time

before a leader is hit ; and, when neatly done, has a very work-

man-like appearance. This blow generally falls above the bar,

particularly if a horse is not at work at the time.

It has been said that leaders should always be hit under their

bar. This, however, cannot always be done; for if a horse hang

back from his collar, his bar is so low that it may be difficult to

get under it. In this case, however, the blow is made to tell

smartly, as it is in the coachman's power to throw his whip into

the flank, which is a very sensible part. When a leader is well

up to his collar, he always can, and always should, be hit under

his bar.

Should the point of the thong catch, or, as they say on the

road, " get hanged," in the bars or the pole-pieces — neither of

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which it will do when properly drawn after the last stroke, as

the inclination of the hand in the act of drawing enables it to

clear them — no violence should be used to loosen it, or a broken

crop will be the consequence. On the contrary, the arm should

be thrown forward, and the thong lightly moved, when in a

minute or two it will shake out. If it be fast between the eye

of the main bar and the pole-hook, the leaders should be eased

a little, and it will get released. Sometimes, however, on a wet

day, a thong will lap round some of these things so fast as to

make it necessary for the guard or some person to get down to

untie it. This is technically called having a bite. The double

thong will also sometimes hitch in the ends of the wheelers'

traces, as also in the point of the false belly-band. To obviate

this, in gentlemen's harness, these parts are always covered, or

piped, as it is called.

A free leader should not be hit in a short turn, or he may

break his bar, perhaps the pole-hook, or even the main-bar.

Neither should leaders be hit in going over a small bridge which

is much raised, or when the pole points upwards, as their draught

on the end of it may snap it in the futchels. Some drivers per-

petually whip or fan their horses, which first irritates and after-

wards injures them, by rendering them insensible to the proper

aids or correction. It must be observed that the whip should

never be used but in case of necessity. Indeed, one of the best

proofs of a good coachman is to see his right arm still ; and

although, for the safety of his coach, he ought to be able to

]iunish a horse when he requires punishment, yet he should, on

all accounts, be as sparing of it as he can. Horses may be

whipped till they become callous to whipping, and therefore

slow. In the condition in which coach-horses are now kept, a

pound of Nottingham whipcord will last a good coachman his

lifetime. The very act of throwing the point of the thong over

the leaders' heads, or letting it fall on their backs, as a fisher-

man throws his fly upon the stream, will set half the coach-horses

in England, in these days, into a gallop.

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THOROUGHFARES, PASSING, &amp;e.

The driver should avoid passing through the great thorough-

fares, and prefer the widest of the less frequented streets which

nm parallel to them. In London, he should never go into the

City through the Strand, Fleet-street, and Cheapside, between

twelve and five o'clock, if he can possibly avoid it, as these

streets are then crowded with every kind of vehicle. He should

also avoid going into the City about mid-day, on Mondays and

Fridays, on account of the droves of oxen passing through the

principal streets.

The middle of the road is safest, especially for a loaded coach,

except under peculiar circumstances.

In driving four horses, to keep them well in hand is a most

material point, both as regards their work and for the safety of

the coach. The track made by a coach in descending a hill

shows whether the horses are properly held together or not.

Accidents from horses taking fright, and bolting across the road,

happen only to clumsy fellows, of whom the list is considerable.

The rules for passing and meeting carriages on the road have

already been given, yet there are times when they need not be

strictly adhered to, and a little accommodation becomes expe-

dient. Thus, if one coachman has the hill in his favour — that is,

if he be going down, and a loaded coach be coming up at the

same time — he who is descending, if he can do it with safety,

ought to give the hardest side of the road to the other coach-

man.

As to narrow spaces, it is evident that where the bars can go

the coach can go, as they are wider than the wheels ; and conse-

quently, if they are cleared, all is safe. The swing-bar is an

excellent invention, as a horse works in it from either shoulder,

and therefore quite at his ease. A sharp and experienced driver

may calculate exactly the space sufficient to pass between two

bodies at rest, and may therefore pass with confidence and at

ease. As, however, in streets, he must meet many carriages

driven by inexperienced or intoxicated fellows, who do not for a

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moment move in any direct line, lie should allow tliem ample

room, and proceed with the utmost caution. A driver must be

incessantly on the look-out, must watch every vehicle that ap-

proaches, and give it more room than it may seem to require.

ASCENDING AND DESCENDING.

In going up hill, it is in general best to trot up at first, and

to walk afterwards. In going down hill, it is best to keep the

wheelers tight in hand, to let the leaders just clear the bars,

and to come gently down. In the latter case, a turn of the

reins of the wheel-horses may be made round the little finger.

(Plate XLIII. fig. 4.)

Although, however, it may be necessary to catch up wheel-

horses, and make them hold back their coach dovtia hill, there is

nothing in which a light finger is more essential to safety. The

manner in which some persons haul at horses' mouths, when

descending with a load, considerably adds to the difficulty, by

trying the strength of the tackle. But this is not all : these

persons should be aware that all this force employed on their

horses' mouths is so much added to the pressure of the coach'^

in proportion to it is that pressure increased. The horses are

then drawing by their heads !

The objections to a locked wheel, with a top-heavy load, have

already been stated. If, however, with a heavy load, and upon

a smooth hard road, a wheel must be locked, it should be that

next a ditch, or other dangerous part. In going down hill, a

coach always strikes on the side on which the wheel is not locked.

The coachman should therefore keep as much as possible on that

side of the road on which the wheel is locked : by crossing the

road, if he meet or have to pass any thing, the coach will not

strike; and by holding that way, at any time, it will prevent over-

turning. The coach naturally strikes in a direct line from the

perch-bolt.

The generality of passengers know not the danger of galloping

a coach, with three tons' weight in and out, down hill, at the

rate of twelve or fifteen miles an hour, with no wheel locked.

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the whole resistance of the wheel-horses depending on a small

leather strap and buckle at the top of the hames, — these coach-

men deeming it beneath their dignity to drive with breechings.

Even thus, however, accidents would be much less frequent if

coachmen took the precaution of pulling up their horses short,

when on the point of descending. In night-work, this is doubly

useful, because it often happens that a pole-chain is unhooked,

or a hame-strap gets loose, without being discernible by lamp or

moonlight.

" With wheel-horses that will hold back at all, I will be

bound," says a clever vsrriter and experienced coachman, " to

take a loaded coach down most of the hills now met with on

our great roads, without a drag-chain, provided I am allowed to

pull up my horses at the top, and let them take it quietly the

first hundred yards. This, it may be said, would be losing time,

but, on the contrary, time would be gained by it ; for, as soon

as I perceived I was master of my coach, I should let her go,

and by letting my horses loose at the bottom, I could spring

them into a gallop, and cheat them out of half the hill, if there

were one (as frequently happens) on the next portion of road.

This advantage, it must be recollected, cannot be taken if the

chain be to be put on ; and I have therefore in my favour all the

time required to put the chain on, and to take it off again."

There are, however, some horses which no man can make to

hold a loaded coach down hill. Of this description are, first,

the stiff-necked one, as he is called, who turns his head away

from his partner, and shoulders the pole ; and, secondly, one

wlio, when he feels the weight pressing upon him, begins to

canter and jump, as coachmen term it; with these holding

back properly is out of the question. With such cattle, the

drag-chain must be had recourse to ; as well as when there is

the least reason to suspect the soundness of the harness. All

this confirms the necessity of checking the force of a coach

before descending a steep hill, and indeed in some cases — as

with bad holders — before coming upon a slight descent. The

term which coachmen have for this species of road, is " pushing,

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ground;" and if the fall be long, it is astonishing how the

pressure of a loaded coach upon wheel horses is increased be-

fore getting to the bottom of it, and how difficult it would be,

with wheelers not of the very best stamp, to pull up short, if

any accident should happen.

Young coachmen, in descending a hill, should take care that

their leaders do not draw on the end of the pole, which many

free ones do when they find the coach coming quickly after

them ; for this not only increases the pressure of the coach on

the wheelers, but, should either of them stumble, it must assist

in bringing him down. The following good and characteristic

directions were given by a very experienced coachman, to a

gentleman who undertook to take his coach a journey for him,

but who, although he knew the road well, had never driven on it

before. " That middle twelve miles of ground," said he, " is a

punish er, and you must mind what you are at with this load.

You have two hills to go down, and three to go up, in the first

seven miles. Don't stop to put the chain on, as they'U hold

well, and the tackle is good ; and don't let them walk up the

hills, for they are bad hands at that — you will lose a horse's

draught by it, and perhaps get hung up on one of them. You

must take fifty minutes to do the first seven miles, and good

work too. When you get at the top of the last hill, get down

and put your near leader to the cheek, and they'll toddle you

over the last five miles in half an hour, with all the pleasure

alive."

The following observations on this subject from the number

of the Quarterly Review already quoted, are too interesting to

be omitted here.

" Many j'^ears have elapsed," he says, " since I first observed

that, somehow or other, the horses on the continent manage to

pull a hea^^ carriage up a steep hill, or even along a dead level,

\^ith greater ease to themselves than our English horses. If any

unprejudiced person would only attentively remark with what

little apparent fatigue three small ill-conditioned horses vdU

draw, not only his own carriage, but very often that huge over-

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grown vehicle the French diligence, or the German eilwagen, I

think he would agree with me ; but the whole equipment is so

unsightly — the rope harness is so rude — the horses -R-ithout

blinkers look so wild — there is so much bluster with the postilion

— that, far from paying any compliment to the turn-out, one is

very much disposed at once to condemn the whole thing, and,

not caring a straw whether such horses be fatigued or not, to

make no other remark than that in England one would have

travelled at nearly twice the rate with one-tenth of the noise.

But neither the rate nor the noise is the point — our superiority

in the former, and our inferiority in the latter, cannot be doubted.

The thing to account for is, how such small, weak horses do

actually manage to draw a heaxj carriage up hill with so much

ease to themselves. Now, in Enghsh, French, and German

harness, there exists, as it were, three degrees of comparison as

to the manner in which the head of the horse is treated ; for, in

England, it is elevated, or borne up, by what we call the bearing-

rein, — in France it is left as Nature placed it (there being to

common French harness no bearing-rein), — and, in Germany,

the head is tied down to the lower extremity of the collar, or else

the collar is so made that the animal is by it deprived of the

power of raising his head. Now, passing over for a moment the

French method, which is, in fact, the state of nature, let us for

a moment consider which is better — to bear a horse's head up,

as in England, or to pull it downwards, as in Germany."

Evidently fired with a favourite theme, he thus proceeds : —

" In a state of nature, the wild horse, as every body knows (?),

has two distinct gaits or attitudes. If man, or any still wilder

beast, come suddenly upon him, up goes his head ; and as he

first stalks and then trots gently away — with ears erect, snorting

with his nose, and proudly snuffing up the air, as if exulting in

his freedom — as one fore-leg darts before the other, we have

before us a picture of doubt, astonishment, and hesitation, all of

which feelings seem to rein him, like a troop-horse, on his

haunches ; but, attempt to pursue him, and the moment he

defies you — the moment, determining to escape, he shakes his

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head, and lays himself to his work — how completely does he

alter his attitude ! That instant down goes his head, and from

his ears to the tip of his tail there is in his vertebrae an undulat-

ing action which seems to propel him, which works him along,

and which, it is evident, you could not deprive him of without

materially diminishing his speed. Now, in harness, the horse

has naturally the same two gaits or attitudes, and it is quite

true that he can start away with a carriage either in the one or

the other ; but the means by which he succeeds in this effort —

the physical powers which he calls into action, are essentially

different : — in the one case he works by his muscles, and in

the other by his own dead, or rather living, weight. In order to

grind corn, if any man were to erect a steam-engine over a fine,

strong, running stream, we should all say to him, ' Why do you

not allow your wheel to be turned by cold water instead of hot ?

Why do you not avail yourself of the weight of the water, in-

stead of expending your capital in converting it into the power

of steam ? In short, why do you not use the simple resource

tvhich Natm'e has presented ready-made to your hand?' In

the same way, the German might say to us, \* We acknowledge

a horse can drag a carriage by the power of his muscles, but

why do you not allow him to drag it by his weight ? '

" Let any one observe a pair of English post-horses dragging

a heavy weight up a hill, and he will at once see that the poor

creatures are working by their muscles, and that it is by sheer

strength that the resistance is overcome : but how can it be

otherwise j their heads are higher than nature intended them to

be, even in walking in a state of liberty, carrying no weight but

themselves : the balance of their bodies is therefore absolutely

turned against, instead of leaning in favour of their draught ;

and if my reader will but pass his hands down the back sinews of

our stage-coach or post-chaise horses, he will soon feel (though

not so keenly as they do), what is the cruel and fatal conse-

quence. It is true, that in ascending a very steep hill an

English postilion will occasionally unhook his bearing-reins;

hut the jaded creatures, trained for years to work in a false

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attitude, cannot in one moment get themselves into the scientific

position v/hich the German horses are habitually encouraged to

adopt. Besides this, we are so sharp with our horses, — we keep

them so constantly on the qui vive, or, as we term it, in hand,

that we are always driving them from the use of their weight to

the application of their sinews. That the figure and attitude of

a horse working by his sinews are infinitely prouder than when

he is working by his weight, (there may exist, however, false

pride among horses as well as men), I most readily admit ; and

therefore, for carriages of luxury, where the weight bears little

proportion to the powers of the noble animals employed, I ac-

knowledge that the sinews are more than sufiicient; but, to

bear up the head of a poor horse at plough, or at any slow,

heavy work, is, I conceive, a barbarous error, which ought not

to be persisted in.

" Whether there is most of the horse in a German, or of the

German in a horse, is a nice point, on which people might argue

a great deal : but the broad fact really is, that Germans live on

more amicable terms with their horses, and understand their

dispositions infinitely better, than the English ; in short, they

treat them as horses, while we act towards them and drill them

as if they were men ; and, in case any reader should doubt that

Germans are better horse-masters than we are, I beg to remind

him of what is perfectly well known to the British army, —

namely, that in the Peninsular war the cavalry horses of the

German Legion were absolutely fat, while those of our regiments

were skin and bone."

THE TURNINGS.

These must be regulated by the ground. A good driver

avoids all quick and sharp turnings. In town, it is much better

to drive on a little further, where another street may allow the

ample room requisite in turning. If a carriage do not pass

quite across a channel without turning, the perch must be

twisted according to the descent, because one wheel falls as that

at the opposite angle rises. By such a wrench, especially when

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going fast, the main or perch bolt is frequently broken, and

every part strained.

A loaded coach should never be turned short, even at a slow

pace, for the coach is never safe when there is not an even

bearing on the transom beds. If turned short, at a quick pace,

the higher and looser part of a coach must go over, because all

bodies put in motion by one power will proceed in a straight

line, unless compelled to change their course by some force

impressed. Hence a horse at full speed is with difficulty turned

to right or left ; and, if he turn suddenly, and of his own accord,

he puts his rider's horsemanship to the test. So with a coach,

a sudden turn to one side the road allows the body to swag

towards the other, and the centre of gravity is lost.

In a turn, a coachman must point his leaders well, that is,

take proper ground for them to make the turn, and let his

wheelers follow them. Moreover, as wheel-horses are always

in haste to make the turn, the di'iver must shoot them out on

the opposite side, just as he has pointed his leaders. Thus, if

the turn be to the right, he must catch up his near wheel rein,

and hit his off wheel-horse ; and vice versa. This will keep the

head of the pole (which he should have his eye upon) just be-

tween the leaders, and the wheelers will follow, as if they were

running on a straight road. This will also secure him against

danger, by clearing his coach of posts, gutters, &amp;c. No man

can make a neat turn with four horses, unless he shoot his

wheelers, at the same time that he points his leaders. In turn-

ing, the wheelers must rather be kept up, and the leaders be

tight in hand, to avoid the corner ; for, if the wheelers flag, and

the leaders draw, the carriage must be brought against it.

THE RANKS IN TOWN.

These must never be broken, either in driving through crowded

streets, or in setting down at crowded places. As to admitting

others into the rank, every driver should do as he would be

done by.

STOPS.

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STOPS.

It is a good plan to use horses to stop by notice, as it may

prevent accidents. In pulling up, the driver must pull the reins

equally, but rather those of the wheelers first. If this is attended

with difficulty, take the wheelers' reins in the right hand, and

pull till they hang well on the breeching, or on the pole chains,

thus increasing the leaders' draught so much that they will

easily be pulled up.

When a young coach-horse is stopped, it should be very

gradually — allowing at least ten yards to do it in ; for, if it be

attempted to stop him short, he will resist. A careful driver will

never keep his carriage standing in a great thoroughfare : but

when obliged to stop in a crowded street, the driver should, if

possible, avoid the spot where another carriage is stopping;

should choose as much as possible the widest part of the street ;

and draw up close to the curb.

There is no part of stage-coach economy in which greater

alteration has been made than in changing horses. Unless

business is to be transacted — as taking fares for passengers,

setting down, getting out parcels, &amp;c, — the average vidth fast

coaches is three minutes for each change.

ACCIDENTS, &amp;C. TO HORSES.

A cantering leader, or one that frets, is generally mismanaged

by young coachmen. They are apt to pull him back, and en-

deavour to get him to trot, by the bit, which generally fails, or

makes him even worse, by bringing him back on his bar. The

right way is to pull him back by his harness ; that is, to keep

the wheelers back, so that he may feel his collar and bit at the

same time.

A horse that kicks ought to be taken very short in his pole-

piece, and gagged ; and, when he begins to kick, he should be

whipped on the ears — a punishment which should never be

inflicted but for vice. — Hallooing to a horse when he kicks, has

sometimes an effect. A hot leader is sometimes benefited

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by mopping. An experienced driver says, " I once bought a

capital coach-horse for twenty-six pounds, because no one could

drive him : and, as he had broken two carriages, he was the

terror of the neighbourhood. I mopped him, and could drive

him with the greatest safety, either leader or at wheel."

In the case of a horse falling, a periodical writer, replying

to another, states, "In one of his letters on ^ the Road,' he

says, ' If the coachman be driving with the short wheel rein,

and a horse fall beyond recovery, he had better open his hand,

and let the reins fall out, than run the risk of being pulled olf

the box.' With all due deference to such authority, I cannot

subscribe to this, as it frequently happens that a horse falls, is

dragged along the ground for a short distance, and recovers

himself the moment the coach stops, and then starts olF at full

gallop, the other horses following his example. Now, if coachee

has opened his fist, and let the reins tumble out, and the

above occurrence should take place, I would certainly rather

be on the top of Cheviot than on the top of the said coach,

as the catastrophe would not be very difficult to foretell."

On many horses, hot weather has a singular effect; and,

therefore, it often happens that a good winter horse is an

indifferent summer one. Coach-horses are subject to many

accidents, of which one is peculiar to them — namely, fracture

of the legs in trotting on level ground.\* Fractures of the

foot in draught-horses and others are common ; but fractures

of the leg in coach-horses when trotting over level ground,

are probably caused by over-tension of the limb in the act

of drawing. It is said that a coach-horse's leg is more fre-

\* Wlien driving one of the Birmingliam fast coaches, just entering the

town of Dunstable, my near leader fell with her off hind-leg snapped clean in

two, held together merely by the skin. On pulling up to clear her from the

coach, I found the cause of the accident ; a piece of flint, shaped like a

hatchet, and with a blade as keen as a razor, still adhering to the bone,

against which it had either been whirled by a kick from one of the other three,

or had flown upwards from the tread of the mare herself.— Ed. Fifth

Edition.

ACCIDENTS TO COACHES, ETC.

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quently broken, when, with a heavy load behind him, he

snatches at his collar in a turn of the road.

They are also subject to an affection known by the appellation

of the lick, which greatly injures their condition. In this state

they lick each other's skins, and gnaw their halters to pieces.

This probably proceeds from the state of the stomach, caused

by the excitement of high feeding and work. It may be re-

moved by opening or alterative medicines.

They are hkewise subject to a kind of vertigo, which on

the road is called megrims. This, of which the immediate

cause is temporary pressure on the brain, is often brought

on by running in the face of a hot sun ; and, therefore, horses

subject to megrims ought to work at night. The attack ap-

pears to come on suddenly, though a snatching motion of the

head is sometimes observed to precede it. If not immediately

pulled up, the horse thus affected drops. Such horses should

have attention paid to the state of their bowels, and have fre-

quent antimonial alteratives. What is called " a megrim horse"

is always dangerous, especially near a precipice or ditch, as,

when seized, he rolls away from his partner, and, of course,

takes him with him.

ACCIDENTS TO COACHES, &amp;C.

A necessary precaution in a gig is — never to sit with the feet

under the body, but always to have one, if not both, out before

it. " I had a passenger by the side of me," says the driver who

gives this caution, " who was sitting with his feet under his

belly, and who was consequently thrown with much violence

into the road. I had live miles further to drive him, during

which he took care to have his feet before him."

In stage-coaches, accidents no doubt occur, and no one will

assert that the proprietors guard against them to the utmost of

their power. The great competition, however, which they have

to encounter, is a strong stimulant to their exertions on this

score. In some respects, also, the increase of pace has become

the traveller's security : coaches and harness must be of the

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best quality ; horses fresh and sound ; coachmen of skill and

respectability can alone be employed ^ and to this increased

pace is owing the improvement in these men's character.

They have not time now for drinking, and they come in colh-

sion with a class of persons superior to those who formerly

were stage-coach passengers, by whose example it has been

impossible for them not to profit. A coachman drunk on his

box is now a rarity — a coachman quite sober was, but a few

years ago, still more so. On the whole, however, travelling by

public conveyance was never so secure as it is at the present

time. Axle-trees and springs do not often break now ; and if

proprietors go to the expense, their wheels are made secure

against coming ofi".

The worst accidents, and those which, with the present struc-

ture of coaches, can never be entirely provided against, arise

from broken axle-trees, and wheels coming off on the road. The

guard, therefore, in whose department this lies, ought to examine

the axle-tree every time it is fresh greased. He should also re-

move it once in ten days, put a string through the bolt that

receives the linch-pin, and hang it up and cleanse it ; and he

should then strike it with a hammer, when, if uncracked and

sound, it will ring like a bell — the coachman attending to take

care that it be again properly screwed on.

Reins also break, though rarely, except in those parts which

run through the terrets, the rings of the throat-lash, or in the

billets ; and attention to these would make all safe, as far as

accidents from this cause are concerned.

Accidents happen also from want of attention to the security

of the bridles. The throat-lash, therefore — particularly of the

wheelers— should be as tight as can be allowed without injuring

respiration. There otherwise is always danger of the bridle being

pulled off. Accidents, moreover, happen from galloping coach-

horses down hill, or on even ground. If, indeed, a casualty then

happen, it must be a bad one. The goodness of a road is no

preservative against it : on the contrary, it is possible that if a

coach begin to swing, it may go over from the very circumstance

ACCIDENTS TO COACHES, ETC.

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of the road being so level and so smooth that there is nothing

on its surface to hold the wheels to the ground. If, nioreover,

there be two horses at wheel whose stride in their gallop differs

much as to extent, the unequal draught invariably sets the coach

rolling, and, unless the pace moderate, the fore-wheel passing

over even a small stone, may, under such circumstances, cause

the coach to upset. In respect to lateral motion, however, much

depends upon the build of the carriage. In galloping coach-

horses, if the leaders lead off with two legs, the motion of the

coach is considerably truer, and the swing-bars are also much

more at rest, than when each horse uses the same leg.

It appears, then, that accidents to coaches are chiefly to be

attributed either to the want of proper skill and care in the

servants employed, or to what is still less pardonable, inatten-

tion on the part of their masters. Road-coachmen, fortunately,

are well aware that the law looks sharply after them ; and that

for neglect proved against them, they are equally answerable to

their employers, as these are to the public.

" If I were to go upon the road," says an amateur, " I would

be a night coachman through a well-inhabited country. For six

months of the year, it is undoubtedly the pleasanter service ;

and I never found any difference between taking rest by day or

by night." It is, however, calculated only for a man in the prime

of his days, as all his energies are required. The night coach-

man ought to know his line of road well. He must take rest

regularly, or he will be sure to become drowsy, if he do not go

to sleep. He must also keep himself sober ; keep a tight hand

on his horses ; keep the middle of the road ; and be sure to

keep time.

The night coachman must cast his eye well forward, and get

out of the way of carts and waggons in time. Although, by

looking perpendicularly from his box or at the hedges, if there

be any, he may always see if he be in the road, yet if he cannot

throw his eye some way before his leaders' heads, he is going at

random. He will often get close to things he may meet in the

road before he is aware of them; and therefore^, as I have already

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said, it is essential that he should be wide awake, and have his

horses well in hand.

Chains and springs on the bars are good things for night-

work, as they prevent the leaders' traces coming off. A narrow

road, sufficiently wide, of course, for carriages to pass with con-

venience — with no ditch on the side — is much the best for night-

work. Unless when the moon is very bright, a dark night is in

favour of safe travelling. When it is what coachmen term

" a clear dark,'\* the lamps give much better light than when

the darkness approaches to grey. In very wide roads, particu-

larly where there are no hedges to confine them, lamplight is

both weak and deceiving ; and moonlight is often glimmering

and doubtful, particularly when clouds are passing rapidly.

Lamplight is treacherous, both in fogs and when horses are

going at a moderate pace, with the wind just behind them ; for

then the steam arising from their bodies follows them, and ne-

cessarily obstructs the light. Sometimes, from driven rain or

snow, a coachman can scarcely open his eyes so as to see the

road to the extent of the hght given by the lamps, in which case

a tight hand on the horses is especially necessary.

A heavy fog is the only thing which baffles the skill and in-

trepidity of our night coachmen. In this case, lamps are of no

avail as to showing light forward ; and, in the worst cases, the

only use that can be made of them is for the guard to hold one

in his hand behind the coach, by which he will be able to see

whether the horses are in the road or not. Lamps, however, are

always useful in case of accidents; and, except in very clear

moonlight, a night coach should never travel without them.

Accidents often occur from coachmen neglecting to light their

lamps in going into a town. It often happens that, when a coach

comes down the road in the morning, there may be no obstruc-

tion in the streets i but rubbish from buildings, stones, or many

other things, may be thrown out by the time it comes up again

at night. When an accident happens to a coach, presence of

mind is much required. Outside passengers should never think

of quitting by jumping, from the fore part, at least, until she

OBSTRUCTIONS OFFENCES, ETC.

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falls to the ground. From the box, indeed, a man may get over

the roof into the guard's seat, and thence descend.

Among the various contrivances for draggmg wheels, we may

mention a very ingenious one by Mr. Rapson. The drag is

applied to the nave of the wheel, with a chain attached, which

is fastened to the breeching, a small pin on each side going into

the bar of the drag. If one of these pins be taken out, the

wheel will be dragged, and if both are withdrawn, the wheels

are both acted upon during the descent, by the breech bearing

against the horse.

In the first of these diagrams we have a representation of the

break attached to the wheel, but inoperative, the jointed circle

separating the chain, c, and bolt, h, from the nave. In the

second figure, the entire frame a, h, c, is seen in direct colli-

sion with the nave, and by its friction retarding the locked

wheel. This, however^ does not occur till the breeching of the

harness is drawn tight by the pressure of the carriage upon it.

OBSTRUCTIONS, OFFENCES, AND INJURIES.

By the 1st Geo. I. c. 57 ^ drivers of hackney coaches are to

give way to gentlemen's carriages, under a penalty of IO5.

If a carriage be obstructed by disorderly persons, the driver

should take out his pocket-book, and let the persons guilty of

this see that he is taking a note of their number ; and he should

then coolly tell them that he will summon them if they do not

immediately clear the way.

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If a carriage be injured by another running against it, the

driver should ascertain whose carriage has done the mischief,

and let his coachmaker give an estimate of the charge for re-

pairing it; but, before he has it done, he should let the person

who injured it see the mischief, and pay the charge; or, as is the

custom, let the repair be made by the coachmaker of the party

who committed the injury.

THE TURF.

It is singular that no portion of our domestic annals should

be so obscure as that which relates to the early history of our

first of National Sports. In the remotest ages of civilization (so

far at least as any existing records carry us back), a taste for

horye-racing was fostered and promoted as a social engine

pecuharly adapted to rural and political purposes. The Greeks

— the wisest and most polished people that the world has ever

seen — carried their estimate of its importance so far, that their

chiefs not only took part in the sports of the hippodrome, but

acted as officials in the regulation of its details. Philip of

Macedon thought it not unbecoming the imperial crown, that

he who wore it should discharge the office of judge at the

Pythian Games, and his son repaid in gold every line written

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THE TURF.

by Pindar in honour of the chaplet of wild ohve.\* The verse

of Pindar, and the prose of Pausanias, have immortalized the

names of Olympia and Elis. The latter has left us the minutest

particulars of the economy of racing in his day. He describes

the Olympian Hippodrome at Elis, and all its gorgeous display

of splendid embellishments and ingenious machinery, with a

care and prodigality of narrative that give assurance of the

importance which attached to the matter delineated. Of the

perfection to which, in that era, the science of the course had

attained, we need no better proof than the classification ob-

served in the Olympic Games — where horses were matched

according to their ages, and prizes instituted for races between

mares only (called Calpe). It is needless, however, to encumber

our subject with ancient lore, by continuing these classic refer-

ences. Enough has, perhaps, been already adduced to estabhsh

this point — that we possess more knowledge of the condition of

racing three thousand years ago, than we do of the state it was

in three hundred years since in our native land.

But because we are in possession of such scanty materials, it

by no means follows that the little we do know should be with-

held. The reader will therefore have the courtesy to look back

with me to the tenth century, and I promise to bring him again

into the nineteenth with all convenient speed. As far back,

then, as the reign of Athelstan (925), we read that a present of

" running horses" was sent to that monarch from France, the

gift of Hugh Capet. As nothing however is known of the

character of those animals, we will pass on to the reign of

William, which affords better data. At that period a nobleman

(the Earl of Shrewsbury) appears to have imported several

Spanish horses for his own use. Now, as the Moors had had

a footing in Spain for several centuries prior to the Norman

conquest, there is little doubt that the blood of the Barb was, in

the eleventh century, extensively diffused through that country,

and that a highly improved breed of the horse was at the time

extant there. Here we have a reasonable era from whicli to

\* The crown g'iven to the victors in the Olympic games.

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date an amelioration of the indigenous race in our islanrl. A

little more than a century later, in the reign of Henry the Second

(1154), we come to, as far as I have been able to discover, the

earliest mention of racing to be found in our national records.

This refers to a barbarous sort of running practised upon the

plain now occupied by Smithfield, which does not appear to

have been subjected to any regulations of time or method.

Smithfield, indeed, was then the great horse-mart, and very

probably the contests, exalted by their chronicler (Fitzstephen

the monk), to Olympic honours, were nothing more than ex-

hibitions, by rival horse-croupers, of the mettle, speed, and

action of their respective " palfreys, hackneys, and charging-

steeds."

Still, that horse-racing was about this time a popular pastime,

and one in which the nobles of the land were wont to take

pride, is fully established by the allusions to it that abound in

the many metrical legends, yet in existence, composed in honour

of Richard of the Lion Heart. These preserve the names of

the coursers, and speak of them as being valued at sums that,

allowing for the difference in the worth of money, quite exceed

any prices known in our day. The domestic troubles which

marked the reign of John, and the succession of wars in which

we were subsequently engaged, probably interrupted the pro-

gress of this sport materially — at all events, we do not find any

of our sovereigns giving their countenance to it from Richard

to the bluff Harry. Henry VHI. was constitutionally disposed

for manly occupations and amusements — of his moral tendencies

we speak not. We have it on the authority of Challoner that

he was much disposed to improve the breed of horses, for

which purpose he imported various descriptions from Spain and

Turkey. Fortune, too, enabled his daughter Elizabeth to do

much for our native breed ; the destruction of the Spanish

Armada having supplied us with many barbs and Spanish-bred

horses, their descendants, found in the vessels of that fleet which

fell into the hands of Lord Howard of Effingham.

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THE TURF.

We now come to her successor, James I.,\* who must be

considered as the founder of legitimate racing in this country.

He introduced the first Arab into England of which we have

any knowledge — that purchased by Mr. Markham, and known

as the Markham Arabian. The training system, which has

now reached such perfection, was then practised in its various

divisions of physic, work, sweating, and the etcetera of stable

economy ; and the weight to be carried for public prizes arranged

by authority. The Roodee, at Chester, was an established course

in this reign, one of the prizes being a silver bell, of the value

of ten pounds or thereabouts, run for in five-mile heats. Similar

prizes were also given at Theobald's on Enfield Chase, at

Croydon, and Gatherly, in Yorkshire, w^hence the popular term

" bearing the bell," no doubt^ had its origin. His unfortunate

son Charles I. had little opportunity of forwarding the social

concerns of himself or others. In his reign, however, the first

races on record at Newmarket were held, and, by a singular

fatality, to Newmarket was he borne a prisoner to the parlia-

mentary forces. The "civil dudgeon" of the Protectorate of course

was not friendly to the amusements of the turf, but, though sus-

pended, they were not lost sight of. Mr. Place, the stud-master

to Oliver Cromwell, imported the celebrated horse known as the

White Turk. He was also the owner of some very capital

mares, one of which, during the search after Cromwell's pro-

perty at the Restoration, he saved from destruction by hiding

in a vault, whence she took the name of the " Coffin Mare."

With the Restoration came the palmy days of the Turf.

Regular meetings were established at Newmarket, and various

other parts of England; silver cups and bowls of the value of one

hundred pounds were presented as royal gifts, and, more than all,

the light of royal favour shone upon it in shape of Charles the

Debonair and Mistress Eleanor Gwynne. Wilham UI. had no

\* The palace at Newmarket was built by tliis monarch for the purpose of

enjoying the diversion of hunting — no races having been held upon the iieatb

till the succeeding reign.

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taste for racing, and died by a fall from his horse. Prince

George of Denmark, on the other hand, was warmly attached

to the Turf, and promoted its interest by every means in his

power. We are indebted for many royal plates to his influence

with his consort Queen Anne. George I. was no sportsman ; in

his reign, however, the alteration in the royal plates took place,

by which a sum of one hundred guineas was substituted in their

stead. Shortly after George II. ascended the throne, arose a

morbid yearning after legislating for the Turf. Some of the

acts enacted were mischievous ; very many were very silly ; one

was good : — " That no plate or prize of a less value than ^50

should be run for, under a penalty of ^200." It was during

this reign that the Darley and Godolphin Arabians were brought

into this country, — two horses from whom have descended all

the most celebrated racers that adorn the annals of our turf.

This is the period at which the genealogy of our unrivalled

thorough-bred horse then, was naturalized, and it is the date

whence I thmk it most convenient to begin my notice of English

racing.

Even a notice so confined as this is beset with obscurities

that few would conceive possible. As an instance, I will ad-

duce the case of an old and well-informed inhabitant of Epsom,

who some years ago published a very clever history of that

place. He starts somewhere about the Conquest, and never

halts for want of materials as he goes on, till he comes to the

great stumbling-block, concerning which he shall speak for

himself: — "When the races on Epsom Downs were first held

periodically, we have not been able to trace : but we find that

from the year 1730 they have been annually held in the months

of May or June, and about six weeks previous to which the

hunters' stakes are occasionally run for on the Epsom race

course, at one of which, in 1730, the famous horse Madcap won

the prize, and proved the best plate-horse in England,"

To return, however, to the reign of George II., though we

find little bearing on the business of the Turf to be gleaned from

its records, it introduces us to the great forefathers of our

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thorough blood, and stii's one of the most interesting questions

in our domestic natural history — the problem of the seed or

origin of the English thorough-bred horse. A brief search

through the stud-book will convince the inquirer that, almost

without exception, our great racers were and are descendants

of the Darley and Godolphin Arabians : I use the latter term

merely because its conventionality now identifies those celebrated

animals. They were both, as has been stated, imported in this

reign : the question that I would here investigate applies

equally to each, but, for the sake of simplifying it, I will treat

it with reference to the latter only. " That he was a genuine

Arabian," says the stud-book, " his excellence as a sire is deemed

sufficient proof a little further on we read, " It is remarkable

that there is not a superior horse now on the Turf without a

cross of the Godolphin Arabian, neither has there been for

several years past." The probable date of his arrival in this

country was 1725, or thereabouts. Hundreds of Arabs had

preceded him as sires, their introduction for that purpose having

been a very general speculation from the time of Charles I.

That the indigenous island breed had thereby been rendered

good service, there can be no doubt ; but that the Turf derived

any signal advantages from the importations is more than

problematical.

Are our celebrated strains of racing blood derived at all from

an Arab source, and, if so descended, are they excellent conse-

quently, or of accident ? As regards the first moiety of the in-

quiry, a work has just appeared in Paris, the production of a

gentleman of some literary celebrity\*, relating to the genealogy

of the horse so long known to us as the Godolphin Arabian.

His statements go to show that he was a pure Barb, presented,

with seven others, by the Bey of Tunis to Louis XV., about the

year 1731. All the portraits I have ever seen of him certainly

go to strengthen this reading of his descent, and proclaim him

not of Asiatic origin. The date is an erroneous one, as he was

a sli'e in England in the year in which he is said to have reached

\* M. Eugene Sue.

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France; but we must be content with very vague data in all that

concerns our subject a century ago. As to the second division

of the question, after-time must furnish the means of replying

to it, if it be ever answered. My bias is to a belief that there

exist families of the horse in the East possessed of a perfection

infinitely surpassing any generically inherited. This I have at-

tempted to demonstrate in a work upon which I am at present

engaged, some portion of which has been already published.\*

The fact (of which I was made conscious by authority beyond

question) that the Imaum of Muscat, one of the most powerful

sovereign princes of India, expended ten years of active search,

backed by the enormous bribe of ten thousand pounds, before

he could procure a descendant of a line sufficiently pure to pre-

sent to King George IV., seems to establish the truth of the

theory to which I profess being inclined. All that we learn from

our knowledge of the almost religious veneration with which the

genealogy of the horse is treated in the East, goes to the like

confirmation. " It is remarkable that there is not a supeiior

liorse now on the turf without a cross of the Godolphin Arabian,"

I leave the reader to interpret as his own reflections may lead

him.

Shall I venture, at the hazard of pursuing my theory " ultra

fines," to ofier one more example in support of it? That no

structural organization available to the eye, no individual excel-

lence in the parents, influence, in our raising stock, the per-

formances of their offspring, are truisms taught by every stud in

the kingdom. All that exist among us, descended from the great

forefather of the Turf, are capable of producing off'spring of equal

pretension, as regards the root from which they are sprung.

Far diff'erent was the result in relation to the importations of

Eastern blood contemporary with the Godolphin, and the. same

it has been with all more recently introduced. Enough, at all

events, has been adduced, if not to prove my position, to warrant

iiie, at least, in its assumption, as well as for ofiering it to the

\* Annals of the British Turf, from the Introduction of Eastern blood to the

present Time. The first century concluded in the Old Sporting Magazine.

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consideration of those who hold the subject to which it relate:^

of sufficient interest to engage their attention.

From such speculations on the origin of the British race-

horse, we will turn to the annals of his exploits, — a theme more

generally attractive, though intrinsically less important. Here,

to begin with the early worthies of the turf, all is as obscure as

is the genealogical problem with which we have been already

engaged. Of the performances of Childers, detailed, as they are,

with all apparent microscopic observations of the seconds' hand,

I am convinced that we know rather worse than nothing. In a

recent work of more than an ordinary character on the subject

to which it addresses itself (Lawrence's History of the Horse),

Childers — Flying Childers, as he was designated par excellence —

is stated to have been a chestnut, whereas he was a rich bay with

four white legs. The same slovenly style, no doubt, attaches to

the records of the early performances, as well as to the more

recent attempts of equestrian historians. Again, the only crite-

rion by which we can estimate them is, when we can refer to a

timed race, because, knowing little of the principals, w^e cannot

be supposed to have a better knowledge of the pretensions of

their contemporaries. Now, even in our day, when all the

appliances for chronometrical accuracy are so vastly improved

and multiplied, we rarely hear of the time of a race being kept

at all, even accidentally : it is never done by authority, or on a

principle deserving of confidence.

We know that the taste, in the middle of the last century, in-

clined to long distances, and repeated exertion — six and eight-

mile heats being events of constant recurrence ; and yet we are

required to believe that there existed at and previous to that

time a flight of speed unknown to our degenerate days. More-

over, by far the greater portion of the early racers were under-

sized, Galloways as the old Calendars have them in every page;

and stride is, save in rare exceptions, indispensable to a high

degree of swiftness. In the absence of any actual data as to

speed, worthy being confided in, it may not be inconvenient to

relate a performance of one of the first-class horses of that

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period; and, by contrasting it with a match against time, done

by a contemporary hackney, some deduction may be drawn of the

quahties of the racers of that era.

Gimcrack, a grey horse bred in 1760, by Cripple out of Miss

Elhot, was considered one of the best of his day. In consequence

of his superiority, he was sent to France, where he was matched

for a large sum to do a certain distance against time. Whatever

it was, he was the winner, having accomplished twenty-three

miles in fifty-five minutes. This was probably in 1770. In 177H,

a foundered hackney, aged twenty-two, belonging to a Mr.

Hanks, did twenty-two miles within the hour, upon the higfi

road in the neighbourhood of London. Gimcrack carried eight

stone : the weight on the hackney is not given, but there is no

reason for believing it less than eight stone ; so that one of the

best race-horses of that day could only beat a broken-down hack

a mile and five minutes in an hour !

It is a conventional fallacy to attribute to past days virtues

superior to those in which we live. Every thing, from the sea-

sons to the flavour of home-brewed, was better, if we credit the

popular voice, " in the good old times." To examine the appli-

cation of this rule to the matter before us, I may perhaps be

permitted to borrow a leaf out of my own book, seeing that I

could scarce make my argument stronger in any other form of

words.

" After a careful examination of all the best authorities bearing

upon the condition of the Turf in that so emphatically called its

palmiest era — the middle of the last century — I find nothing to

warrant the belief that, as a species, the contemporaries of King

Herod, Imperator, Eclipse, Elorizel, and Highflyer, possessed

either speed, power, or symmetry, unknown to the racer of our

day. At the very date to which this extraordinary excellence is

ascribed, we find the degeneracy of that particular breed the

subject of legislative consideration ; and in 1740 that an Act of

Parhament was passed, denouncing the Turf as the cause of the

growing debasement of the breed of horses all over the king-

dom, and fixing the weights to be carried in all plates and

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matches at ten stone for five-year-olds, eleven stone for six, and

twelve stone for seven-year-olds and upwards, on pain of a

penalty of ,£200, and forfeiture of the horse. Tt is true that

this Act was repealed soon afterwards, through the intervention,

as it was beheved, of the Duke of Cumberland ; nevertheless it

is manifest that there must have existed strong grounds for com-

plaint against the system of breeding and racing before the con-

sideration of its economy would be made a subject of Parlia-

mentary interference. Let us tm\*n to the weights carried by

two-year-olds fifty years ago, and those common to the present

period, — the former averaging from six stone to six stone six

pounds, the latter from eight stone five pounds to eight stone

seven pounds, and what evidence of degeneracy does that fur-

nish ?" Racing, wherever we meet it existing as a popular sport,

is the growth of a root indigenous to England. All the appli-

ances of civilization are carried to a higher degree of perfection

among us, in the present day, than at any former period of our

history: the Turf, and all its materiel, it cannot be doubted, has

attained a comparative condition of excellence.

In a nation peculiarly attached to rural sports, that, as matter

of course, becomes entitled to the place of honour which diffuses

tho greatest portion of enjoyment to the greatest number of

people. In this view, racing is well entitled to the pre-eminence

which it has so long claimed, and had conceded to it j but it

prefers demands of a higher nature than its mere pleasurable

results. In a political sense, it is an engine of no mean im-

portance. A state must benefit largely from an agency which

exhibits its nobles promoting, at great individual cost, a sport in

which all classes can participate equally with themselves, and

which brings together all the divisions of society for one end

and purpose — social recreation. "Where shall we seek the great

moral of England's power and station ? — In the wealth which

commerce pours upon her shares ? — In her wooden walls ? — In

the skill, learning, and valour of her sons ? "We can scarce study

it in a more impressive page than that yearly spread before us

at the great popular re-unions of Epsom, Ascot, and Doncaster.

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Let Such as love such lore, then, search after it where the exa-

mination will surely reward their industry : we will take it up,

abstractedly, as a pastime, and in that character look into the

nature and influence of its present economy.

As a treasury of art, an assembly of learning, ingenuity, and

pleasure, our metropolis has many rivals — some superiors: in

our rural life we stand alone. Mainly this has been brought

about by — is the consequence of — a general taste for field sports.

Whether the cause of morality is served by horse-racing, it is not

our province to inquire. An inelegant but most apropos salt-

water axiom says, " every man to his post, and the cook to the

fore-sheet." Mankind, since the creation, has set its face against

all work and no play, and will do so to the end of the chapter.

We are of the disciples of Democritus ; and, feeling in the vein,

will just touch in here, merely in outline, a faint sketch of a

Derby Day.

Perhaps, with one exception alone, none of the realities of

life come up to the anticipations of them ; and what, you ask, is

that singular deviation from the general rule ? — It is a Derby

Day. Imagine a conglomeration of two millions of souls stirred

to its penetralia, shaken from its propriety, morally earthquaked,

because of the necessity which annually requires that a certain

portion of the mass (say a fortieth) should rendezvous in a

neighbom-hood where certain horses are to contend some two

minutes and sundry seconds for certain monies, and you arrive

at a general idea of something by no means in the ordinary

course. The scene of this commotion is London, the majority

of the actors automata that make yearly one sohtary diversion

(in both the word's interpretations) from the regular cycles of

their orbits. But such a Saturnaha demands a word anent its

note of preparation.

As soon as the month dawns, big with the catastrophe of

Epsom Races, straightway from Belgrave Squai-e to Shoreditch,

from the Regent's Park to uttermost Rotherhithe, forth the

sackage goes that guts, from garret to cellar, every Pantechnicon,

Bazaar, and Repository of all and singular the wheeled conveni-

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eiices and inconveniences peculiar to each. Anon the horse, in

all its infinite gradations, is had in requisition, from Newman's

choicest specimens of blood, that devour the Surrey highways,

to the living quadrupedal skeleton redeemed from the knacker's

knife at the last Smithtield show for fifteen shillings, and a

" drop o' summut for luck." The day arrives, and lo ! a mighty

chain of carriages, " in linked grumbling long drawn out," ex-

tends from the Elephant and Castle to the merry Downs of

Epsom, whitherwards we will suppose thy anxious way hath at

length been achieved. The moisture of travel encumbereth thy

brow : searchest thou for thy best Bandana to relieve thee of

the damp ? Luckless wight ! —

" That handkerchief

Did an Egyptian from thy pocket prig."

Is not the tide of humanity at the flood of spring ? Ten deep

do vehicles of all kinds, definite and undefinable, line the course.

Opposite and around the stand all is high-bred and aristocratic :

lower down, leading for Tattenham's classic corner, you haply

take your cm-ious path. What lots of pretty girls you encounter

as you go ! — each so lady-like and bien mise, you would never

dream of their metropolitan whereabouts, were it not for those

awful mortalities that cluster around them ; brothers, cousins,

lovers it may be — pale shadows that haunt the glimpses of

Bow Church — horrible illusions from Ludgate Hill and the

Ward of Cheap, with prickly frills to their linen, swallow tails

to their coats, green velvet waistcoats, or, still more shocking,

similar habiliments of black satin, whereon the indecent chain

of Mosaic grins ghastly, like the gilding on a coffin ! — faugh !

Drawing near to the lines, hark ! from glass coach, britscha,

jarvey, phaeton, proceed various sounds of discontent. — " Cold

chickens, veal pie, lobsters and no salt." — " Half-a-dozen bottles

is all very fine, and never no corkscrew." — " Sir, I'll set that

right if you'll only accommodate us with the loan of a glass ;

really it's too provoking." Ascend the hill, approach the

Ring, and hear what sums are jeopardied on the coming event! —

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enough to purchase half-a-score of German principaUties ; but

the warren is open, and thither you are borne by the countless

thousands who throng for a glance of the coursers on whom

hang the hopes and fears of all.

No spot can be better adapted for the purpose to which it is

assigned than the so well-known warren ; but all that nature

has done man takes especial care to frustrate. Instead of its

cool quiet alleys being kept for the tranquil preparation of

animals peculiarly disposed to excitement (their most dangerous

foe at a moment when the entire possession of every faculty is

of such vital consequence), every "dingle, nook, and bosky

bourn" is invaded by a horde of ravenous, sight-seeing cockneys,

of all beasts of prey the most reckless and perverse. Amid this

restless crowd of babbling, cigar-smoking untameables, the

process of saddling is effected, and, with graceful steps, the

fiery-footed adversaries depart for the lists.

You reach the place of starting, and what awaits you there ?

Order, decorum, and all fitting arrangement for the important

essay of which it is the arena ? A second chaos ! — all the

human elements thrown together in a moral whirlpool. A score

of men in buckram suits (blue linsey-wolsey), attempting to

dispose of twice as many thousands — something like barring

the gates of a beleagured town with boiled carrots ! They draw

together for the start — infinitely the most influential point in

the great game to be played. Here all is confusion worse con-

founded: the multitude opens its thousand throats of brass; the

steeds are frantic ; the jockeys (born and bred devils from their

cradle) practise every conceivable stratagem ever hatched in

Fiendom ; and there stands one nervous old man to front the

pitiless pelting, and produce from such materials a result with

which all are to be satisfied. "They are off!" and the old

gentleman, in his agony, pronounces " go," and the fatal signal

has gone forth. Over the hill, adown the fall, there is a

meteoric flash, as though a rainbow had borrowed the wings of

the lightning, and all is over !

The Derby is decided — the steeds turned round — the jockeys

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approach the scales — Holy Mother of Moses ! has it entered Hie

heart of man (even an Irishman) to conceive the tearing and

swearing, the howling and screeching, that instant rends the

empyrean ! Quick as thought a circle of bludgeons and

constables is formed, into which the horses as they arrive are

received, and against which a roaring ocean of humanity is

dashing as fiercely as the vexed Atlantic. Look towards the

grand stand — behold whole acres of countenances uplifted to

the sky, wedged as closely as a crate of French eggs, and

resembling nothing as yet discovered but a monstrous dish of

opened oysters ! The round earth is shaken, and echo gives up

the ghost — the thunder hides its diminished head, as vdth the

bellowings of ten thousand volcanos myriads of furious lungs

crash forth, " Who has won ?" Thus whilom did I sing of

this scene ; and with better experience, save in the episodes of

flying voltigeurs, men " with never no back-bones at all, only

a slip of gristle to hold head and heels together," and epicures

in cutlery, " who swallow knives and forks for all the world like

gingerbread nuts," I can add nothing to the beau ideal of a

Derby Day.

How little can they, who first give existence to a principle,

foresee how it will operate, and what may be its results. The

pastime of horse-racing, fostered and promoted simply as a

channel of amusement by the gay and thoughtless Charles,

called into being the strongest impulse of man's nature —

emulation, and thus entailed upon this country a race of the

noblest of all existing animals, of a character apparently su-

perior to that originally destined by nature. This may be an

erroneous theory, but as yet we ai-e unacquainted with any

variety of the horse comparable to the artificial stock known as

our thorough-blood. The very general efforts that were made

from that period by the nobles and great landed proprietors to

improve by lavish outlay, and all the appliances which it can com-

mand, the best strains of the recently imported Oriental blood,

towards the middle of the last century, seem to have carried the

race-horse as a species as near to perfection as his generic

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organization will admit. True, every year produced some few

infinitely superior to their contemporaries, but they were pheno-

mena, — indebted to no individuality of parentage for their

excellence, and unpossessed of the faculty of endowing their

descendants with similar gifts. As a race, when opposed to

the indigenous horse of any quarter of the earth, the English

thorough-blood is universally victorious; among the various

families into which it is divided at home, no constant succession

of superiority has ever discovered itself.

I am aware that those who only take a superficial view of the

economy of our racing system will at once pronounce against

this position. They will adduce the sons and daughters of

King Herod, Eclipse, and Highflyer ; in our day, of Sultan and

Emilius, as far surpassing the ordinary run of theii' contempo-

raries. But they do not bear in mind that not only did and

does the progeny of these justly celebrated sires greatly out-

number that of their less favoured brothers, but that the best

mares of their respective eras were and are exclusively put to

them. Not to travel beyond our own day for proofs, did ex-

cellence ensure its like, what chance would have remained to

those who now and then breed a solitary nomination against

the gigantic studs of Hampton Court, Riddlesworth, or Underly ?

To confine the question to the present year (1838), we had

evidence that not all the wealth, skilful training. Sybarite care

and treatment of the best of England's blood could produce

a match for the son of one of our indifferent racers, — the

despised of an Irish tenth-rate stable, — the wonderful and the

basely-abused Harkaway.\* I may be told that he was defeated

here, and by second-raters, too, — but under what circumstances ?

With ordinary care, without having been subjected to actual

ill-treatment, at weight for age there was nothing of the year

in England that could have stood any chance with him.

From these premises the deduction at which we arrive bearing

\* This extraordinary animal is now (December 1838) advertised for s^jle,

his price six thousand guineas, with this strange addition, " that his owner

(Mr. Ferguson) rides him hunting once or twice a week ! "

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upon the economy of the turf, its nature and influence is two-

fold, and! admits of a very brief solution, — the first being that

the day is long passed since the means of winning upon the

race-course were to be obtained by breeding ; the second, that

the vast advantages still to be derived from a proper application

of our thorough-blood is most strangely neglected. Mr. Bowes

began his racing career by breeding a winner of the Derby,

while the late Duke of Leeds, the most extensive breeder of

blood stock in the north, toiled in vain for the Leger till he

won it with a colt bought from the tail of the plough. Lord

George Bentinck, the best winner on the turf of modern days, if

the Calendar be any criterion, regards breeding racers as au

expedient no man in his senses should dream of, and, acting

upon his theory, has put money in his purse. A first-class racer,

a colt of extraordinary promise, are each productions of chance-

medley, only to be come at by being secured where and when

they can be found.

But if the Turf be thus restricted in further profiting, save as

matter of hazard, by the means which securely ministered to the

success of its first speculators, it furnishes materials from which

may be moulded other distinct races, as valuable, each in its

province, as the flying family of the modern race- course, now

the sole representatives of our thorough-blood. The ragged

regiment of cock-tails will, it is devoutly to be hoped, speedily

be disbanded ; the day soon arrive when no gentleman shall be

seen bestriding the mongrel of a base-bred hackney, scarce

worthy the shafts of a costermonger's trap. And first, as is be-

fitting, such reform must commence with its next of kin — The

Field. Shall this, assuredly the second — nay, the twin-sport

of racing, in the esteem of Englishmen, long continue dependent

upon chance for a supply of horses for its service ? Impossible ;

the period cannot be far distant in which the British thorou^li-

bred hunter will be as distinct a race, and of as high renown., aa

his progenitors were the pride of the Turf.

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As the whole object of the Manly Exercises is not accomplished

in the attainment and practice of them, it was thought con-

venient that the business of their details should be succeeded

by a partial notice of some of those sports of which they form

the elementary process, and which may be regarded as their

ultimate " end and aim." It has been well said by my talented

friend, Nimrod, that all the writing in the world will not make

a sportsman. The pen of Pindar, and the pencil of Grant,

indeed, exhibit him in all perfection to our admiration ; but,

could they both write for the education of the student whose

ambition is Olympic fame, they would not insure success. Like

the poet, he must be born, in a manner, to his cunning

The Exercises, upon which Mr. Walker has written, admitted

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of being inculcated by methodical rules, and acquired by a

systematic routine of practice. An acquaintance with them will be

found of service to youth, whatever the destination of its man-

hood may be ; while they are essential to the formation of a

frame and character fitted for the maturity likely to be devoted

to the wear and tear of our hardy Rural Sports. Driving and

Yachting, though neither of them strictly coming within the

pale of a course of physical exercises, still are not out of place

in a practical book devoted to the science of manly recreations,

because each is governed by certain rules, which may be taught

and acquired. It is not so with the subjects constituting the

matter on which we are at present engaged. A man may out-

study Zoroaster without being one whit the better qualified for

winning a fifty-pound plate, hitting off the line of a fox that

has been headed, or bringing down his woodcock in cover ;

these are arts which, being decimated, leave one part to theory

and nine in favour of practice. For this cause I have made my

Article on the Turf of a character more suited to the purposes of

the general reader than those of the visionary theorist, who may

fondly hope to meet, on page traced by mortal hands, a recipe

for breedmg, training, and managing an embryo winner of Derby

or Leger. The Chase, however, admits of a certain code of

general maxims : it has, if not limits, at all events courses better

defined than those of the Turf, and to the application of them

by practical men of modern experience we will at once proceed.

Assuming that a tolerable proficiency in horsemanship has

been attained before the young disciple of Diana ventures to

show at all with hounds, he will do well to dedicate the first

of his novitiate to hare-hunting, whether his future destination

be that of a M. F. H., or merely a partaker of the "Hght

from heaven," dispensed by the " noble science." As this little

treatise addresses itself more particularly to the latter, it will

be sufficient to point out what should be his aim in his early

lessons. Of these, the most essential to the formation of a good

sportsman, and the only one that will enable any man to live

to the end of a severe run, is, that he cultivate the faculty ol a

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quick eye to hounds. With harriers he will constantly have

practice in this task : the perpetual doubles to which nine

hares out of ten, when chased, resort, will soon convince him

of the necessity of keeping a w^ary look out for the line towards

which the leading hounds incline. He will have little difficulty

in deciding with which portion of the pack, or with which in-

dividual of it, the scent is, if he only observe closely when there

is any indication of a check. The instant a hound catches the

scent, he will see him drop his tail horizontally, and spring to

the front, the one who has lost it elevating his, as if engaged

in questing. Keeping his look-out always upon the leaders, and

leaving the body of the pack to follow^ a similar system, he

turns his horse as he sees the chase lean, and thus is going at

his ease inside the circle, around which others can hardly live

at the best their nags can accomplish. When a huntsman is

coming past with hounds, — particularly at check in a lane or

road, — get out of his way all you can ; the narrower the pass the

greater the necessity that you give room, or hounds must break

over the fence, and so run the risk of putting up, or crossing the

line of, another hare : moreover, horses on such occasions are

apt to strike out at hounds, and it is far from pleasant to be

constituted by such a casualty "the observed of all observers."

In the matter of riding at fences, with harriers you wdll be

more enabled to suit your practice to the individual case than

when you come to ride alongside fox-hounds. With the

former, when any thing very cramp crosses your line, you may

" look before you leap," and this is no bad maxim, whoever

may choose to sneer at it. Let this too be an axiom from

which you never depart, as far as regards the hounds : when

you are out with the jolly dogs, " hear and see, and say no-

thing " — so shall you earn golden opinions from the field in

general, and prevent much out-pouring of wrath from the offi-

cials in particular. It will serve you to bear in mind that in

almost every difficulty of ground a horse can serve himself

better than you can assist him. I do not mean to say that in

heavy, deep galloping you should not hold him together, and if

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there be a furrow or path at hand, that you should not give him

the advantage of it. But in woodlands, for instance, where young

timber has been felled, and the surface is covered with live stubs,

S^ive him his head : let him pick his own way ; never touch his

mouth with the bridle to guide him, and you will find how

rarely he Mill give a chance away. Thus in a rabbit warren the

difficulty is doubled by the nervous man who attempts to steer

his horse. The biped is looking at one hole, the quadruped at

another, and being diverted from the spot where he intended to

place his foot, puts it in where it was meant that he should

not. Still, however, you may attempt it : never charge ground

of this nature without using the precaution of slacking your

pace. I remember a well-known bruising rider, who thought

it impossible that he could be hurt, once trjdng the experiment

over a warren in the neighbourhood of Whitchurch, in Shrop-

shire, and being assured of the affirmative in the first hundred

yards by the fracture of his collar-bone, and the dislocation of a

shoulder.

With the common run of fences, where the grip is from you,

go faster at them than when it lies on the side you take ofi^ from.

When they consist of live thorns and quicks newly laid down,

take them, whenever the chance presents itself, aslant, rising

where the top of the thorn is laid, as being the least capable of

holding your horse's knees, should they catch in rising at it.

In your noviciate it is hardly necessary to offer you any advice

as to water. As a general rule, however, it may as well be said

here as elsewhere that, in brook -jumping, pace comes first and

then judgment. With a powerful impetus you get over ; should

your horse blunder, somehow — if with a fall at the other side,

no matter : less speed enables you to pick your ground better,

but it throws all the odds on the side of a cold-bath, should the

span be wider than you calculated on, or the bank be soft, and

let you in. Never take hold of your horse's head till you feel

that he is safely landed ; if there is a scramble for it, and you

pull at him but an ounce, it may turn the beam of his equipoise,

and in you go together.

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Young hands are prone to think that it is necessary to tlie

acquisition of the reputation of a sportsman that they show in

front throughout a run. Indeed I might have said this idea

seems to hold with many who ought to be wiser. The sooner

the youthful Nimrod discards this fallacy the better. The

chances are so multiplied and various against a good run that it

is next to a miracle how a real clipper ever occurs. From foil,

to which ground is every where exposed, down to an infant of

three years old that heads your quarry, on every side you are

beset with risk, even with a scent. Without it your difficulty

becomes almost an impossibihty, and that is the time when

over-riding, more fatal than all other obstacles put together, is

to be seen in its superlative degree. There is your hard-rider,

■par excellence, who will be first : the leader pulls up at a check

— the nuisance passes him, even with hounds at fault, without

a moment's care for the mischief he must do the chase, or what

he may do himself. Let such as this teach you that which you

should avoid : acquire in youth the way you should go, and in

your maturity you will not depart from it.

We now come to the matriculation of the " noble science,"

and consider the quondam novice entered to fox-hunting. It

would be bootless here to offer any eulogy upon a sport admitted,

by authorities allowing no question, to be, in a political as well as

a social view, a powerful moral engine. In a letter now before

me, which I lately received from a gallant general, himself a

master of fox-hounds, he ascribes to a taste for the chase that

characteristic manly daring which distinguishes the officers of

our service from those of any other. Of all field sports its

claims are the most general upon the properties of manhood.

The tiger-hunts of the East may appeal more directly to the

courage, but with activity and physical endurance they have

little or nothing to do. But see the qualities that must com-

bine to form the accomplished fox-hunter. He must be bold,

ready, decisive, capable of commanding and sustaining great

bodily exertion : he must join unity of purpose to promptness

of action ; capability of foreseeing events, that he may best tm'n

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them to advantage, with a frame and a spmt ahke competent

to meet and oppose undauntedly difficulties and dangers, how and

when they may assail him. I would not have it supposed that

I claim for the chase a higher station for enterprise than any

other of the adventurous occupations in which we find mankind

employed. It would be absurd for an instant, for example, to

compare it with that most exciting and magnificent of all the

daring offices to which man has ever addressed himself — the

South Sea fishing. But as a sport, — an act to which pleasure

alone induces him, fox-hunting has nothing at all bearing com-

parison with it in modern days. To the present fashion of its

details we will now turn our consideration.

I do not think it necessary here to enter into any foreign

matter, such as the nature and economy of the establishment

with which the field may be taken with reference to the country

hunted, or the number of days weekly to be devoted to its

business. "We vdll suppose our young Nimrod has completed

all such arrangements in a convenient fashion, and proceed to

the res giestce for which he has made preparation. In this hard-

riding era, it is regarded as a dashing style of going to cover, by

your aspiring tyro, to approach it as the crow would fly. If he

must go thither across country, let him, at all events, avoid

passing through, or riding too near any of the covers likely to

be drawn during the day. If they hold a good fox, it is sure

notice for him to quit, for he is ever on the qui vwe. The re-

sult is, should the hounds be thrown in, they come upon a scent

some hours old — crawl upon it over probably the cream of the

country, never come on terms with him ; and a capital day's

sport is lost to a whole field by a selfish half-hour's lark.

Arrived at the place of meeting, he should not address himself

to the master, if he hunt his own hounds ; or, in the other case,

to the huntsman, notwithstanding he may be on familiar terras

with them, beyond the mere exchange of a passing civility.

Even then, a man, bent upon showing a good day's sport, has

his mind sufficiently engaged on the business before him. He is

consulting temporary causes, by which to be directed as to the

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particular cover to begin with, and how it is to be drawn. The

point of wind, the nature of the day, the weather of the pre-

ceding week, — all must be weighed, and brought to assist his

judgment. A fox well found is always the most likely to be

well accounted for.

But if conversation with the master or huntsman be incon-

venient before hounds are thrown off, afterwards it becomes a

positive impertinence. It is no excuse for doing so that they

are not actually engaged at the moment. A huntsman, having

drawn without a find, is probably waiting for some of his

hounds; at the same time he is debating with himself what

cover he shall next try, and how to get to it, as the wind may

affect the best lying in it for his fox. He has also observed how

his hounds have behaved, and has orders to give to a whip as to

the conduct of some one prone to riot; or that a particular

corner of the cover about being drawn shall be carefully watched.

In short, success or failure are dependent on his management ;

and how can he deliberate if he is to stand a general catechism?

If it be a large cover, keep within hearing of the hounds and

huntsman. This can only be effected by being down wind, and

should be done without any reference to the distance round,

which it may impose. Of course, it is not intended that a man

should take any thing he can avoid out of his horse by galloping

round a cover, but let him keep on steadily opposite the hounds,

taking heed that he does not get so far forward as to endanger

heading back the fox, and so spoiling his own and his neigh-

bours' sport. This I only recommend where covers are very

large, and even then it may not be the best system. In all cases

where it is practicable, I never throw a chance away by losing

sight of hounds. I remember, some years ago, meeting Sir

Richard Puleston at Cresford village, whence we trotted to a

wood that skirts the high road to Chester. As we jogged for-

ward, a friend overtook me, accosting me with, " You need not

hurry yourself, for they '11 find nothing where they 're going : it

has been beaten within an hour by a party of coursers, who have

left nothing alive on four legs within it, you may rely." In ten

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minutes, the pack and field were streaming, best pace, after a

fox found in that same coppice, away for Shavington, over a

country like the cream of Leicestershire or Northampton.

In fox-hunting, depend solely upon yourself, and keep with

the pack. Even in going from cover to cover, be mth them.

Circumstances frequently arise which induce a huntsman to

abandon trying a place upon which he may have previously

fixed ; and how often has a fox jumped out of a hedge-row in

the centre of a pack trotting industriously away to look for a

chance probably half a dozen miles ofi^ ! In \\dndy weather,

when hounds are in cover, unless you draw it with them, it is

two to one you never get away at all, and ten to one against a

good start. I have had some experience of horses in my day,

and have ever found, that, of all ways of beating them, the

surest is that of trying to catch hounds. Laying aside the ex-

citement and energy produced by the music, alongside of which

they go sailing away in wild delight, it must be remembered that

the pace of fox-hounds with a scent is equal to the best, if not

superior, that any first-class hunter possesses. What sort of a

nag then is it, that you can expect to catch them with ten

minutes\* law ? In calm weather, also, the danger of losing sight

of hounds is by no means to be disregarded. There are some

days (those which invariably carry the best scent) when hounds

v\all find, and fly away like magic, not one in the pack attempting

to throw tongue. Here, if the cover be large, unless you have

them in your eye, the odds are you never get away ; and see

what you lose — the excellence of the scent has stopped the cry :

the faster hounds go, the less they say about it.

When in a large cover, with hounds unavoidably out of sight,

depend upon your ear much rather than upon the movements of

others. You will constantly find men riding straight on end,

merely because the hounds were running so when they entered,

while very probably the fox has turned short, and is already

away, with the pack at his brush, in an opposite direction. With

a little patience and attention, your ear will soon come to the

knack of detecting the line of hounds in cover : it is well woitii

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your while to take pains to acquire this art. "When you have

leai-nt it, you will speedily find out the advantage it will confer

u])on your horse, and yourself too. It is by no means easy to

lay down rules for that w^hich so mainly depends upon circum-

stances ; but it may be convenient to oflPer a few examples, upon

which you may found a system for general application. Sup-

pose, for instance, you have had a bui-st with your fox, and he

has reached a large cover, in which there are strong eai'ths, or

beyond which Hes a country too open for a blown fox to set his

head for. If the earths are open, in he goes, and there is an

end of him ; if stopped, he turns, or leans to the right or left.

Dm-ing this time, brief as it may be, you have eased your horse ;

he gets his wind (a minute, in many cases, will put him right

after a very quick tiling), and you are fresh, while your hard

rider has been going best pace beyond the hounds, and comes

toiling after you in vain. These points of practice, however, re-

quire good judgment, and great promptness of action. You

must know well how to distinguish between a cry that grows

faint and fainter, as a failing scent leads to a final check, and

one that, from a crash, at once becomes almost wholly lost, as

the pack flies to their fox with a view^, or a scent breast-high.

You will, no doubt, at the commencement of your career, hear

a great deal about the influence the wind has upon the line of

chase. Do not take all such theory for gospel. I have tried my

hand at a few systems of the kind, but only found one that ad-

mitted general adoption. When a fox, on being found, takes up

wind at first, do not ride, though the pace be first-rate, so as to

take much out of your horse. Foxes constantly, after going a

mile or so up wind, turn and head back. This will let you in

with a good stai-t, and a fresh nag ; and even should the chase

hold on up wind, you run httle risk of being thro^AH out, as you

wiU have the cry to guide you, and the pufl" in, to enable you to

get to them when the first brush is over.

One good eff'ect of the hard riding of modern days is, that

hounds are much less meddled with by strangers than they used

to be when first I remember fox-hunting. Indeed, I am not

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sure that too much etiquette does not now exist upon that

point. The total disappearance of the thong to the hunting-

whip seems hke carrying a good thing rather too far. A fox

breaks probably under your horse's nose : out comes the pack,

none of the servants are at hand, and they run a field or two

from the cover before any one stops them, or their own mettle

allows them to turn : one crack of your whip would have saved

all that. One thing you can do without your thong, but you

should be very careful how you do it. I allude to hallooing a

fox away. Never attempt to lift up your voice till he is evi-

dently bent on going, and then give him at least a field's law,

or the odds are, back he goes, perhaps into the hounds' mouths.

When he is gone, then clap your hand behind your ear, and

give the " Tally-ho — awoy !" to the best of the lungs that are

in you. Should he merely show for a moment outside, and

then pop in again, give a " Tally-ho — back!" that it maybe

known where he was seen, as well as that he is not away.

Another service in this latter halloo is, that all the points where

it is likely he will try to break will be left clear for him. If a

fox is seen crossing a ride or path, in cover, in front of you,

pull up ; and if hounds are at check, tally him^ as it will serve

as a guide to the huntsman.

In drawing a cover you may give this signal, should any fox

cross you, but if you have run him in, be awake not to tally any

but the hunted one, or you will have few thanks for your

trouble. A little experience will easily teach you the difi'erence

between one just unkennelled and that which has stood any

time before hounds. Not only will the former be sleek and

unstained, but the method of going be very dissimilar. A fresh

fox bounds off, throwing his hind legs clear from him, and his

whole frame, from the tip of his nose to that of his brush, as

straight as an arrow ; if hunted, and at all blown or beaten,

his action is laboured, like that of a rocking-horse, his back is

curved, his brush drooping, and the ears thrown back, all the

fire for which when found his eye is so remarkable, quenched,

and exchanged for an air of cunning and subdued resolution.

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I am far from any design of counselling you to interfere with

the business of a pack of fox-hounds that you may be either in

the habit of hunting with, or one that you may merely meet by

accident occasionally. Still there are instances in which to

withhold all assistance would be to put the chance of sport in

jeopardy, and in which the true lover of the chase ought to act

first and think afterwards. Should any casualty, for example,

so find you that, with hounds at fault, you catch a halloo that

the huntsman does not or cannot hear, contrive so to place

yourself between the halloo and the hounds that you may be

heard by huntsman or pack, and so lead them on the line that

the halloo proceeds from. I repeat, however, that these and

shnilar aids must be off\*ered with due discretion. The halloo

may be a false one — true, but had you gone to make inquiries,

you, too, would have been out of hearing — the points of fox-

hunting require temporary and local adaptation, and a head-

piece to direct all. Mere physical endowments will never make

an accomplished fox-hunter — combined with judgment they are

very excellent subsidiaries : for him who would shine in the

chase

"Orandum est, ut sit mens sana in corpore sano."

In riding to hounds it will essentially serve you if you bear

in mind what ninety-nine out of a hundred seem never to give

a thought to, namely, that the pack only acts pro tanto upon

the line of country which a fox is likely to take. Independent

of the point Ayhich it is assumed he will make for, he has a

hundred other things to avoid, as well as the enemies baying on

his trail. He settles his point, but he must also get to it

unseen. Unless beaten and all but run into, he will give a wide

berth to any thing like the habitation of man as well as man

himself. Thus, by keeping your eye well before you, there is

a chance that the turn hounds will take may be so far antici-

pated, that you avoid riding outside of their circle. It has been

well said that when hounds are running, a man ought to consider

what, under the circumstances in which things happen to be, he

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would do were he the fox. I cannot offer you hetter counsel.

By adopting such a principle you will be enabled to foresee a

check should you detect any thing in the Hne that the cJiase is

taking, however far ahead — and if you have a knowledge of the

country, you will calculate such chances almost to a certainty.

In a district with which you are acquainted, the line a fox takes

when found, will enable you to judge whether he has been

before hunted, and if he has, the odds are he runs the same

again. Even in cover you may fairly assume that he is accus-

tomed to be stirred by the ring he takes, the points he tries, the

gaps he uses in the fences, and similar observations, which

should be the business on which you are inteut from the mo-

ment the hounds are thrown in.

More than once it has been my good fortune to secure a

clipping run for a sporting field by keeping a clear look-out

upon the matter at issue, and nothing else, when a long series of

covers drawn blank, and such dampers, have sent one-half of

the morning's muster home, while the other had taken to the

dernier ressort of cigars and gossip. As an instance of this,

several years ago, with the Shropshire, when Mr. Cresset Pelham

had them, we had been at it from the hour of meeting till past

three, in November too, and no luck. Having trotted on to our

last hope for the day, it was tried, and pronounced — blank !

Already twilight had commenced, the huntsman outside the

cover was blowing his horn, the pack mustered, and home was

the order of march. I had watched the gathering with care ;

and, as we were already trotting from the side of the spinny, it

struck me that an old and favourite bitch was missing. I called

the huntsman's attention to it. There was a pause — a faint

wimple was heard in the still valley — anon it opened into a

cry, " Hark to it !" — the pack flew to the challenge — there was

a mighty crash : in a minute a fox broke away in sight of every

man who had had the patience to await the last throw on the

dice. A burst of twenty minutes was the result, without a pull

from best pace ; and we turned him up in the open just as the

parish lantern gave us notice to look out for squalls.

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There exists, in some masters of hounds, a disposition to keep

back such men as, when hounds are in chase, follow them

through the covers they take in their line. It is not my desire

to inculcate disobedience to the powers that be ; but certainly I

cannot second that principle, either with reference to those who

adopt it, or those to whom it is intended to apply. When a

hunted fox has reached a cover, not only is it the best way to

cheer hounds to him, that they should not feel themselves alone,

but also the noise made by men following them is the most

likely way to make a fresh fox break, without any of the strag-

glers getting on him. I have seen a fox crawl into cover dead

beat, and already in the mouths of the pack. The huntsman

and a whip followed them — the " whoo-whoop " was given —

the master and the rest of the field waited on the outside. They

remained in patience till ten minutes had elapsed. " Surely,'\*

said an old hand at last, " they are doing more than baying him

with all that cry. Hark ! it has got to the opposite side of the

wood : — by heavens ! they're away with a fresh fox." And so

they were ; and they killed him at the end of forty minutes

without a check, and without a sight of them ever being caught,

save by the servants, who had followed to lift the fox that had

crawled dead beat into the cover.

I have thus attempted to sketch, for the young disciple of the

" noble science," a slight code of maxims of general application.

For the principles of practice to direct him in the constantly

occurring cases, which admit of no rule save that arising out of

individual circumstances, he must rely upon himself. Under

this general head of Hunting, I have not thought it necessary

to enter upon any varieties of the chase, save those of the fox

and the hare. Stag-hunting, as a rural sport, is limited to a

very few districts ; and for its pursuit requires only a knowledge

of horsemanship, and a quick eye to a country. Fox-hunting

and hare-hunting I have treated with reference only to the points

of practice which apply to the convenience of those who select

them as appliances of recreation. This work, in its nature, is

rudimentary : it professes to deal with the elements of our manly

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exercises, and so far to treat of our national sports of Racing,

Hunting, and Shooting. Its office is to instruct the be-

ginner, leaving the higher classes to volumes of more preten-

sion. With this view of its purpose, I have brought the subject

of the Chase to the Hmit which I designed for it. It is a truly

manly — a noble sport. Long may it be cherished and fostered

in our land ! The qualities which it calls into action are those

which confer honour on manhood, — courage, promptness, ac-

tivity, and decision. Surely these are rare properties in which

to exercise a youth, and these the Chase will engender and

nourish : while to such as require that a moral attach to every

occupation of life, it has this to recommend it, that, in riding to

hounds, this great truth is hourly inculcated — " Honesty is the

best policy."

SHOOTING,

It is my purpose, in the present chapter, as in the two preced-

ing, to offer, as companion to the system of exercises described

in the first part of this work, certain practical rules upon another

of those popular field sports, a knowledge of which has in all

ages been considered, in this country, part of a gentleman's

education. The perfection to which we have attained in the

manufacture of all the implements connected with this branch

of sporting, would make a dissertation on the materiel of shooting

a piece of useless information to those for whose service these

notices are intended. Instead, therefore, of filling these pages

^vith elaborate instructions for selecting his guns, gun-cases,

flasks, belts, and the whole catalogue of shooting gear, I present

luy reader with one solitary golden maxim, which vdW. ensure

to him the possession of a perfect apparatus, and that eventually

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on the most economical terms : Let him go, for every article of

his equipment, to the most celebrated artist in the item of which

he has need. It is true that, compared with the scale of prices

in the provinces, the charges of the first-rate London gun-

makers are startling things upon paper, and so are those made

by coachmakers of the same class. Indeed, the same may be

said of the rate of demand common to the leading dealers of

the metropolis; but he will find that^m\* coronat opus. An eco-

nomical friend of mine, who was recently quartered in Ireland,

ordered, of one of the most respectable firms in Dublin, a tra-

velling chariot, the price, with the usual et ceteras, being two

hundred and fifty pounds : here it would have cost him three

hundred, or three hundred and twenty. Just as it was com-

pleted, he was ordered home ; and his new bargain broke down

with him fourteen times between Liverpool and London. As a

contrast to this : An old sporting associate, never particularly

distinguished for his thrift, recently showed me a pair of shooting

shoes, for which he paid Hoby two guineas, that he has had in

constant work for sixteen years ! No record has been preserved

of the number of times they have had new bottoms. The only

perishable portions of these cordwaining phenomena, however

are their soles : their bodies appear to be immortal.

To return to the appointments of the young aspirant to the

honours of the trigger. Although I set out with supposing him

equipped with the best double detonator that money can pro-

cure from a maker of known character, and all other mechanical

appliances for the field, a proper management and judicious

arrangement of them is by no means to be similarly obtained.

Upon the condition of those mechanical aids his success de-

pends, quite as much as the adroitness to which he may arrive in

the use of them. Whether that department be in the hands of

a gamekeeper fully competent to all its details, or there be an

actual necessity for the master's eye to direct it, a knowledge of

the most approved means will be found equally essential. Pro-

ficiency in any art or science requires an intimacy with the whole

machinery of its economy. It was this conviction that made an

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emperor a labourer in a dockyard, and should induce every

sportsman to acquaint himself with the minutest particulars

bearing upon his craft. To this end I will give a few rules, de-

rived as well from personal experience as from some of the most

approved authorities on the subject that have appeared in print.

Gun-cleaning. — Use cold water for the purpose of cleansing

the barrel, and finish by pouring in boiling water, taking care to

stop the touch-hole. Shake it up and down well, and drain it

from the muzzle, which will clear the chamber. The hot water

greatly aids the process of drying, — one of the most important

parts of gun-washing. After the washing is concluded, by

looking down the barrel with the touch-hole open, you will be

enabled to see into the chamber, and ascertain whether it be

effectually cleared out or otherwise. The foulness of the barrel

of course must be the criterion by which the person employed

in cleaning it will be decided. Should it require to be scoured,

to remove powder encrusted on its sides, very fine sand and hot

water should be used, and care taken to rinse it out thoroughly,

at the last, with boiling water, to clear the chamber of anything

that may have been driven into it by the washing-rod. The

material in ordinary use for gun-cleaning is tow, to which there

is the objection that particles are apt to become detached from

it, and lodge m the chambers. To prevent any chance of this

kind, I would recommend the substitution of cloth, which will

be found to answer the purpose quite as well, being at the same

time free from all such hazard. It is a bad habit to fall into,

that of laying by your gun loaded : let the charge be drawn

after the day's work. If you have had but a few shots, the less

trouble there will be in the cleaning : a mere hot-water rinse,

and a gpod drymg, will be enough. Should your gun contain

an old charge when you go out, do not put your faith in it : the

odds are all in favour of its hanging fire. Squib it off, first draw-

ing the shot, and load again while the barrels are warm ; probe

your touch-holes; wipe your locks within and without; and if you

cannot command success afterwards, you will have the satisfaction

of knowing that you have taken the best course to ensure it.

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Every time you load, observe whether your touch-hole he

free : it is but a moment's occupation, and a certain security

against a monstrous annoyance — missing fire, probably at one of

your best chances during the day. In all cases of hanging or

missing fire, the seat of disease is the touch-hole or chamber,

if your cap has exploded : to these apply the remedy. I speak

only with reference to detonators, as they have now become so

very universal : of course when a flint gun is used, the mischief

may be caused by a faulty flint. Your last act should be, when

the day's sport is over, before you enter the house, to let down

the springs of your locks : the less stress you keep upon them,

the more power and elasticity they will retain. This is the plan

to make one lock wear out the best Damascus barrel.

Powder. — The names of most of the great manufacturers of

gunpowder are now sufficient guarantee for the excellence of

the article bearing their signatm-es. Purchase your supply from

any respectable house, and you will be secure that it is genuine:

beyond the label you need not seek. Your care, then, must be

to preserve the original strength, by putting it into canisters

closely corked and sealed, after first having carefully dried it, —

a process for which Colonel Hawker gives this excellent recipe :

" Your powder should always be properly dried, in order to do

which make two or three plates very hot before the fire, and

(first taking care to wipe them well, lest any particle of cinder

should adhere to them) keep constantly shifting the powder from

one to the other, without allowing it to remain sufficiently long

in either to cool the plate. The powder will then be more

effectually aired, and more expeditiously dried, than by the

more common means of using only one plate, which the powder,

by lying on it, soon makes cold, and therefore the plate re-

quires to be two or three times heated." Nothing can be added

to this, save the admonition that the operation be performed at

such a distance from the fire as to prevent the possibility of a

spark or cinder reaching you. The surest way is to diy your

powder in one room, and to heat your plates in another.

Shot. — Here is a division of my subject much less easily dis-

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posed of than the last. The selection of shot is a question upon

which many of the best authorities are at issue. Some deal

with it only in reference to the game for which it is intended ;

others consider it merely as having relation to the length and

diameter of the barrel for which it is required. 1 recommend

the middle course, — medio tutissimus ibis. Colonel Hawker tells

us that " it is not so much the magnitude of the pellet, as the

force with which it is driven, that does the execution." No one

can accord more cheerful fealty than I do to the generality of

that first-rate sportsman's opinions ; but I cannot allow my ad-

miration to dazzle my common sense, or to subscribe to this

hypothesis. With a swan-drop, you break the leg of wild-boar

or red-deer ; but could any force known to the science of pro-

jectiles accomphsh it with a grain of number 9, or dust-shot?

The rule should be, to suit your number to your game — the ex-

ception, to your gun and its calibre. Taking the average size

at which fowling-pieces are now made, and the general character

of Enghsh sporting, I have no hesitation in sa)ring that there

ai-e very few instances in which number 7 will not be found

to answer the purposes of a day's shooting. It is not the power

to penetrate that fills the bag. Many a bird carries olf a quarter

of an ounce of lead in his body ; but break his wing, and what

can he do then? The advocate of small shot urges the increased

space which it covers, and consequently the increased chances in

favour of its hitting ; but to hit j^our bird, and to bring him

down, are two very dififerent things. Catch him anywhere with

a good-sized pellet, and the odds are that he comes to bag; stuff

him with dust, and he flies away with a whole charge, unless it

has encountered a vital part. It is to be remembered that I am

not here addressing my observations to first-rate masters of the

trigger, — to such professors as Ross, Sutton, or Osbaldiston.

I have not deemed it necessary to go into the relative merits of

shot upon such minute niceties as the increased rotatory motion

of the larger pellets, and the like. In an epitomised treatise like

this, the length of my design only extends to offering the best

general hints that suggest themselves to me, as applicable to the

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service of the novice. To such, then, I say, in all ordinary cases^

make use of number 7 : never go higher, for a jack-snipe

will often fly away mth the full of a charger of number 9 in

his body. If, however, your sport lies exclusively in thick wood-

lands, or where only very long shots are hkely to be had, supply

yourself with numbers 2 or 3 ; but at the same time take care

to provide a long and heavy gun, that will throw them even, and

not in lumps and clusters.

Percussion Caps. — Detonating guns have now been so

long in general use, that the familiarity thus produced with the

various properties and kinds of fulminating powders, ensures

the very general perfection to which these invaluable auxiUaries

of the shooter have attained. They are to be had, of an almost

uniform excellence, at all the respectable gunmakers in town

and country.

Wadding. — Here again is a matter on which you will find a

vast variety of opinion. Some get rid of it altogether by adopt-

ing the new system of cartridges. Upon this point I do not

wish to offer any of the results of my own limited experience.

I have shot with these, and vdth average success — a low average

I admit, for I have no pretensions to the name of a crack. They

are, however, worth the experiment of a trial, though I am dis-

posed to believe the success or failure of it vdU much depend

upon the accidental properties and effects of the materials sub-

mitted to the test. To return to the sort of wadding which may

best serve those who still adhere to the old system of mere

powder and shot. After enumerating the various claims of paper,

hat, card, and leather. Colonel Hawker gives the preference to

punched pasteboard, — the thickness to increase in the ratio of

the diameter of the barrel. The best that have ever come under

my notice are Cherry's prepared waddmgs, suited to every cahbre.

They are manufactured from felt which has undergone a process

that prevents the accumulation of damp after firing, and are to

be procured at any gunmaker's for the cost of the materials in

ordinary use. These I do recommend, and I am sure those who

accord them a trial will have no reason to regret it. They cover

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the powder effectually, and offer but little resistance to the shot,

which is all that is requii-ed of wadding. Mr. Cherry would im-

prove upon his invention by piercing the waddings intended to

cover the shot, as it would facilitate the operation of loading, while

the shooter made the distinction by carrying those for the powder

in his left-hand pocket, and those for the shot in his right.

The Powder-flask. — It is strange that, among the many

ingenious improvements effected in the implements of the

shooter, the powder-flask, certainly the most important of all,

should have been left in its present dangerous condition. I am

aware that an attempt, and a praiseworthy one, was made some

years ago by Mr. Egg, to reduce the chances of accident which

the present construction of the flask involves ; but I ask why

has not some contrivance, without any of the old leaven in it,

been suggested and effected? In the shot-belt the charger is

wholly detached — where no risk, at all events, would follow,

were it otherwise — whereas, when loading with powder, the

charger, with the flask attached, is introduced into the muzzle

of the gun, so that should it, by any accident, become ignited,

an explosion (and most probably a fatal one) of the whole en-

sues as matter of consequence. However, to deal with it as you

find it, with proper precaution, when you fill your charger let

back the spring gradually, that no chance may be given away in

the event of a bit of flint, or any substance that might throw out

a spark, being struck by it. Never lose sight of the material

which your flask contains. Let nothing induce you to fire with

it m your hand. If a chance shot offer while you are loading a

discharged barrel, throw it behind you, if there is not time to

return it to your pocket.

Loading. — I have not thought it necessary to occupy any of

my hmited space with the shot-belt, because it is so simple, and

at the same time so excellent in construction, that the merest

novice cannot be astray in the use of it. Not so is it with the

important office — that of loading your gun aright, although it is

impossible to lay down any rules for it applicable to every case.

Experience alone will enable you so to proportion your charge

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that you shall come at the full powers of which your gun is

capable. The gauge, the length, the weight — all must be taken

into account, and provided for. For the ordinary run of fowling-

pieces, the following is a fair proportion : — A shot-charger that

holds an ounce and a half of shot may be filled to the brim with

powder, which will serve to load with, as also to prime : the

same measure filled up with shot will constitute your charge of

lead. By these proportions, you can thus regulate the chargers

of your belts and flasks. Against this system it is contended,

by the ultra-particular, that it is a bad one in reference to powder,

which is manufactured without regard to weight, only the pro-

jectile force being considered. These are minutiae, how^ever, into

which I do not desire to introduce the learner. He will have

enough to do with the more immediate affairs of preparing his

nerves, forming a judgment upon sight and distance, and laying

a foundation upon a basis of right principle and prompt per-

formance, without which he will have little business upon that

arena to which I am about to introduce him, after a long but

still a necessary preface.

Shooting. The Field. — Unless where some positive

mental or physical prohibition exists, a certain degree of excel-

lence and dexterity in every art and science is open to such as

seek with care and perseverance. Thus, although, from natural

causes, every man cannot aspire to the honour of becoming a

crack shot, there is scarcely any that may not acquire the art of

shooting tolerably well. The sooner the essay is made, the

better the chance of its success ; and as my pupil is supposed to

be in this condition, I proceed, without further introduction, to

offer such practical rules and maxims as may best serve to pro-

mote the end he should have in view — that of becoming cautious

in the management, and steady in the use of his gun.

The first step, assuming the learner to be a complete novice,

will be to acquire the proper mode of putting his gun to his

shoulder, and of bringing the sight to bear upon a particular

object, — the latter only to be rightly accomplished with the

breech and sight on a level. Having attained this preliminary.

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let him take a flint gun, with a piece of WDod substituted for the

flint, and practise at the object so situated, always remembering

to pull the trigger the moment the sight is on the mark—a pre-

caution he will find the vast advantage of as he comes to apply

it to flying shots. After a practice so conducted till the eye

ceases to flinch when the trigger is drawn, he may begin to load

with half charges, and continue to practise at his object, occa-

sionally, without his knowledge, small charges of shot being

added, so that he shall strike his mark without the nervous ex-

citement of feeling that he is making the attempt.

The great point — that of steadiness combined with self-confi-

dence — being arrived at, he may now try his hand at small birds ;

but even after he has become adroit at these, he has still another

ordeal to go through. This is the tremour at the springing of

game, whether a pack of grouse, a covey of partridges, or a soli-

tary cock-pheasant, which, indeed, often makes as startling a

flight as either. In this case, it will serve him greatly to return

to the system he began with, and learn to cover his game with-

out the nervous apprehension of a miss. While at this practice,

he may begin to use himself to cover with both eyes open, the

advantage of which he will soon discover when he comes to quick

shooting.

Being tolerably au fait at these points of practice (for perfec-

tion can only result from long experience, whence come skill

and judgment), it will be necessary that he bear in mind those

rules for rightly effecting his purpose when his game is moving.

He must shoot before an object that crosses his point of sight ;

high for a bird rising in its flight, or skimming the surface ; be-

tween the ears of hares or rabbits running in a straight line from

him, — being guided, of course, in every case, by the distance

between him and the mark at which he aims. For example, if a

bird range forty yards from him, calculating the ordinary velo-

city of its speed of wing, he mav safely aim six inches before it.

No fixed rules, however, can be laid down, where the casualties

of powder, a dull or lively-shooting gun, high winds, and fifty

other et ceteras, are opposed to a system. One principle he

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may always adopt with success, and that is, to fix his eyes on

the mark he has selected, and fire the instant the gun is brought

to bear upon it. It is very difficult to say at what distance a

bird may be which can be called a fair shot, because it rests with

so many contingencies. Forty yards are generally considered

as point-blank range, but it will often be found easier to bring

down game at fifty than at thirty yards. The wind, as in cross

shots, and various operating causes — all the result of temporary

accident — must be taken into account. You will always have a

better chance to kill long cross shots than those approaching or

flying from you. It is very hard to do execution upon birds

with a stern-chaser, and in coming towards you they present a

surface off which shot is very apt to glance without penetrating.

I have said nothing about the hold of his gun most convenient

for the learner to accustom himself to, because, in whatever

manner it may be put into his hands at first, he is sure, ulti-

mately, to adopt a style of his own, arising from natural causes,

or habits almost as forcible. The nearer it is placed to the

guard, the less risk is run should a barrel burst. The grasp of

the stock more forward affords the greatest facility in bringing

the gun to bear upon its object, and more firmness of position.

While I am on the mechanical portion of the young shooter's

acquirements, or rather things to be acquired, I do not think a

better opportunity can be chosen to introduce a few hints upon

a more advanced state of practice, albeit some may, at the time

of perusing them, be unfit to receive what may be termed

finishing lessons. When you are about taking a cross shot at a

long range, fire well before it, from one to three feet, according

to the speed with which the bird is flying, and let your gun be

thrown above the object. The same rule must direct you in

firing at hares or rabbits, whether it be a cross shot or one in a

right line. It is a most mischievous practice, as far as regards

your day's sport, to make much noise in the field, however

strong the provocation from the disobedience of your dogs, or

any cause whatever. Should your pointers prove incorrigible,

I would rather recommend you, when they have sprung a covey.

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to cause them to be taken up, and then walk yourself as near as

you can to the spot where you saw it drop. Should the birds

rise singly or by the brace, continue to beat and shoot while you

think one remains; it will be time enough to look after the slain

(that cannot abscond) when you make sure of the hving. This

plan may also be successfully adopted when there is not scent

enough to prevent the staunchest dogs from running in upon

their game. In marking your covey down, remember they cannot

fall so long as they continue to skim : they cannot alight till

they stop themselves, and prepare for the pitch, by a flapping of

the wings.

I should not advise you to begin beating for partridges, even

in September, before nine o'clock, and then desist from it at

noon. From three till dusk is the golden division of the day, at

that season, for the partridge-shooter. If your ground happen

to lie in the vicinity of manors that have been shot over during

the day, you will be certain to meet the remnants of scattered

coveys, of all chances the most sure to fill your game-bag. With

pheasants, however, when they are to be sought in strong covers

particularly, your system must be almost reversed. As the day

advances, these birds resort to the thickest and strongest lying

that the woodlands frequented by them afibrd. When beating,

in the early morning, after rain, you will generally find them in

the skirts of covers, or in the hedgerows adjacent. In such

cases, always contrive to place yourself between them and the

strong old woods: to these they are certain to fly, — instinct

teaching them that there they are most sheltered and secure.

In battue-shooting, all you have to attend to is the situation of

the best opens, and such sides of the covers intended to be

beaten, as the direction of the wind, and the ordinary resort of

the game, point out as the most judicious stations; but when

about to engage in a single-handed day's sport, you will require

a more skilful disposition, and closer attention to the manner of

your tactics. In this latter case, your best assistant will be a

steady old pointer : one that will range near you, work round

every piece of copse and imderwood, and poke into every nook

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and crevice ; well broke he must be, so as to fall at shot, and

crouch down on bringing in his birds.

In a treatise such as this, it would be impossible to give even

the briefest epitome of directions for the various classes of game

and wild-fowl shooting. Before, however, I close my address to

the young disciple of the trigger, I will offer him a few familiar

hints on a division of his craft neither the least in importance or

interest, — namely, his relation to his best ally and friend, the

dog. I am not going to suggest the species best suited to

general shooting, as so very much depends upon the country to

be hunted, and the chance that may direct selection; but whether

pointer, setter, or spaniel, you will find your account in making

such as you intend for coadjutors in the field your ordinary asso-

ciates and companions. Try the experiment by committing one

puppy of a litter entirely to the breaker, and retaining another

(when the general rudiments of his education have been ac-

quired) constantly with yourself, and at every opportunity sub-

jected to gentle but firm discipline, and you will soon discover

which is the better plan. Adopt the same system with a per-

fectly-made hunter — a master of his business; and you will soon

find out the difference of being served by one who, from habit,

will be enabled to understand your looks, and another who, at

best, will have to puzzle out your mshes, or require to have them

announced at the hazard of flushing half the game in the parish.

With this parting word on the social economy of shooting,

closes the last of those notices of our Field Sports which the

publisher thought it convenient to appear in this volume, and

the treatment of which he confided to me. If his purpose has

been fulfilled, my desire will be accomplished, — the wish to

please being our unity of design. The little talent the writer

possesses, at all events will not have failed fi-om lack of anxiety

to accomplish his task : what is writ is writ, —

" Would it were worthier ! "