

OUTDOOR SPORTS

ILLUSTRATED



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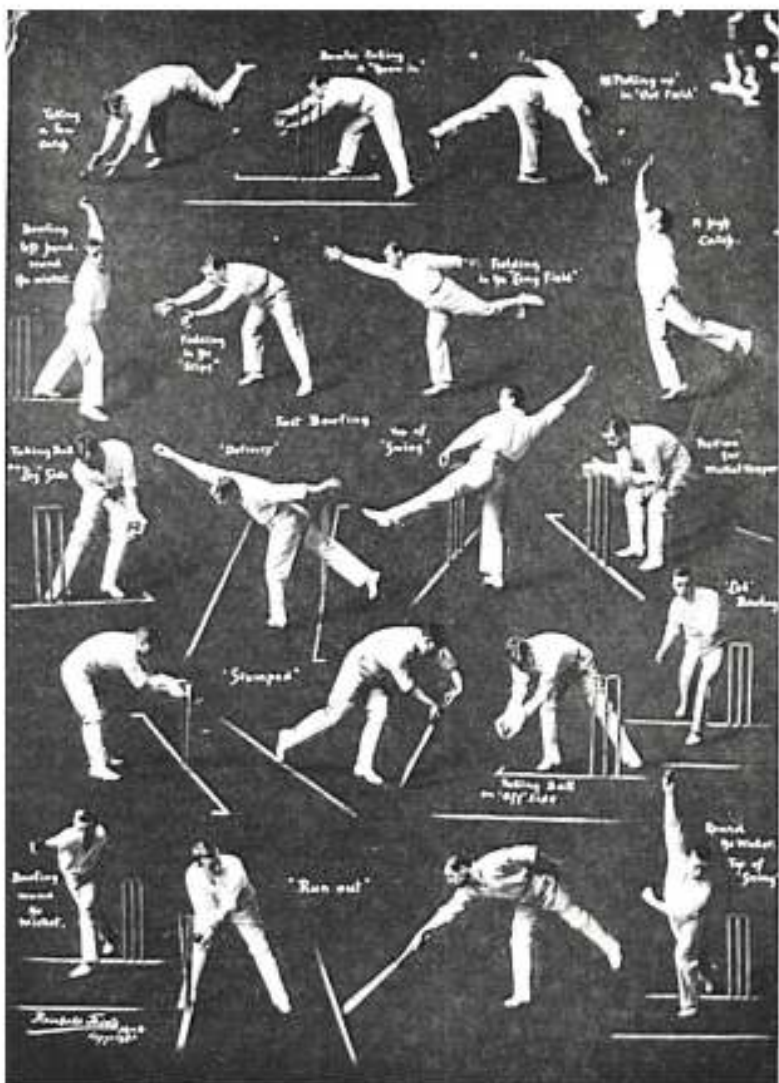
1978

OUTDOOR SPORTS

*UNIFORM WITH THIS
VOLUME*

**INDOOR
AMUSEMENTS**

CASELL & CO., LTD., LONDON.



CRICKET: FIELDING AND BOWLING

(See pages 10-102.)

OUTDOOR SPORTS

**A Complete Guide to Field and Lawn
Games, Swimming, Rowing, Minor Out-
door Sports, etc., giving the latest
Official Regulations**

**WITH AN INTRODUCTION BY
GILBERT L. JESSOP**

**SIXTEEN FULL-PAGE PLATES AND
NUMEROUS ILLUSTRATIONS IN THE
TEXT**

**CASELL AND COMPANY, LTD
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CONTENTS

	PAGE
INTRODUCTION	ix
ARCHERY	1
ATHLETIC SPORTS	7
BADMINTON	15
BASEBALL	17
BASKET BALL	44
BOAT SAILING	45
BOWLS	54
CANOEING	64
CRICKET	68
CROQUET	104
CURLING	121
CYCLING	123
DRIVING	134
FIVES	138
FOOTBALL—	
Rugby	140
Association	157
GOLF	165
HOCKEY	183
KNURR AND SPELL, OR NORTHERN SPELL	193
LACROSSE	195
LAWN TENNIS	204

CONTENTS

	PAGE
MOTOR CYCLING	217
QUOITS	218
RACQUETS	220
RIDING	224
ROWING	232
SKATING	245
SWIMMING	260

MINOR OUTDOOR GAMES

BALL GAMES	274
FIELD GAMES	282
KITE-FLYING	285
MARBLE GAMES	291
PLAYGROUND GAMES	297
TOY GAMES	323
INDEX	333

LIST OF PLATES

1. CRICKET : FIELDING AND BOWLING	<i>Frontispiece</i>
		FACING PAGE
2. ARCHERY	4
3. ATHLETIC SPORTS	12
4. BASEBALL	32
5. BOWLS	60
6. CRICKET : BATTING AND BOWLING	90
7. CROQUET	106
8. CUR'ING	122
9. FOOTBALL : THE RUGBY UNION GAME	144
10. FOOTBALL : ASSOCIATION GAME	160
11. GOLF	176
12. HOCKEY	192
13. LACROSSE	202
14. LAWN TENNIS	214
15. SWIMMING	272
16. PLAYGROUND GAMES	310

INTRODUCTION

WHILST it may be easy for one to exaggerate the value of sports, there is so much to convince as to the benefits to be derived from a reasonable pursuit of games that, should zeal outwit discretion, it would be a more pardonable error than to go to the other extreme in condemnation of sports as trivial and silly. What is wanted is a true perspective. Some thirty years ago we, as a nation, were pre-eminent in field sports, but we can no longer boast that to-day. It is not that we are going back in any way, but that others are coming to the front. The rapid development of sports, which has shown itself in so marked a fashion on the Continent, is in itself a tribute to the value which all intelligent people attach to participation in games.

Public-school life on the Continent, with its usual methods of "working off steam" in the Gymnasium instead of on the Football or Cricket Field, has little to commend itself, either from a moral or disciplinary point of view. Physically, the systematic culture of the body may produce more muscle, but the product of enforced systematic drill will not be likely to benefit so much as the product of a voluntary pleasurable sport. Really the two things are different—not entirely opposed, but complementary. The Gymnasium produces a "being," sports produce a "doer," and the combination of the two gives the ideal.

One great point about games—and one which is too often lost sight of—is that the same qualities which are valuable and estimable in life bring success in sport. Character is produced by action—a boy becomes persevering in character, as apart from disposition—by doing things with perseverance. Sports give a fine field for the cultivation of that quality which, as we know, "made a Bishop of his Reverence." Whilst there are some boys who have a natural genius for games, there are others possessing the same amount of

INTRODUCTION

enthusiasm but lacking in aptitude. Natural ability, of course, counts for much, but practice and perseverance can work wonders. One can see that every season in our first-class Cricket.

On the whole, our education is rather too "bookish"—too much cramming in instead of drawing out. Sports are practical, and they need brains just as much as shopkeeping does. The days of "mollycoddling" are over, and the hardening influence of field games has already made its presence felt and will continue to do so as the days roll on.

If you have pluck on the Football field, it is not likely to desert you if you should be faced with business difficulties. Quick observation in any branch of sport is invaluable. He who can see things as they actually are and draw conclusions and act on them is the person likely to be found at the top of the tree. And of a surety is this the keynote of success in business.

The greatest value of our school games is that they supply a field in which boys can be given responsibility and organising work. It may be a fault that too often does the leadership of a school team go by order of seniority and not by actual merit, but it is a system which, even if capable of improvement, has produced good results.

Sports at our schools are not introduced merely to fill up spare moments, but are encouraged for their importance in the building up of character. That reliability in the field does not lead to indolence in the classroom we have so many brilliant examples in our public life.

As regards the actual playing of a game there is a right way and a wrong way, but with a book of such comprehensiveness as "Outdoor Sports" there should be little excuse for a boy to begin any game with such a handicap as a wrong method. Bad methods are easily acquired, but they are far from easy to shake off. It is in the A B C of a game that the greatest care should be bestowed, for without a thorough mastery of the alphabet one must go astray. Take the first rudiment of Cricket—namely, that of one's position at the wicket, which to a beginner seems of so little importance but in reality is of the utmost. The error to avoid is the placing of the weight of the body on both feet, which naturally incommodes quick-

ness of movement. Put the weight on the right foot with the left extended towards the bowler in readiness to step forward if necessary. And do not believe in the old-fashioned precept "Never move the right foot." Our old friend "Ranji" would never have been able to execute his wonderful leg strokes if he had been a strict adherent of the immovable principle. The only redeeming point of the fixed right-footed stance was the prevention of a boy from retreating in the direction of square leg when facing a fast bowler. And it was probably for that very reason that such a maxim was framed. The introduction of the "googley" bowler has made quickness of feet more than ever indispensable, so that it is very necessary to explode any effete theory.

Although we have striking instances of great cricketers meeting with success despite their playing with a crooked bat, it is distinctly not a method to recommend. They have succeeded in spite of, and not because of, their wrong style. It stands to reason that the full bat is more likely to save one's wicket than merely a portion of the blade. Playing with a straight bat is the rock upon which to found one's success, and practice is the only real method by which to build it up. Keep the left shoulder well forward, hold the bat with the hands not too far apart, watch the bowler intently, are three essentials which should never be lost sight of. As all these points will be elaborated on in the chapter devoted to Cricket, it would be superfluous for me to labour the subject at greater length.

Remember that those qualities which go to build up any success that a boy may attain at any game will not desert him in the more serious battle of life. And do not forget that although every game is hedged in with restrictions, it is better to regard the spirit of the Game rather than the letter of the Law.

GILBERT L. JESSOP.

OUTDOOR SPORTS

ARCHERY

ARCHERY used to be a branch of education. In the original deed for the regulation and endowment of Harrow School, dated 1590, it is directed: "You shall allow your child at all times bows, shafts, bow-strings, and bracer, to exercise shooting." In consequence of this clause, it was formerly the custom to hold an annual exhibition of archery, when the scholars contended for a silver arrow, the chosen competitors being attired in spangled dresses of white, green, or scarlet satin. Indeed, it was altogether a ceremonious affair, every hit being saluted with a concert of French hunting-horns, and the winner of the silver arrow carrying it home, followed by the whole school in procession, with music, etc., and a ball finishing the day.

Roving is to archery what skirmishing practice is to the rifleman. The competitors have no pre-arranged mark, but wander about and select any object which it takes their fancy at the moment to aim at: a tree, a patch in a paling, or a notice-board threatening trespassers with the utmost rigour of the law. But a great drawback to roving is the loss of arrows, which renders it a somewhat expensive amusement to those who are not able or willing to manufacture their own.

Flight Shooting is simply seeing how far you can send an arrow, and is therefore rather a trial of strength than skill, and not to be compared for interest with aiming at a mark.

When practising the first distance should not exceed ten yards; at which, after a month's diligent practice, the player should be able to strike, many successive times, a tennis ball suspended from a string. Let him then remove it to twenty yards; and on acquiring a similar degree of dexterity at that distance, his next step will be the extreme point-blank range of his bow.

A method of learning to shoot straight is to shoot at lanterns after dusk.

A correct eye, strong arms, and a good position will enable the archer to shoot straight, but keeping a length is only to be acquired by constant practice. The point-blank range of a bow and arrow is so very short that in target shooting you are never within it, but

always have to shoot upwards, so as to pitch the arrow on the target, as it were, and the farther you are from the mark the higher, of course, you must shoot, till you reach the angle of forty-five degrees, beyond which the arc described by the flight of the arrow will be shortened instead of lengthened. Archers sometimes endeavour to find the proper elevation for sixty or a hundred yards by making marks on the glove of the bow-hand, but the best authorities are agreed that all such attempts are futile, and that sighting must be left to the rifleman. It is well that this should be the case; archery is a trial of skill, and the interest would be greatly diminished if the principal difficulty could be evaded by a mechanical contrivance.

The effect of the wind upon an arrow is very great. When it is a side wind you must allow for it in a lateral direction; when an up or down wind the elevation must be modified.

Should the arrow fall off the bow while you are in the act of drawing, it counts as a shot if it is beyond the reach of your bow; otherwise not.

Target Shooting.—A pair of targets are set up opposite to one another at sixty, eighty, or one hundred yards' distance, and the party (eight being the largest number usually allotted to one pair) take their stand immediately in front of one, and shoot at the other till the number of arrows agreed upon has been expended. When the "end" is over, they all march in a row across the ground, and proceed to gather up their misses and extract their hits, the marker scoring each arrow as it is drawn out. Then they shoot in a similar manner at the other target, this time in order of merit, the most successful taking the lead, and the lowest scorer shooting last.

The score is thus reckoned:—Gold, nine; red, seven; blue, five; black, three; white one. The highest score gains the prize; but no prize should be awarded unless twelve ends, at least, of three arrows each, shall have been shot; twelve double ends being the desired number, time and weather permitting.

The strength of the bow must, of course, be proportioned to that of the archer. Lads who have not come to their full size or strength should use ladies' bows, which are from twenty-five to forty pounds in strength. A man of ordinary muscular development, however, should not begin with one of less than fifty pounds, nor rest contented until he can draw a seventy-five pound bow with ease. But if he commenced practice with a bow too strong for him, he would not be able to shoot straight. When there is anything of effort or struggle in drawing the arrow, the target will remain untouched.

Bow strings are made of hemp. The string is fixed to the lower and shorter horn by a timber hitch, the eye having been previously slipped over the other end, so as to play freely up and down; but to prevent its slipping down too far when the bow is unstrung, it is well to loop the eye to the upper horn with a piece of ribbon. It is

ARCHERY

thought well by some to entwine both the eye (or upper loop, which you find ready made) and the lower noose (which you form yourself) with fine kid. Of more importance is it to mark that part of the string which strikes the arm when the arrow is released, and wind silk, slightly cobbler's-waxed, round it; for if the string becomes frayed it is liable to snap, and the consequent jar will often break the bow. Rather less than half an inch in the exact middle should be wound with silk of a different colour, to mark the nocking point. Whenever the string gets soft, and the strands loose, twist it tight again and rub it with white wax.

The distance between the belly of the braced bow and the string is called the shaftment, and should be about six inches. The old way of measuring is as good as any, which is to rest the clenched hand with the thumb upon the inside of the handle, and if the thumb-nail touches the string you need not alter it.

It is a great mistake in archery to have arrows too long. For a five feet ten bow a twenty-seven inch arrow is quite sufficient; a lady's bow, which is a foot shorter, should not shoot arrows that are any longer than two feet.

In withdrawing an arrow from the target or the ground, seize it close to the head, and turn it round with a boring motion as you pull. Careless handling is apt to injure the feathers and bend or break the shaft. Precaution is particularly necessary when the arrow is snaked—an appropriate term, signifying the course it sometimes takes through grass when the ground is so hard that the point glides instead of penetrating. A snaked arrow is often lost altogether, or only found warped and spoiled weeks afterwards, though the searcher may know almost the exact spot where it alighted, but when found it is better to cut the grass on each side with a knife than to use force for its extraction.



Fig. 1.—The Bracer

The *Quiver* is a green tin case for arrows. The *Belt*, which, like the quiver, is now used by ladies only, carries the arrows in use, spare strings, score-book, and a tassel to wipe dirt off the arrows. The *Bracer* (Fig. 1) is a leather guard for the left arm.

In place of the old "shooting glove," so long used as a protection to the fingers when loosing, tips of various patterns are now the fashion. The glove lost its popularity from the fact that it was seldom all three fingers fitted perfectly, and it is essential to good shooting that any protection should fit well, so that when loosing the string may be "felt." Of "tips," the most popular are the "screw" and the "knuckle" (Fig. 2).



Fig. 2.—Screw Tip and Knuckle Tip

OUTDOOR SPORTS

The screw tip has a brass screw bolt, by which the size can be adjusted, so that the tip will not fall off. The knuckle tip depends

Archer's Name	Gold	Red.	Blue.	Black.	White.	No. of Hits.	Value.
A							
B							
C							
D							
E							
Total hits and Value.							

Fig. 3.—Target Card

upon its shape to make it stick to the finger when the string is loosed.

A target card is almost invariably carried at archery meetings, on which scores are marked—a gold hit scoring nine; a red, seven; blue, five; black, three; and white, one.

If an arrow sticks on the margin line of the gold, say, it does not score a gold if there is any trace of the red paint upon it. The same rule applies to the other circles. The target (Fig. 4) is a flat circle of straw covered with painted canvas, the centre a circular patch of gilt, seven inches across, then a circle of red, and another of blue, each three inches and a half broad, then a circle of black, one inch and a half, and an outer one of white, one inch broad. The target, which is fixed on a triangle of wood or iron, should be four feet in diameter, and should so stand that the centre of the target is four feet from the ground.

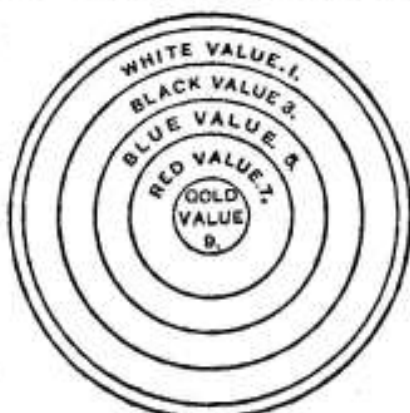


Fig. 4.—The Target

STRINGING THE BOW

Hold the handle in your right hand, with the back of the bow towards you. Place the bottom horn against the hollow of the right foot, turning the latter so as to secure it, the left foot being advanced. Place the palm of your left hand upon the upper end of the bow, taking the eye of the string between the finger and thumb, and slide it up towards the notch as you push with the left hand, and pull with the right till the string is in the notch. Make sure that it is firmly there, and not awry, before

PLATE 2



1



2



3



4

ARCHERY

1. Nocking.
3. Holding.

2. Drawing up the Bow.
4. Loosing.

(See pages 7-8.)

you let go. Some archers use the left hand to pull at the handle with, and push the top of the bow with the right; it comes to the same thing.

Unstringing is performed in a similar manner. If the weather is cold, warm the bow before bracing it.

The above is the correct and graceful method of bracing the bow, but if it is a very powerful one you may not be able to put it in practice. Then you must use your knee as a fulcrum, placing the bow across it with the lower horn in the ground, and the rounded inner side towards you, and pulling the top down with the left hand, while you nock the string with the right.

Do not keep your bow strung longer than is necessary. When you have shot your turn, unstring it at once, if several minutes are likely to elapse before you will use it again. A bow kept braced too long together is apt after a time to acquire a bend, or, as it is termed, to follow the string; and this detracts from its strength.

THE FIVE POINTS OF ARCHERY

The five points are—standing, nocking, drawing, holding and loosing.

Standing.—Present your left side to the target, the face over the left shoulder, head and neck inclined slightly forward, for if you stand too stiffly erect, you will never acquire the "laying of the body in the bow." The feet are to be firmly planted upon the ground, with the weight of the body resting equally on both; the heels six inches apart.

Nocking.—"To nock well," says an old writer, "is the easiest point of all, and therein is no art, but only constant attention to nock truly, not setting the shaft too high or too low, but exactly straight across the bow. Inconstant nocking makes a man lose his strength; and besides, if the shaft hand is high and the bow hand low, or the contrary, both the bow is in danger of breaking, and the shaft, if it is small, will start; if great, it will hobble. You must always nock the *cock-feather* upwards; and be sure the string does not slip out of the nock, for then all is in danger of breaking." Be careful before nocking to see that the bow is not reversed, but that you have got the top uppermost; otherwise the coloured silk which marks the nocking point will be in the wrong place, and the arrow will not be drawn in the bow's centre. While fixing the arrow, pass the forefinger of the hand holding the bow over it, to keep it steady, and mind not to ruffle the feathers. The position is secured by placing the first and second fingers of the right hand close on either side of the nock, and holding it and the string by about the middle of the first joints.

Drawing.—In nocking, the bow may be held obliquely, to prevent the arrow falling away from it, but it must be raised to the perpendicular as you shoot. Raise your arms steadily, thrusting your left

hand forward with your whole strength, while you draw the arrow to your ear with the right, till the pile (or head) of the arrow reaches the knuckle of the bow-hand. No matter whether it is for a near or a distant shot, the arrow must be drawn to the pile. Many archers draw to the breast, but that is bad form, giving considerably less power over the bow.

After you have once commenced to draw, never look again at your hand or arrow; keep your eye intently fixed upon the gold, to the exclusion of every other object, until the shaft is sped.

Holding.—Bowmen generally draw with three fingers, and the glove is made with three stalls to that intent, but many only use two. Anyhow, the arrow must be held between the ends and the first joints of the first and second fingers. "Holding must not be long after the bow is drawn up, for it puts a bow in danger of breaking, and also spoils the shot."

Loosing.—This, says the writer before referred to, "must be performed much in the same manner as holding. So quick and hard, that it may be without any twitches; so soft and gentle, that the shaft fly not as if it was sent from a bow-case. The mean betwixt both, which is perfect loosing, is not so hard to be followed in shooting as it is to be described in teaching. For clean shooting, you must be careful of not hitting anything about you; and remember to hold your hand always the same height on your bow, that you may keep the length truly."

Doubtless this loosing of the arrow is the most difficult motion in shooting, principally in consequence of the necessity of wearing those clumsy finger-stalls; if you had a finger and thumb with pinch enough in them to draw the bow alone the matter would be easy enough. As it is, there is at first a difficulty, a hitch in letting the string slip at the critical moment, which is as great an impediment to making a good shot as a stiff trigger is in a rifle, or a hang-fire with a shot gun, and this is only to be got over with practice.

The bow-arm must be held as firm as a rock at the moment of loosing, for, unless the bow is held as in a vice, the flight of the arrow cannot be steady. All this must be done mechanically, however; you must not think of your arm or fingers, you must not be conscious that you have such things, even as the arrow flits away; your whole being should be concentrated in that bright patch in the centre of the distant target; for the fraction of a second you must be ignorant of the existence of anything in the universe but—a bull's-eye.

Holding, drawing, and loosing, though treated separately, for the purpose of explanation, form one continuous action; indeed, the archer should loose *while drawing*.

ATHLETIC SPORTS

UNDER this designation we class feats of pedestrianism and of hurling heavy weights, but not oarsmanship or proficiency in pastimes.

The usual programme of an athletic sports contest runs very much as follows :—Short distance race; long distance ditto; one or more races at intermediate distances; a hurdle race; high jump and broad jump, with sometimes a pole jump; putting the shot; and throwing the hammer or throwing the cricket-ball. This last now seldom finds place in programmes among adult athletes. The usual sprint distance is 100 yards. A mile race is almost *de rigueur*, and sometimes there is also a two or three mile race, and a steeplechase in addition, as a still further test of stamina. A quarter-mile, or 600 yards, and half-mile race will also be often found, for the benefit of those who can combine speed with a certain amount of stamina. Sometimes there is also a walking race.

SPRINTING

Under this head are included races which do not exceed 440 yards. In training for all races, particularly for sprints, it is advisable for the runner to get a companion to join him in his spins. If the latter is slightly faster so much the better. He must avoid putting too sudden a strain on his muscles by getting off the mark too quickly, or by running the full distance at top speed too soon or too often.

For a 100 yards race the training usually adopted is as follows. Place a sweater or handkerchief as a mark by the side of the track 20 yards or so from the starting point, and another about 30 yards further on. The runners start slowly, by mutual consent, and gradually increase their pace until they arrive (all together) opposite the first mark, from which they run at their best speed to the second mark, gradually slackening down again until they stop at about 80 yards. To stop too suddenly after passing the mark or winning-post is as likely to damage the muscles as to start too violently. Four or five of these sprints and one run at top speed over 80 yards or the full distance will suffice for an evening's work. Each evening one or two practices at starting should be done, sometimes by word of mouth and occasionally by pistol. The object is to get off the mark and into the stride as smartly as possible, and as soon as full speed is attained the runner should ease up again.

The American or crouching position is invariably adopted in starting nowadays by sprinters. The following description may give some idea of the position. Place the knuckles of both hands on the

OUTDOOR SPORTS

starting line, leaning well forward, the weight of the body on the hands; one foot about 18 inches behind the line and the other placed lightly on the ground another 12 inches or so to the rear. The impetus at starting is gained from a sudden kick-off from the hindmost foot. The runner must not endeavour to regain his upright position too quickly, but must rise gradually to his full height in the first few strides. (Plate 3, Fig. 3.)

QUARTER-MILE RACE

This is one of the severest races which can be run; it requires both pace and stamina. There are two styles of training for this distance, depending on whether pace or staying power is the strong point of the competitor. As a rule, 440 yards is the limit to which a genuine sprinter can run, but it very often happens that a half-miler can, by proper practice, develop into a first-class man at this distance. The usual practice for the former class of runner is to start at 220 yards at quarter-mile pace, and gradually increase the distance until he can run the full course. If he finds "staying" his chief difficulty he should vary this practice by running the full distance, or even over, at three-quarters pace.

On the other hand, the half-miler, confident of his ability to stay the distance, should confine himself to fast work at short distances, occasionally running out the full 440 yards at his best pace.

HALF-MILE RACE

For this distance the chief work should be done at 440 yards or 600 yards. "Striding" should be practised by running a lap or two slowly, throwing the legs well out, so as to increase the length of the runner's natural stride. The style of running this distance approximates more to that of a miler than to the sprinter's gait of a quarter-miler. The competitor should go off at a smart pace and gradually settle down into a steady, even stride until he comes within measurable distance—say 220 yards—of the winning post. From this point he should endeavour to increase the pace, finishing the last few yards with as near a sprint as he can raise.

ONE-MILE RACE

First of all the runner must make certain that he can stay the distance, by covering it at a moderate pace on one or two occasions. Having satisfied himself on this point, he should devote himself to fast work at distances varying from 600 yards to three-quarters of a mile. Occasionally he should run the mile against the watch, to see if he is improving; but too frequent time-trials should be avoided.

LONGER DISTANCES

Very few school sports include in their programmes flat races of over one mile, which is quite sufficient to test the pace and staying powers of growing lads. If, however, a longer distance has to be run, the training must be more gradual, and after making certain

that he can pay the distance slowly, the runner should practise at a somewhat faster pace over half or two-thirds of the distance required.

HURDLE RACING

This class of race is too much reduced to a sort of "sleight-of-toe" among grown athletes. The distance and jumps are usually uniform—120 yards and ten flights of hurdles, three feet six inches high, and ten yards apart. The runner practises his step for these, and would be quite thrown out if the distance between the flights or their height were suddenly varied unknown to him. With growing boys there is less likelihood of the science of taking the hurdles in the stride becoming so studied, for their stride and strength are daily varying with growth. Adults usually do the "three step" movement, which has superseded the "four step." They "buck" the hurdles, trotting over them and not jumping them, lighting on the opposite foot from that on which they took off, and going on thence in their stride. Older boys may adopt the same step with advantage; mere lads will not have stride enough to cover the distance between the hurdles in three steps; they will be forced to run and jump, instead of "bucking." The best thing that they can practise is to alight after each jump on one foot only, and to step on with the next, taking off for the new stride with the foot on which they land. To learn this "bucking" step the runner should commence with low hurdles the regulation distance apart, and having acquired the step both as to take off, landing, and continuation of the stride, then increase the height until he can do the trick over full-sized obstacles. He can lower the hurdles by sloping them. He may prepare himself as to exercise in the same way as for 100 yards racing, and similarly practise starts.

For a steeplechase the runner should combine the jumping practice of hurdle-racing with the preparations for long-distance running.

JUMPING

This is a feat which has greatly progressed with practice of late years. A quarter of a century ago anyone who could jump five feet was looked upon as a wonder; and four feet eight inches often won a college or public school competition. Now those who have a speciality for it practise it so much that they soon add a foot or two to their range. The competitor requires to get himself as light as he can, and to avoid all heavy work with arms and back which may develop muscle where not wanted for jumping. The less lumber he carries the higher he will jump. He should practise daily, but never tire himself. The amount of run he takes to a high jump is very much a matter of taste, but a dozen steps usually suffice. To time the "take off" is the great art, and the distance for taking off should be half the height of the jump, in front of the bar. The legs should be tucked well up, and the whole body thrown forward with just

sufficient force to clear the bar, but all the rest of the power should be expended on the upward spring. (Plate 3, Fig. 2.)

Two upright deals, with nails driven in, and holes bored to admit pegs, half an inch apart, with a light cross-bar laid on them, are all the apparatus needed for practice; the height jumped should be measured, and a piece of paper may be laid down to mark the take off, until the eye gets used to the distance. The starting off and landing should both be from the toes.

In wide jumping the best practice is to cut a gutter in the turf, whence to take off. The chief study, apart from development of power of spring, is to so time the step from the beginning of the run that the last stride before the spring may finish close on the edge of the take off, without shortening the stride to make it fit, else impetus is wasted. The jumper should be running at full speed when he takes his spring, as he thus gets the greatest possible impetus. (Plate 3, Fig. 1, shows the position for the standing wide jump.)

POLE JUMPING

The pole jump of athletes is different from practical pole jumping. In the former the athlete quits the pole and throws it from him as he completes his spring, and so adds to his impetus; in the latter, crossing a country, the pole is retained, and dropped over the obstacle with the jump. A 12-foot pole, of ash (or pine for a light-weight), shod with iron spikes, is the usual implement. It should be held with palms facing each other, one hand above the other. That hand should be uppermost which is on the opposite side to the foot from which the pupil chiefly takes his spring—i.e., the foot which last leaves the ground. The lower hand should be about the height of the obstacle; this teaches the pupil to lift his whole body as high as his hands on each spring. The pole should be held straight in front, and in a high jump on the rise the feet should be thrown to the outside, the whole weight on the hands, back and shoulders stiff, so as to admit of the body higher than his hands at the moment he clears the bar. As the pupil progresses he will be able to elevate his whole body higher than his hands at the moment he clears the bar. A good jumper will clear more than the height of his pole. Swinging his whole body over, supported on his hands, and then springing with the hands off the pole as he quits it, he will clear his arms of the bar. In wide jumping (especially at a dyke, in the manner in vogue in crossing the fens), great care is necessary to keep the pole straight in the line of spring, else, if the jump is to one side, there is a risk of a fall in the water. So long as the pole is straight in front the body rises for the first half of the jump, and when it has reached its greatest elevation, its own weight takes it over; but if the pole stands to right or left the full elevation is lost, and so is the final swing of descent. The feet should be carried well in front in the broad jump, not swung round as in clearing a height.

THROWING THE HAMMER

This sport is Caledonian in origin. The regulation hammer is 16 lbs., and handle three feet six inches long; but boys require a lighter one. The most effective way of throwing is to swing the hammer round the body twice, the arms fully extended, and with a run, swaying the whole body with it in the last half-turn, then letting go. The requisites are: (1) To let go in the right direction; (2) Not to lift the head of the hammer higher than the hands in the swing; (3) To time the step to the take off. It is a dangerous feat to be practised by a tyro within range of spectators. Seven feet is the regulation run. Plenty of dumb-bell exercise helps to harden the muscles of arms, shoulders, and neck for this feat.

PUTTING THE WEIGHT OR SHOT (Plate 3)

Sixteen pounds is the full-sized shot for this feat, but young boys require a lighter one. The regulation run is seven feet. The "putt" must be with one hand (the right, as we presume the student to be right-handed). The putter stands on his right foot, with his right shoulder thrown back, and the weight on his right hand close to the shoulder. The left arm and leg are usually thrown forward to balance the body. Two hops are then taken on the right leg; at the end of the second hop the left leg touches the ground, but the right shoulder is still kept back, and the weight of the body is still on the right leg. A spring is then taken, and the body swung rapidly round a half turn, so that when the weight leaves the hand the right shoulder and leg are forward, and the left shoulder and leg behind. The object, it will thus be seen, is to propel the weight by the swing of the body, and as little as possible by the arm. The body must be stopped after the weight leaves the hand, for if the line is crossed it is "no putt," although it counts as a "try." High weight putting is a variant of this feat, the weight being thrown over a bar placed on the supports used for high jumping.

THROWING THE CRICKET BALL

Hardly a schoolboy is unable to "shy," yet the strongest arm is not almost the most propelling for a throw. The secret of throwing is to keep shoulder, elbow, and wrist joints all loose when the arm is drawn back; then to hurl out the arm, to let all three joints straighten simultaneously, and let the missile quit the grasp at that juncture. If any one joint straightens before the other, or the delivery is not timed to coincide with the triple straightening, power is lost. A run adds impetus to the throw.

TOSSING THE CABER

This is essentially Scottish, and seldom, if ever, finds its way into English athletics. Nevertheless, we describe it, to complete the series of feats. The "cabrer" is a spar, or rather beam (a young

tree), heavier at one end than the other. It is held perpendicularly, small end downwards, and balanced in the hand against the chest; then with a run the athlete "tosses" it, so as to make it fall on the big end and turn over. The "caber" is usually so big at first that no one can toss it clean over. If all fail, then a bic is sawn off, and another round is tried by competition and so on until someone turns it clean over, so that the small end lies away from the direction whence it came. If more than one tosses it over, the straightest fall and farthest toss wins.

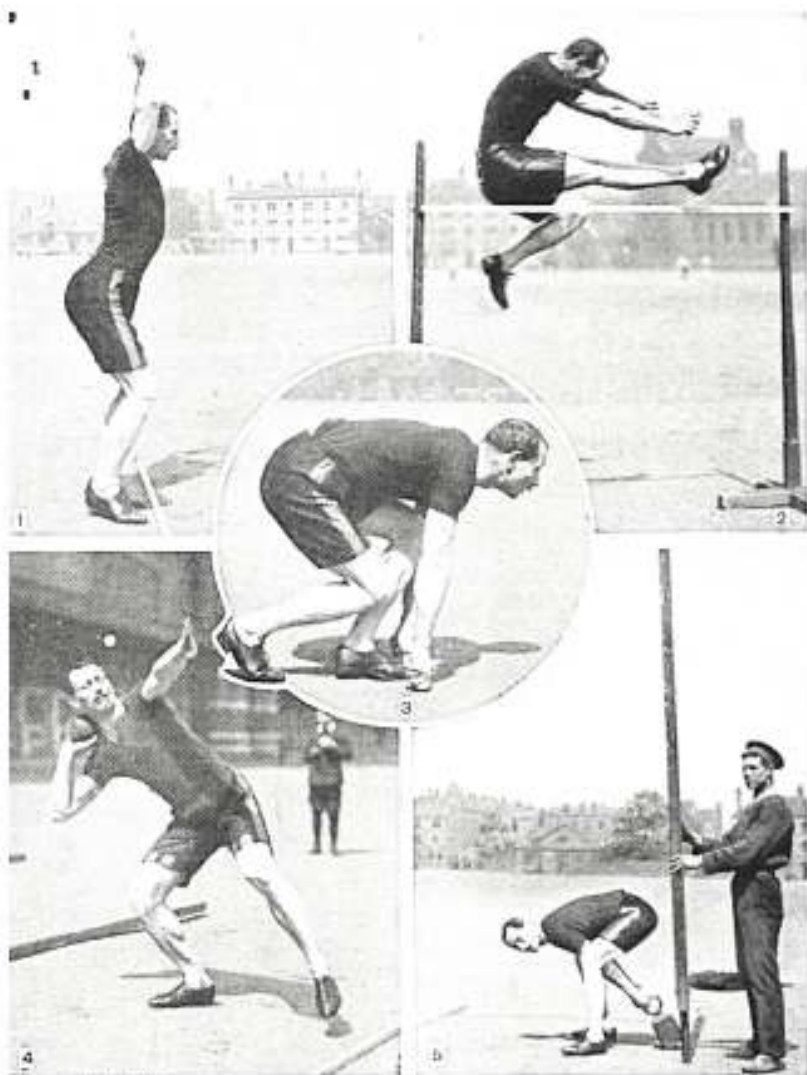
CROSS-COUNTRY RUNNING, OR HARE AND HOUNDS

This form of athletic exercise has made great strides of late years, and is now practised by innumerable clubs all over the country during the winter months. It undoubtedly owes its origin to the paperchase, which has for many years been a favourite sport at most of our big schools. In a genuine paperchase two runners (called "hares") are sent out with bags of trail paper (strips of paper shavings obtainable from almost any printer), which they scatter as they go. They are given, as a rule, ten minutes' start in a run of seven or eight miles (which is quite far enough for schoolboys to attempt), and are followed by the rest of the runners, who form the pack of "hounds." It is the object of the latter to follow the trail laid by the "hares," and gradually run them down before they can reach home again. The "hares" may use various artifices to prevent the "hounds" following them too closely. A favourite dodge is for a hare to lay a "false trail," that is, a trail which leads off from the genuine one for 200 yards or so and then suddenly stop. The hare who has laid this can then generally rejoin his companion by a short cut. In order to induce the hounds to follow the false scent, the paper should be scattered more thickly than the genuine trail, which, however, must be laid continuously from start to finish. The usual rule is that once the hares are sighted the hounds can make for them by a direct line, without keeping strictly to the trail. There is, therefore, plenty of scope for ingenuity on the part of the hares in taking care that they keep out of sight behind hedges or woods.

Out of the paperchase has arisen cross-country running proper, which is now the form of the sport most in vogue. In this the hares become merely trail-layers, indicating by means of the paper the course to be followed by the hounds, who are often divided into slow pack and fast pack. One runner in each pack is appointed "pacemaker," and it is his duty to set a steady pace stopping occasionally to let the stragglers close up, the object being not to catch the hares, but to enjoy a good run over open country. No one is allowed to go in front of the pacemaker until close home, when the latter may give the signal for a race in.

Another form of race occasionally held is a "point-to-point steeplechase," in which the runners make the best of their way between

PLATE 3



Photos: Clarke & Hyde.

ATHLETIC SPORTS

1. The wide jump.
2. The high jump.
3. The starting position for sprinting.
4. Putting the shot.
5. High weight-putting.

(See pages 7-14.)

certain well-defined landmarks. The course is usually a triangular one, and great scope is allowed the competitors in choosing what line they will take. Needless to say, knowledge of the intervening ground is of great service, and great judgment is required in deciding whether it would not pay better to take a longer route if by so doing hills, heavy ploughed fields, or thick hedges could be avoided.

Another favourite competition across country is a match between two teams of runners. Any agreed-on number may start on each side, and the position of the first five or six of each team are added together as points, the team with the smaller total winning. Thus, one team may have the 1st, 3rd, 5th, 7th and 9th men home (25 points) to the opposing team's 2nd, 4th, 6th, 8th and 10th (30 points).

In cross-country running pluck and stamina, not pace, are the qualities most needed. Stamina can only be developed by careful and steady practice—at comparatively short distances to begin with, but gradually increasing as the running powers improve. Distance running will usually cause "stiffness" in the muscles. The best remedy is rubbing with the hands, but if a little embrocation is rubbed in the recovery will probably be more rapid. A point in connection with cross-country running which cannot be too strongly impressed on boys is that it is only by the permission of landowners that the sport is possible. They should, therefore, be most careful to avoid doing damage to fences, hedges, or growing crops.

WALKING

Boys seldom have walking races. The gait of a walking race is ungainly, and is more exhausting than a run of greater speed. The walker ties himself down to an action of limb which abandons all spring and impetus. In a run he flies through the air between the touch of alternate feet on the ground, and takes off with a spring from a bent knee. In a walk he must progress "heel and toe." The heel must touch the ground first, and one foot must always be on the ground, else the gait becomes a run. The knee must be straight when the foot is put down and taken up. The chief art in walking is to "twist the hips." By twisting them at each step the stride is lengthened, and the leg carried forward by the swing of the loins, to the relief of the ordinary muscles which extend the leg.

DRESS

For "track" athletics the most suitable costume is as follows:—Thin merino vest, cashmere drawers, and spiked running shoes. Most runners also like a pair of corks. All these can be obtained at moderate prices from any athletic outfitter. Cross-country running being a winter sport, the clothing should be of a warmer nature. Flannel should be substituted for cashmere drawers, and a "sweater" should be worn over the vest except in the mildest weather. It is not so important that spiked shoes should be used, but, if they are,

they must be of a stouter make than "track" shoes. Most cross-country runners merely wear ordinary rubber-soled shoes with socks.

TRAINING

Boys do not require the severe training for feats of speed or endurance which is requisite for older persons. They have not the same tendency to accumulate internal fat, and are less disposed to lose their "wind." Nevertheless, they can improve their powers by hardening their muscles, and this they do with good food and exercise of the required muscles. The standard maxim of training is that work trains and diet keeps the body up to that work. Diet alone will not train. It will suffice if boys are well fed on good roast joints or broiled meat (pork and veal barred), with a modicum of poultry or fish to vary the bill of fare, and plain puddings. Pastry should be eschewed in training. With adults limited liquid is important, but it matters less with boys; still, they had better not drench themselves with fluid, even though it be only water; and just before a race the less they drink on the day the better, so long as they do not parch themselves thereby. The great desiderata are exercise and sleep; of the latter at least nine hours, and with plenty of ventilation in the bedroom. Boys should not take exercise to any extent on very empty stomachs, before breakfast; they should keep the pores of the skin open with a daily cold tub and free use of rough towels. Exercise should be taken in flannel, which should be changed when the work is over, and the body should be well wrapped up the moment exercise is suspended; sweating does no harm, but a chill may be fatal.

AILMENTS

Boils sometimes occur through the extra amount of flesh which the appetite requires, especially if enough green meat is not taken therewith. On its first symptom a tender pimple should at once receive care; half a teaspoonful of syrup of iodide of iron in a wine-glass of water, taken immediately before or after a meal, two days running, will usually cure the blood and check the boil. If the boil has much developed before any cure is attempted, it is then best to poultice it with linseed, and to get a medical man to lance it at once.

Blisters.—Lance the skin with a needle or clean penknife (*never a pin*—it has arsenic in it) and squeeze out the water. Leave the old skin on to protect the young growth underneath.

Strains.—*Thorough rest*. Pump cold water over the strained part, and rub with turpentine or other embrocation.

Corns.—If "hard," soak the feet in hot water till the corns can be split off with the finger-nails. Never use a knife; only skilled chiropodists or surgeons should attempt cutting. A daily touch of caustic will keep a chronic corn down, but care should be taken not to burn the skin.

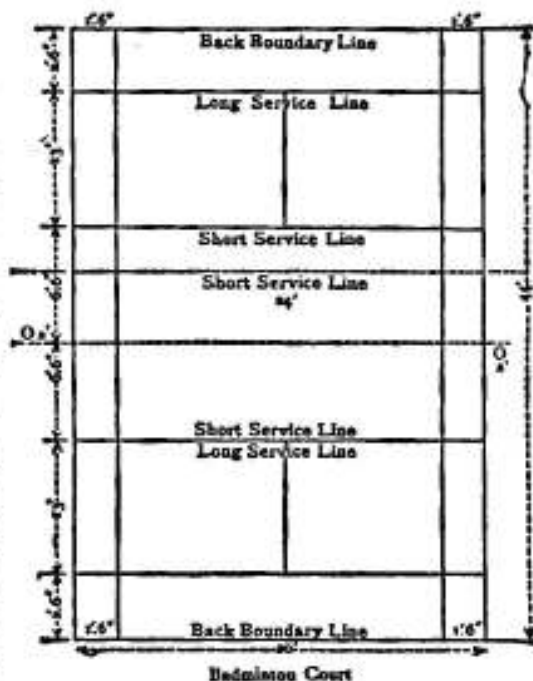
BADMINTON

BADMINTON is a game which would perhaps never have attained to even what popularity it has if it had been compelled at its first introduction to compete with so powerful a rival as lawn tennis. It had the start of a year or two in the race—at least as far as England is concerned—and thus established some title to fame before the other was ever heard of as a popular game. In India it had a still greater advantage, and, like polo and some other games, was freely patronised in Calcutta

and Madras long before the good folk at home had any idea that sport could be had out of it. The name is said to be derived from the place where it was invented by an ingenious amateur; but it will be obvious, from a description of the play, that it is in its principle of an older date than is usually assigned to it.

The game is, in fact, an adaptation of the child's game of battledore and shuttlecock. All that is added is a net which compels each player to return the shuttlecock fairly to his adversary, and so insures that

when a stroke is missed the fault is with him who missed it, not with him who made the last stroke before, as was usually the case when the shuttlecock was allowed to be played without any limit as to height. The requisites for the game are, besides the net and poles, nothing more than a few good shuttlecocks, and as many battledores as there are players.



The rules for Badminton are no more than an adaptation of those in use for lawn tennis; and, indeed, with the exception of the fact that a shuttlecock is used instead of a ball, and that all the strokes must be played at the volley, there is little real difference in principle to be traced between the two games. The court for Badminton need not, and should not, be nearly so large as for the other game. Consequently Badminton is a most suitable game for small gardens.

Forty-four feet in length and twenty feet wide is the usual size, but it may be enlarged if big and swift-flying shuttlecocks are used. It is recommended, however, that once a suitable weight and size of shuttlecock is found, it should be adhered to. The service line is placed at a distance of six and a half feet from the net.

The service must in this game be sent *beyond* and not on the inner side of the service line; that is to say, it must be so delivered that if the adverse player does not touch it, it falls in the court beyond the service line.

If he does touch it, no matter where it may be going, it cannot be counted a fault, but must be returned properly, as if it had been rightly served; for it would of course be out of the power of any umpire to say whether if not touched it would have fallen in or outside the court. There is yet one more point of difference between Badminton and Lawn Tennis, and that is the rule that in the former the net must be five feet high at its lowest part. The scoring is usually fifteen for one or two players on a side, twenty-one when there are three players on a side, and twenty-eight when there are four players to a side.

The chief defect from which Badminton suffers, and which has robbed it of some of its popularity, is the great effect which a high wind, or indeed any wind at all, has on the shuttlecock. On a great many days in the year it would from this cause be impossible to play out-of-doors; and a match which had been arranged between two players, or two clubs, would thus have to be put off altogether, or played under conditions which would reduce it to little more than a contest of chance and luck. Of course, if there is a hall or room large enough for the purpose this objection does not hold good; and these are the places where it is best to set up the nets. As an indoor game for rainy weather nothing can be better than Badminton; and it makes quite as good an exercise for winter as for summer days, as it is capable of being played by artificial light whenever there are means of lighting the room well from above. A room from sixteen to thirty feet long, and from eight to twenty feet wide, is not too small for the purpose. A net may be stretched across the middle of it, and the shuttlecock, even if it does strike against the side or back walls, will bound off quite far enough to allow of its being struck by the battledore.

BASE BALL

The theory of Base Ball in brief is as follows:—A space of ground being marked out on a level field in the form of a diamond, with equal sides, bases are placed on the four corners thereof. The contestants include nine players on each side—one side takes the field and the other goes to the bat. When the field side take their positions the pitcher delivers the ball to the batsman, who endeavours to send it out of the reach of the fielders, and far enough out on the field to enable him to run round the bases, and if he reaches the home base—his starting-point—without being put out, he scores a run. He is followed in rotation by the others of his side until three of the batting party are put out, when the field side come in and take their turn at the bat. This goes on until nine innings have been played to a close, and then the side scoring the most runs wins the game.

It will be readily seen that the theory of the game is simple enough, and it is this simplicity of construction which forms one of its chief attractions for the masses; and yet to excel in the game as a noted expert requires not only the possession of the physical attributes of endurance, agility, strength, good throwing and running powers, together with plenty of courage, pluck, and nerve, but also the mental powers of sound judgment, quick perception, thorough control of temper, and the presence of mind to act promptly in critical emergencies.

THE FIELD

The in-field should be level, and covered with well-rolled turf of fine small grass and clover. The grass should be frequently cut by machine; this will cause it to become velvety and close. Of course, the ground from the pitcher's position to that of the catcher should be bare of turf, some eight feet in width, and laid with hard, dry soil, and in such a manner as to throw off water. The edge should be level with the turf border. The paths on the lines from base to base—three feet in width—should also be laid with hard soil, and also a circle round each base. The in-field, or "diamond," as it is technically called, is laid out as shown on page 18 (Fig. 1).

HOW TO LAY OUT A FIELD

There are several methods by which a Base Ball field may be correctly laid out and measured, but the following is the most simple plan:—Having determined on the point of the home base, measure

from that point down the field *one hundred and twenty-seven feet four inches*, and the end will indicate the position of the second base; then take a cord *one hundred and eighty feet long*, fasten one end at the home base, and the other at the second, and then grasp it in the centre and extend it first to the right side, which will give the point of the first base, and then to the left, which will indicate

the position of the third; this will give the exact measurement, as the string will thus form the sides of a square whose lateral length is ninety feet. On a line from the home to the second base, and distant from the former sixty feet five inches, is the pitcher's plate on which he must keep one of his feet when delivering the ball. The foul-ball posts are placed on a line with home and first base and home and third, and should be at least one hundred feet from the bases. As these points are intended solely to assist the umpire in his decisions in reference to foul balls, they should be high enough from the ground,

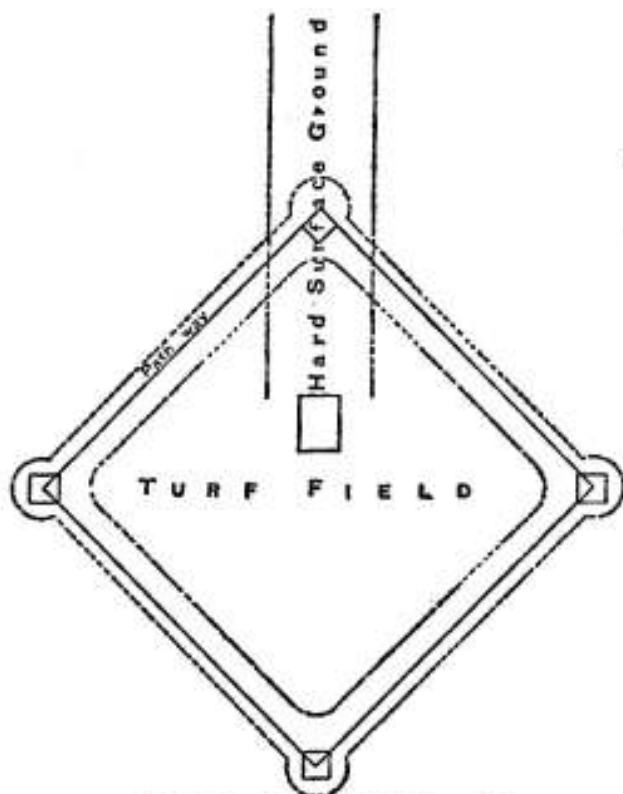


Fig 1.—Plan of the baseball field or "Diamond"

and painted, so as to be distinctly seen from the umpire's position. Flags are the best for the purpose.

From the diagrams of the field (Figs. 1, 3) it will be seen that the diamond field forms a square, the sides of which are thirty yards. On the corners of this square are placed the four bases, each of which must cover a foot square of space. The home base must be of white stone or marble, so fixed in the ground that one of its corners faces the pitcher's position, and it must be level with the

surface of the ground. The other three bases are canvas bags, fastened to posts sunk into the ground on each corner of the square located to the left, the right, and the rear of the pitcher's position. The batsman's position is within a space of ground four feet by six feet, located one foot distant from the home base, and three feet back and in front of the line of the home base, which extends three feet on each side of the home base. The accompanying diagram shows clearly how the batsman's position is marked out (Fig. 2).

The full diagram of a field, showing the position of the players, will be found in Fig. 3.

THE NINE PLAYERS

The Catcher and Pitcher.—The catcher and pitcher (Plate 4) are technically known as the "battery" of the team, and on the skill displayed by these two players, in playing well together, largely depends the success of the nine.

Of course, it is necessary that the in-field and out-field support of the pitcher should be good; but half the battle lies in his having excellent support behind the bat. The catcher and pitcher should always have perfect understanding with each other in regard to their respective movements. Strategy is as important an element of success on a Base Ball field as on the field of battle. The pitcher and catcher should have a code of signals between them, and they should practise these signs until they can read them as easily as their letters. Thus, when the catcher sees an opportunity for the pitcher to catch a base player napping off his base, a certain signal should be given by which the pitcher may understand that he is to throw to the base promptly. Again, if the pitcher is familiar with a certain habit of the batsman before him of hitting at a favourite ball, he should give the catcher a sign informing him that he is going to send in a slower or swifter ball or a higher or lower one than ordinarily is pitched.

The Catcher.—Much of the success of a nine depends upon the ability of the catcher, and it is therefore requisite that he should be an excellent player in his position, and to excel as catcher he should be able to throw with great accuracy and speed a line ball a distance of fifty yards, and be able to stop swiftly pitched balls and low grounders, and be especially on the alert in judging of foul-bound balls, besides having the nerve to face sharply tipped balls direct from the bat. The ordinary rule is, when the striker has made his first base, for the catcher to come up close behind the bat, in order to be in a position to take the ball from the pitcher quick enough to send it to second base, in case the base runner tries

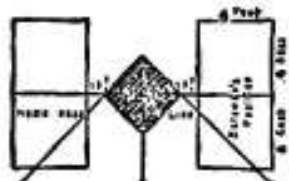


Fig. 2.—Plan of Batsman's Position

OUTDOOR SPORTS

to steal a base on the pitcher. When no men are running bases, then the catcher retires farther back.

The Pitcher.—The pitcher of a Base Ball nine occupies the most important position of the nine, and the one most difficult and responsible to fill. His position is marked as explained on p. 18. The

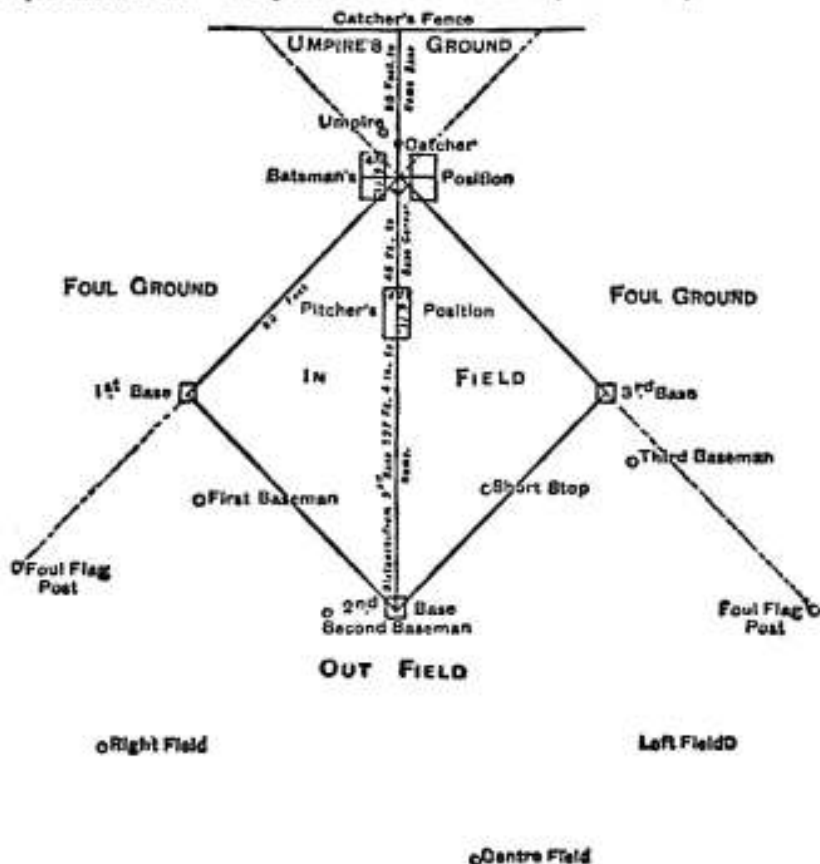


Fig. 3.—Diagram of Full Field for Base Ball

rules require him to deliver the ball while standing in his position, and when in the act of delivering, or in making any preliminary motion to deliver the ball, he must have one foot planted securely on the pitcher's plate, and must not remove it from the plate until the ball has left his hands. Should he do so he incurs the penalty for baulking. He is allowed to deliver the ball to the bat in any way he pleases. He may pitch it or throw it in any way that he thinks

most likely to deceive the batsman, and it will count providing always that it passes over the home-plate not lower than the batsman's knee and not higher than the batsman's shoulder. He should bear in mind the important fact that the true art of pitching is to deceive the eye of the batsman—that is, to send the ball in to the bat in such a manner as to lead the striker to believe that it is just coming in where he wants it—while, in fact, it is either too high or too low, or is too swift or too slow for the purpose. Moreover, he should have the pluck to face hot balls direct from the bat. This, indeed, is so essential, that unless he can do it without the slightest hesitation, he will never pitch with judgment, for he will be so impressed with the idea of avoiding being hit with the ball that he will think of little else.

BASE PLAYING

To the careless looker-on at a match at Base Ball, it seems a comparatively easy task to run from one base to another; but base running is something that requires considerable "head-work" to excel in it. To know when to start and when to stop, to avoid hesitancy between bases, are as important essentials as fast running, and pluck, and nerve. There are so many things to look out for, and so little time to judge of one's movements, that it comes to be quite an art to excel in base running. In base running the rule is—the man who hesitates is lost.

Base-Players (Plate 4).—The positions occupied by the first, second, and third basemen require somewhat different qualifications to excel in them, though they all need certain abilities alike. The feature of the first baseman's duties is to hold securely swiftly thrown balls; that of the second baseman is to touch players running to his base; while an important part of the third baseman's duties is to catch difficult foul balls, having a great twist given them by the bat. Moreover, he has the longest and most difficult throwing to attend to. The only place for a left-hand player on the bases is at first base.

First Baseman.—All basemen should be good ball-catchers, but the occupant of the first base should specially excel in holding the swiftest-thrown ball. He should also be fearless in facing hot balls from the bat, and expert in taking balls from the field, while holding one foot on the base. When a ball is hastily thrown to first base, his care should be to hold it, but at any rate to stop it. A good first base player ought to be able to hold a ball from the field, if it comes in anywhere within a radius of six feet from the base; and in case of high-thrown balls, he ought to take them at least eight feet high from the base. He must remember that the ball must be held by him—with some part of his person touching the base at the same time—before the striker reaches the base, or the latter is not out; if the ball is held simultaneously with the striker's reaching the base the base runner is not out. When an overthrown ball to first base

is stopped by the crowd in any way—accidentally or intentionally—he must first throw it to the pitcher's position before he can use it to put a player out.

Second Baseman.—The second baseman requires to be a very active fielder, an accurate thrower for a short distance, and a pretty sure catch; he should, however, be very expert in catching a swiftly thrown ball, and in holding it firmly and putting it quickly on the player running to his base. He is required to cover the second base, and to play "right-short-stop," too; but his position in the field must be governed entirely by the style of batting he is called upon to face. If a strong hitter comes to the bat, and swift balls are being sent in, he should play well out in the field between right field and second base, and be on the *qui vive* for long-bound balls, or high-fly balls, which drop between the out-field and the second base line. When the batsman makes his first base the second baseman comes up and gets nearer his base, in readiness to receive the ball from the catcher. He should remember that in a majority of cases his duty is to touch the base runner, and this it would be well to do in all cases when the latter is found off his base; though, in cases of foul balls not yet returned to the pitcher, or when a ball has been stopped by the crowd, and then thrown to second before being sent to the pitcher's position, no man can be put out by being touched when off his base. The habit, however, is a good one to get into, as there is then no likelihood of its being forgotten when it becomes necessary for a player to be touched.

Third Baseman.—The third baseman's duties are the most onerous of the three positions on the bases, as on his good fielding will frequently depend the loss of runs to his opponents, when the failures on the other bases are made only at the cost of a single base. In the case of a miss play at third base, however, one or more runs scored is generally the result—that is, in cases where players are running their bases. When no men are on the bases, the third baseman will have to be active in fielding the ball, and quick and accurate in throwing it, in order to prevent the striker from making his base. The third baseman takes a position closer to his base than any other baseman. Sometimes, however, he takes the place of the short-stop when the latter covers the second base in cases where the second baseman plays at right-short for a right-field hitter.

Base-players should bear in mind that the life of in-field play—as of fielding generally—lies in the support afforded each other by those who are located near each other, as all the in-fielders are. A good fielder or base player never stands still; he is always on the move, ready for a spring to reach the ball, a stoop to pick it up, or a prompt movement to stop it, and he always has his eye upon the ball, especially when it is flying about inside the base lines or from base to base. Poor base players seldom put themselves out

or the way to field a ball unless it comes within their special district, but a good base player is on the alert to play at a moment's notice, on any base from which the player has gone after the ball. When bases are vacated, or foul or fly balls are struck, all the base players handle the ball in the same way as at first base, but it is advisable to make sure always by touching the player when he is off the base.

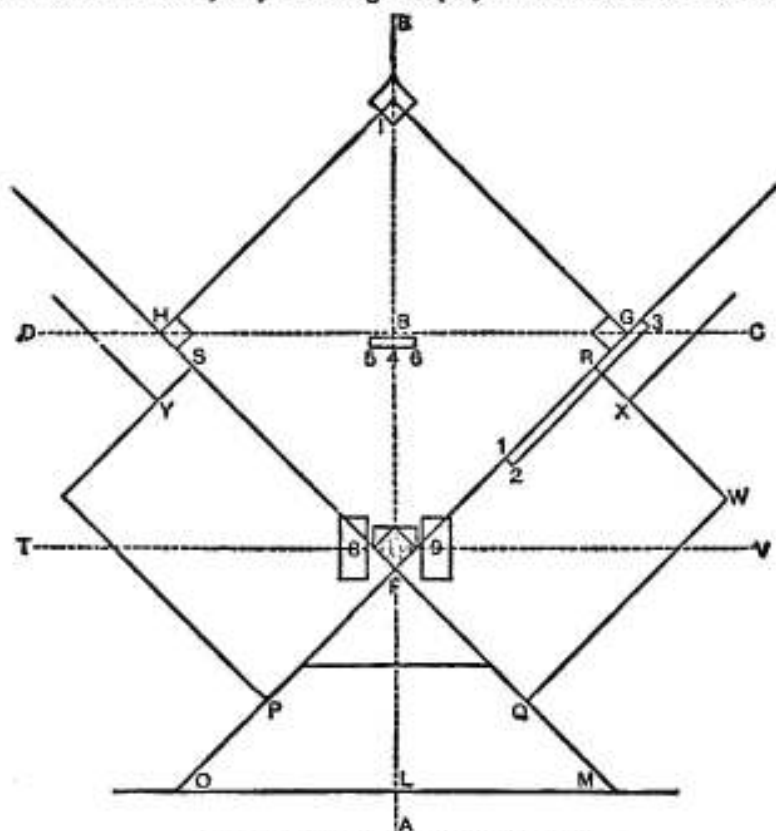


Fig. 4.—Correct Diagram of a Base Ball Field

The Short Stop.—This is the position in the in-field in which the most active fielder of the nine is needed. His special work is "backing-up" his confrères, not only in occupying any base-player's position when the base-player goes after a ball, but also in running behind players to stop over-thrown or wide-thrown balls. He also has to attend upon the pitcher and save him from extra work in fielding balls thrown back to him from the catcher. No player is fitted to occupy this position who is not quick and lively in his

movements in backing up all the positions of the in-field. When a player is on the first base and one on the third, and the catcher holds the ball ready to throw to second, the short-stop should get nearly on the line of the pitcher and second baseman, and have an understanding with the catcher to have him throw the ball to short-stop instead of second base, for on seeing the ball leave the catcher's hands apparently for second base the player on the third will be apt to leave for home, in which case the short-stop will have the ball in hand ready to throw either to the catcher or third base; by this means, though the player running to second will have his base given him, the player on the third will be likely to be put out, and the player nearest home is the party to be put out first when there is any choice.

The Out-fielders.—The occupants of the positions in the outer field, viz., left, centre, and right fields, should be equal in their qualifications as fielders. Each should be able to throw a ball 100 yards, certainly not less than eighty at least. They should be good runners and excellent judges of fly-balls. They should never stand still or occupy one position all the time, but be on the move, ready for a quick run, or to back up each other. In judging of fly-balls, it is always safer to lay out for a long hit than to get so close in as to have to get back to catch a ball. They never should hold a ball a moment, but return it to the in-field as soon as handled. The point to throw the ball in to is the pitcher's position, as a general thing, but as to that, they will have to be guided by circumstances, according as the ball sent to them is taken on the fly, or fielded while a player is running his bases. One or other of the positions in the outer field is the place for the change pitcher of the nine, as it will afford him a chance to rest. The out-fielder should watch the movements of the pitcher and catcher closely, whenever a new batsman takes his stand at the home base, in order to be ready to obey any signals either to come in or go out farther, according to the character of the pitching or the peculiar style of the batsman.

THE RULES OF BASE BALL

1. *The Ball Ground* (Fig. 4).—The ball ground must be enclosed. To obviate the necessity for ground rules, the shortest distance from a fence or stand on fair territory to the home base should be 235 feet, and from home base to the grand stand 90 feet.

2. *To Lay Off the Field.*—To lay off the lines defining the location of the several bases, the catcher's and the pitcher's position, and to establish the boundaries required in playing the game of base ball, proceed as follows:

Diamond or In-field

From a point, A, within the grounds, project a straight line out into the field, and at a point, B, 154 feet from point A, lay off lines BC and BD at right angles to the line AB; then, with B as a centre and 63.63945 feet as a radius, describe arcs cutting the lines BA at F

and BC at G; BD at H, and BE at I. Draw lines FG, GE, EH, and HF, which said lines shall be the containing lines of the Diamond or Infield.

3. *The Catcher's Lines.*—With F as a centre and 10 feet radius, describe an arc cutting line FA at L, and draw lines LM and LO at right angles to FA, and continue same out from FA not less than 10 feet.

4. *The Foul Lines.*—From the intersection point F continue the straight lines FG and FH until they intersect the lines LM and LO, and then from the points G and H in the opposite direction until they reach the boundary lines of the ground, and said lines shall be clearly visible from any part of the diamond, and no wood or other hard substance shall be used in the construction of said lines.

5. *The Players' Lines.*—With F as centre and 50-foot radius, describe arcs cutting lines FO and FM at P and Q; then, with F as centre again and 75-foot radius, describe arcs cutting FG and FH at R and S; then, from the points P, Q, R and S, draw lines at right angles to the lines FO, FM, FG and FH, and continue the same until they intersect at the points T and W.

6. *The Coacher's Lines.*—With R and S as centres and 15-foot radius, describe arcs cutting the lines RW and ST at X and Y, and from the points X and Y draw lines parallel with the lines FH and FG, and continue same out to the boundary lines of the ground.

7. *The Three-foot Line.*—With F as a centre and 45-foot radius, describe an arc cutting the line FG at 1, and from 1 to the distance of three feet draw a line at right angles to FG, and marked point 2; then from point 2 draw a line parallel with the line FG to a point three feet beyond the point G, marked 3; then from the point 3 draw a line at right angles to line 2, 3, back to and intersecting with FG, and from thence back along the line GF to point 1.

8. *The Batman's Lines.*—On either side of the line AFB describe two parallelograms six feet long and four feet wide, marked 8 and 9, their longest side being parallel with the line AFB, their distance apart being six inches added to each end of the length of the diagonal of the square within the angle F, and the centre of their length being on said diagonal.

9. *The Pitcher's Plate.*—SECTION 1. With point F as centre and 60.5 feet as radius, describe an arc cutting the line FB at line 4, and draw a line, 5, 6, passing through point 4 and extending 12 inches on either side of the line FB; then with line 5, 6 as a side, describe a parallelogram 24 inches by 6 inches, in which shall be located the pitcher's plate.

SECTION 2. The pitcher's plate shall not be more than 15 inches higher than the base lines of the home plate, which shall be level with the surface of the field, and the slope from the pitcher's plate to every base line and the home plate shall be gradual.

10. *The Bases.*—SECTION 1. Within the angle F describe a five-sided figure, two of the sides of which shall coincide with the lines FG and FH to the extent of 12 inches each, thence parallel with the line FB $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches to the points X and Y, a straight line between which, 17 inches, will form the front of the home base or plate.

SECTION 2. Within the angles at G, I and H describe squares, whose sides are 15 inches in length, two of such sides of which squares shall lie along the lines FG and GI, GI and IH, IH and HF, which

squares shall be the location of the first, second and third base respectively.

11. The Home Base at F and the Pitcher's Plate at 4 must each be of whitened rubber, and so fixed in the ground as to be even with its surface.

12. The First Base at G, the Second Base at E, and the Third Base at H must each be a white canvas bag filled with soft material and securely fastened in place at the point specified in Rule 10.

13. The lines described in Rules 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 must be marked with lime, chalk or other white material, easily distinguishable from the ground or grass.

14. *The Ball.*—SECTION 1. The ball must weigh not less than five nor more than five and one-quarter ounces avoirdupois, and measure not less than nine nor more than nine and one-quarter inches in circumference. A league ball must be used in all games played under these rules.

SECTION 2. Two regulation balls of the make adopted by the league of which the contesting clubs are members shall be delivered by the home club to the umpire at or before the hour for the commencement of a championship game. If the ball placed in play be batted or thrown out of the grounds or into one of the stands for spectators, or, in the judgment of the umpire, becomes unfit to play from any cause, the umpire shall at once deliver the alternate ball to the pitcher, and another legal ball shall be supplied to him, so that he shall at all times have in his control one or more alternate balls. Provided, however, that all balls batted or thrown out of the ground or into a stand for spectators until the field be given into the custody of the umpire immediately and become alternate balls, and so long as he has in his possession two or more alternate balls, he shall not call for a new ball to replace one that has gone out of play. The alternate balls shall become the ball in play in the order in which they were delivered to the umpire.

SECTION 3. Immediately upon the delivery to him of the alternate ball by the umpire, the pitcher shall take his position, and on the call of "Play" by the umpire, it shall become the ball in play. Provided, however, that play shall not be resumed with the alternate ball when a fair batted ball or a ball thrown by a fielder goes out of the ground or into a stand for spectators until the base-runners have completed the circuit of the bases unless compelled to stop at second or third base, in compliance with a ground rule.

Discoloured or Damaged Balls.

SECTION 4. In the event of a ball being intentionally discoloured by rubbing it with soil or otherwise by any player, or otherwise damaged by any player, the umpire shall forthwith demand the return of the ball and substitute for it another legal ball as hereinbefore described; and impose a fine of five dollars upon the offending player.

Home Club to Provide Balls

SECTION 5. In every game the balls played with shall be furnished by the home club, and the last in play shall become the property of the winning club. Each ball shall be enclosed in a paper box, which must be sealed with the seal of the President of the League and bear his certificate that he has examined, measured and weighed the ball contained therein, and that it is of the required standard in all respects.

The seal shall not be broken by the umpire except in the presence of the captains of the contesting teams after "Play" has been called.

Reserve Balls on Field

SECTION 6. The home club shall have at least a dozen regulation balls on the field during each championship game, ready for use on the call of the umpire.

15. *The Bat.*—The bat must be round, not over two and three-fourths inches in diameter at the thickest part, nor more than 42 inches in length, and entirely of hardwood, except that for a distance of 18 inches from the end twine may be wound or a granulated substance applied to the handle.

16. *Number of Players in a Game.*—The players of each club actively engaged in a game at one time shall be nine in number, one of whom shall act as captain; and in no case shall more or less than nine men be allowed to play on a side in a game.

17. *Positions of the Players.*—The players of a team not at bat may be stationed at any points of the field on fair ground their captain may elect, regardless of their respective positions, except that the pitcher, while in the act of delivering the ball to the bat, must take his position as defined in Rules 9 and 30; and the catcher must be within the lines of his position as defined in Rule 3 and within 10 feet of home base, whenever the pitcher delivers the ball to the bat.

18. *Must not Mingle with Spectators.*—Players in uniform shall not be permitted to occupy seats in the stands, or to mingle with the spectators.

19. *Uniforms of Players.*—Every club shall adopt two uniforms for its players, one to be worn in games at home and the other in games abroad, and the suits of each of the uniforms of a team shall conform in colour and style. No player who shall attach anything to the sole or heel of his shoe other than the ordinary baseball shoe plate, or who shall appear in a uniform not conforming to the suits of the other members of his team, shall be permitted to play.

20. *Size and Weight of Gloves.*—The catcher or first baseman may wear a glove or mitt of any size, shape or weight. Every other player is restricted to the use of a glove or mitt weighing not over 16 ounces and not over 14 inches around the palm.

21. *Players' Benches.*—SECTION 1. Players' benches must be furnished by the home club and placed upon a portion of the ground not less than twenty-five (25) feet outside of the players' lines. One such bench shall be for the exclusive use of the visiting team and the other for the exclusive use of the home team. Each bench must be covered with a roof and closed at the back and each end; a space, however, not more than six (6) inches wide may be left under the roof for ventilation. All players and substitutes of the side at bat must be seated on their team's bench, except the batsman, base-runners and such as are legally assigned to coach the base-runners. Under no circumstances shall the umpire permit any person except the players and substitutes in uniform and the manager of the team to be seated on the bench.

Penalty for Violation

SECTION 2. Whenever the umpire observes a violation of the preceding section he shall immediately order such player or players as

have disregarded it to be seated. If the order be not obeyed in one minute, the offending players shall be fined \$5 each by the umpire. If the order be not obeyed then within one minute, the offending player or players shall be barred from further participation in the game and shall be obliged forthwith to leave the playing field.

22. *A Regulation Game.*—Every championship game must be commenced not later than two hours before sunset and shall continue until each team has had nine innings, provided, however, that the game shall terminate:

(1). If the side at bat scores less runs in nine innings than the other side has scored in eight innings.

(2). If the side at bat in the ninth inning scores the winning run before the third man is out.

SECTION 3. If the game be called by the umpire on account of darkness, rain, fire, panic or for other cause which puts patrons or players in peril.

23. *Extra-Inning Game.*—If the score be a tie at the end of the nine (9) innings for each team, play shall be continued until one side has scored more runs than the other in an equal number of innings, provided that if the side last at bat score the winning run before the third man is out in any inning after the ninth, the game shall terminate.

24. *Drawn Games.*—A drawn game shall be declared by the umpire if the score is equal on the last even inning played, when he terminates play, in accordance with Rule 22, Section 3, after five or more equal innings have been played by each team. But if the side that went second to bat is at bat when the game is terminated, and has scored the same number of runs as the other side, the umpire shall declare the game drawn without regard to the score of the last equal inning.

25. *Called Games.*—If the umpire calls a game in accordance with Rule 22, Section 3, at any time after five innings have been completed, the score shall be that of the last equal innings played, except that if the side second at bat shall have scored in an unequal number of innings, or before the completion of the unfinished inning, at least one run more than the side first at bat, the score of the game shall be the total number of runs each team has made.

26. *Forfeited Games.*—A forfeited game shall be declared by the umpire in favour of the club not in fault in the following cases:

SECTION 1. If the team of a club fail to appear upon the field, or being upon the field, refuse to begin a game for which it is scheduled or assigned, within five minutes after the umpire had called "Play" at the hour for the beginning of the game, unless such delay in appearing, or in commencing the game, be unavoidable.

SECTION 2. If, after the game has begun, one side refuse to continue to play, unless the game has been suspended or terminated by the umpire.

SECTION 3. If, after play has been suspended by the umpire, one side fails to resume playing in one minute after the umpire has called "Play."

SECTION 4. If a man employ tactics palpably designed to delay the game.

SECTION 5. If, after warning by the umpire, any one of the rules of the game be wilfully and persistently violated.

SECTION 6. If the order for the removal of a player, as authorised by Rules 21, 58 and 64, be not obeyed within one minute.

SECTION 7. If, because of the removal of players from the game by the umpire, or for any cause, there be less than nine players in either team.

SECTION 8. If, after the game has been suspended on account of rain, the orders of the umpire be not complied with as required by Rule 29.

SECTION 9. If, when two games are scheduled to be played in one afternoon, the second game be not commenced within ten minutes of the time of the completion of the first game. The umpire of the first game shall be the timekeeper.

SECTION 10. In case the umpire declare the game forfeited, he shall transmit a written report thereof to the president of the League within twenty-four hours thereafter. However, a failure on the part of the umpire to so notify the president shall not affect the validity of his award of the game by forfeiture.

27. *No Game.*—"No game" shall be declared by the umpire if he terminates play in accordance with Rule 22, Section 3, before five innings are completed by each team. Provided, however, that if the club second at bat shall have made more runs at the end of its fourth inning than the club first at bat has made in five completed innings of a game so terminated, the umpire shall award the game to the club having made the greater number of runs, and it shall count as a legal game in the championship record.

28. *Substitutes.*—SECTION 1. Each side shall be required to have present on the field during a championship game a sufficient number of substitute players in uniform, conforming to the suits worn by their team-mates, to carry out the provisions of this code, which requires that not less than nine players shall occupy the field in any inning of the game.

SECTION 2. Any such substitute may at any stage of the game take the place of a player, whose name is in his team's batting order, but the player whom he succeeds shall not thereafter participate in that game.

SECTION 3. A base-runner shall not have another player whose name appears in the batting order of his team run for him except by the consent of the captain of the other team.

SECTION 4. Whenever one player is substituted for another, whether as batsman, base-runner or fielder, the captain of the side making the change must immediately notify the umpire, who in turn must announce the same to the spectators. A fine of \$5 shall be assessed by the umpire against the captain for each violation of this rule, and the president of the League shall impose a similar fine against the umpire who, after having been notified of a change, fails to make proper announcement. Play shall be suspended while announcement is being made, and the player substituted shall become actively engaged in the game immediately upon his captain's notice of the change to the umpire.

29. *Choice of Innings—Fitness of Field for Play.*—The choice of innings shall be given to the captain of the home club, who shall be the sole judge of the fitness of the ground for beginning a game after a rain; but, after play has been called by the umpire, he alone shall be the judge as to the fitness of the ground for resuming play after the game has been suspended on account of rain.

The Pitching Rules

30. *Delivery of the Ball to the Bat.*—Preliminary to pitching, the pitcher shall take his position facing the batsman with both feet squarely

on the ground and in front of the pitcher's plate; and in the act of delivering the ball to the bat he must keep one foot in contact with the pitcher's plate defined in Rule 9. He shall not raise either foot until in the act of delivering the ball to the bat, nor make more than one step in such delivery.

31. *A Fairly Delivered Ball.*—A fairly delivered ball is a ball pitched or thrown to the bat by the pitcher while standing in his position and facing the batsman; that passes over any portion of the home base before touching the ground, not lower than the batsman's knee, nor higher than his shoulder. For every such fairly delivered ball the umpire shall call one strike.

32. *An Unfairly Delivered Ball.*—An unfairly delivered ball is a ball delivered to the bat by the pitcher while standing in his position and facing the batsman, that does not pass over any portion of the home base between the batsman's shoulder and knee, or that touches the ground before passing home base unless struck at by the batsman, or, with the bases occupied, any ball delivered by the pitcher while either foot is not in contact with the pitcher's plate. For every unfairly delivered ball the umpire shall call one ball. A ball that hits the ground in front of the plate is not a strike under any circumstances.

(NOTE.—If, with any of the bases occupied, the pitcher delivers the ball while either foot is not in contact with the pitcher's plate, as required by Rule 30, the "Balk" rule applies.)

33. *Delaying the Game.*—SECTION 1. If, after the batsman be standing in his proper position ready to strike at a pitched ball, the ball be thrown by the pitcher to any player other than the catcher when in the catcher's lines and within 10 feet of the home base (except in an attempt to retire a base-runner), each ball so thrown shall be called a ball.

SECTION 2. The umpire shall call a ball on the pitcher each time he delays the game by failing to deliver the ball to the batsman for a longer period than 20 seconds, excepting that at the commencement of each innings, or when a pitcher relieves another, he may occupy one minute in delivering not to exceed five balls to catcher or infielder, during which time play shall be suspended.

SECTION 3. In event of the pitcher being taken from the game by either manager or captain, the player substituted for him shall continue to pitch until the batsman then at bat has either been put out or has reached first base.

34. *Balking.*—A balk shall be:

SECTION 1. Any motion made by the pitcher while in position to deliver the ball to the bat without delivering it, or to throw to first base when occupied by a base-runner, without completing the throw.

SECTION 2. Throwing the ball by the pitcher to any base to catch the base-runner without stepping directly toward such base, in the act of making such throw.

SECTION 3. Any delivery of the ball to the bat by the pitcher while either foot is back of the pitcher's plate.

SECTION 4. Any delivery of the ball to the bat by the pitcher while he is not facing the batsman.

SECTION 5. Any motion in delivering the ball to the bat by pitcher while not in position defined by Rule 30.

SECTION 6. Holding of the ball by the pitcher so long as, in the opinion of the umpire, to unnecessarily delay the game.

SECTION 7. Making any motion to pitch while standing in his position without having the ball in his possession.

SECTION 8. Making any motion of the arm, shoulder, hip or body the pitcher habitually makes in his delivery, without immediately delivering the ball to the bat.

SECTION 9. Delivery of the ball to the bat when the catcher is standing outside the lines of the catcher's position as defined in Rule 3.

If the pitcher shall fail to comply with the requirements of any section of this rule, the umpire shall call a "balk."

35. Dead Ball.—A dead ball is a ball delivered to the bat by the pitcher, not struck at by the batsman, that touches any part of the batsman's person or clothing while he is standing in his position.

36. Ball Not in Play.—In case of an illegally batted ball, a balk foul strike, foul, hit ball not legally caught, interference with the fielder or batsman, dead ball, or a fair hit ball, striking a base-runner or umpire before touching a fielder, touching a base-runner, the ball shall not be considered in play until it be held by the pitcher standing in his position, and the umpire shall have called "Play."

37. Block Balls.—**SECTION 1.** A block is a batted or thrown ball that is touched, stopped or handled by a person not engaged in the game.

SECTION 2. Whenever a block occurs the umpire shall declare it, and base-runners may run the bases without liability to be put out until the ball has been returned to and held by the pitcher in his position.

SECTION 3. If the person not engaged in the game should retain possession of a blocked ball, or throw or kick it beyond the reach of the fielders, the umpire shall call "Time" and require each base-runner to stop at the base last touched by him until the ball be returned to the pitcher in his position and the umpire shall have called "Play."

The Batting Rules

38. The Batsman's Position.—Each player of the side at bat shall become the batsman and must take his position within the batsman's lines (as defined in Rule 8) in the order that his name appears in his team's batting list.

39. The Order of Batting.—**SECTION 1.** The batting order of each team must be on the score card and must be delivered before the game by its captain to the umpire at the home plate, who shall submit it to the inspection of the captain of the other side. The batting order delivered to the umpire must be followed throughout the game, unless a player be substituted for another, in which case the substitute must take the place in the batting order of the retired player.

SECTION 2. When the umpire announces the pitcher prior to the commencement of the game, the player announced must pitch until the first batsman has either been put out or has reached first base.

40. The First Batsman in an Inning.—After the first inning the first striker in each inning shall be the batsman whose name follows that of the last man who completed his "time at bat" in the preceding inning.

41. Players Belong on Bench.—When a side goes to the bat its players must immediately seat themselves on the bench assigned to them as defined in Rule 21, and remain there until their side is put out, except when called to the bat or to act as coaches or substitute base-runners.

42. *Reserved for Umpire, Catcher and Batsman.*—No player of the side "at bat," except the batsman, shall occupy any portion of the space within the catcher's lines as defined in Rule 3. The triangular space back of the home base is reserved for the exclusive use of the umpire, catcher and batsman, and the umpire must prohibit any player of the side "at bat" from crossing the same at any time while the ball is in the hands of the pitcher or catcher or passing between them while standing in their positions.

43. *Fielder has Right of Way.*—The players of the side at bat must speedily abandon their bench and hasten to another part of the field when by remaining upon or near it they or any of them would interfere with a fielder in an attempt to catch or handle a thrown or a batted ball.

44. *A Fair Hit.*—A fair hit is a legally batted ball that settles on fair ground between home and first base or between home and third base, or that is on fair ground when bounding to the outfield past first or third base, or that first falls on fair territory beyond first or third base, or that touches the person of the umpire or a player while on or over fair ground.

45. *A Foul Hit.*—A foul hit is a legally batted ball that settles on foul territory between home and first base or home and third base, or that bounds past first or third base on foul territory or that falls on foul territory beyond first or third base or while on or over foul ground touches the person of the umpire or a player.

46. *A Foul Tip.*—A foul tip is a ball batted by the batsman while standing within the lines of his position, that goes sharp and direct from the bat to the catcher's hands and is legally caught.

47. *A Bunt Hit.*—A bunt hit is a legally batted ball not swung at but met with the bat and tapped slowly within the infield by the batsman. If the attempted bunt results in a foul not legally caught a strike shall be called by the umpire.

48. *Balls Batted Outside the Ground.*—SECTION 1. When a batted ball passes outside the ground or into a stand, the umpire shall decide it fair or foul according to whether the point at which it leaves the playing field is on fair or foul territory.

SECTION 2. A fair batted ball that goes over the fence or into a stand shall entitle the batsman to a home run unless it should pass out of the ground or into a stand at a less distance than two hundred and thirty-five (235) feet from the home base, in which case the batsman shall be entitled to two bases only. The point at which a fence or stand is less than 235 feet from the home base shall be plainly indicated by a white or black sign or mark for the umpire's guidance.

49. *Strikes.*—A strike is:

SECTION 1. A pitched ball struck at by the batsman without its touching his bat; or,

SECTION 2. A fair ball legally delivered by the pitcher at which the batsman does not strike.

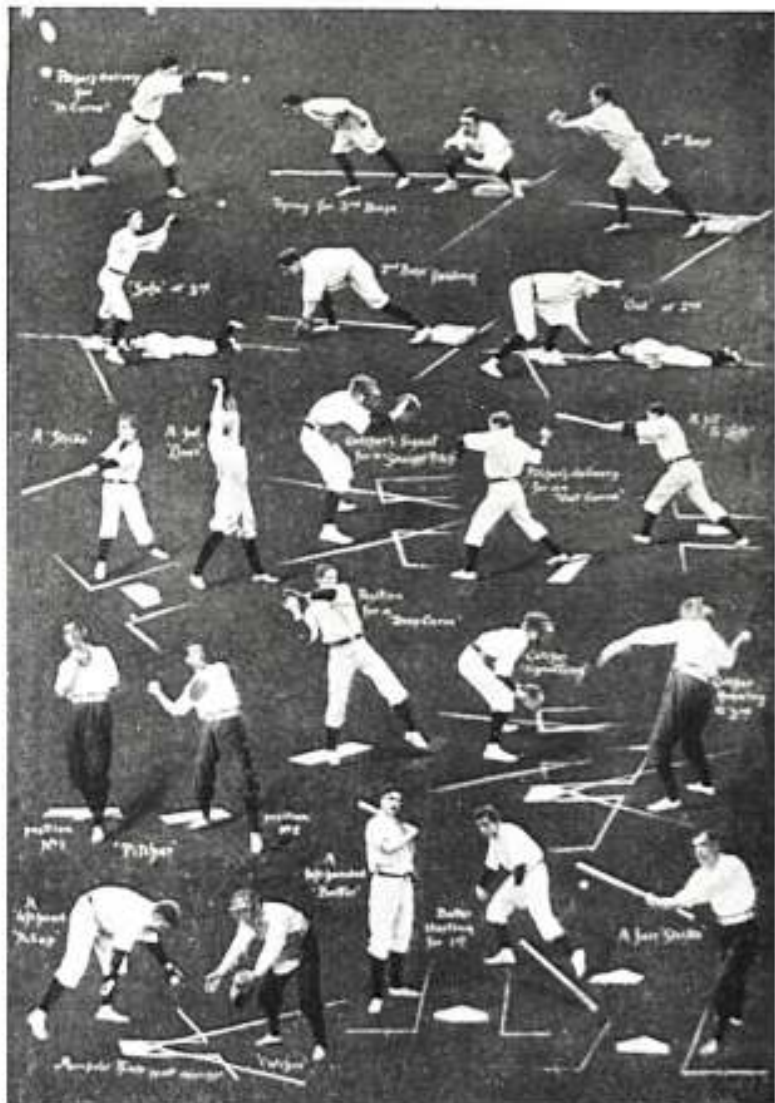
SECTION 3. A foul hit ball not caught on the fly unless the batsman has two strikes.

SECTION 4. An attempt to bunt which results in a foul legally caught.

SECTION 5. A pitched ball, at which the batsman strikes but misses and which touches any part of his person.

SECTION 6. A foul tip, held by the catcher, while standing within the lines of his position.

PLATE 4



BASEBALL.

(See pages 17-41.)

50. *Foul Strike*.—An illegally batted ball is a ball batted by the batsman when either or both of his feet is upon the ground outside the line of the batsman's position.

51. *When Batsman is Out*.—The batsman is out:

SECTION 1. If he fails to take his position at the bat in the order in which his name appears on the batting list, unless the error be discovered and the proper batsman replace him before he becomes a base-runner, in which case the balls and strikes called must be counted in the time "at bat" of the proper batsman. But only the proper batsman shall be declared out, and no runs shall be scored or bases run because of any act of the improper batsman. Provided this rule shall not be enforced unless the out be declared before the ball be delivered to the succeeding batsman. Should the batsman declared out under this section be the third hand out, and his side be thereby put out, the proper batsman in the next inning shall be the player who would have come to bat had the players been put out by ordinary play in the preceding inning.

SECTION 2. If he fail to take his position within one minute after the umpire has called for the batsman.

SECTION 3. If he make a foul hit other than a foul tip, as defined in Rule 46, and the ball be momentarily held by a fielder before touching the ground; provided it be not caught in a fielder's cap, protector, pocket or other part of his uniform, or strike some object other than a fielder before being caught.

SECTION 4. If he bat the ball illegally, as defined in Rule 50.

SECTION 5. If he attempt to hinder the catcher from fielding or throwing the ball by stepping outside the lines of the batsman's position, or in any way obstructing or interfering with that player.

SECTION 6. If, while first base be occupied by a base-runner, the third strike be called on him by the umpire, unless the men are already out.

SECTION 7. If, while attempting a third strike, the ball touch any part of the batsman's person, in which case base-runners occupying bases shall not advance, as prescribed in Rule 55, Section 5.

SECTION 8. If, before two hands are out, while first and second, or first, second and third bases are occupied, he hit a fly ball, other than a line drive, that can be handled by an infielder. In such case the umpire shall, as soon as the ball be hit, declare it an infield or outfield hit.

SECTION 9. If the third strike be called in accordance with Rule 49, Section 5.

Batsman Must Obey Rules

SECTION 10. The moment a batsman's term at bat ends, the umpire shall call for the batsman next in order to leave his seat on the bench and take his position at the bat, and no player of the batting side shall leave his seat on the bench until so called, except to become a coacher or substitute base-runner, to take the place of a player on his team's batting list to comply with the umpire's order. The batsman shall be declared out if he steps from one batsman's box to the other while the pitcher is in his position and ready to pitch.

Base-Running Rules

52. *Legal Order of Bases*.—The base-runner must touch each base in legal order, viz. first, second, third and home bases; and when obliged to return while the ball is in play, must retouch the base or

bases in reverse order. He can only acquire the right to a base by touching it before having been put out, and shall then be entitled to hold such base until he has legally touched the next base in order; or has been legally forced to vacate it for a succeeding base-runner. However, no base-runner shall score a run to count in the game ahead of the base-runner preceding him in the batting order, if there be such preceding base-runner who has not been put out in that inning.

53. *When the Batsman Becomes a Base-runner.*—The batsman becomes a base-runner:

SECTION 1. Instantly after he makes a fair hit.

SECTION 2. Instantly after "Four Balls" have been called by the umpire.

SECTION 3. Instantly after "Three Strikes" have been declared by the umpire.

SECTION 4. If, without making any attempt to strike at the ball, his person or clothing be hit by a pitched ball, unless, in the opinion of the umpire, he plainly makes no effort to get out of the way of the pitched ball.

54. *Entitled to Bases.*—The base-runner shall be entitled, without liability to be put out, to advance a base in the following cases:

SECTION 1. If, while the batsman, he becomes a base-runner by reason of "four balls," or for being hit by a pitched ball, or for being interfered with by the catcher in striking at a pitched ball, or if a fair ball strikes the person or clothing of the umpire or a base-runner or a fair grounder.

SECTION 2. If the umpire awards to a succeeding batsman a base on "four balls," or for being hit by a pitched ball, or being interfered with by the catcher in striking at a pitched ball, and the base-runner be thereby forced to vacate the base held by him.

SECTION 3. If the umpire called a "balk."

SECTION 4. If a ball delivered by the pitcher pass the catcher and touch any fence or building within ninety (90) feet of the home base.

SECTION 5. If he be prevented from making a base by the obstruction of a fielder, unless the latter has the ball in hand ready to touch the base-runner.

SECTION 6. If the fielder stop or catch a batted ball with his cap, glove or any part of his uniform while detached from its proper place on his person.

SECTION 7. If a thrown or pitched ball strike the person or clothing of any umpire on foul ground the ball shall be considered in play and the base-runner or runners shall be entitled to all the bases they can make.

55. *Returning to Bases.*—The base-runner shall return to his base without liability to be put out:

SECTION 1. If the umpire declare any foul not legally caught.

SECTION 2. If the umpire declares an illegally batted ball.

SECTION 3. If the umpire declares a dead ball, unless it be also the fourth unfair ball, and he be thereby forced to take the next base, as provided in Rule 54, Section 2.

SECTION 4. If the person or clothing of the umpire interfere with the catcher in an attempt to throw, or the umpire be struck by a ball thrown by the catcher or other fielder to intercept a base-runner.

SECTION 5. If a pitched ball at which the batsman strikes, but misses, touches any part of the batsman's person.

SECTION 6. If the umpire be struck by a fair hit ball before touching a slider; in which case no base shall be run unless necessitated by the batsman becoming a base-runner, and no run shall be scored unless all the bases are occupied.

SECTION 7. If the umpire declare the batsman or another base-runner out for interference.

56. When Base-runners are Out.—The base-runner is out:

SECTION 1. If, after three strikes have been declared against him while the batsman, the third strike ball be not legally caught, and he plainly attempts to hinder the catcher from fielding the ball.

SECTION 2. If, after having made a fair hit while batsman, such fair hit ball be momentarily held by a fielder before touching the ground or any object other than a fielder; provided it be not caught in a fielder's hat, cap, protector, pocket or other part of his uniform.

SECTION 3. If, when the umpire has declared "three strikes" on him while the batsman, the third strike ball be momentarily held by a fielder before touching the ground; provided it be not caught in a fielder's cap, protector, pocket or other part of his uniform, or touch some object other than a fielder before being caught.

SECTION 4. If, after three strikes or a fair hit, he be touched with the ball in the hand of a fielder before he shall have touched first base.

SECTION 5. If, after three strikes or a fair hit, the ball be securely held by a fielder while touching first base with any part of his person before such base-runner touch first base.

SECTION 6. If, in running the last half of the distance from home base to first base, while the ball is being fielded to first base, he run outside the three-foot lines, as defined in Rule 7, unless he do so to avoid a fielder attempting to field a batted ball.

SECTION 7. If, in running from first to second base, from second to third base, or from third to home base, he run more than three feet from a direct line between a base and the next one in regular or reverse order to avoid being touched by a ball in the hands of a fielder. But in case a fielder be occupying a base-runner's proper path in attempting to field a batted ball, then the base-runner shall run out of direct line to the next base and behind said fielder and shall not be declared out for so doing.

SECTION 8. If he fail to avoid a fielder attempting to field a batted ball in the manner described in sections 6 and 7 of this rule, or in any way obstruct a fielder in attempting to field a batted ball, or intentionally interfere with a thrown ball; provided that if two or more fielders attempt to field a batted ball, and the base-runner come in contact with one or more of them, the umpire shall determine which fielder is entitled to the benefit of this rule, and shall not decide the base-runner out for coming in contact with a fielder other than the one the umpire determines to be entitled to field such batted ball.

SECTION 9. If at any time while the ball is in play he be touched by the ball in the hands of a fielder, unless some part of his person be touching the base he is entitled to occupy; provided, however, that the ball be held by the fielder after touching him, unless the base-runner deliberately knock it out of his hand.

SECTION 10. If, when a fair or foul hit ball (other than a foul tip as defined in Rule 46) be legally caught by a fielder, such ball be legally held by a fielder on the base occupied by the base-runner when such ball

was batted, or the base-runner be touched with the ball in the hands of a fielder before he retouch such base after such fair or foul hit ball was so caught; provided that the base-runner shall not be out in such case if, after the ball was legally caught as above, it be delivered to the bat by pitcher before the fielder hold it on said base, or touch base-runner out with it; but if base-runner, in attempting to reach a base, detach it from its fastening before being touched or forced out, he shall be declared safe.

SECTION 11. If, when the batsman becomes a base-runner, the first base, or the first and second bases, or the first, second and third bases be occupied, any base-runner so occupying a base shall cease to be entitled to hold it, and may be put out at the next base in the same manner as in running to first base, or by being touched with the ball in the hands of a fielder at any time before any base-runner following him in the batting order be put out, unless the umpire should decide the hit of the batsman to be an infield fly.

SECTION 12. If a fair hit ball strike him before touching a fielder, and, in such case, no base shall be run unless necessitated by the batsman becoming a base-runner, but no run shall be scored or any other base-runner put out until the umpire puts the ball back into play.

SECTION 13. If, when advancing bases, or forced to return to a base while the ball is in play, he fail to touch the intervening base or bases, if any, in the regular or reverse order, as the case may be, he may be put out by the ball being held by a fielder on any base he failed to touch, or by being touched by the ball in the hands of a fielder in the same manner as in running to first base, provided that the base-runner shall not be out in such case if the ball be delivered to the bat by the pitcher before the fielder hold it on said base or touch the base-runner with it.

SECTION 14. If, when the umpire calls "play," after the suspension of a game, he fails to return to and touch the base he occupied when "time" was called before touching the next base; provided the base-runner shall not be out in such case if the ball be delivered to the bat by the pitcher before the fielder hold in on said base or touch the base-runner with it.

SECTION 15. If with one or no one out and a base-runner on third base, the batsman interferes with a play being made at home plate.

SECTION 16. If he pass a preceding base-runner before such runner has been legally put out, he shall be declared out immediately upon passing the preceding base-runner.

Overrunning First Base

SECTION 17. The base-runner, in running to first base, may overrun said base after touching it in passing without incurring liability to be out for being off said base, provided he return at once and retouch the base, after which he may be put out as at any other base. If, after overrunning first base, he turn in the direction of or attempt to run to second base before returning to first base, he shall forfeit such exemption from liability to be put out.

SECTION 18. If, while third base is occupied, the coacher stationed near that base shall run in the direction of home base or near the base line while a fielder is making or trying to make a play on a batted ball not caught on the fly, or on a thrown ball, and thereby draws a

through to home base, the base-runner entitled to third base shall be declared out by the umpire for the coacher's interference with and prevention of the legitimate play. If one base-runner passes another on the paths, the runner so passing shall be declared out.

SECTION 19. If one or more members of the team at bat stand or collect at or around a base for which a base-runner is trying, thereby confusing the fielding side and adding to the difficulty of making such play, the base-runner shall be declared out for the interference of his team-mate or team-mates.

SECTION 20. If with one or more out and a runner on third base, the batsman interferes with the catcher, the base-runner shall be declared out.

57. When Umpire shall Declare an Out.—The umpire shall declare the batsman or base-runner out, without waiting for an appeal for such decision, in all cases where such player be put out in accordance with any of these rules, except Sections 13 and 17 of Rule 56.

58. Coaching Rules.—The coacher shall be restricted to coaching the base-runner, and then only in words of assistance and direction in running bases. He shall not, by words or signs, incite or try to incite the spectators to demonstrations, and shall not use language which will in any manner refer to or reflect upon a player of the opposite club, the umpire or the spectators. Not more than two coaches, who must be players in the uniform of the team at bat, shall be allowed to occupy the space between the players' and the coaches' lines, one near first and the other near third base, to coach base-runners. If there be more than the legal number of coaches, or this rule be violated in any respect, the umpire must order the illegal coacher or coaches to the bench, and if his order be not obeyed within one minute, the umpire shall assess a fine of \$5 against each offending player, and upon a repetition of the offence, the offending player or players shall be debarred from further participation in the game, and shall leave the playing field forthwith.

59. The Scoring of Runs.—One run shall be scored every time a base-runner, after having legally touched the first three bases, shall legally touch the home base before three men are put out; provided, however, that if he reach home on or during a play in which the third man be forced out or be put out before reaching first base, a run shall not count. A force-out can be made only when a base-runner legally loses the right to the base he occupied by reason of the batsman becoming a base-runner, and he is thereby obliged to advance as the result of a fair hit ball not caught on the fly.

Umpires and Their Duties

60. Power to Enforce Decisions.—The umpire is the representative of the League, and as such is authorised and required to enforce each section of this code. He shall have the power to order a player, captain or manager to do or omit to do any act which in his judgment is necessary to give force and effect to one or all of these rules, and to inflict penalties for violations of the rules as hereinafter prescribed. In order to define their respective duties, the umpire judging balls and strikes shall be designated as the "Umpire-in-Chief"; the umpire judging base decisions as the "Field Umpire."

61. The Umpire-in-Chief.—**SECTION 1.** The umpire-in-chief shall take position back of the catcher; he shall have full charge of and be re-

sponsible for the proper conduct of the game. With exception of the above decisions to be made by the field umpire, the umpire-in-chief shall render all the decisions that ordinarily would devolve upon a single umpire, and which are prescribed for "the umpire" in these playing rules.

SECTION 2. He shall call and count as a "ball" any unfair ball delivered by the pitcher to the batsman. He shall also call and count as a "strike" any fairly delivered ball which passes over any portion of the home base, and within the batsman's legal range as defined in Rule 31, whether struck at or not by the batsman; or a foul tip which is caught by the catcher standing within the lines of his position, within 10 feet of the home base; or which, after being struck at and not hit, strikes the person of the batsman; or when the ball is bunted foul by the batsman; or any foul hit not caught on the fly unless the batsman has two strikes, provided, however, that a pitched ball shall not be called or counted a "ball" or "strike" by the umpire until it has passed the home plate.

SECTION 3. He shall render base decisions in the following instances: (1) If the ball is hit fair with a runner on first, he must go to third base to take a possible decision; (2) with more than one base occupied, he shall decide whether or not a runner on third leaves that base before a fly ball is caught; (3) in case of a runner being caught between third and home, when more than one base is occupied, he shall make the decision on the runner nearest the home plate.

SECTION 4. The umpire-in-chief alone shall have authority to declare a game forfeited.

62. The Field Umpire.—SECTION 1. The field umpire shall take such positions on the playing field as in his judgment are best suited for the rendering of base decisions. He shall render all decisions at first base and second base, and all decisions at third base except those to be made by the umpire-in-chief in accordance with Section 3.

SECTION 2. He shall aid the umpire-in-chief in every manner in enforcing the rules of the game and, with the exception of declaring a forfeiture, shall have equal authority with the umpire-in-chief in fining or removing from the game players who violate these rules.

63. No Appeal from Decisions Based on Umpire's Judgment.—There shall be no appeal from any decision of either umpire on the ground that he was not correct in his conclusion as to whether a batted ball was fair or foul, a base-runner safe or out, a pitched ball a strike or ball, or on any other play involving accuracy of judgment, and no decision rendered by him shall be reversed, except that he be convinced that it is in violation of one of these rules. The captain shall alone have the right to protest against a decision and seek its reversal on a claim that it is in conflict with a section of these rules. In case the captain does seek a reversal of a decision based solely on a point of rules, the umpire making the decision shall, if he is in doubt, ask his associate for information before acting on the captain's appeal. Under no circumstances shall either umpire criticise or interfere with a decision unless asked to do so by his associate.

64. Duties of Single Umpire.—If but one umpire be assigned, his duties and jurisdiction shall extend to all points, and he shall be permitted to take his stand in any part of the field that in his opinion will best enable him to discharge his duties.

65. Must not Question Decisions.—Under no circumstances shall a

captain or player dispute the accuracy of the umpire's judgment and decision on a play.

65. *Clubs cannot Change Umpires.*—The umpire cannot be changed during a championship game by the consent of the contesting clubs unless the official in charge of the field be incapacitated from service by injury or illness.

67. *Penalties for Violation of the Rules.*—SECTION 1. In all cases of violation of these rules, by either player or manager, the penalty shall be prompt removal of the offender from the game and grounds, followed by a period of such suspension from actual service in the club as the president of the League may fix. In the event of removal of player or manager by either umpire, he shall go direct to the club house and remain there during progress of the game, or leave the grounds; and a failure to do so will warrant a forfeiture of the game by the umpire-in-chief.

SECTION 2. The umpire shall assess a fine of \$5 against each offending player in the following cases: (1) If the player intentionally discolour or damage the ball; (2) if the player fail to be seated on his bench within one minute after ordered to do so by the umpire; (3) if the player violate the coaching rules and refuse to be seated on his bench within one minute after ordered to do so by the umpire; (4) if the captain fail to notify him when one player is substituted for another.

SECTION 3. In cases where substitute players show their disapproval of decisions by yelling from the bench, the umpire shall first give warning. If the yelling continues he shall fine each offender \$10, and if the disturbance is still persisted in, he shall clear the bench of all substitute players; the captain of the team, however, to have the privilege of sending to the club house such substitutes as are actually needed to replace players in the game.

68. *Umpire to Report Violations of the Rules.*—The umpire shall, within twelve hours after fining or removing a player from the game, forward to the president a report of the penalty inflicted and the cause therefor.

69.—Immediately upon being informed by the umpire that a fine has been imposed upon any manager, captain or player, the president shall notify the person so fined and also the club of which he is a member; and, in the event of the failure of the person so fined to pay to the secretary of the League the amount of said fine within five days after notice, he shall be debarred from participating in any championship game or from sitting on a player's bench during the progress of a championship game until such fine be paid.

70.—When the offence of the player debarred from the game be of a flagrant nature, such as the use of obscene language or an assault upon a player or umpire, the umpire shall, within four hours thereafter, forward to the president of the League full particulars.

71. *Warning to Captains.*—The umpire shall notify both captains before the game, and in the presence of each other, that all the playing rules will be strictly and impartially enforced, and warn them that failure on their part to co-operate in such enforcement will result in offenders being fined, and, if necessary to preserve discipline, debarred from the game.

72. *On Ground Rules.*—SECTION 1. Before the commencement of a game the umpire shall see that the rules governing all the materials of the game are strictly observed.

OUTDOOR SPORTS

SECTION 2. In case of spectators overflowing on the playing field, the home captain shall make special ground rules to cover balls hit and or thrown into the crowd, provided such rules be acceptable to the captain of the visiting club. If the latter object, then the umpire shall have full authority to make and enforce such special rules, and he shall announce the scope of same to the spectators.

SECTION 3. In all cases where there are no spectators on the playing field, and where a thrown ball goes into a stand for spectators, or over or through any fence surrounding the playing field, or into the players' bench (whether the ball rebounds into the field or not), the runner or runners shall be entitled to two bases. The umpire, in awarding such bases, shall be governed by the position of the runner or runners at the time the throw is made.

SECTION 4. The umpire shall also ascertain from the home captain whether any special ground rules are necessary, and if there be he shall advise the opposing captain of their scope and see that each is duly enforced, provided they do not conflict with any of these rules and are acceptable to the captain of the visiting team.

73. Official Announcements.—The umpire shall call "Play" at the hour appointed for the beginning of a game, announce "Time" at its legal interruption, and declare "Game" at its legal termination. Prior to the commencement of the game he shall announce the batteries, and during the progress of the game shall announce each change of players. In case of an overflow crowd, he shall announce the special ground rules agreed upon, and he shall also make announcement of any agreement entered into by the two captains to stop play at a specified hour.

74. Suspension of Play.—The umpire shall suspend play for the following causes:

1. If rain fall so heavily as in the judgment of the umpire to prevent continuing the game, in which case he shall note the time of suspension, and should rain fall continuously for thirty minutes thereafter he shall terminate the game.

2. In case of an accident which incapacitates him or a player from service in the field, or in order to remove from the grounds any player or spectator who has violated the rules, or in case of fire, panic or other extraordinary circumstances.

3. In suspending play from any legal cause the umpire shall call "Time"; when he calls "Time," play shall be suspended until he calls "Play" again, and during the interim no player shall be put out, base be run, or run be scored. "Time" shall not be called by the umpire until the ball be held by the pitcher while standing in his position.

75. Field Rules.—No person shall be allowed upon any part of the field during the progress of a game except the players in uniform, the manager of each side, the umpire, such officers of the law as may be present in uniform, and such watchmen of the home club as may be necessary to preserve the peace.

76.—No manager, captain or player shall address the spectators during a game except in reply to a request for information about the progress or state of the game, or to give the name of a player.

77.—Every club shall furnish sufficient police force to preserve order upon its own grounds, and in the event of a crowd entering the field during the progress of a game, and interfering with the play in any manner, the visiting club may refuse to play until the field be

cleared. If the field be not cleared within 15 minutes thereafter, the visiting club may claim and shall be entitled to the game by a score of ~~five~~ runs to none (no matter what number of innings has been played).

78. *General Definitions.*—"Play" is the order of the umpire to begin the game or to resume it after its suspension.

79.—"Time" is the order of the umpire to suspend play. Such suspension must not extend beyond the day.

80.—"Game" is the announcement of the umpire that the game is terminated.

81.—"An inning" is the term at bat of the nine players representing a club in a game, and is completed when three of such players have been legally put out.

82.—"A Time at Bat" is the term at bat of a batsman. It begins when he takes his position, and continues until he is put out or becomes a base-runner. But a time at bat shall not be charged against a batsman who is awarded first base by the umpire for being hit by a pitched ball or on called balls, or when he makes a sacrifice hit, or for interference by the catcher.

83.—"Legal" or "Legally" signifies as required by these rules.

84. *The Scoring Rules.*—To promote uniformity in scoring championship games the following instructions are given and suggestions and definitions made for the guidance of scorers, and they are required to make all scores in accordance herewith.

85. *The Batsman's Record.*—SECTION 1. The first item in the tabulated score, after the player's name and position, shall be the number of times he has been at bat during the game, but the exceptions made in Rule 82 must not be included.

SECTION 2. In the second column shall be set down the runs, if any, made by each player.

SECTION 3. In the third column shall be placed the first base hits, if any, made by each player.

The Scoring of Base Hits

SECTION 4. A base hit shall be scored in the following cases:

When the ball from the bat strikes the ground on or within the foul lines and out of the reach of the fielders.

When a fair hit ball is partially or wholly stopped by a fielder in motion, but such player cannot recover himself in time to field the ball to first before the striker reaches that base or to force out another base-runner.

When the ball be hit with such force to an infielder or pitcher that he cannot handle it in time to put out the batsman or force out a base-runner. In a case of doubt over this class of hits, a base hit should be scored and the fielder exempted from the charge of an error.

When the ball is hit so slowly towards a fielder that he cannot handle it in time to put out the batsman or force out a base-runner.

In all cases where a base-runner is retired by being hit by a batted ball, unless batted by himself, the batsman should be credited with a base hit.

When a batted ball hits the person or clothing of the umpire, as defined in Rule 54, Section 2.

In no case shall a base hit be scored when a base-runner is forced out by the play.

Sacrifice Hits

SECTION 5. In the fourth column shall be placed the sacrifice hit

A sacrifice hit shall be credited to the batsman who, when no one is out, or when but one man is out, advances a runner a base by a bunt hit, which results in the batsman being put out before reaching first, or would so result if it were handled without error.

Fielding Records

SECTION 6. A sacrifice hit shall also be credited to a batsman who, when no one is out, or when but one man is out, hits a fly ball that is caught but results in a run being scored. This rule will produce higher batting averages for the team worker, and is framed so that justice may be done to the man who works for his side.

SECTION 7. The number of times, if any, each player assists in putting out an opponent shall be set down in the sixth column. An assist should be given to each player who handles the ball in aiding in a run-out or any other play of the kind, except the one who completes it.

An assist should be given to each player who handles the ball in aiding in a run-out or any other play of the kind, even though he complete the play by making the put-out.

And generally an assist should be given to each player who handles or assists in any manner in handling the ball from the time it leaves the bat until it reaches the player who makes the put-out, or in case of a thrown ball, to each player who throws or handles it cleanly, and in such a way that a put-out results, or would result if no error were made by a team-mate.

Assists should be credited to every player who handles the ball in the play which results in a base-runner being called "out" for interference or for running out of line.

Errors

SECTION 8. An error shall be given in the sixth column for each misplay which prolongs the time at bat of the batsman, or allows a base-runner to make one or more bases when perfect play would have insured his being put out. But a base on balls, a base awarded to a batsman by being struck by a pitched ball, a balk, a passed ball, or wild pitch, shall not be included in the sixth column.

An error shall not be charged against the catcher for a wild throw in an attempt to prevent a stolen base, unless the base-runner advance an extra base because of the error.

An error shall not be scored against the catcher or an infielder who attempts to complete a double play, unless the throw be so wild that an additional base be gained.

In case a base-runner advance a base through the failure of a baseman to stop or try to stop a ball accurately thrown to his base, the latter shall be charged with an error, and not the player who made such throw, provided there was occasion for it. If such throw be made to second base the scorer shall determine whether the second baseman or shortstop shall be charged with an error.

In event of a fielder dropping a fly, but recovering the ball in time to force a batter at another base, he shall be exempted from an error, the play being scored as a "force-out."

Stolen Bases

SECTION 9. A stolen base shall be credited to the base-runner whenever he advances a base unaided by a base hit, a put-out, a fielding or a battery error, subject to the following exceptions:

In event of a double steal or triple being attempted, where either runner is thrown out, the other or others shall not be credited with a stolen base.

In event of a base-runner being touched out after sliding over a base, he shall not be regarded as having stolen the base in question.

In event of a base-runner making his start to steal a base prior to a battery error, he shall be credited with a stolen base.

In event of a palpable muff of a ball thrown by the catcher, when the base-runner is clearly blocked, the infielder making the muff shall be charged with an error and the base-runner shall not be credited with a stolen base.

SECTION 10. A wild pitch is a legally delivered ball, so high, low, or wide of the plate that the catcher cannot or does not stop and control it with ordinary effort, and as a result the batsman, who becomes a base-runner on such pitched ball, reaches first base, or a base-runner advances.

A passed ball is a legally delivered ball that the catcher should hold or control with ordinary effort, but his failure to do so enables the batsman, who becomes a base-runner on such pitched ball, to reach first base, or a base-runner to advance.

86.—The Summary shall contain:

SECTION 1. The score made in each inning of the game and the total runs of each side in the game.

SECTION 2. The number of stolen bases, if any, by each player.

SECTION 3. The number of sacrifice hits, if any, made by each player.

SECTION 4. The number of sacrifice flies, if any, made by each player.

SECTION 5. The number of two-base hits, if any, made by each player.

SECTION 6. The number of three-base hits, if any, made by each player.

SECTION 7. The number of home runs, if any, made by each player.

SECTION 8. The number of double or triple plays, if any, made by each side and the names of the players participating in the same.

SECTION 9. The number of innings each pitcher pitched in.

SECTION 10. The number of base hits, if any, made off each pitcher, and the number of legal at-bats scored against each pitcher.

SECTION 11. The number of times, if any, the pitcher strikes out the opposing batsmen.

SECTION 12. The number of times, if any, the pitcher gives bases on balls.

SECTION 13. The number of wild pitches, if any, charged to the pitcher.

SECTION 14. The number of times, if any, the pitcher hits a batsman with a pitched ball, the name or names of the batsman or batsmen so hit to be given.

SECTION 15. The number of passed balls by each catcher.

SECTION 16. The time of the game.

SECTION 17. The name of the umpire or umpires.

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BASKET BALL

BASKET ball, though it is not played to any great extent in England, is a very popular game in Canada and the United States. It would be an excellent thing for some English football clubs if they were to learn to play this game on week-day evenings (for it is finely adapted for indoor playing), in order to keep themselves in training for Saturday's football match, and to afford a change from the ordinary routine of training, which is apt at times to become irksome. Rugby footballers, in particular, would find this game of immense help for practice in passing and fielding the ball.

Basket Ball can be played on any level space, the usual size of which is about forty by fifty feet, and boundary lines are optional. The official ball is thirty-one inches in circumference, and weighs between eighteen and twenty ounces. The baskets are hammock nets of cord eighteen inches in diameter, fixed ten feet from the ground. Teams consist of five players, who take the positions of right forward, left forward, centre, right back, and left back.

A goal is scored by throwing the ball into the basket of the opposing side, and the game is started by the referee throwing it up at the centre. Carrying, kicking or holding the ball, tackling, holding, or pushing an opponent are all forbidden, and are known as Class A fouls. More serious fouls come under the heading of Class B, as when a player goes in for rough play, kicks, strikes, charges or trips an opponent; on the first offence a player may, and on the second offence he must, be turned off the field.

When a Class A foul takes place, the opposing side has a free throw at the basket, the thrower standing fifteen feet away, and no interference is allowed with the thrower. A goal scored during play counts two points, and a goal from a free throw one point.

Several excellent rules are in force which might with advantage be copied by some other games, as, for instance, that any remarks, whether addressed to an official or not, on the part of a player during the progress of the game derogatory in any way to the officials, shall be a foul, and that the referee must disqualify any player using profane or abusive language.

It is worthy of note, too, that the home team is held responsible for the behaviour of the spectators, and that interference or coaching by spectators may cause the home side to forfeit the game, after the referee has issued a warning.

[The rules of Basket Ball are published by Messrs. A. G. Spalding Bros.]

BOAT-SAILING

In dealing with this subject we do not pretend to give such instructions as would make our reader a practical yachtsman, even if he found himself capable of putting into practice all that he found in these pages. Our aim is simply to give such information as will, if duly acted upon, enable a lad to handle a small boat that will carry himself, and perhaps a friend or two, in an ordinary breeze, whether on river, lake, or sea. In dealing with our subject we endeavour to use the simplest language available, with due regard to nautical requirements.

There are two generic classes of rig—square and fore-and-aft. Square rig is found only in larger vessels. A brig is the smallest vessel that is fully square-rigged; often she is no bigger than a schooner; but by reason of her rig she can be handled by a smaller crew than a fore-and-aft vessel of the same tonnage, and hence the rig is in great demand in the merchant service.

There are hybrids between the brig and the fore-and-aft rig of a schooner—to wit, the brigantine, the ketch, the jackass brig—but none of them come within the scope of boys' sailing, so we need not enter into details respecting them. We shall confine our instructions to fore-and-aft rig. For small open boats the two best classes of rig are the spritsail and the lugsail; but there are also the lateen (and setter, which is akin to it), and the shoulder of mutton.

For larger craft, the fore-and-aft rigs are cutter, schooner, yawl, and lugger (the dandy rig is a variation of the yawl).

Small Open Boats for sailing should be about fourteen feet long and five feet in beam.

THE SPRITSAIL

This sail is the simplest to handle: it is laced to the mast, and has a sharp peak (see page 47). It is elevated by means of the "sprit," which saves the use of gaff halyards. If the sail is small, not even "throat" or "main" halyards are needed to hoist it to the mast. This can be done with the hands. If the sail is too large for this, it must be hoisted against the mast by throat halyards. But in any case the sprit dispenses with the use of a gaff and of gaff halyards (which are further required besides throat halyards, to set the mainsail of a cutter, yawl, etc.). The sprit is a light spar, the top of which is set in the "eye" of the peak, a loop worked for the purpose. The sail is thereby lifted by hand until the heel of the sprit comes to the selvage strip, which is a "grommet" (or rope ring),

which runs round the mast about one-fourth of the length of the lacing of the sail from the heel of it. The grommet has a loop, and in this loop the heel of the sprit is slipped, and thus the sail is set. There is a rope attached to the lower end of the sail, nearest to the stern, and this rope is called the sheet. Till this sheet is secured the sail flaps to and fro in the wind. By fastening the sheet down on to the gunwale towards the stern of the boat, so as to stretch the sail longitudinally, more or less to the keel, the wind catches it, and so carries the boat with it.

The sail has to be trimmed, i.e., to be hauled in closer or let go freer, according to the direction of the wind as compared with the course held by the boat. The sail should be hauled just so close as is required to enable it to fill and draw freely, and then retained in this position until change of wind or course necessitates a tauter or slacker sheet.

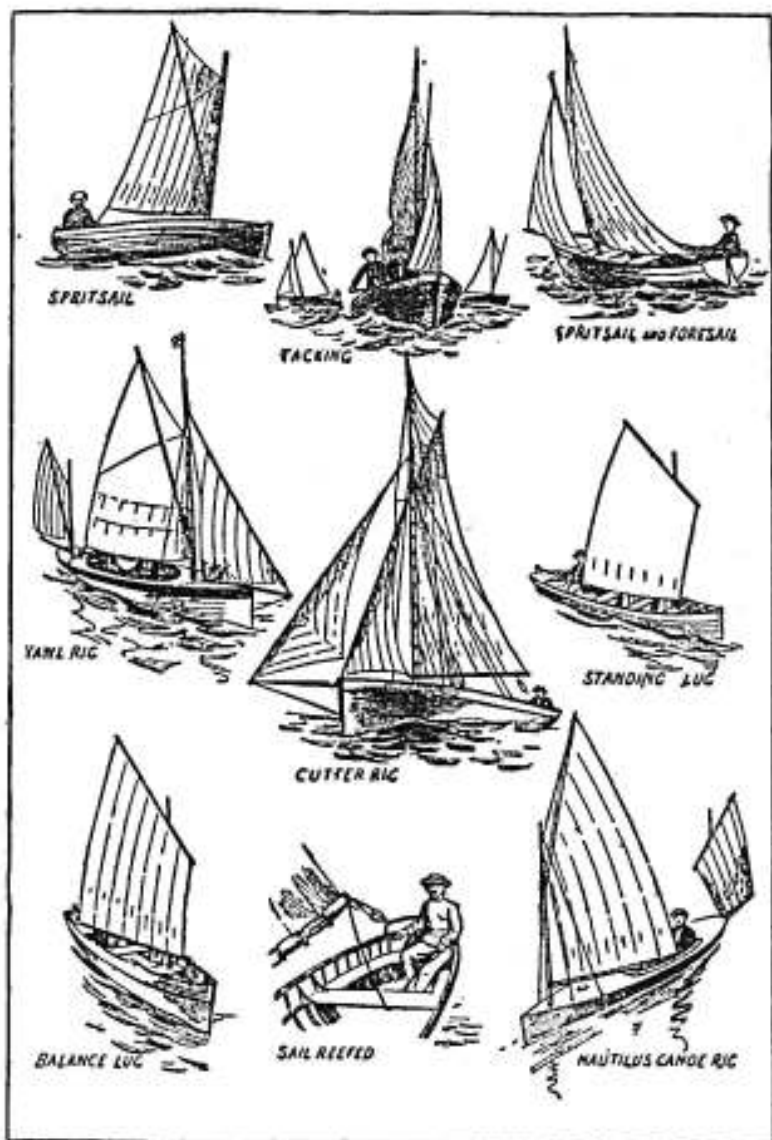
The sheet should be held in the hand for safety's sake, especially by a tyro, so that in the event of any squall striking the boat the sheet may be instantly relaxed, or even let quite free. The sail should be fitted with brails, wherewith to furl it, unless it is so small that the sailor can furl it with his own hands in an instant. Even thus, brails are neater and handier to use.

Brails are thin ropes fastened to the "throat" of the sail, where the lacing to the mast ends; thence brought round diagonally past the outer edge, a little lower down than midway, and so round the sail back to the mast, whence it started; then rove through a block and pulley, and thence passing down to the deck. A pull at this rope at once furls the sail, by clutching it up close to the mast.

The brail should always pass *inside* the sprit, between it and the sail, else the peak, remaining slightly open, catches the wind, and the sprit being bound to the mast half-way down, by the brails, has leverage to pull the boat over from that point; whereas, if the sprit is outside the brail, the leverage of the sprit acts upon its heel in the grommet, at a much lower elevation.

It is necessary for the sailor to let the sheet be held, or rove, at a point well aft (in fact, if he is at his helm he cannot do otherwise, unless he has long yoke lines). The reason is, that in order to counteract the lee-way, and falling off by the head, which the pressure of the sail at the mast causes, the sheet should pull the boat from a point well aft, so as to keep her up to the wind, and give her what is called "weather helm." A boat should have this quality, though not to too great excess. She then will hold her way not only with a wind abeam, but will also sail fairly close to the wind, and the sailor will thus be able to tack against a head wind.

We have spoken of holding the sail in the hand; but though this should be done in a small boat, the sheet may be passed round a belaying-pin or under a thwart, so as to steady it, and thus held, and



SAILING BOATS

hauled or slacked away accordingly as the sail requires trimming. The spritsail works best with a beam wind, or a wind a point or two on the quarter; the boat thus always feels the wind, and the breeze keeps pace with her. When she is running before the wind she is running away from it, and cannot go faster than the wind, which she can with a beam wind and sufficient canvas.

GOING ABOUT

So far the sailor has commenced a cruise. Suppose he wants to change his course. If he is beating against the wind and desires to change to the opposite tack, he "keeps away" by putting his helm "up" for an instant, so as to fill the sail well and to get his boat well in hand; then he puts his helm down gently, and hauls his sheet as close as he can, holding it, as the boat comes up with the eye of the wind, over the keel, and then over to the weather gunwale (that was). The operation of bringing the vessel's head nearer to the wind, by putting her helm down, is called "luffing." As the helm is kept down instead of being righted when the boat comes close to the wind, her head swings round, the wind catches the sail on the other side, and the sailor starts upon another tack. This is called "going about." If he has the wind on the quarter he puts his helm up, and he shapes his course the direction he wishes to go, and lets the sail gybe over. Before doing so it is better to haul it close, to save the jerk; he can then slacken away when she feels the wind on the other quarter.

TERMS OF THE HELM

The terms of the helm should be explained here. They originate with the use of the tiller handle, and they apply to the direction in which the tiller handle points, or would point, if it were there. The steering may be performed with yoke lines (or with a wheel in larger vessels).

Putting the tiller handle to "port" (or left) turns the blade of the rudder to starboard (or right), and makes the boat steer to the right. Putting the tiller handle to starboard has, of course, the converse effect. Hence "porting" the helm means steering to the right; and if a rudder line or wheel is used there is no porting in the matter, except in the technicality of the term.

In like manner weather-helm means a tiller handle pointed in the direction of the weather, or wind; helm "up," the handle pointed up wind; helm "down," vice versa; helm *a-lee*, handle away from the wind. In all these cases the direction of the blade, or directing portion of the helm, is opposite to that of the handle—or supposed handle—of the tiller.

The sailor must bear this apparent confusion of terms in mind, else he may go astray, and when told to put his helm "up," for instance (and having rudder lines, or wheel, and not a tiller handle), may forget that the order refers to the imaginary handle, and that

the blade of his rudder should be pointed "down" for such an order.

The helmsman should sit on the weather (windward) side of the helm. Then, putting helm down always means pushing it away from him; and putting helm up means pulling it towards him.

The trim of the boat fore and aft affects her weather qualities, and the ballast affects her trim. The sailor himself is part of his ballast. When sailing close to the wind his vessel holds her course better if her ballast, or centre of gravity, is somewhat forward; and the farther the sailor can sit forward the easier she will sail. He can prove it by experiment. Let him haul his sheet on a steady wind, adjust his helm, till his boat sails true to her course; then let him move aft, without altering the sheet or helm, and she will fall off a trifle before the wind. Let him move forward, and she will come up somewhat to the wind.

THE FORESAIL

Up to this point the sailor has cruised with one sail and one sheet only to manage. He may now set a foresail, and will do this better if his boat has a bowsprit, however small. The foresail is triangular (page 47), and has two sheets, one of which is in use at a time, to attach it to the gunwale, according to whether the boat is on the port or starboard tack.

This foresail requires shifting on each tack. The sheet is belayed to start with. When the boat has gone about the foresail sheet has to be let fly, and the other sheet belayed to the opposite side. If there is a second hand on board—as there should be, if possible, with two sails and helm to manage—the forward hand holds the foresail sheet tight and close to the mast, to catch the first breath of wind on the new tack; this brings the boat's head round quicker, and when she feels the wind the sheet is belayed on the opposite side. In wearing, with the wind on the quarter, the foresail sheet must not be let fly when going about, but hauled close until it feels the wind on the other tack, then slacked away and belayed.

With a foresail a larger spritsail will be wanted, to counterpoise the foresail, and the sheet should now be rove through a pulley and block, and the block attached to a short rope and ring, the latter running along an iron bar or horse standing on the counter of the boat (Fig. 1). The ring and block will play over from side to side, running along the bar according as the boat is on one or other tack, and the sheet can be held in the hand, or belayed (if belayed at all) within reach of the hand, so as to admit of being eased off at any moment.

So far the pupil has studied the simplest fore-and-aft rig, and has at the same time learnt the



Fig. 1.—Tackle of Main Sheet

principle of the cutter rig during his use of the sprit together with the foresail, for the rig of the cutter is nothing more than this.

Practically there is a difference: the spritsail of the boat becomes the mainsail of the cutter. The cutter's mainsail is hoisted at the peak by halyards instead of by hand with the sprit; it is attached to a boom at the foot, and laced to a gaff at the head. The cutter also carries a jib—a sail on the same principle as the foresail, but set in front of it. She may also have a topsail, either jib banded or gaff, and, in a racing yacht, balloon topsails and spinnakers when racing. If, however, the reader is now able to sail a boat with sprit and foresail, he has mastered the principles of the sailing of a cutter.

YAWL RIG

The difference between a cutter and a schooner is that the latter has two masts, fore and main, both rigged fore and aft with a sail on the same principle as the cutter's mainsail, and set in a similar manner, but smaller in proportion to the hull. With schooner rig the open-boat sailor will not have to deal. But there is a half-way rig between cutter and schooner, called the yawl, and this can be applied to the open boat (see page 47).

The cutter's boom projects over the counter, or stern (see page 47); the yawl's does not. Instead of having so large a mainsail as the cutter, she has a mizen—a smaller mast—springing from the counter, and carrying a fore-and-aft sail of the lug class (see page 47).

This principle, with spritsails, instead of sails set by boom, gaff, and halyards, can be applied to the pleasure boat, and she can thereby carry a larger foresail and command more speed, for her mainsail does not, like that of a cutter, project over the counter, and therefore it is not reduced to make room for the mizen; consequently more canvas can be set forward to counterpoise the addition of the mizen. The mizen, though elevated by a sprit, requires to be attached at the foot to a bumkin, or small boom; the reason why appears. At the end of the bumkin is a double block; through this the sheets of the mizen are rove, and are passed back one to each end of the counter, to be belayed. But for the bumkin the sheet could not hold taut, for it projects beyond the reach of hand or arm.

In dynamical principle this is the yawl rig. In mode of setting the sail it differs, by reason of a sprit being used instead of gaff and halyards; also, the yawl proper has topsails and jib. But the boy who can manage the boat thus rigged has learnt the principles on which a yawl is handled. In going about with yawl rig, the mizen sheet pretty well takes care of itself, provided that on the new tack the boat has to be sailed a corresponding number of points from the wind to those on which she sailed on the preceding tack. But if she is to be sailed freer or closer than before, then the mizen sheet requires thinning accordingly.

In many small boats of this class, the mizen is a lug, although the mainsail is a spritsail. If so, of course the mizen then requires no sprit, but is hoisted in the manner below described for lugsails. In a yawl proper, as stated above, the mizen is generally a lug, or else a dandy. In wearing, the same precaution has to be taken with the mizen as with the main when the sail gybes. In running before the wind the yawl rig comes into play with much advantage. The mizen and main are spread out like butterfly's wings, one on each side of the boat, so as to help to keep her on an even keel and to ease the helm, which is more or less hard a-weather when a fore-and-aft rigged vessel is running. The wind being inconstant in force, it is well to boom out the main and mizen sails (especially the mainsail) with an oar when running before the wind, to prevent the sail from slacking back when in a lee-way, when the wind falls, and then perhaps gybing unexpectedly and with a jerk to the opposite side. Such an event might carry something away, even if it did not cause the boat to capsize.

LUGSAILS

We now come to the lugsails (see page 47).

This is not so handy in many ways to a beginner as a sprit. It has two sheets to be managed instead of one, and is not so easily handled in going about, in consequence of what is called "dipping" the lug. It also requires more elaborate tackle to set it.

The original lugsail was square, laced to a yard near the top of the mast, and with a sheet at each end of the foot, and each sheet belayed or held separately. Modern lugsails have more or less peak, and the yard is not suspended from its centre, but at a distance therefrom corresponding with the angle of the peak (about one-third). The yard is hoisted by halyards rove through a sheave at the masthead, and attached to the yard at the point above mentioned. The sheet at the fore-foot of the sail is boused (or fastened taut) through a thimble, and made fast at the foot of the mast. The other sheet is held or belayed (as that of the spritsail) when the sail is once set. The peak of the sail is elevated by the counter pull of the halyards against the sheet boused at the foot of the mast. The yard lies forward of the mast. In going about the lug has to be "dipped," to bring the yard round to the other side of the mast; this requires two persons, and is a difficult performance for tyros. Fishermen working a lug single-handed often lower the sail, unhook the yard from the traveller, shift it while down, attach the sail, and hoist it again. A lugger proper has no boom, and fishing luggers have none. By rights a yawl also has no boom, and if it has one it becomes a "dandy"; but in yachts all yawls have booms, while retaining the name of yawl.

The lugsail while set is handier for the vessel itself than the sprit, and commands more speed; but it will be seen that it is more

difficult to manage when going about, especially in a heavy sea-way. The sailor, when he has mastered a single lug, may add a mizen lug, just as he adds a mizen sprit, and so obtain an adaptation of the dynamical principle of the yawl. He cannot set a foresail, but may rig a bowsprit, and set a jib in addition.

(N.B.—What are called "Yarmouth yawls" are luggers with two large masts carrying main and foretop respectively, and one mizen; also a jib in fine weather.)

With this explanation, what has been said generally of sailing with spritsails may be applied to lugsails.

Lateen Rig.—The Lateen, used in Norfolk and in the Mediterranean, is a lug dynamically, but, by reason of its being laced to a boom, does not require to be dipped when going about, but revolves upon the mast of itself, and sails free in front or behind it—a plan that has much to recommend it.

Settee Rig.—The Settee, seldom seen in Britain, is similar to the lateen, but the front angle is cut off, and so gives room for a bowsprit and jibsail. A lateen-rigged boat may carry a small mizen laced to the mast and to a yard. It is attached to a boom, and hoisted like a cutter's mainsail, by a halyard through a block at the mast-head and attached to the yard, the boom being boused down taut.

Improved Lug.—The lateen sail seems to have suggested an improved style of lug now sometimes in use in private boats and yachts. The foot of the lug is laced to a boom, and is boused down tight by means of a tackle attached to the boom about a quarter of its length from the fore-end, and drawn down to the foot of the mast. The sail thus revolves freely, and can be sailed on either side of the mast, whether main or mizen. No jib is thus used, for the fore-foot of the sail projects too much from the mast.

REEFING

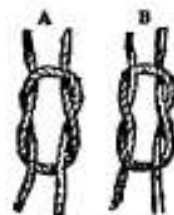


FIG. 2.—Reef Knot (A); Granny Knot (B)

The sailor should learn how to reef his sail when the force of the wind is too great to admit of his carrying full canvas. He will note the sail spread full, and then reefed, with the reef points. Let him be careful to tie his reef knots thus (Fig. 2, A), not thus (Fig. 2, B), for these are "grannies," and will slip undone easily, like the former when the two bores of the knot are pulled apart, by pushing the ends against them.

CANOE-SAILING

The rig of the nautilus type of canoe consists of two working lugsails on the balance principle (above described), laced to booms, and boused down taut to the foot of main and mizen masts (see page 47). The sails have a very high peak, and there is no foresail or jib. The mainmast is set farther forward than in an ordinary lugger. In

canoe-racing under sail a spinnaker is sometimes set, and even a small topsail.

In conclusion, we append a few words of advice, applicable to all sailing:—

Keep a good look-out.

If you belay your sheet, see that the spare rope lies coiled, and not tangled round an oar or spar, so that it may run off free when suddenly let go to ease the boat in a squall.

Better belay as little as possible, especially in inland lakes; on the open sea a coming squall can be seen. Inland, it strikes suddenly from above, off highlands, like a box on the ear.

When sailing close hauled—i.e. the sheet hauled close—to sail close to the wind, keep her "full and by," i.e. don't let the sails shiver, but let them fill and draw well.

If you find yourself caught in a squall, luff, so as to throw your boat's head with the wind and to ease the lateral pressure of the sail, and then lower or furl sail accordingly.

See that all ropes, sheets, and halyards alike are coiled neatly, and not lying in a tangle at the bottom of the boat.

Don't think of sailing until you can swim well.

BOWLS

THE game of bowls, although it appears at first sight one of the simplest imaginable, is not by any means so easy to understand as many others in which the apparatus used is more complicated. It may seem to those who first see a game played that it is little more than marbles on a very large scale. But if they listen to the conversation of the players, they will find that the terms used are decidedly difficult of comprehension; and if they attend to the score, they will find that there are plenty of rules and restrictions. It is in the course of centuries, during which Bowls was the most respectable of all outdoor games, that these terms and laws were devised; and they show to what refinement a game most simple in its origin can be brought by the artifice of man.

The requisites for this game are, first, the "green," the extent of which should not be less than forty yards long and forty yards wide.

Secondly, there must be twice as many bowls as there are players, and a "jack" for each set which it is intended to play. The bowls are made of *lignum vitæ*, and are of a very peculiar shape, between that of an orange and that of an egg. There is a very marked difference between the bowls used on English and Scottish greens, and on many grounds south of the Tweed there may frequently be seen in the same game, or match, bowls manufactured in both countries. The contrast in the build and run of the bowls is remarkable, and points to the superiority of the Scottish turnery. It was at one time common to make bowls exactly like flat oranges, or even sometimes like globes, and then to load one side of them by inserting a piece of lead, which was, as it were, imbedded in the wood at one end of the axis. But the same object—that of causing the bowl to swerve in its course towards one side—is now effected by the turner, and the use of lead would not now be countenanced by a scientific maker of bowls. This tendency to swerve to one side is called the *bias*, and it is most noticeable when the bowl is going slowly, just before it comes to a standstill. It is at this moment that it seems to curl round in a curious way; and it is here—in a practical knowledge of the effect of the bias—that the difficulty and the merit of the game at once consist.

The jack is a much smaller ball than the bowls, quite spherical in shape, and made either of wood or, more often, of earthenware. It is used as the mark at which the bowls are played, and is first

bowled out by one of the players to a spot on the green, and then aimed at successively by all the players, whose endeavour it is to make their bowls rest as near to it as possible. This bowling out of the jack is called "setting a mark"; and in order for a mark to be properly set, it must go at least twenty-five yards from the place at which it is delivered, and stop not less than two feet from the edge of the green, or not more than twenty-five yards from the footer. The place from which it and the bowls are played is called the "footer," where a piece of carpet or rubber-mat is spread for the players to stand on as they deliver their bowls. The following are other terms used in the game.

A "cast," or point, is like an "ace" at racquets—a unit made in the score; and the "set," or game, consists of as many casts as may have been agreed upon. An "end" is a complete round, in which all the players have delivered their bowls. It is called a "void" end when neither side is entitled to score a cast. The measuring is an important element in the game, for it is often impossible to judge by the eye which bowl of two is nearer to the jack. The question, whenever it arises and cannot be settled by agreement, is decided by the use either of the "standard," which is a small light rod, sometimes made of straw, or by means of two pegs having a cord made fast at one end to one of them and running through a hole in the other, or (failing either of the foregoing appliances) by a piece of string or a foot-rule. The measure is taken from the nearest part of the jack to the nearest part of the claimant's bowl, and the bowl to be first measured is that of the party which at the time is leading in the game.

LAWS OF THE GAME

(By permission of the Scottish Bowling Association.)

I. Rinks or Divisions of the Green.—1. The green shall be divided into spaces called rinks, not less than 19 nor more than 21 feet in width, numbered consecutively, the centre of each rink being marked on the bank at each end by a pin or other device, and the four corners of the rink by pins driven into the ditch. The side boundary of the rink shall stretch from bank to bank.

[To prevent disputes, it is recommended that the pins at the opposite ends of the rink should be connected by a lichen thread, drawn tight on the surface of the green; and that where practicable the boundary pins of an outside rink be placed at least two feet from the side ditch. It is also recommended that the bank be not less than 18 inches in height, with an angle from the green of not more than 120 degrees.]

2. When a match is to be played, the numbers of the rinks should be put into a bag or other receptacle, and drawn at the green by the skips or their representatives.

3. Ordinary games may be played, without having recourse to drawing, on a rink mutually agreed upon.

II. *Bowls—Size and Bias.*—1. No bowl shall exceed $1\frac{1}{16}$ inches in circumference, nor $3\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. in weight, nor have a less bias than the Standard Bowl adopted by the Association.

2. Any bowl to which objection is taken shall be tested by comparison with a standard bowl of the Association, bearing the Association's stamp. Any objection must be taken at the start, or not later than the sixth end of a game.

In the case of a club match or competition, the test shall at once be applied, at the distance of 32 yards, by two referees appointed by the parties, and if the referees disagree they shall appoint an oversman. In the event of a bowl being declared of a less bias than the standard, the further use of it in that club match or competition shall not be allowed, and the party at fault shall, from the stage at which the game then stood, play with any bowl, conforming to standard, selected for him by the referees or oversman, or forfeit the game. In the event of the game being so forfeited, the objecting rink or player shall, in addition to being declared winner, be entitled to add to its or his score one shot for such number of shots or ends as may still remain to be played.

In the case of a tournament, the bowl or bowls objected to by an opponent shall, at the conclusion of the game, be taken possession of by the Secretary of the tournament, who shall have the same forthwith tested by two of the *umpires of the tournament*, who are not members of the same club as either of the parties, and who, if they cannot agree, shall call in another of the umpires, who must also be a neutral person, to determine whether the objection is *frivolous*; but if there be reasonable ground for doubt, the bowl or bowls shall at once be sent to one of the officers of the Association, to be tested by him. The officer shall test and return without delay all bowls thus sent to him, and shall also send to the Secretary of the tournament a written report of the result of the test. The decision of the umpires, oversman, or officer, as the case may be, shall be final. The objector shall lodge with the Secretary of the tournament the sum of two shillings and sixpence, to cover the expense of testing, and to discourage frivolous objections, which sum shall be returned to him if his objection be sustained, and in that case the Secretary of the tournament shall recover the said fee from the owner of the bowl or bowls before they are returned to him, and the competitor who uses them shall be disqualified, and his opponent held as having won the tie.

[*Note.*—To facilitate the testing of bowls under the rule, the Association trusts that each constituent club of the Association will provide itself with a standard bowl, made and stamped by one of its officers. Competitors in a public tournament are recommended to have their bowls tested and stamped beforehand.]

3. **MARKERS.**—In single-handed tournaments one marker only shall act in each game. The marker may answer queries as to position of bowls and their distance from the jack, but shall not give directions to, nor consult, with either player as to the play. Markers shall be appointed by the directors of the tournament, local secretaries, or umpires, whom failing, by the competitors themselves.

III. *Size of the Jack.*—The jack shall be about $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter.

IV. *Conditions of a Game.*—1. A game may consist of any number

of shots or heads, or may be played for any length of time as previously agreed upon.

2. When a match consists of more than one rink on each side, the total scores of the respective parties shall decide the contest.

3. When a game consists of a stated number of heads and there is only one rink on each side, should it be found when the given number of heads has been played that the scores are equal, one extra head shall be played so as to decide the contest, and should the extra head result again in a tie, one more shall be played.

V. Rink or Team of Players.—1. A rink or team shall consist of four players, each playing two bowls, and called respectively, according to the order in which they play, leader or lead, second player, third player, and skip or driver. Unless otherwise mutually agreed upon, it shall be determined by tossing or by playing a trial head, which party is to play first, the winner of the toss or the head to have the choice. In all subsequent heads the party which won the previous head shall play first. The leaders play their two bowls alternately, and so on, each pair of players in succession to the end. The order of playing shall not be changed after the first head has been played. No one shall play until his opponent's bowl has ceased to run; a bowl so played may be stopped, and sent back to be played over again.

*2. A bowl played by mistake shall be replaced by the player's own bowl.

3. When a player has played before his turn, the opponents may stop the bowl in its course, or allow it to remain when it comes to rest, or cause it to be played over again in its proper order. If it has moved either jack or bowls, the opponents shall have the power to cause the end to be begun anew.

4. No player shall change his bowls during the game, except with the consent of the opposing party.

5. If less than three players appear on either side, the game, so far as that rink is concerned, shall not proceed, and the rink with which this occurs shall be held as having *failed to appear*, and shall forfeit the game. Should such forfeiture take place where more rinks than one from each club are concerned, and where the aggregate or average scores are to decide the contest, the scores of the remaining rinks only shall be counted, but such average shall, as a penalty in the case of the defaulting club, be arrived at by dividing the aggregate score by the number of rinks which should have played, and not, as in the case of the other club, by the number actually engaged in the game. In the absence of a single player, from one or both sides, in an ordinary club match or friendly game, the number of bowls shall be made up by the party or parties playing odd bowls, these odd bowls being played by the first and second players. In a match for a trophy or other prize, where more rinks than one from each club are engaged, odd bowls may, in the absence of one of the players of any rink, be played in the manner above provided, but one fourth of the total shots gained by such rink shall be deducted from its score at the end of the game. In a match for a trophy or other prize where a club is represented by only one rink, such rink must play with four men, but should only three men appear on one of the sides, the whole details of the case shall, unless an amicable arrangement be made for another date within the authorised limit of time, be reported by the umpire to the local secretary,

who shall in turn report them to the Secretary of the Association. The Secretary of the Association shall then call a meeting of the Committee to dispose of each such case on its merits.

VI. *Skips or Drivers*.—1. The skips shall have sole charge of their respective rinks, and their instructions must be obeyed by the other players.

2. The skip shall have the control of the play, but he may delegate this duty at any time to a substitute, who is usually the third player.

3. As soon as a bowl is greened the director must retire behind the jack.

4. The players not engaged must stand *jack-high*, or behind the mat-line.

5. The last player should remove the mat to the bank.

6. The two skips shall be judges of all disputed points, and when they agree their decision shall be final; if they cannot agree the point shall be decided by the umpire previously appointed, whom failing, by a neutral person mutually chosen.

VII. *The Cloth or Mat*.—1. Each player when playing shall stand with at least one foot on the mat.

2. The mat shall, at the first head, be placed by the leader of the party which is to play first, and in every subsequent head by the leader of the party which lost the previous head; but it shall be in the option of the winner of any head to have the mat laid at the place where the jack lay, or between it and any point backwards, not less than one yard from the ditch, the mat in any case being placed in the centre of the rink. In starting play, or when the jack at the finish of a head lies in the ditch, or less than one yard from it, the mat shall be placed forward to about that distance. The mat shall not be moved till the head is finished, but if moved by accident or inadvertently it shall be replaced as near its original position as possible. It is recommended that the size of the mat be 22 by 14 inches or thereby.

VIII. *Throwing the Jack*.—1. The leader of the party which is to play first shall throw the jack.

2. If the jack run into the ditch at the first throw in a game, it shall be placed two yards from it. If it be thrown into the ditch at any subsequent head, the opposing party shall have the option of throwing it anew, but not of playing first. When thrown less than two yards from the ditch it should be moved out to that distance.

3. The jack shall be thrown not less than 25 yards from the mat, and if it run to one side it shall be moved straight across and placed in the line of the pins numbering the rinks. If it be thrown less than 25 yards it shall be treated according to the rule applicable to a jack thrown into the ditch after the first head. (See Clause 2 of this Rule.)

4. If none of the foregoing rules have been transgressed, the jack shall be played to wherever it has been thrown; or, if moved, it must be by mutual consent of parties.

5. After having been played to, it shall not be touched or interfered with in any manner otherwise than by the effects of the play, until the result of the head has been determined.

IX. *Movement of the Jack and of Bowls*.—1. If the jack be driven into the ditch, within the limits of the rink, its place shall be accurately marked, but it shall not be removed from its place (either on to the green or elsewhere) except by a toucher (see Rule XII., Section 5).

Should it be driven beyond the limits of the rink, that is to say, over the bank, or past the side boundary of the rink, by a bowl in play, it shall be counted dead; but if moved, by a bowl out of play it shall be restored to its place.

[*Note*.—A bowl played or driven to the ditch which is not a toucher, shall, when it falls into the ditch, be out of play.]

2. The foregoing rule as to being counted dead when driven beyond the limits of the rink shall likewise apply to bowls whether they be *touchers* or not, but neither jack nor bowl shall be counted dead unless it be wholly outside the boundary when it comes to rest, even though it may have been so in its course.

3. A bowl when "dead" must be at once removed to the bank. Whenever the jack is "dead" the head must of necessity be played over again, and it shall in no case be counted a played head, not even though all the bowls have been played.

4. The jack (though driven to the side of the rink, if not beyond its limits) may be played to on either hand, but any bowl played to it which, when it has come to rest, lies wholly outside the rink, shall be counted dead.

5. In the event of the jack being broken the head shall be begun anew.

X. *Jack or Bowl Rebounding*.—Should the jack run against the bank or a bowl in the ditch and rebound on to the green, or after being played into the ditch it be so operated upon by a toucher as to find its way again on to the green, it shall be played to in the same manner as if it had never been moved. But a bowl similarly rebounding shall, unless it be a toucher, be counted dead, and any bowl or jack moved thereby shall be put back to its former position.

XI. *Jack or Bowl Burned*.—The term "burned" is applied to a jack or bowl which has been interfered with or displaced, otherwise than by a bowl in play.

Jack Burned

1. *While in motion on the green.*

When a jack while in motion on the green is burned—

(a) By one of the players, the opposing party shall have the option of letting it lie where it stops, and playing the head out, or of beginning the head anew.

(b) By a neutral person, or by a bowl belonging to a neutral person, the parties shall come to an agreement as to its position, otherwise the head shall be begun anew.

2. *While in motion in the ditch.*

Bowls in the ditch which are not touchers should be immediately removed to the bank (see Rule XIII.), but in the event of an omission to remove them, the jack or touchers coming in contact with them shall be allowed to lie where they rest. In such a case these bowls should then be removed to the bank.

3. *While at rest.*

When a jack while at rest on the green is burned—

(a) By one of the players, the opposite party may replace it in its original position, or allow it to remain as moved.

(b) By a neutral person, or by a bowl belonging to a neutral person, the parties shall come to an agreement as to its position, otherwise the head shall be begun anew.

4. *While at rest in the ditch* (see Rule IX., Section 1).

Bowl Burned

1. *While in motion.*

A. When a bowl, during its original course, and before it has passed the jack, is burned—

- (a) By the party to whom it belongs, it shall be counted dead.
- (b) By an opponent, the player's party may claim to have it played over again, or to let it lie where it rests, or to have the head begun anew.
- (c) By a neutral person, it shall be played over again.

B. When a bowl which, in its original course, has passed the jack, and being still in motion, is burned—

- (a) By the player's own party, it shall be counted dead, whether it has touched the jack or not.
- (b) By an opponent or a neutral person, the player's party may choose to let it lie where it comes to rest, or to have the head begun anew.

C. When a bowl which has come to rest is afterwards set in motion by a bowl in play, and while still moving is burned—

- (a) By the party to whom it belongs, it shall be counted dead.
- (b) By an opponent, the party to whom it belongs may choose to let it lie where it comes to rest, or place it where they think it would probably have rested had it not been interfered with.
- (c) By a neutral person, it may be allowed to lie or be placed to the mutual satisfaction of parties; where agreement cannot be attained, the head shall be played over again.

2. *While at rest.*

When a bowl while at rest is burned—

- (a) By either party, it may be replaced by the opposite party, or in the latter's opinion be allowed to remain where it lies.
- (b) By a neutral person, or by a bowl not in play, it should be replaced as near its original position as possible.

XII. *Touchers.*—1. A bowl which touches the jack during its original course on the green, although previously it may have also touched one or more bowls, is called a *toucher*, and counts in the game wherever it rests if on the rink, but should a bowl, after it has ceased running, fall over and touch the jack, *after another bowl has been delivered*, it is not to be accounted a toucher. No bowl can in any circumstances become a toucher when the jack is in the ditch.

2. If a toucher run into the ditch when played, or be driven into the ditch during the course of the subsequent play, the place where it rests shall be marked, but its position shall not be altered except by the action of another toucher or the jack.

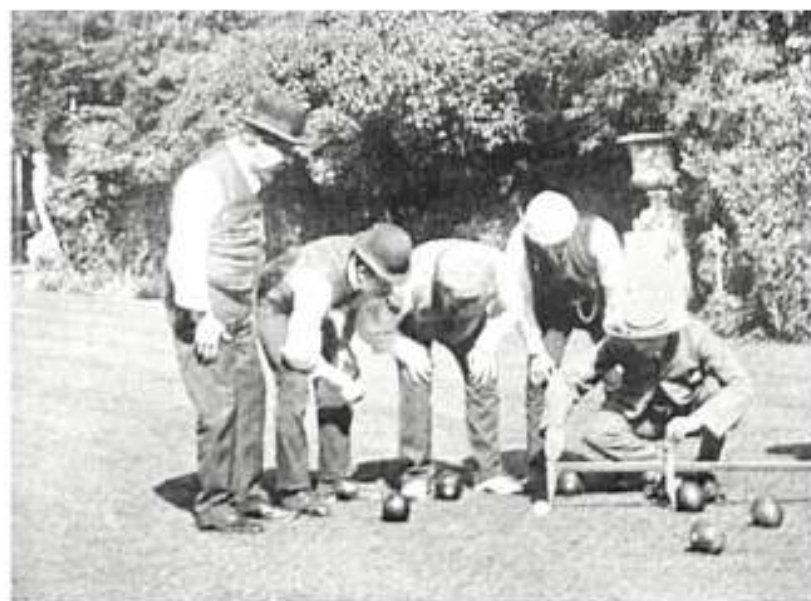
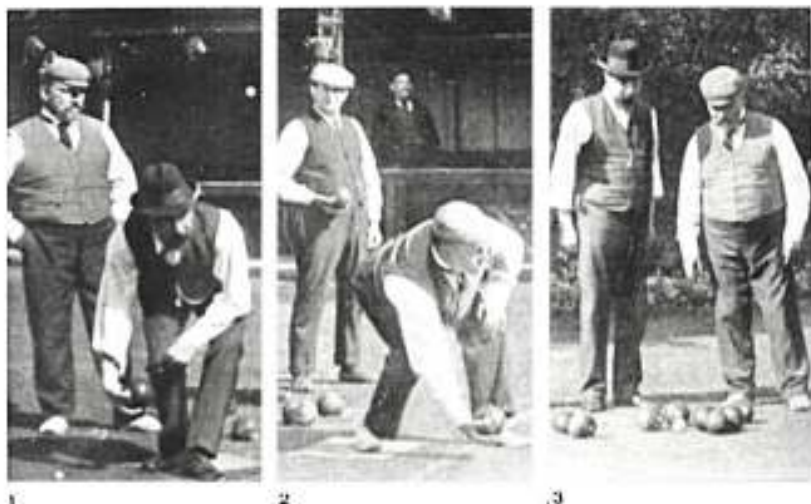
3. A toucher must be distinguished by a chalk or other distinct mark. Unless it be marked before the second succeeding bowl is delivered, it is not to be accounted a toucher. If the mark be not removed from the bowl before it is played in the succeeding heat, it may be regarded as a *burned* bowl, and be removed to the bank.

4. If a bowl be moved *outwards* from the jack while being marked, it must remain as it is; but if moved *towards* the jack it must be restored to its original position.

5. Touchers may act on the jack or touchers in the ditch.

XIII. *Ditchers.*—1. A bowl which does not touch the jack in its original course on the green, and runs against the bank or into the

PLATE 5



4. Photo: Pictorial Agency.

BOWLS

1. An awkward position for delivering the bowl—too cramped. 2. A good position.
3. A good end. 4. A close finish: measuring the distance.

(See pages 54-61.)

ditch, or is driven into the ditch by the effects of the play, is called a *ditcher*, and must be immediately removed to the bank.

2. Should a ditcher under any circumstances return to the green, it must be placed on the bank.

XIV. *Possession of the Rink.*—1. As soon as each bowl stops running, the possession of the rink is transferred to the other party, time being allowed for marking a toucher.

2. The party in possession of the rink for the time being must not be disturbed or annoyed by their opponents.

XV. *Result of Head.*—1. When the last bowl in a head stops running, half a minute shall elapse, if either party so require, before the shots are counted.

2. Neither jack nor bowls shall be moved until both parties are agreed as to the shots.

3. If a bowl requiring to be measured is resting on another bowl, which prevents its measurement, the best means available shall be taken to secure it in its position, whereupon the other shall be removed. The same course shall be followed when more than two bowls are involved.

4. No measuring shall be allowed until the head has been played out.

5. When at the conclusion of a head a tie for the first shot occurs, it shall, in a game of ends, be counted a played head.

6. The duty of keeping the score, and of announcing the state of the game at the end of each head, should be assigned to the second player.

XVI. *Objects on the Green.*—Under no circumstances is any object to be laid on the green, or on a bowl, or on the jack, but it may be displayed in the hand for the guidance of the player.

XVII. *Onlookers.*—Persons not engaged in the game must confine themselves to the banks, and preserve an attitude of strict neutrality.

It now remains to explain the method of playing. After the sides have been chosen, or it has been agreed, as it often is, to play all against all, the pairs of bowls, distinguished by being marked on the wood with figures, letters, pips, or other devices, are handed to the respective players, and that one of them who is to lead off takes up the jack, and, standing on the footer, sets the mark for the first set. He follows this up by delivering his first bowl (Plate 5, Figs. 1 and 2), rolling it in such a direction, and with such force, as to allow it to come to rest as close as possible to the jack. He is followed alternately by the players on each side, who all deliver their first bowl, and then the series recommences in the same order until all the second bowls are played. Or, where sides are chosen, opponents play off in pairs; thus, A sends down his first bowl, B, his adversary, follows suit; then A sends down his second bowl, and B does likewise. They are followed by C and D, and so on. Eight players, four aside, make a good game. If the leader fails to set a mark properly, by sending it into the ditch, it shall be placed two yards from it. If "ditched" at any subsequent head, one of the opposite side can exercise the privilege. The leader does not, however, on this account lose his right of playing first. If a player play with his opponent's bowl, the opponent has the option

either of taking it up and substituting his own bowl in the place to which he had played the wrong one, or he may, if he prefer it, go on and play with his defaulting opponent's bowl. This is a somewhat harsh rule; and it is obviously very necessary for the earlier players to take particular care that they pick up the bowls rightly belonging to them at the conclusion of each end, as otherwise a great advantage remains to their adversaries whose place it is to play after them. It is not lawful to play any bowl before the one previously delivered has stopped rolling; and the bowl so prematurely played is sent back to be replayed. A player's bowl is "dead" if a player touch one of the rolling bowls belonging to him or any one on his side; but if one of the players should stop or touch an opponent's bowl before it gets as far as the jack, then the player shall have the privilege of playing that bowl again a second time. When the bowls rub or set one against another and yet remain on the green, they are to be left wherever they go to, and the measurement taken accordingly; but if the jack is knocked off the green the end is a "void end," and, as we have already seen, if a bowl is in fair play knocked off the green it instantly becomes dead. However, on some grounds the rule is in force that when the jack has been knocked off the green, it must be laid down at the point where it left the grass, the game afterwards proceeding as usual. If a rolling bowl, after it has gone more than two yards past the level of the jack, rub or set upon anybody or anything not engaged in the set, the player's party may either let it lie where it comes to rest, or the head may be begun anew.

Nevertheless, it is really impossible to give a cast-iron description of a game at bowls, for the practice—especially in England—is not absolutely the same on any two grounds. It is much to be desired that uniformity of play should be generally adopted throughout England, as is the case in Scotland to a very large extent. In fact, if the play of both countries could be assimilated, this reform would be entirely to the advantage of the game, which is not only one of the most health-giving games, but the outdoor game that involves the highest degree of skill. Fortunately there has been a decided revival of Bowls in recent years, and a great deal more interest is being taken in it, and the rules of the Scottish Bowling Association are generally accepted.

Accidental displacements of a bowl are remedied by replacing it by consent as nearly as possible to the place where it was; but if the bowl is displaced by a player before the ball is at rest, the adversary is entitled to play it over again. A player who allows the bowl to slip from his hand as he delivers it may take it back again if it has not gone farther than he can reach with his hand while keeping his foot on the footer. In delivering the bowl, it will partly depend upon the position of the bowls already played, and partly

upon the advice offered to you by your captain, whether you should play always "fore"-hand, or sometimes "back"-hand, that is, with the right hand or left hand bias (Fig. 1). Amongst the devices resorted to in play one of the most important is that of "blocking"—that is to say, stopping the road towards the jack by interposing a bowl.

Whenever the leader has made a very good stroke, and left his bowl quite close to the jack, this stratagem is often resorted to by his partner, for the purpose of preventing the subsequent players on the other side from displacing it or the jack (Fig. 2). But it is a rule that for the purpose of so blocking the way the bowl must be fairly rolled, and not "placed" with the hand, and, moreover, that it must go at least as far as four yards from the footer, a rule which seems to make the other, as to placing, unnecessary. Partners are permitted to advise one another, but are absolutely prohibited from explaining the lie of the opponent's bowls which they have observed by walking up to the jack, and also from holding a conspicuous mark between the jack and the player to guide him as to the direction in which he shall play. This is a very important rule, as after the first player on each side has played, he often goes to the end at which the jack is, and remains there for the express purpose of advising his own side; and on grounds where each player is allowed to play his two bowls consecutively it is still more important, as the foremost player, having once delivered the bowls, remains at the other end till the set is finished.

When the end is played out, the measurements are taken, as already described; and it then becomes the privilege of the player who played last to place the footer, which he should do near the place where the jack was last laid. The leader has the right to lay the mat at the place where the jack lay, or between it and any point backwards, not less than a yard from the ditch (see Rule VII., 2). If the jack has been knocked off the green, the footer should be placed a yard from the precise place where it went off. The loser in any game is entitled to lead in the next; and the winner or loser of each end is entitled to lead the next, as may be agreed upon or prescribed by the regulations in use on the ground.

It will be seen, from the minuteness of the above rules, how much attention has been paid to the ancient game. As we have seen, in point of skill Bowls possesses all the attributes of a most scientific pastime, and it is one which is capable of indefinite improvement as long as ever the player chooses to continue his practice at it.



Fig. 1.—Fore (A) Hand and Back (B) Hand Delivery



Fig. 2.—Blocked Bowl (A)

CANOEING

CANOEES are now commonly constructed to combine both paddling and sailing. If a canoe is designed for paddling as chief duty, and for sailing only as an occasional auxiliary, she will not be expected to carry so much canvas as a canoe required chiefly for sailing, and she may therefore be longer in build and narrower in beam, so as to make her lighter and speedier under the paddle.

PADDLING CANOES

Such a canoe may be about fourteen feet long and ten inches and a half to eleven inches and a half in depth from deck to top of keel, according to the weight she is constructed to carry. Most canoes are built with too much beam abaft and too little forward. This is because the sitter—if he sits *amidships*—throws the greater part of his weight abaft of midships; but a canoe will be found to possess more speed both for sailing, and paddling if the sitter is placed more forward and the beam regulated accordingly, the greater beam of the boat being opposite his calves, which should be about six feet from the bows. The "well" of the canoe is the space in which the sitter is placed, and is about thirty-three inches long and twenty-four inches wide, according to the length of leg of the sitter for whom she is built. Usually this well is in the centre of the canoe, and her greatest beam then extends equally along the whole length of the well. Very few canoeists and builders see the point of carrying the beam and the well more forward, but those who do so will be repaid by increase of speed without any loss of stability, and by improved "weather" qualities in their craft when they come to sail her.

The beam of a fourteen-foot canoe should be about two feet eight inches; a fifteen-foot canoe should be about two feet seven and a half inches in beam. The keel should be slightly "camber" (i.e. rounded or hog-backed) when the boat is laid keel uppermost. The paddle should be about seven feet long, the blades from seven to nine inches wide, according to the size and strength of the canoeist. A good deal of the unpleasant dripping from the paddle may be avoided by having two thick rings of india-rubber slid on to the shaft of the paddle, and placed only within a few inches of the bottom of either blade. They should adhere by their own elasticity, and not be nailed or screwed, else the nails tend to make the shaft of the paddle split. The rings will not stop

the water from falling on the tarpaulin apron, but will stop it from running down the shaft of the paddle into the hands, a valuable saving in cold weather. Paddles are often made jointed in the middle, with brass fittings, so that they can be unfastened at will and used separately.

A canoe of these dimensions should carry but moderate canvas.

CRUISING CANOE

A cruising canoe, such as the "Nautilus" type, is designed principally for sailing, but at the same time quite available for the paddle in the absence of wind, and will have less length and more beam than the above-mentioned type. A "Nautilus" canoe is about thirteen feet in length, two feet two inches in beam, and one foot three inches in depth. She is usually fitted with a "sliding keel" which can be raised when paddling, or in shallow water, and lowered to increase her stability when she is under sail.

RACING CANOES

Of course canoes can be built, for sheer speed in paddling, much lighter, longer, and shallower than the build above described. They may run to eighteen feet in length, and two feet beam. But no sensible person will use them for choice. If mere speed without sails is the desideratum, better at once have a rowing boat.

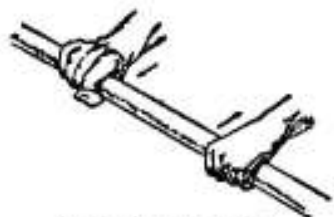
USELESSNESS OF RACING PADDLE CANOES

The idea of a canoe is to be navigable in narrow, tortuous channels which a rowing boat cannot enter, or to cruise under canvas with the paddle in reserve. A canoe built for racing and paddling would be useless for either of the above purposes, and would offer all the disadvantages of canoeing without its legitimate recommendations. Those who go in for canoeing had better use a craft suitable for the legitimate purpose of a canoe, as explained above.

HOW TO USE THE PADDLE

It is almost needless to say that a canoe has no rowlocks. The water is the fulcrum; both hands grasp the paddle, the lower hand is the "weight," and the upper hand the "power," to a great extent; but both hands shift their posture during the stroke, so that the lever partakes as much of the third order as of the second. An English canoe paddle has a blade at both ends of the staff; a Canadian has one blade only. The Canadian paddle is used on one side only of the vessel, and as the stroke tends to turn the bows away from the side on which the stroke is made, the course of the canoe is corrected by turning the blade almost parallel to the keel of the boat at the end of the stroke—one edge of the blade uppermost—and with a lateral pressure outwards steering the bows back to the point whence they deviated at the beginning of the stroke. Some

propulsion, however, is lost by thus steering against the previous propulsion of the paddle; but the time and exertion of lifting



Grasping the Canoe Paddle

the paddle over to the opposite side for a corresponding stroke are thereby saved. The Canadian canoeist usually kneels to paddle. It should have been mentioned that the canoeist sits facing the direction in which he progresses. In the English canoe he has a back-board to lean against, reaching as high as his shoulder-blades. His legs are extended flat along the bottom of the canoe, and his feet supported against a

stretcher or board at the end, to prevent his slipping forward when he presses his paddle against the water.

The English canoe is, as said above, propelled by a double-bladed paddle. The hands grasp the paddle about two feet apart, at equal distances from the blades, and the stroke is made alternately on either side. The lower hand pulls the paddle towards the sitter, while the upper arm is extended, and pushes the upper end of the shaft in the opposite direction; the blade which is in the water is thus forced backwards in the direction of the stern of the boat, and the boat is propelled. When the stroke is expended the upper hand is lowered and the corresponding blade takes up the stroke on the opposite side, the action of the two hands being now reversed, and so on.

The closer the stroke can be made to the gunwale of the canoe, the straighter will be the course of the vessel; but, of course, she steers to port and starboard (left and right) alternately, according to which side the paddle is working. To turn the canoe, back water on one side, and paddle forward on the other, with alternate strokes; while doing this leverage is gained by placing the blade as far out as it can reach from the side of the canoe, whereas in straight progression the object is to keep the blade close to the side.

The upper part of the body should lean against the upper hand during the stroke. This counterpoises the necessary weight of the body in the direction of the lower hand, and keeps the canoe upon an even keel. The feet should be pressed firmly against the stretcher, and the knees kept stiff, so as to force the loins and lower part of the back against the back-board, and prevent it from slipping, an accident which it is, of course, highly desirable to avoid.

A tarpaulin should be thrown over the legs, from the feet to the waist, just fitting the open part of the canoe, or "well," in which the sitter sits; this saves him from the constant drip of the paddles as the blades are alternately lifted from the water, which would otherwise drench his legs through in a very few minutes.

DOUBLE CANOES

Double canoes are sometimes built for two sitters, one in front of the other. The process of propulsion is the same, but they are not so handy as single canoes, are more difficult to turn, and, from their greater length, are applicable only for paddling, and useless for sailing purposes. (See page 52.)

BALANCING A CANOE

The centre of gravity in a canoe is lower than in that of a rowing-boat, by reason of the occupant being seated on the "burdens" (or bottom boards), and having no thwart (or seat) to elevate him, as in a boat propelled by oars. For this reason there is less to make her roll; but if she does not do so, there is less to restore her balance than in any rowing-boat. An inrigged rowing-boat (one in which the rowlocks are placed on the gunwale) has far more beam than a canoe, and though she may roll, will not easily capsize, even without oars in her, and if the latter are in the rowlocks and held by the hands they assist to preserve her stability. An outrigger boat (in which the rowlocks are placed upon irons rigged out from the gunwale) generally has her oars tied in across the loom of the oar, and while these are held firmly in the hands it is next to impossible, with any ordinary usage, to capsize her.

But the canoe has no such lateral support, and the occupant must rely upon his own steadiness of seat and balance of body when he uses his paddle to preserve equilibrium. At first he may be alarmed to feel how easily she rolls either way if he leans over the gunwale, or if the weight of his paddle on one side sways her; but he will soon get accustomed to a sort of instinctive balance, such as a skater acquires, and the chief thing which he should bear in mind is, that he must not roll with her, but endeavour to keep his body upright, and by so doing he will find the canoe promptly right herself under him and return to the dictate of her centre of gravity, which lies in the sitter's own body.

CANADIAN OR OPEN CANOE

The Canadian canoes, propelled by a paddle used only on one side (see page 65), have no "wells" like the English canoes, being open throughout the whole length. They are adapted for sailing as well as paddling, and have back-boards to make a back for cushions. In many respects they are better than the English type: they do not need such careful balancing; it is possible to change positions without having to run to shore; and, not the least advantage of all, they allow of several people being aboard. They are now very largely used on our rivers.

CRICKET

THOUGH no one appears to know when, or where, or how cricket originated, the game has become so universally popular throughout England and the Colonies that everyone may be said to know something about it. To practise the game calls for a certain amount of physical power, and the strain of a match soon finds out any weak spot in the players. Most boys play cricket in summer, and almost everyone is anxious to become expert in it. In order to do this they should bear in mind the words of one of the greatest cricketers of the day:—"Temperance in food and drink, regular sleep and exercise, I have laid down as a golden rule. From my earliest cricketing days I have carefully adhered to this rule, and to it I attribute, in a great degree, the measure of health and strength I still enjoy." Fortunately cricket does not call for any particular form of training. The ordinary pleasures of life, enjoyed moderately, will not interfere with it; though if a player wishes to be successful he must live carefully, for even the best natural gifts towards the game may be neutralised by self-indulgence. A few remarks, however, on the progress of the game will not be without interest.

There is some reason to believe that cricket is an offshoot of tipcat, but as cricket it can be certainly traced back as far as 1743. It was at first confined to what is known as "double wicket," for obviously the game of "single wicket" was merely an offshoot of the original pastime, introduced to suit the convenience of a lesser number of players, though governed by laws of a similar character. According to the definition of a well-known old writer, cricket was "performed by a person who, with a clumsy wooden bat, defends a wicket raised of two slender sticks with one across, which is attacked by another person, who endeavours to beat it down with a hard leather ball from a certain stand. The farther the distance to which the ball is driven, the oftener is the defender able to run between the wickets and the stand. This is called gaining so many notches, and he who gets the most is the victor." The difference even now is not so great as one would imagine. Only alter the number and arrangement of the sticks ("stumps"), and designate "notches," in the present vocabulary of terms, as "runs," and you will have a positive definition of the ruling purpose of cricket as it now exists. At present the game universally adopted is that of "double wicket," and it is only, indeed, on the very rarest occasions that "single wicket" is ever practised or witnessed.

The game of "double wicket" is so called by way of distinction

from "single wicket," for it requires a double array of materials—two bats, two "wickets," two popping creases, two bowling creases, and in fact is, as far as accessories are concerned, a duplicate of single wicket, which needs only one wicket, one bat, one popping crease, and one bowling crease (Fig. 1); although evidently there must in each be the same necessity for two contending parties, even if the numbers engaged may be different. Originally the wicket did not consist of three upright stumps, but was more after the fashion of a skeleton hurdle, formed of two small sticks, instead of three stumps as now; and in the place of the two bails that now surmount the top and connect the three stumps, there was then merely a thin piece of stick placed across, without groove or other support. Nor was the bat the shapely instrument that it is now, but rather a rough piece of wood, devised as best it could be for offensive purposes; the ball, too, was a very inferior sample of the article as it is now manufactured, and the scoring was done by the primitive method of cutting the notches on a piece of wood. There was, too, another arrangement that wanted alteration; for midway between the sticks at the base there was a hole cut, in which the batsman was to ground his bat after running before the fieldsman at the wicket could ground the ball.

EQUIPMENT

The wickets are now formed of three upright stumps, made usually of ash of the best growth. Across these are two "bails," or pieces of wood neatly carved and turned, and made of almost similar material, each one of which connects two of the three stumps, the grooves on the top of each of the stumps serving to secure the ends of each bail. These are what is termed collectively a "wicket," and at each end of the ground, at a distance of twenty-two yards, such a wicket is placed, the two erections serving to illustrate the distinction of "double wicket." In preparing for a match, the ground at each wicket must be laid out according to the diagram (Fig. 1). The "bowling crease" is intended to prevent a bowler from placing both feet either outside or over the line when delivering the ball. Otherwise a "no ball" will be called, from which, except in the case of a "run out," the batsman cannot be dismissed. The "return crease" is intended to indicate the limit sidewise of the bowler's range. As for the "popping crease," it may be described as a kind of check upon the batsman, for should he not have one foot always within or on the crease the wicket-keeper may put down the wicket with the ball, and so "stump" the batsman. Before facing the bowler, the batsman commonly "takes block" from the umpire. "Block" is a spot usually a bat's length from the middle stump, with which it is supposed to be exactly in a line, for the purpose of covering the wicket from the bowler's attack. Many batsmen prefer a block or guard from middle and leg to a block from middle.

The old bat was curved in the form of a butter-knife, and was obviously of little use except for the purpose of hitting—blocking or scientific play being things at that time not dreamt of in the philosophy of a cricketer. The bowling was what is known as underhand, and the mysteries of roundhand, of over-arm, and the other secrets of attack now so skilfully employed, were utterly unknown,

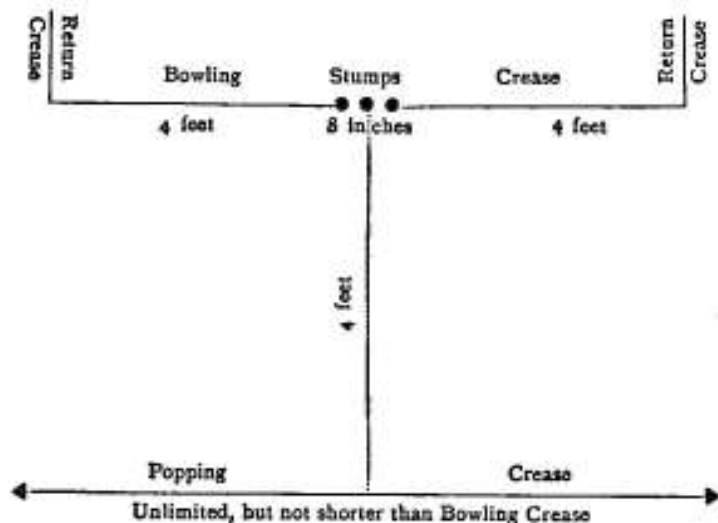


Fig. 1.—The Wicket.

so that the great point of the game was to hit without thought of defence.

But what about the bats and balls of the present day? You need not trouble yourself about the ball, in the first place, since the selection and provision of balls, in the case of matches, falls on the management and exchequer of the club, and directly proceeds, like many other calls, from the public purse. But with the bat the case is different. See that your own special taste is satisfied first, or you will do little or no good. You can rely on the judgment of honest bat-makers, of course, but it will be much better to be informed yourself of the principal points that should be noticed in the constitution of the article that is required. The wood should be well seasoned and of good growth, for on this you will have to depend greatly if you want a bat that will do you any honest service. See that the wood is straight-grained, if possible, and give it time before you determine to subject it to hard and persistent usage. A bat improves with keeping; do not use it, if you can avoid so doing, until it has had a chance of getting mellow, and becomes

well saturated with the oil that you have employed. The bats used now all have the advantage of cane handles, which of course greatly increase the force of repercussion; sometimes thin layers of india-rubber and other substances are let in.

There are other implements necessary to the satisfactory outfit of a cricketer or a cricket club that suggest their own different spheres of usefulness without much description. If you are a wicket-keeper you will be able to estimate the advantage of gloves specially manufactured for that post. Batting gloves, too, are now requisites, and are dispensed with only by the more reckless followers of the game. To play cricket and enjoy it you should lessen the risks of an ugly knock as much as possible, and unless you use these articles of defence you may get your hands or fingers injured for life. Experience has made these accessories as perfect as they could well be. They are usually made of mock buckskin leather, and the palm of the glove is cut away so as to allow a firm grasp of the handle of the bat. On the back of the hand on each finger are strips of thick tubular indiarubber, arranged so as to keep every portion likely to be hit by the bowler well protected. You will see that different provision is made for the two hands. In holding the bat, the back of the left hand being exposed to the bowler, almost every part is covered, the covering of indiarubber preventing many a nasty crack in the neighbourhood of the wrist. As the thumb of this hand is guarded by the bat, no special protection is necessary for it; the risk to the right hand, on the contrary, is mostly about the knuckles and fingers, no other part being so much exposed.

It is better to wear boots than shoes when playing cricket, as they give more support to the ankles, and the soles should be well fitted with nails, which any bootmaker will fix for you. A fast bowler often has spikes on a wet ground, but for general use nails are quite enough. It would seem superfluous to mention the necessity of leg guards. They are padded with strips of cane, and reach well above the knee, so that all the lower part of the leg is thoroughly covered. You can get a good knock even with these stout coverings, so do not be foolish enough to play to any sort of bowling without them.

To complete the perfect equipment of a cricket club, it will be necessary to provide a telegraph stand for announcing the scores, etc., and a set of nets for use in practice. A cricket club should always have one of the latter. You cannot usually get together a sufficient number of players for a good practice game. By using nets, however, practice can nearly always be had, as it is not then so requisite to have several players. If you have a net with sides you will find yourself still further assisted; as most of the hits will thus be stopped, no long-stop will be required, and one bowler and two fieldsmen will enable you to have a good practice.

If you determine to have a complete outfit, get the different articles of good stuff and of good makers.

BATTING: POSITION AT THE WICKET

Do not be misled by the idea that to be a good cricketer, either as batsman, bowler, or fieldsman, is an inborn gift. A cricketer is made, not born. It is in batting more than in the other branches of the game that you will find practice the great secret to success.

You may ask what is the first point that will have to be mastered before you can enter on the high road to success. The answer is, *Position*. Master this one great rudiment, and you are on the way to advancement. It is not so easily mastered, though; so take the best advice, and if you can possibly secure a favourable opportunity to watch an expert and well-tried batsman at work in a first-



Fig. 2.—Correct Position (Side View)

class match, do not fail to take advantage of the chance. You will find the benefit that will accrue from such a practical illustration will be worth months of practice by yourself. Do not lose sight of the first necessity of acquiring a useful as well as proper attitude of batting. An easy position is as capable of achievement as an ungraceful, cramped, and crooked attitude, though the bent may be more in the wrong direction. If you can secure a tutor who will show you what ought to be done, and what ought to be left undone, you will not require an elaborate treatise for your edification.

Study with great perseverance the chief or stock position of a batsman (Figs. 2 and 3). Try the effects of this attitude, and you will discover that you are now ready for any emergency, and if you are bent on defence, and insist on a close imitation of the batsman whose attitude you have studied, it will be your own fault if your armour be not shot-proof.

The next position has been styled "preparing for action" (Fig. 4), and the denomination is by no means unsuitable. It is obvious enough, as you will see for yourselves, that before you have sufficiently advanced to enable you to turn your thoughts to offensive movements, it is necessary that you shall have at least progressed so far as to master the ordinary plans of defence. It is essential that you shall at least be capable of maintaining your wickets erect before you venture on anything like an attack, and this you will find to be sure of attainment if you adhere without deviation to the imitation of the model here given.

The greatest preventive to your progress as a batsman will be that fatal propensity for playing with a crooked bat (Fig. 5), which



Fig. 3.—Correct Position (Front View)

has marred many a promising beginner. You had better commit any other mistake than show a tendency to use your bat in a fashion at all diverging from the perpendicular. Exceptions there are, of course, and batsmen there have been who have for a time defied the straight bat theory, but the example of the many is better to follow if one has any regard for the building up of a sound method of batting.

Experienced "coaches" will tell you to keep the right leg firm as a rock, the left shoulder well forward; and occasionally, in order to prevent a batsman who is inclined to "funk" from backing away in the direction of square-leg, a coach will secure the batsman's right foot to the ground, so that he cannot move it from the correct position.

If you look at Fig. 3 closely, you will see that the bat is held tightly in both hands with the fingers of the right or lower hand clenched firmly, the thumb downwards, the left or upper hand equally rigid, but in this case so different that the back is chiefly presented to the bowler, instead of the thumb and knuckles, as is the case with the right hand. The great secret, though, is to use the bat so as to suit varying circumstances; but as this can be bought by experience only, it will be sufficient to represent the manner of grasping the handle for general purposes.



Fig. 5.—Playing with a Crooked Bat

Some few wield the bat cautiously enough to suit the most exacting critic, holding it at the bottom of the handle, just where the insertion into the blade takes place. Others, of a more reckless temperament, are used to grasp it at the very top of the handle; but here again there should be moderation, and you will find generally that the player adopting this latter line of action usually belongs to the genus "slogger," and rarely lasts more than a couple of overs when playing against an accomplished bowler.

Of two extremes choose the less, and play the free and open game rather than hold the bat in such a position that your attitude must be cramped and anything but graceful. You should make the most of your height, and stand so as to get well over the ball instead of playing over, and every now and again falling apparently over the wicket, as is the manner of some. Consequently a course midway between the two extremes may be chosen, and in this advice the support of no less an expert than Dr. William Gilbert Grace is here added. To use his very words:—"From my own experience I have always found it to my advantage to hold the bat half-way up the handle, and this happy medium I recommend for adoption, as thereby



Fig. 4.—Preparing for Action

you can control it as effectively as if held nearer to the blade, and the benefits incidental to the extra length are very important. To hold it higher in the handle neutralises this advantage, as the bat is not so well or so firmly grasped, and the power of hitting at a ball with certainty is considerably lessened." You have here the opinion of the greatest batsman that the game of cricket has ever produced, so that you can hardly stand in need of other counsellors.

The gift of a straight and upright style of play can never be acquired unless you adopt the primary conditions in the position. Any attempt to hold your bat so as to *show its full face to the bowler*, unless your left shoulder and elbow are properly placed, will end in ignominious failure.

You have been told what to do with your hands and arms, and now you must learn the method of arranging your legs and feet. You must first of all see that you form for yourself a position that will enable you to stand firmly without yielding an inch, while at the same time it affords the greatest facility for rapidity of motion either forwards or backwards. You must not indulge in eccentricities, after the fashion of the dancing bear, or your career will be brief. Above all things keep your right leg as firm as a rock, as this leg essentially forms the "pivot," to regulate the movements of the batsman, and you cannot adapt yourself readily to the varying necessities of the game if the muscles be relaxed, the knee bent, and the posture generally that of a cat militant. Be sure that you insist on this stout support for your actions, for the posture of the other leg will be of minor importance, or at the best a matter of choice. It is marvellous to see the contortions in which some batsmen indulge, and still more surprising the success that attends some of those who affect the most eccentric attitudes. There are men who stand with their legs separated to the full extreme, after the form of the letter V in an inverted state, and others who give you the idea that they pay rent for the use of the ground, and are determined to occupy the very smallest possible space, so cramped is their attitude.

Place your left foot about twelve inches in front of the right, and see that it is as nearly as possible at right angles with it (Fig. 2). You will find that in this position your left eye will be just above the level of the left shoulder; and more than one batsman insists upon this as an absolute essential to the acquirement of a good position. Keep your bat well down, though not so close to the ground as to hinder your quick recovery in case of hitting; for mere defence of the wicket you will soon learn to consider tame and monotonous.

General Hints on Batting

To know precisely when to play forward and when to play back at a certain style of ball is an achievement in itself; but to decide

on the exact course to be pursued, and to act with the requisite amount of resolution, is a feat that will take you some time to accomplish with anything like certainty. There are some batsmen who lunge out at every ball, and trust to their keenness of vision more than to any judgment in calculation to enable them to overthrow the best-laid schemes of a bowler—to divert balls that might have secured the collapse of many a batsman of more genuine pretensions to fame, into the next parish by a mighty swing of a stalwart arm. You will find in every quarter some players who defy all recognised laws in the dispensation of cricket, and yet attain a success that is wanting to an honest and persevering disciple of the game.

Do not be misled by this species of sensational play.

To get a batsman into what is called "two minds" is the main aim of a bowler; and it is this very player that renders him the most effectual help. Old Felix, one of the most thoroughly qualified writers who ever discoursed on cricket, speaks feelingly on this point:—"Every well-practised batsman knows there is a spot of ground—yes, there is a spot of ground—upon which if the ball should alight it produces an indescribable sensation; and this indescribable sensation seems to be caused by the difficulty of being able to decide at the instant whether or not you should lunge out to meet it, smother it and kill it, or take it upon the back play. For when once you throw your body forward, in vain (should your judgment be incorrect) will you recover yourself in time enough to overtake the ball."

As a main principle, when you are in any doubt whether to play forward or back, choose the latter course (Plate 6). If you hesitate, you are in most cases lost; for it usually happens that in halting between two opinions you make up your mind to play forward, and your tardiness in allowing the ball a chance of rising from the ground causes you to return it gently into the hands of the bowler, to your intense mortification and the grim satisfaction of the enemy. A propensity to any excess in this habit of playing forward is one of the most agreeable sights that you can present to a crafty bowler. It is amusing to watch tricky bowlers beguiling these innocent batsmen to inevitable ruin, gently dropping the ball by degrees more and more towards the desired spot, until the crash comes.

Perhaps it is as well that a player should know how many ways there are of getting out, as cricketers have frequently to pay the penalty of ignorance on this point. There are really nine ways in which a batsman can be out. They are:—

1. Being clean bowled.
2. Being caught out.
3. Being stumped out (Plate 1).
4. Being run out (Plate 1).
5. Hit-wicket.
6. Leg-before wicket (Plate 6).

7. Hitting the ball twice, except in defence of the wicket.
8. Handling the ball.
9. Obstructing the field.

Defence, and not defiance, should be the motto of the young batsman, until he has proved himself able to take his own part against the attack from first to last with the same amount of confidence. Take care of the stumps, and the runs will take care of themselves. You must feel your way gently at the outset, until you have accustomed yourself to the style of the bowling to which you are opposed, and until you have begun to understand the plans of the attacking party. If you survive the first two or three overs, you will have done a great deal, and you will insensibly begin to feel that the ball seems to grow larger and larger as the eye becomes more used to its curves, and the nerves become, as a natural consequence, proportionately braced by the improvement of vision. Some of the best batsmen, at the end of a long innings, when some unlucky and unexpected incident has secured their downfall, bewail their fate in a comical manner: "What hard luck, when the ball was as big as a balloon!" To "get a good sight of the ball" is one of the most important aims of the batsman, and care at the commencement of an innings will soon enable you to more than counteract the schemes of the most wily bowler. You will generally find that the weakness of a batsman is in the protection of his "leg stump" (Plate 6); and it is to this special subdivision of the wickets that most bowlers seek to direct their attack.

It will hardly be necessary to explain which of the stumps is so called, but none the less there be some so far uninitiated that a definition may not be out of place. The stump farthest from the batsman as he stands in position is called the "off stump"; the centre one is known as the "middle stump"; and that nearest to the batsman as the "leg stump," since it is nearest to his legs as he places himself on guard, just clear of the stumps, to prevent his body from being in front of the wicket. Many batsmen, as we hinted before, prefer to take their guard so as to cover the middle and leg stumps, rather than the middle stump alone; but this is, after all, a matter of taste, and the advantages or disadvantages are to be learnt only by experience.

Much depends on the curve or spin which the bowler puts on the ball, and your style of play must be such as to prevent your defence being beaten by a tricky ball. A ball which breaks must always cause more trouble to the batsman than a straight one, for the batsman has to guard against two dangers—the pitch as well as the twist of the ball. So the word of advice, already given, to play steadily at first until you become more accustomed to the bowling will help you considerably in this case, as you will soon "get your eye in" and feel more comfortable when you have mastered the peculiarities of the bowling.

It will be as well at this point to explain more in detail the various kinds of twisting balls that may be met with. When a ball, delivered by a right-handed bowler, twists from the off to the leg it is said to "break back"; should the twist be from leg to off the ball "breaks from leg." Naturally, however, a right-handed batsman playing against a left-handed bowler will find the latter's "break back" twisting from leg to off. Sometimes also a ball bowled round the wicket may hit the stumps when it has not pitched on a direct line between the wickets. Such a ball is said to "go with the arm," and will often have a little leg break. It will be like the telling of an old tale to some of you to repeat the fact that with any of this style of bowling the great secret is to meet the ball and remove its sting before it has a chance of inflicting deadly injury. If you allow the ball to touch the ground, you give it an opportunity of indulging in its revolutions, as it will take a fresh direction the moment that it reaches the turf. If possible, the ball should be "smothered" at the pitch; but if the batsman cannot reach it there, he should, as a rule, play back, as this enables him to judge the direction and extent of the spin. Such vast improvement has taken place in cricket grounds during the last few years that the old-fashioned "shooter" is practically a thing of the past. Still, this generally fatal ball is occasionally met in club cricket.

"Driving"

In hitting a ball hard, or "driving" it, to use the recognised expression, you have by this time been tutored with patience enough to render you so far a perfect batsman, but you still have much to do before you can hope to reach the end of your journey. You have yet to learn the art of "cutting," as the action of hitting a ball by means of the wrist is usually denominated. You have still to learn one of the most effective hits in the possession of an expert batsman, and you can never hope to attain real success unless you have to some extent mastered this great necessity. Much of the usefulness of this hit depends obviously on the batsman's strength of wrist, but even with this faculty no great success can be achieved unless the eye be quick and the judgment ready to time the ball well as it rises from the ground. The secret of long hitting is "quickness." It will be found well to time the ball accurately, and then hit it with a quick stroke from the wrists. The ball travels fast from the bat, and nearly all the big hitters of the present day use this stroke. It has the advantage of conserving their energy.

"Cutting"

There are two methods of cutting, known respectively as the "forward cut" and the "late cut," though the latter is the more elegant. On the other hand, in modern first-class cricket, it is regarded as too dangerous on account of swerving bowling, and

it has been almost given up. The forward cut resembles more the ordinary drive to the off, with a slight infusion of wrist, and indeed at times it puzzles the most learned observers whether to characterise those hits that pass just in front of point as cuts or drives. You cannot mistake the true cut, though, for it is different in every way, and, moreover, its own special brilliance prevents the possibility of its identification or confusion with any other stroke (Plate 6). Watch any batsman who has acquired eminence, and it will not be long before you see the ball spinning through the slips with a velocity that you could hardly believe it capable of. If you have taken the trouble to watch minutely, you will have discovered the precise method in which this graceful stroke was accomplished, and you will be able to try a little of the same species of stroke on your own account. You will find that it will take time to achieve, just as surely as many other lessons that seemed as simple; you will have to work with energy, and continue resolutely until you have overcome the difficulty. If you can learn at all from written precepts, you will do well to study the position that I give. Take notice that in this hit the relative uses of the two legs are reversed. To realise the cut properly you will have to make your left leg the pivot instead of the right, as is usual in most of the ordinary hits, and the right will have to be used, as occasion requires, to promote the correct timing of the ball. You will have necessarily to follow, as it were, the course of the ball, or rather to face it as you are in the act of hitting. Much of the secret of cutting consists in the judgment with which the ball is timed, and a few trials will convince you of the correctness of this assertion. If your eye and mind act well in concert, you need have little fear of failure, and practice will further enable you to make sure of your aim. It may be that you will never be so proficient as some who have become almost representative batsmen by reason of this one hit; for to cut brilliantly demands that you should be able to calculate the time and rise of the ball to the veriest nicety; and flexibility of wrist is required rather than the possession of anything like herculean strength. It is a stroke, none the less, that you should cultivate and endeavour to master, although there are reasons why even the cut should be administered with caution and never abused.

A large number of the leading batsmen now cut behind point by stepping forward and slightly across the wicket with the left leg, and then bringing the bat sharply down on the ball just as the latter is passing the stumps. They claim for this stroke that, as they get over the ball, there is less likelihood of being caught out from it than from the more orthodox late cut.

You will find here that a heavy bat will seriously interfere with the success of your efforts, so do not be misled by the idea that an addition of an ounce or two avoirdupois will give you any advan-

tage over the rest of your fellows. In cutting you want a bat that you can raise with ease, not one that will cause the tendons of your wrist to ache for a week afterwards. You want a bat that you can command, so that you can slide your hands, if required, to the very end of the handle, for you will discover that sometimes you get a ball so wide that your fingers itch to smite, even under the direst risks, and your hands will insensibly glide along the handle until you have got the bat stretched to its farthest limit. It is the ball just outside the off stump, though, that you will find most available for cutting; and if you time it correctly you will marvel at the rapidity with which it glides away, twisting like a serpent, and leaving behind it a track such as no other style of hit has the power of producing.

There is a great consolation for you in learning this same secret of hitting, for if your physical powers be less marked than those of many of your fellows, you will not be placed on any inequality in this respect. Some of the most noted instances of famous cutting have been made by batsmen of insignificant stature, so that you need not be deterred by any want of muscularity.

The secret of hard hitting is "timing," which is the art of producing the greatest effect with the least apparent effort. Time the ball, then, so that you can calculate its course with sufficient certainty to know that it will bound well to the off; you will instinctively draw back as if you were preparing for the first attitude in fencing, and the bat will be raised up, straightened horizontally, instead of perpendicularly, as in the common order of events. You had better allow the ball to pass you rather than be anxious to anticipate its arrival. If you let fly too soon you are liable rather to retard than assist its progress, and unless the ground is such that the ball comes accurately to you, there is a great likelihood that you will find yourself placed in the ignominious position of succumbing to the dexterity of the fieldsman at point. Do not forget to hit with the blade of the bat turned slightly downwards, if you wish the ball to skim along the ground instead of soaring to the sky. If you fulfil this injunction, and wait well for the ball, timing it with any degree of accuracy, you will have the satisfaction of witnessing the ball glide on behind point, with a velocity that seems inexplicable.

Striking

Possibly the earliest ball in the experience of a cricketer is that which is generally known as the "half-volley"—the easiest, provided that your bat be not out of the perpendicular. You must understand the half-volley proper to consist of a ball pitched so far up to the batsman that he can reach it easily, without inconvenience, as it rises from the ground. It is the most brilliant, the most effective, the most manly of all hits, if you have acquired the art of hitting it as it should be hit. You can put every particle of

strength at your disposal into the manipulation of the half volley, and the firmer the stroke and the more accurate the timing, the greater the success that will attend your inspiration.

But a young player had better refrain from the hit altogether, and be content with playing the ball, unless he can make good terms for himself. If you have made up your mind, and are bent on striking, get your body well set, so as to give a good swing to the bat, and avoid irresolution, of all things. A determined hit will often prevent a downfall, even if the ball should be thoroughly miscalculated, when a tamer course would lead to inevitable ruin. The same remark applies equally to the half volley, whether it be on the off stump, straight to the centre, or directed towards the leg stump, though the circumstances may have to be slightly altered. The ruling principle is alike in each instance, that the ball should not be hit otherwise than at a certain height of the bat. Avoid hitting it too low on the face of the bat, for much of its rebound will be lost, unless it is allowed to get slightly off the ground.

Be equally cautious, on the other hand, against its contact with the bat above a certain height, as if it be straight there is a chance that it may be seized by the bowler, or if it be on the leg stump, that in hitting you may give an opportunity for a catch to short-leg. The intermediate course will be most serviceable, as you will soon discover. If you time the ball so that it meets the bat at about one foot from the bottom of the blade and just as it has risen about six inches from the ground, you will instil terror into your foes by the venom of your hits. Only do not jump to the conclusion, in a moment of self-satisfaction, that every ball is a half-volley, or your fate will be sealed. You will have another such opening soon enough, if you wait patiently and resist temptation.

Perhaps the greatest of all curses to a young batsman is the possession of any distinguished powers of hitting. The necessity of acquiring the great secret of successful defence in early life cannot be over-estimated, so continue until you have effectually secured this necessary accomplishment. If, though, you are a hitter, take a word of advice, too, in season. If you do elect to step out of your ground to slow bowling, be sure you do not do so in a half-hearted fashion. For therein lies the danger of being stumped. Jumping out to the bowling is a bold policy, and against the extra slow bowler is the most successful method to adopt, but unless the batsman goes far enough out to get at the pitch of the ball he is not likely to trouble the bowler for any lengthened period. You should be careful, too, to play in a match the same as you do at practice, or rather to make your practice really a preparation for the important necessities of the match itself. If a batsman makes his strokes when practising as methodically as he would do if he had eleven opponents in the field, he may confidently anticipate making runs when the serious struggle comes. It is obvious that any injudicious policy

in unsettling the tactics of a batsman should be strictly discouraged, and yet there are many who do nothing but hit wildly and recklessly when they are receiving practice from a bowler, thus unfitting themselves altogether for the urgent requirements of any important contest. Such tactics as the above should be rigidly avoided. In practice there should be the same studious adherence to rule and precept, or what good is to be derived therefrom? You are likely enough to make a mistake, from momentary forgetfulness, in a match, and you will not then have the same chances of escape when there are eleven fieldsmen all eager for your wicket.

RUNS

To some few of us the very mention of a stolen run comes with a sort of pleasant fragrance of the past, for no more pleasurable sensation than that of stealing a run, when runs are wanted, and the whole field is on the alert, is known to the cricketer. You have to pit your judgment against that of the enemy, your activity against the agility of eleven antagonists, and all honour to you if you are on the right side. You will be surprised to find what you can do in the way of running between the wickets when your powers are put to the test. To a good judge there is nothing more distressing than the listless dawdle that seems to actuate the movements of certain batsmen when they go to the wickets, nothing more painful than to see them stand in their ground stiff as statues, motionless as sentries, instead of aiming to assist their side by the attainment of runs far from impracticable. Do not be misled because you see batsmen of any pretension saunter and stroll between the wickets, as if the whole game were a business to be performed with as little trouble as possible, instead of an exercise to encourage the use of every limb and the development of all the muscles. You should regard the loss of every possible run as an offence that should receive condign punishment. If you have a chance of getting in with a partner who understands you, and will act in concert with you, runs which seemed impracticable will lose all their difficulty, and you will find that the distance between the wickets reduces itself wonderfully the better the sympathy between your partner and yourself. You seem to enter into the spirit of the game itself when you see how complete is the understanding that prevails between the two comrades. No loud shout of "Come!" or "Run!" to make the whole field on the alert, but a tacit understanding that is better than whole volumes of advice. It is just a shake of the head, or a nod, and the thing is done.

Directly the ball has left the bowler, be ready to make as much of your way as is prudent towards the ground of your partner. Do not be over-anxious, and avoid as much as possible any movement that may be likely to give the enemy an idea of your intentions; but be vigilant as well as resolute, and you cannot fail. You will

see good runners invariably effect a run when the batsman has played the ball just in front of his bat, and the whole crowd applauds vigorously, as if the feat had been one of great difficulty, instead of one of comparative ease. You will find often that the runs which appear most hazardous are free from all risk, and this is a notable instance. You have backed up well, and are midway between the wickets, so that it is easy for you to reach the batsman's end before the wicket-keeper can turn to assail your stumps. So far then you, at least, are safe, while your partner, provided that he act well in concert with you, has divined your intentions, and is well on his way towards the end that you have left, to the annoyance of the wicket-keeper, who either fumbles the ball or fails to get it in time, or, worst of all miseries, makes a shot at the wicket, with the likelihood of assisting your score materially by the aid of an over-throw. Remember, above all things, that in running the man who hesitates is lost. It is of no value to you to learn afterwards that you might have saved yourself if you had only made up your mind at first, either to stay in your ground or to run at once, instead of vacillating between the two courses, to your certain ruin. There is no midway passage open to you, as a rule. You must either run or give your partner a decisive word of command, so that he may be able to act on your order at once.

You will have to use your own discretion in many cases, for one fieldsman will place you in danger when you may be safe with all the rest of the side. You will have to make up your mind according as the ball is travelling, slowly or with speed, into the hands of the fieldsmen. There is nothing more pleasing to good batsmen, or, on the other hand, more likely to tantalise and demoralise the whole field, than a run made when the ball is slowly rolling along on its way to mid-on. There is no surer run for you if you back up well; there is not the slightest risk in your own case, while your partner can presume on the same immunity, as the player who picks up the ball cannot possibly turn round to assail his wicket. You must be careful, though, not to use words that may be misunderstood when you call for a run. If you decide on not running, you will do well to communicate by means of the usual negative, "No!" or if bent on a run, signify as briefly as possible your intention, with the word "Run!" You must be on the alert, with your gaze always fixed on the ball, or you will lose many a run that is quite possible. It is ridiculous sometimes to see the chances that are allowed to escape, even by the best batsmen in the best matches. You will see players jog along between the wickets with their backs turned to the ball, as if to effect one run alone was a feat arduous enough of itself, without having to expose themselves to the trouble of effecting a second. You can never tell what may occur if you "run the first run sharp." By good running you may secure runs that seem utterly impossible to get, since the bowling is well on the wicket.

You have to help your side, and you can materially benefit the cause by training yourself to be a good judge of runs. You will have to back up always on the assumption that the ball may possibly be muffed by one of the fieldsmen, even though they are the most expert representatives of the art. It is not enough that you should rely on the known skill of any special player, and count on the quick return of the ball, for a blade of grass or uneven piece of ground may entirely divert its course, and you will then have the dissatisfaction of learning that you have lost a run. You really cannot estimate the disastrous effects that may happen to a side even from one of these runs when the game is at a critical point and every nerve is being strained to prevent the better of the two batsmen who are in from securing the ball. You do not know how severe is the agony of a bowler at finding his analysis spoiled again and again by the achievement of these same sharp runs, with the possibility of overthrows to make matters still worse.

Stealing runs demoralises any fielders, and a large number of matches have been won by these short runs. You will have to be cautious, though, and careful not to overdo matters, or you will fail ignominiously instead of succeeding as you ought to succeed. You will have to use your discretion in running to certain fieldsmen; and beware how you run to a left-handed man, or your fate will be speedy! Nor is it wise or judicious to over-run your ground, as you will see many do, passing yards behind the wicket instead of planting their bat just within the crease, and turning at once in the hope of another run. You will soon be impressed, too, with the benefit of running with your bat well in front of you, and near the ground, especially at the finish, as by this means you will gain many a yard when it comes to the question of a close run. Lastly, do not over-run yourself, but take time to recover your breath, and do not let your eyesight suffer merely to effect a single run. Remember, further, that if you hit the ball in *front* of the wicket it is *your* business to judge the run; your *partner's* if the ball is hit *behind* the stumps. Above all, do not forget that both your partner's wicket and your own are worth more than one run. There are too many ways of losing your wicket for you to allow an ill-judged run to assist your opponents in getting rid of your own side.

BOWLING: GENERAL HINTS

If you are under the impression that you have mastered the art of bowling because you have gained a certain amount of mechanical precision in directing the course of the ball, you are very much mistaken. You must banish for ever the notion that precision is all that is required to become a great bowler, or you will have wasted much time and labour that might have been more profitably spent. To secure eminence as a bowler needs gifts that all do not possess, as well as a degree of nerve that practice and experience can alone

produce. You need patience and resolution, as you well know, to become a good batsman; but you require, in addition, a keen perception, and a readiness to discover the weak points of your adversaries, or you will never mature into a bowler of the highest rank. You can pick bowlers by scores who can pound away without flagging, and give you excellent practice, but you are totally unfitted for the exigencies of a match, by reason of the same monotonous action, and the entire absence of anything like variety in either pitch or pace.

It is not difficult to deliver one ball out of six that would prostrate one or more of the stumps against which you have to direct your attack, but you want much more than that before you have passed your primary examination in the school of bowling. It is not always the fastest ball that is the most successful, nor is it the best balls that are the most likely to secure the downfall of a well-qualified batsman. Still, you must have thoroughly grounded yourself in the rudiments of the art, and gained at least a modicum of confidence, before you can venture to think of experimenting on your own account.

Do not be misled with the idea that it is the bad bowling that succeeds, or you will have utterly misconstrued the meaning of these remarks. What is meant is that the head of a bowler will often avail as much as, or perhaps more than, his arm, and that study will help materially to improve your position as a bowler. Remember that a bad ball is as useful as a good ball *at the proper time*. You will find it a less easy task than you suppose to secure facility in guiding the course of the ball, so be cautious, and do not disparage the advice of those who have plodded cheerfully over the same road. You must possess patience and perseverance, too, or you had better make up your mind to give up the quest as hopeless. It is not sufficient to take the ball up once and again at lengthy intervals, but you should make bowling an absolute study. You must be prepared to adhere to fixed principles, moreover, or you will seriously hinder your progress. Do not follow the pernicious example that is often set to young bowlers, and tear away until you are too fatigued to lift your arm or move a muscle. It is essential that you should feel your way steadily, or you will find yourself gradually transforming what should be a pleasure into an annoyance, as well as pain. You must husband your strength until you have become hardened to the exertion, or you will learn to your cost that you have overtaxed your powers beyond hope of recall. If you are bent on becoming a really useful bowler, you will do more good by bowling for a short time, with occasional spells of rest, than by labouring on until your arm is tired, or your hand so benumbed from stiffness as hardly to feel the hold of the ball.

There must be some little spot between the line of the wickets more vulnerable to a batsman than any other. You will have to

direct your aim at this, though obviously you will have, in an absolute contest, to alter your tactics and vary your bowling as occasion requires, to trade on the exposed weakness of any special batsman. When you have so far progressed as to be able to maintain a continuous fire on this debatable ground, you can be sure of further success. You can easily make the precise place well defined by depositing a piece of paper on the ground, so as to prevent all chance of misdirection, and you will soon value the utility of having this distinctive mark. You will, first of all, have to master the power of holding the ball completely under control, before you can aim at higher flights; and this practice of accustoming yourself not to bowl without having some definite object for your target will help you materially.

Do not over-bowl yourself at the outset, but try your strength with a low delivery, and a pace that will not tire or fatigue you. You will find at first that you will have some difficulty in pitching the ball far enough, though the distance does not seem very great until you have tried. You had better do anything than retain that fault, for short bowling is the worst of all, and even one long hop in an over is a fatal mistake that you must seek to overcome at all hazards. You will assist your future prospects, too, more than you can imagine, by selecting a neat and easy style of delivery. It may be that you have already formed a habit in this line that you cannot well eradicate, and in this case the advice may come a little too late. It is certain that the more easy and less exhausting the style of action, the better the chance of a bowler retaining his skill for any length of time. If you have, unfortunately, contracted the habit of bowling spasmodically, without the measured steady swing that should mark the movements of a first-class bowler, you can hardly hope to last, although you may perchance electrify the world for a few brief seasons.

You have been fortunate, then, let us suppose, in choosing a style of action that will be of permanent use to you, and you feel that you can bowl without contracting your muscles or cramping the play of your limbs. So far you have done well enough, but you will have to be careful, too, that you do not vary the action, even in practice, and that you adhere unflinchingly to the method that you have decided to adopt. It is essential that you should endeavour to make at least this part of your study mechanical, and that you should never allow yourself to be tempted into conflicting habits that will certainly mar for ever your chances of distinction as a bowler. Do not be lured into the error of bowling even one ball on any other terms, for you can hardly guess the importance that may attach to the slightest relapse from the usual routine. Commence slowly, at a pace that will serve to give you confidence, instead of aiming at once at the accomplishment of a lightning speed that will inevitably bring you to grief.

Do not indulge in any fanciful contortion in the way of delivery, but keep your body as upright as possible, and endeavour as much as you can to present your full face to the batsman when you are about to set the ball on its way. You will have to keep the opposite wicket entirely in your line of sight, or you will fail, as does the billiard player who diverts his gaze from the ball. Forget, to a certain extent, that you have the ball in your hand, and think only of the stumps that you have to attack, and you are sure to fall into a settled gait as well as an action that is likely to become habitual.

You must train, as in batting, your hand and eye to act in concert if you are keen and enthusiastic in your pursuit of bowling.

It will do you infinite good to note the pace and style of celebrated performers with the ball, and you will see for yourself the almost mechanical perfection that practice and strict adherence to fixed principles can produce. You can derive a useful lesson from noticing the absolute ease of their movements in contrast with the laborious and stilted style of others, and you will recognise the value of the advice of maintaining one undeviating action at all times and under all circumstances.

"The Spin"

You have by this time made your selection, and have profited so far by the instructions as to have fallen into a style of action that has become habitual by reason of persistent practice. If so, you have done well, and mastered at least the most difficult of the early rudiments of the art. You have grounded yourself already in the more mechanical branches of the pursuit, so that now you will be able to devote your attention to the scientific application of your powers, and reach even to experiments. You will have to learn how best to hold the ball, for so much depends on its course after leaving your hand that every possible advantage in the manner of holding has carefully to be studied. It is obvious that most of the rotatory tendency which proves so effectual in the case of some bowlers is owing to the method in which the ball is held when it leaves the hand, so that no chance should be allowed to escape in this direction.



Fig. 6. - Holding the Ball for a "Spin"

There are some who deem it to their advantage to hold the ball in the palm of the hand, but the plan is injudicious, and will in no way assist the object in view.

If you come into close quarters with a bowler cunning in device, you will find that he has quite a tight grasp of the ball (Fig. 6), allowing the tips of the fingers to touch the seam, in order to impart the greatest amount of "spin," on the assumption that the fingers have the chief power in ruling the delivery. You will require something more than a mere facility for accuracy of bowling when you have to meet first-class players, so that you had better make all the necessary

preparations as you advance, instead of having to retrace your steps to recover your losses: What you want is the talent for imparting to the ball a spin that will cause it to twist, jump, and take the greatest advantage of any inequalities of ground. It may be at times that there are fields so level, turf so well cultivated, and surface so perfect, that the best bowler cannot infuse the slightest break into a ball, but it is very rarely that you will be unable to discover something that will help you in giving impact to the ball. Certain peculiarities of action no doubt tend to enable bowlers to procure the desired spin, but generally it may be said to emanate from a certain mechanical combination of arm, wrist and fingers. The bowler of "googlies" (Plate 6), as they are called, has so mastered the art of concealing his method of imparting spin to the ball that the batsman is unable to tell which way the ball will break until after it has pitched. You cannot hope, though, to fathom the mystery of this rotatory motion from any written treatise, so you must judge for yourself as much as possible by practical experiments, probing, if within your reach, by the tuition of a well-qualified master. You can do much to help this spin if you study the matter thoroughly, for it is marvellous sometimes to witness the eccentric vagaries incidental to the course of the ball when it reaches the ground, propelled from the hand of a bowler who has reached perfection in this matter. It is only, too, by care that you will be able to retain this twisting delivery, for overwork has the inevitable effect of deadening the feeling at the fingers' ends, and when this sensitiveness has gone, a bowler may be said to have reached the first step on his downward course.

"It often surprises me," remarks a bowler well known in his day, "that there are not more bowlers of merit, as I am quite sure a large majority of cricketers, both gentlemen and players, could bowl well enough to be of use in a match if they would only try. Of course, to become a skilful bowler requires much study, and I can safely say, from experience, that it is an art that must be cultivated for many a long day. Any cricketer possessed of a hand and eye quick enough for fielding, as well as a sufficiency of intelligence to bat well, cannot fail to bowl if he will only give the art of bowling some time and patience. As far as I know, the art of bowling lies in managing the body in such a manner as to walk or run a few paces to the crease, and then, having the body and arm well balanced, to let the ball leave the hand at the *proper moment*. The actual movement is purely mechanical, dependent on precision, and the secret of success is, first, a true love of sport, and secondly, great patience and practice.

"The spin of the ball, and the judgment requisite to puzzle a batsman, are matters entirely of experience, and can be learned only after the bowler has acquired the art of hitting the stumps with certainty. I do not think—the exceptions only serve to prove the

rule—that the very fast or tear-away bowling is calculated to finish a match on a very good ground, unless the bowler is very superior, unless he can make the ball cut across the wicket, or unless the ball shoot from wet or other causes. Fast bowling is very expensive at times, in byes, and snicks through the slips; and a lucky player, by just turning the ball, may score many runs without any skill on his part. My idea is that the bowler should bowl well within his strength, and should have as his main aim the attempt to weary the batsman's patience by a well-sustained attack. He must expect to be punished occasionally, but it is often the first sign of hitting in the play of a batsman that serves to encourage the bowler. Obviously, the first two points to be studied are precision and a certain command over the ball. Look at some of the best bowlers of the North of England, and consider how they have reached distinction. Why, I believe that the supremacy of the North over the South in the matter of bowling is due solely to the persistent study the Northerners give to the cultivation of the art. In the Northern and Midland Counties, perhaps from indirect causes, bowling is greatly fostered. I have in some parts myself seen colliers and labourers of all kinds, during their leisure hours, at practice with a ball at a stone or piece of coal on the road or on the moors, no matter where, so long as they can have something whereat to bowl, at the regulation distance of twenty-two yards; and the consequence is that they can almost all bowl with accuracy, though I am inclined to think that they very unwisely consider perfection to be represented by swiftness of pace, and do not devote sufficient time to the cultivation of skill in slow and medium-paced delivery."

Fast Bowling

You will find hundreds of batsmen who can play fast bowling well, but few who excel when pitted against men whose pace is so slow as to allow the batsman ample time to deliberate and fidget himself into a glorious state of irresolution. This may be taken as a general rule. Still, there have been exceptional instances, such as Messrs. F. R. Spofforth and S. M. J. Woods, though the first named captured most of his wickets with a medium-paced ball that broke back quickly. If there were placed in opposition to you any bowler above the ordinary medium pace, you would feel at home, because you would have every now and again a ball that would enable you to give full scope to that favourite cut of yours, or a half-volley that you could play forward for three or four, with the assurance that the fieldsmen were not placed deep, as they are to accommodate the requirements of a slow bowler. You can play many a fast bowler, as you say yourself, "for a week," because you have acquired the requisite amount of mechanical proficiency to enable you to time the ball with the proper degree of accuracy; and the very fact that the ball so seldom deviates from the direct road from wicket to

wicket imparts to your play a feeling of confidence which the peculiar gyrations of the ball, as it travels from the arm of a slow bowler, would seriously disturb. You are more likely to score, too, from fast bowling, and that is a feature that you are not likely to forget. One lunge, and you may make a hit for four, because the fieldsmen happens to be just a foot out of the mark, and the ball travels at too rapid a pace for him to secure it at the right moment. You know, too, that in pitch the excellence emphatically rests with the slow bowler, as his very action renders him less likely to tire; and to maintain a good pitch in fast bowlers requires a rare amount of muscular power.

Medium Bowling

You are a medium-paced bowler, then, and you have reached a certain degree of accuracy in your own little sphere. You will have to give your attention now chiefly to studying the special differences that you may happen to note in the play of the several batsmen against whom you are contending. You have already learned to acquire proficiency in the method of delivering the ball, but you have still to discover the best means of applying your talents. You have to use your head, and to pit your perceptive faculties against those of many a different foeman, so that you have yet a lesson which must not be overlooked. In fact, it resolves itself now entirely into a question of your brains against those of the batsman, and it is your own fault if you fail to succeed. You will have many varieties of opposition to encounter, so that you will have need of all your discrimination. See for yourself the various points that a bowler has to study, and you will be able to estimate the difficulties under which he labours. He must be patient, above all things, and not easily disheartened, or he may as well abandon all hope of distinction. You will find few bowlers who can maintain their length unaltered after being hit about; but it is essentially this class of resolute players who do become famous, by means of the sheer dogged determination to succeed. You can no more rely on the bowler who collapses because short-slip allows a ball to pass between his legs, or because point, after fanciful contortions, gets so close to the ball as to make the spectators believe that it was a possible catch, than you can on his equally unfortunate fellow, who is a very demon at the practice nets, but the veriest impostor when called upon to display his form in a match.

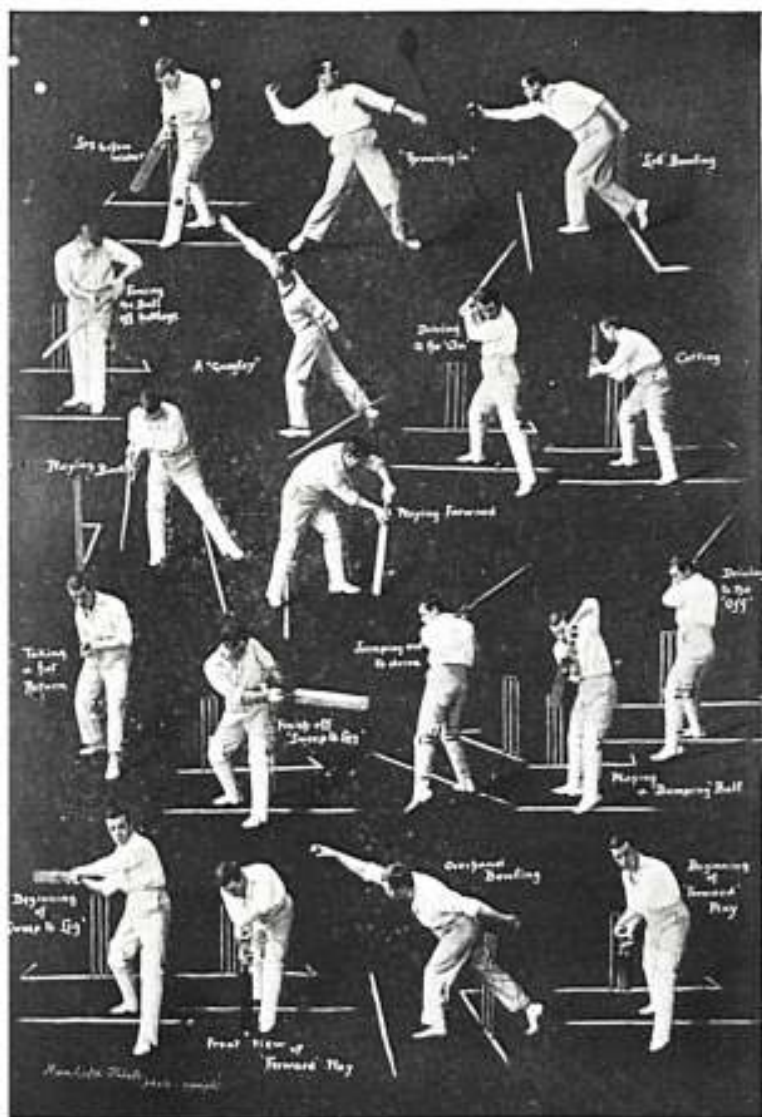
If you aim at being an absolute expert in the way of bowling, you will have to cultivate other faculties than those with which the mere possession of a certain amount of bodily strength has endowed you. The science of batting has improved so much, and developed so marvellously with the proportionate improvement in the condition of cricket grounds, that the old order of bowling has changed in a surprising manner, giving place to a new and vastly more intelligent state of things. Indeed, to be a skilful bowler

nowadays requires one to use his head far more than in the past, when village commons were rough, and protective armour had not yet been invented to protect the batsman against any serious risks and make his position at the wickets as pleasant of tenure as possible. You will have more than one style of batsman to meet, so that you must have all your wits about you, to adapt yourself to differing circumstances. Occasionally you meet a batsman who will not be tempted to hit, and you simply bowl well up to him, with a lot of spin on the ball, so that he may get himself out by eventually making a miss-bit. "Hurricane" hitters, too, should be fed in the same way.

You will find that practice will soon initiate you into the special weakness of every batsman with whom you have to cope, provided that you only take the trouble to learn, and are gifted with an ordinary amount of discernment. There will occasionally be times when you are punished severely; for it happens that a batsman has his own peculiar likes and dislikes, and your bowling may unfortunately come under the former category. You may have tried every ruse common to the general run of bowlers, and without success. You have varied your pitch with consummate care, but still the play of the batsman has been varied too. You have altered your tactics then, and made the ball break from off to leg, instead of from leg to off, but with the same ill-fortune; and your artifices seem to be divined by intuition. In the light of a last hope, you have then determined to give a ball that shall be utterly devoid of break or spin, and it has sped straight from your arm into the wicket of your foeman. You have always a material advantage over your adversary, in that he has at the most only a few seconds to deliberate on his movements, while you may have, in addition, a great help in any inequality of ground.

If you are wise, you will not continue to bowl when you have found that the batsman has thoroughly mastered you, but ask your captain to let you take a spell of rest, and return invigorated to the attack. Such a course will involve some self-sacrifice, for the best bowlers often feel aggrieved at being taken off, even when they are practically ruining their side. It is common enough to hear such a one complain of being so treated, and give this of all reasons—that he felt certain he would secure a wicket in an over or two!

You must be cautious, above all things, to keep your bowling well up to the batsman, or your chances will be very scarce. It may be that now and then you suffer, but, on the other hand, you are little likely to do any great injury to the batsman, unless you do preserve something more than a short pitch in your bowling. Remember that you have ten men to help you in the field, and that you have to consider them as much as, or even more, than yourself. The perfect condition of cricket grounds nowadays, and the almost painful regularity that marks the course of each ball after the pitch, is



CRICKET: BATTING AND BOWLING

(See pages 61-62)

very much against your chance of hitting the stumps themselves, so that you must utilise your forces as best you can. A far-pitched ball, or what is technically called a "yorker," will often secure the fall of an experienced batsman, before he has been in long enough to get his eye used to the sight, when thousands of short-pitched balls would be treated with contempt. Indeed, with short-pitched balls you lose altogether the great point of vantage that you have over the batsman, in giving him plenty of time to speculate on and determine his movements. Scores of fast bowlers, useful enough when the ground is rough and the ball flies almost perpendicularly from the pitch, are practically valueless on a good and easy wicket, solely because their pitch is so short that every ball comes up easily to the bat and is hit without difficulty, or so far from the point aimed at that it goes an inch or two over the stumps, instead of striking them.

You will learn, in course of time, that the very best batsman has his vulnerable place. Few are without some form of weakness, especially with balls pitched on the leg stump; and this is essentially the blind side, the most favourable for you to attack, if you are able to maintain anything like a continuous fire. Here, though, you must be very careful not to overdo matters by pitching the ball too near the bat, for it is decidedly easier to get rid of a ball well up on the leg stump than one of a lesser pitch. A short-pitched ball, straight on the leg stump, is the most difficult of all for the batsman, as it is the most likely to produce a catch. You will do well to experiment on this point, for, as a general rule, the tendency to straight play is overcome by a succession of leg balls, and the patience of the batsman is exhausted, until he begins to show not only signs of a crooked bat but a desire to hit, whereupon he is inevitably lost. If you find that your opponent has a strong defence, that he plays straight, and is at all stiff or cramped in style, do not maintain a persistent attack at his stumps, but rather tempt him, and encourage him to forsake his prudential tactics. If you have tried him on the off side, and discover that he can hit well in that quarter, or can cut well, as most systematic blockers can, give him one on the leg stump, and dispose the fieldsman, whom you have stationed at short leg, according to the manner in which he meets the new assault. You can do much in all probability by this simple ruse, for a good fieldsman at short leg will still more effectively cramp the movements of the bat; and if he be at all worthy of his onerous post, will be able to adapt himself as well to the requirements of the ball, and help materially the aim of the bowler.

You must remember, too, that you have to rely *greatly* on the assistance that you derive from the ten players who combine to constitute your field, so you will have to be cautious that you dispose them rightly, and that you work harmoniously with them, or you

will be a serious loser yourself. If you are in good accord with them, you will find many a catch made that would otherwise perhaps never have been attempted.

Bowl always with the idea of getting a wicket, not of accomplishing another maiden over. Do not make excuses when you are asked to bowl, that it is not your day, or that the wind is too strong, that the hill is against you, or the ground too heavy for you to stand. Sink all such insignificant devices, and play the game as if it were a noble sport, instead of a mere vehicle for individual aggrandisement.

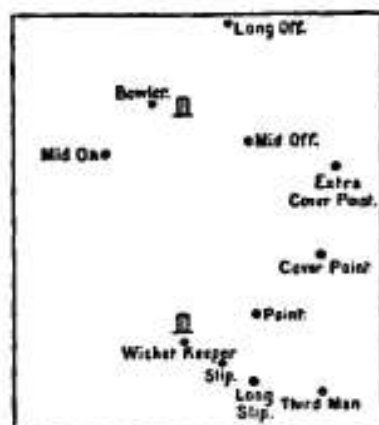


Fig. 7.—Field set on the "Off" Theory

Nowadays most of those who bowl in first-class matches go in for what is termed the "off theory." That is, they pitch a fast ball outside the off stump and make it break away a few inches, so that the batsman, in playing at it, may be caught on the slips.

For this bowling the field is generally set as in Fig. 7. Thus only one man is placed on the on-side, while no fewer than eight men are on the off, and the slightest mistake by the batsman is likely to cost him his wicket.

But the great thing for all bowlers to do is—learn to keep a good length, and careful study and assiduous practice will eventually enable them to make the ball spin as they choose.

FIELDING

In the majority of elementary treatises which have been written on Cricket, there has been little or no allusion made to fielding, which is certainly one of the most important qualifications in a good cricketer. A good bat may be unluckily caught, and a good bowler may not be on the spot for the day; and then, if bad men be in the field, they become mere clogs upon the other men on their side, and do more harm than good. It is not, therefore, by any means a waste of time on the part of a youthful cricketer if he steadily sets to work and learns his duties in the field, by carefully watching the movements of masters in the art. It must be borne in mind, moreover, that fielding is not like many simpler things, picked up in one or two days; a perfect apprenticeship must be served, and the assistance of a quick eye and steady nerve must be enlisted on the tyro's side to bring about success.

Before going through the various places in the field at which

glory can be gained and reputations made, it may be as well to give a few hints upon fielding in general, as they may be useful to beginners. In the first place, it will be universally admitted that the primary object of a man standing at any place is to catch the batsman out or to save runs. But even with this laudable object in view, it is strange to see the awkward manner in which many so-called cricketers set about the task. Often in the case of a high catch they hurry up to the ball in a state of excitement, which prevents them from taking a steady look at it, and judging it properly. Their legs straddle under them, and their hands are wide apart. Holding a catch in such a position is only a matter of chance, and it is frequently the case that the lucky fieldsman is even more astonished at his success than the lookers-on. A golden rule for catching high hits is to get as well under the ball as possible, and judge where you think the ball will pitch.



Fig. 8.—Catching

Keep your wrists almost together on a level with the lower part of your chest, but a little distance away from it, with the palms of your hands facing each other, about eight inches apart, and the tips of the fingers upwards. By this means you will have a sort of box to catch the ball in, and the position of your hands will give you a chance of hugging it to your body, if you do not catch it clean and the ball tries to elude your grasp (Fig. 8). In the case of sharp catches, quickness of eye alone is of avail, and there is generally little time to make elaborate preparations. It therefore necessitates a fieldsman near the wickets keeping a very sharp look-out, or the chance will have been given and missed before he fairly knows anything about it.

Backing up the wicket-keeper, or the bowler, or another fieldsman, in cases where the ball is thrown in or hit to them sharply, is the bounden duty of the careful player, and a conscientious carrying out of this work has saved many a match from being lost. It is not by any means necessary for a fieldsman to wear himself out by too great exertions and running after another man's ball; but the virtue of backing up should never be lost sight of.

The last important point in fielding is throwing-in to the wicket-keeper, and many a good fieldsman in other respects is simply a nuisance to his side from the carelessness of his throwing-in. On all occasions the ball should be thrown in as low as possible, provided it does not roll along the ground, but reaches the wicket-keeper in one or two hops. The perfection of throwing-in consists in sending in the ball without any spin on it, about six inches above

the bails, and in *one hop*. Of course, this is not always possible, but still, many fieldsmen manage to do it pretty often. There is no necessity for throwing-in with all one's might when men are not running, or even if they are, when there is plenty of time to get them out. A violent shot at the wickets is always foolish, and frequently results in an overthrow, whilst a soft return when a hard one is not necessary is an act of consideration to the wicket-keeper, whose hands are often tender from bruises gained at his post.

There are certain rules which apply to all fieldsmen, viz. :—

1. Keep the legs together when the ball is hit straight to you and while you are picking it up.
2. Always try for a catch, however impossible it may seem.
3. Always be on the look-out, and ready to start.
4. Run at top speed, but not rashly, the moment the ball is hit.
5. Use both hands whenever possible.
6. Do not get nervous if you make a mistake.
7. Obey your captain cheerfully and promptly.
8. Never be slack about taking up the exact position assigned to you; and never move about in an aimless, fidgety manner.
9. Return the ball promptly.

Those who have ever seen an Australian team in the field will know the value of good fielding. Several of their players save more runs than an ordinary batsman makes, and their victories are as much the result of smart fielding as of good batting and bowling. Every man knows his work, and he does not cease to try as long as play is in progress.

We will now consider the duties of fieldsmen in their particular positions, beginning with

THE WICKET-KEEPER

for this post is the most important and most difficult. Of course, the bowler is the governing agent as far as fielding is concerned, and there should be a perfect understanding between him and the man behind the stumps. First-rate wicket-keepers are very rare, and good wicket-keeping is very deceptive to the uninitiated. It looks so plain and simple. Every ball is taken easily and without fuss, and one of the chief characteristics of wicket-keepers is their quietness. (See Plate 1.)

The wicket-keeper's chief duties are :—

1. To hold catches at the wicket.
2. To stump batsmen who miss the ball and are over the crease.
3. To run batsmen out when the ball is returned from the fielders.
4. To prevent byes.

In order to hold catches and effect stumpings and runs out, a wicket-keeper must learn to take the ball accurately, and as near the wicket as possible. He must let the ball come into his hands, and not snatch at it, for if the ball bumps hard against his hand it

may rebound and thus be missed. The hands should "give" with the ball as it enters them, as it is more likely to remain in them. A wicket-keeper cannot concentrate his attention too much on the ball. His keenness should never be relaxed, otherwise he may miss a catch or give away unnecessary byes. Still, he should never fret over failures. He should persevere; practise regularly; avoid bad wickets if possible; take great care of his hands; keep his temper; and, above all, he should never practise carelessly.

Point is a position requiring a quick eye and steady nerve as well. He should stand almost on a level with the wicket for fast bowling, but get nearer the bowler for slow bowling. He should not, however, run in needlessly. He should not stand in closer than he can see clearly.

Cover-Point stands farther from the wicket than point, and has almost similar duties to perform. He must bear in mind that there is a tendency in balls coming to him to break towards slip after

they touch the ground.

Long-Leg has often the hardest place in the field for overs at a time, and the variety of different styles in hitting to leg always makes his situation an anxious one. He should be placed rather behind the wicket, except for slow bowling, and move

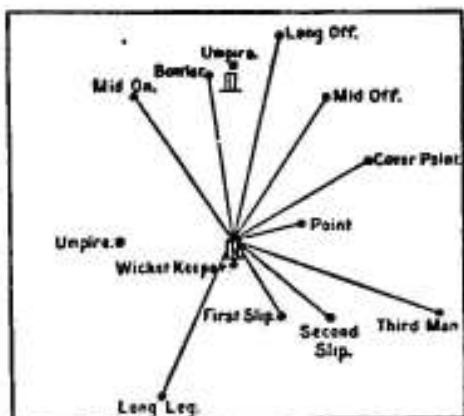


Fig. 9.—Field set for Fast Bowling

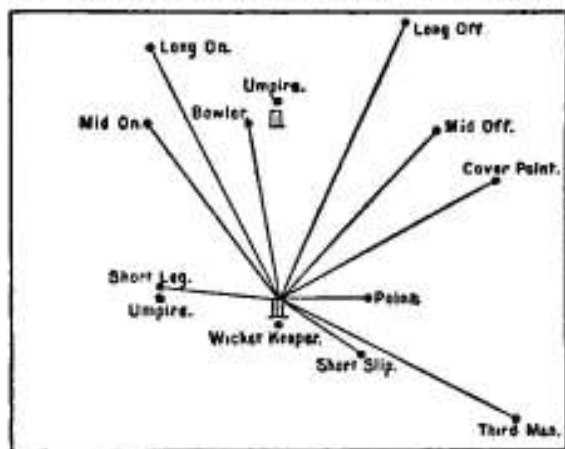


Fig. 10.—Field set for Medium Bowling

his position in the direction of the wicket-keeper in proportion to the increase of a bowler's pace. There is a break on the balls received at long-leg towards the line of the wickets which must be allowed for. When placed square with the wicket, his position is called square-leg.

Slip, too, has a break on the balls he receives, and this, like cover-point's, is towards the line of the wickets. Now that long-stops are done away with, he generally backs up the wicket-keeper as well, and thus saves byes.

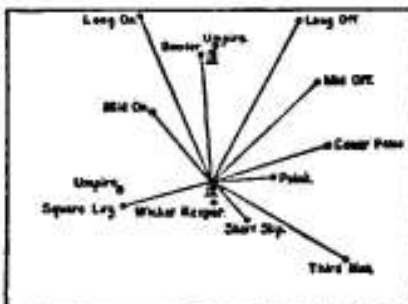


Fig. 11.—Field set for Slow Bowling

Short-Leg has also a break, and his, like long-leg's, is in the direction of the wicket. His position in the field must be regulated by the bowler's pace.

Third-Man.—As the exact position to be occupied by third-man depends upon the state of the ground and the "cutting" ability of the batsman, he should make quite sure of being in the right place.

Should he have any doubts on his point he had better consult the bowler as to whether he is required to be deep or near, square or fine. This is most important, since a good third-man can not only save many runs, but is frequently able to run out a batsman. In the main, the chief consideration in determining his distance from the wicket is his own idea of the distance at which he can prevent single runs being scored. Another part of his duties is to back up point when the ball is cut rather square, and to back up the wicket-keeper on the ball being returned from the on-side. Third-man should bear in mind that the ball will generally come to him fairly awkwardly, since there is always some spin upon it, which acts or not, according as it bites or fails to bite the ground. When the spin does act, the ball breaks from right to left.

Mid-off, as a rule, should be between 25 and 30 yards from the striker's wicket, though he may come in nearer when the wicket is slow or the batsman is not much of a hitter. He should always be able to prevent singles being made, and, furthermore, may at times have to back up extra cover or the bowler. The latter duty becomes imperative when the ball is returned hard, since the bowler, through being on the move, is apt only to half stop the stroke, so that unless either mid-off or mid-on are backing up a run may be scored. Mid-off's chief difficulty is the pace at which the balls, especially rising catches, come to him, and consequently he needs considerable courage and coolness. Oftentimes, also, he may

be able, by extra quickness, to run a man out, so he should always be on the alert, and practise returning the ball sharply and accurately to either end.

Mid-on occupies a somewhat similar position to mid-off, but on the other side of the wicket. As in the case of mid-off, balls hit to mid-on generally come straight towards him or else past him. Sometimes, especially in the case of a "poky" batsman, a fielder is placed at "silly mid-on" or "silly mid-off," only a few yards from the bat. In that case he has to be extra sharp and active, or there may be trouble.

The Long Field.—There are two positions "in the country" known as long-on and long-off. Long-on may be placed anywhere on the on-side of the bowler. He should be a swift runner, safe catch, and a good thrower. The duties of long-off are similar to those of long-on, and require the same qualities.

Short-Slip.—After the wicket-keeper comes short-slip. This position calls for a quick eye and hand, and the man occupying it requires to be always alert and on his toes, ready to spring to either side and use either hand.

The duties of an *Umpire* are to decide upon all disputed questions of catching, stumping, or running out. In cases of catches the umpire at the bowler's end is the one to decide, and in stumping the one at the batsman's end. In running out cases the appeal is, of course, made to the umpire at the end where the wickets are put down. Where any doubt exists the umpire can appeal to his colleague. The umpire at the bowler's end answers all appeals for leg-before-wicket, the other umpire being appealed to only when he is unable to give a decision (*see* Rule 47). The umpire has also to keep a record of the balls bowled in each over, and to call "Over" when the number agreed upon has been bowled. It may be remarked that umpires usually keep their reckoning straight by holding a number of coins or stones in one hand at the commencement of the over, which are passed singly from one hand to the other as each ball is bowled; when all the coins or stones have changed hands "Over" is called. The umpire has also to call "No ball" or "Wide" when it is bowled (these do not count in the over as balls). In the case of the ball striking a player's person and not his bat, and a run being scored, it is a leg-bye, and not an ordinary bye; this the umpire communicates to the scorer by a pre-arranged signal.

The *Scorers* are generally two in number, and their duties are to record the runs obtained, on specially designed scoring sheets. In many cases what is termed an analysis of the bowling is also kept, and this consists of a record of every ball bowled, and the fate that befell it. It is usual to signify a ball that no run is scored off by a dot, and one that is scored off by a figure representing the number scored, and one that takes a wicket by a big W (Fig. 12).

From this diagram it will be seen that Jones has bowled three overs. The first produced 7 runs, viz. 3 from the second ball, 1 from

the fourth, 1 from the fifth, and 2 from the sixth. His second over commenced with a wide (not marked on the analysis, but shown in the scoring sheet), off the second and third balls no runs were made (these being the first two of the six balls to count in the over), then came 1 run, then two balls from which nothing was scored, and then a wicket (marked with a big W). His third over is a "maiden," no

Jones	• 3 • 1 • 2	• • • 1 • w	M				
Smith	M	• • • 1 • •	• 3 • 2	w • • •			

Fig. 12.—A Bowling Analysis

runs being scored from any of the six balls. Smith opens with a "maiden." The first ball of his second over is a no-ball, from the fourth 1 run is scored, and the remaining balls yield neither runs nor wickets. (The no-ball, like the wide in Jones' previous over, does not count as one of the six balls to the over, and is not shown in the analysis.)

The state of the game is usually communicated by the scorers to the public and those concerned by means of what is called a "telegraph." This consists of a blackboard or frame raised some feet above the ground; on this are three rows of hooks, three hooks being on the top row, and two on the middle; on these hooks metal numbers are hung which show the state of the game. The top row shows the total score, the middle gives the number of wickets down, the bottom tells the runs scored by the last man out. It is customary to change the top line every ten runs, and always to rearrange it on the fall of a wicket. The "telegraph" should be diligently attended to, for when left to be looked after by anybody it is usually neglected altogether, and is really in such cases of no use.

The places in the field being dependent on the bowler's peculiarities, we give plans which represent the disposition of the field in fast (Fig. 9), medium (Fig. 10), and slow (Fig. 11) bowling. Such arrangements can be modified to meet the requirements of any special case.

THE LAWS OF CRICKET

As Revised by the Marylebone Club

1. A match is played between two sides of eleven players each, unless otherwise agreed to; each side has two innings, taken alternately, except in the case provided for in Law 53. The choice of innings shall be decided by tossing.

2. The score shall be reckoned by runs. A run is scored:—

1st. So often as the batsmen, after a hit, or at any time while the ball is in play, shall have crossed, and made good their ground, from end to end.

2nd. For penalties under Laws 16, 34, 41, and allowances under 44. Any run or runs so scored shall be duly-recorded by scorers appointed for the purpose. The side which scores the greatest number of runs wins the match. No match is won unless played out or given up, except in the case provided in Law 45.

3. Before the commencement of the match two umpires shall be appointed, one for each end.

4. The ball shall weigh not less than five ounces and a half, nor more than five ounces and three-quarters. It shall measure not less than nine inches, nor more than nine inches and one-quarter in circumference. At the beginning of each innings either side may demand a new ball.

5. The bat shall not exceed four inches and one-quarter in the widest part; it shall not be more than thirty-eight inches in length.

6. The wickets shall be pitched opposite and parallel to each other at a distance of twenty-two yards. Each wicket shall be eight inches in width and consist of three stumps, with two bails upon the top. The stumps shall be of equal and sufficient size to prevent the ball from passing through, twenty-seven inches out of the ground. The bails shall be each four inches in length, and when in position, on the top of the stumps, shall not project more than half an inch above them. The wickets shall not be changed during a match, unless the ground between them become unfit to play, and then only by consent of both sides.

7. The bowling crease shall be in a line with the stumps: eight feet eight inches in length; the stumps in the centre; with a return crease at each end, at right angles behind the wicket.

8. The popping crease shall be marked four feet from the wicket, parallel to it, and be deemed unlimited in length.

9. The ground shall not be rolled, watered, covered, mown, or beaten during a match, except before the commencement of each innings and of each day's play, when, unless the in-side object, the ground shall be swept and rolled for not more than ten minutes. This shall not prevent the batsman from beating the ground with his bat, nor the batsmen nor bowler from using sawdust in order to obtain a proper foothold.

10. The ball must be bowled; if thrown or jerked either umpire shall call "No ball."

11. The bowler shall deliver the ball with one foot on the ground behind the bowling crease, and within the return crease, otherwise the umpire shall call "No ball."

12. If the bowler shall bowl the ball so high over or so wide of the wicket that, in the opinion of the umpire, it is not within reach of the striker, the umpire shall call "Wide ball."

13. The ball shall be bowled in overs of six balls from each wicket alternately. When six balls have been bowled, and the ball is finally settled in the bowler's or wicket-keeper's hands, the umpire shall call "Over." Neither a "no ball" nor "wide ball" shall be reckoned as one of the "over."

14. The bowler shall be allowed to change ends as often as he pleases, provided only that he does not bowl two overs consecutively in one innings.

15. The bowler may require the batsman at the wicket from which he is bowling to stand on that side of it which he may direct.

16. The striker may hit a "no ball," and whatever runs result shall be added to his score; but he shall not be out from a "no ball" unless he be run out or break Laws 26, 27, 29, 30. All runs made from a "no ball," otherwise than from the bat, shall be scored "no balls," and if no run be made one run shall be added to that score. From a "wide ball" as many runs as are run shall be added to the score as "wide balls," and if no run be otherwise obtained, one run shall be so added.

17. If the ball, not having been called "wide" or "no ball," pass the striker without touching his bat or person, and any runs be obtained, the umpire shall call "Bye"; but if the ball touch any part of the striker's person (hand excepted) and any runs be obtained, the umpire shall call "Leg bye," such runs to be scored "byes" and "leg byes" respectively.

18. At the beginning of the match, and of each innings, the umpire at the bowler's wicket shall call "Play"; from that time no trial ball shall be allowed to any bowler on the ground between the wickets, and when one of the batsmen is out, the use of the bat shall not be allowed to any person until the next batsman shall come in.

19. A batsman shall be held to be "out of his ground" unless his bat in hand or some part of his person be grounded within the line of the popping crease.

20. The wicket shall be held to be "down" when either of the bails is struck off, or if both bails be off, when a stump is struck out of the ground.

The striker is out—

21. If the wicket be bowled down, even if the ball first touch the striker's bat or person:—"Bowled."

22. Or, if the ball, from a stroke of the bat or hand, but not the wrist, be held before it touch the ground, although it be hugged to the body of the catcher:—"Caught."

23. Or, if in playing at the ball, provided it be not touched by the bat or hand, the striker be out of his ground, and the wicket be put down by the wicket-keeper with the ball or with hand or arm, with ball in hand:—"Stumped."

24. Or, if with any part of his person he stops the ball, which, in the opinion of the umpire at the bowler's wicket, shall have been pitched in a straight line from it to the striker's wicket and would have hit it:—"Leg before wicket."

25. Or, if in playing at the ball he hit down his wicket with his bat or any part of his person or dress:—"Hit wicket."

26. Or, if under pretence of running, or otherwise, either of the batsmen wilfully prevent a ball from being caught:—"Obstructing the field."

27. Or, if the ball be struck, or be stopped by any part of his person, and he wilfully strike it again, except it be done for the purpose of guarding his wicket, which he may do with his bat, or any part of his person, except his hands:—"Hit the ball twice."

Either batsman is out—

28. If in running, or at any other time, when the ball is in play, he be out of his ground, and his wicket be struck down by the ball after touching any fieldman, or by the hand or arm, with ball in hand, of any fieldman:—"Run out."

29. Or, if he touch with his hands or take up the ball while in play, unless at the request of the opposite side:—"Handled the ball."

30. Or, if he wilfully obstruct any fieldsmen:—"Obstructing the field."

31. If the batsmen have crossed each other, he that runs for the wicket which is put down is out; if they have not crossed, he that has left the wicket which is put down is out.

32. The striker being caught, no run shall be scored. A batsman being run out, that run which was being attempted shall not be scored.

33A. A batsman being out from any cause, the ball shall be "dead."

33B. If the ball, whether struck with the bat or not, lodges in a batsman's clothing, the ball shall become "dead."

34. If a ball in play cannot be found or recovered, any fieldsmen may call "lost ball," when the ball shall be "dead"; six runs shall be added to the score; but if more than six runs have been run before "lost ball" has been called, as many runs as have been run shall be scored.

35. After the ball shall have been finally settled in the wicket-keeper's or bowler's hand, it shall be "dead"; but when the bowler is about to deliver the ball, if the batsman at his wicket be out of his ground before actual delivery, the said bowler may run him out; but if the bowler throw at that wicket and any run result, it shall be scored "No ball."

36. A batsman shall not retire from his wicket and return to it to complete his innings after another has been in, without the consent of the opposite side.

37. A substitute shall be allowed to field or run between wickets for any player who may during the match be incapacitated from illness or injury, but for no other reason, except with the consent of the opposite side.

38. In all cases where a substitute shall be allowed, the consent of the opposite side shall be obtained as to the person to act as substitute, and the place in the field which he shall take.

39. In case any substitute shall be allowed to run between wickets, the striker may be run out if either he or his substitute be out of his ground. If the striker be out of his ground while the ball is in play, that wicket which he has left may be put down and the striker given out, although the other batsman may have made good the ground at that end, and the striker and the substitute at the other end.

40. A batsman is liable to be out for any infringement of the Laws by his substitute.

41. The fieldsmen may stop the ball with any part of his person, but if he wilfully stop it otherwise, the ball shall be "dead," and five runs added to the score; whatever runs may have been made, five only shall be added.

42. The wicket-keeper shall stand behind the wicket. If he shall take the ball for the purpose of stumping before it has passed the wicket, or, if he shall incommode the striker by any noise or motion, or if any part of his person be over or before the wicket, the striker shall not be out, excepting under Laws 26, 27, 28, 29 and 30.

43. The umpires are the sole judges of fair or unfair play, of the fitness of the ground, the weather, and the light for play; all disputes shall be determined by them, and if they disagree the actual state of things shall continue.

44. They shall pitch fair wickets, arrange boundaries where necessary,

and the allowances to be made for them, and change ends after each side has had one innings.

45. They shall allow two minutes for each striker to come in, and ten minutes between each innings. When they shall call "Play," the side refusing to play shall lose the match.

46. They shall not order a batsman out unless appealed to by the other side.

N.B.—An appeal, "How's that?" covers all ways of being out (within the jurisdiction of the umpire appealed to), unless a specific way of getting out is stated by the person asking.

47. The umpire at the bowler's wicket shall be appealed to before the other umpire in all cases, except in those of stumping, hit wicket, run out at the striker's wicket, or arising out of Law 42, but in any case in which an umpire is unable to give a decision, he shall appeal to the other umpire, whose decision shall be final.

48. If either umpire be not satisfied of the absolute fairness of the delivery of any ball, he shall call "No ball."

48A. The umpire shall take special care to call "No ball" instantly upon delivery; "Wide ball" as soon as it shall have passed the striker.

49. If either batsman run a short run, the umpire shall call "One short," and the run shall not be scored.

50. After the umpire has called "Over" the ball is "dead," but an appeal may be made as to whether either batsman is out; such appeal, however, shall not be made after the delivery of the next ball, nor after any cessation of play.

51. No umpire shall be allowed to bet.

52. No umpire shall be changed during a match, unless with the consent of both sides, except in case of violation of Law 51; then either side may dismiss him.

53. The side which bats first and leads by 150 runs in a three days' match, or by 100 runs in a two days' match, shall have the option of requiring the other side to follow their innings.

54. The in-side may declare their innings at an end in a three days' match at any time on the second day; in a two days' match, the captain of the batting side has power to declare his innings at a close at any time, but such declaration may not be made on the first day later than one hour and forty minutes before the time agreed upon for drawing stumps; in a one day match, at any time.

One Day Matches

1. The side which bats first and leads by 75 runs shall have the option of requiring the other side to follow their innings.

2. The match, unless played out, shall be decided by the first innings. Prior to the commencement of a match it may be agreed:—that the over consist of 5 or 6 balls.

N.B.—A tie is included in the words "played out."

Single Wicket

The laws are, where they apply, the same as the above, with the following alterations and additions.

1. One wicket shall be pitched, as in Law 6, with a bowling stump opposite to it at a distance of twenty-two yards. The bowling crease shall be in a line with the bowling stump, and drawn according to Law 7.

2. When there shall be less than five players on a side, bounds shall be placed twenty-two yards each in a line from the off and leg stump.

3. The ball must be hit before the bounds to entitle the striker to a run, which run cannot be obtained unless he touch the bowling stump or crease in a line with his bat, or some part of his person, or go beyond them, and return to the popping crease.

4. When the striker shall hit the ball, one of his feet must be on the ground behind the popping crease, otherwise the umpire shall call "No hit," and no run shall be scored.

5. When there shall be less than five players on a side, neither byes, leg byes, nor overthrows shall be allowed, nor shall the striker be caught out behind the wicket, nor stumped.

6. The fieldsman must return the ball so that it shall cross the ground between the wicket and the bowling stump, or between the bowling stump and the bounds; the striker may run until the ball be so returned.

7. After the striker shall have made one run, if he start again he must touch the bowling stump or crease, and turn before the ball cross the ground to entitle him to another.

8. The striker shall be entitled to three runs for lost ball, and the same number for ball wilfully stopped by a fieldsman otherwise than with any part of his person.

9. When there shall be more than four players on a side there shall be no bounds. All hits, byes, leg byes, and overthrows shall then be allowed.

10. There shall be no restriction as to the ball being bowled in overs, but no more than one minute shall be allowed between each ball.

[These rules have been included by kind permission of the Marylebone Cricket Club.]

CROQUET

In its primary and simplest shape, Croquet was played with eight or a less number of balls, and as many mallets, ten hoops, and two pegs. The pegs were small posts of wood hammered into the ground, so as to leave about eighteen inches of them above it, and round this projecting part were often painted successive rings corresponding with the colours of the balls. For instance: pink at the top, and below it black; then yellow, and next blue; and so on, a dark colour always alternating with a light, whatever might be the order in other respects. Corresponding with the colours on the posts were the colours of the eight balls themselves, which were originally painted all over, so as to resemble the balls used in playing pool on a billiard table. They were of tolerably hard wood, and of a size ranging from hardly more than that of a cricket-ball to twice or even three times as big. When the sides were chosen, the four, or three, or two players on one side selected each their own one of the light-coloured balls, and their opponents in a similar way portioned out those of the darker hue. The hoops were formed of pieces of stout wire, and their width was apt to be altered to suit the fancy of the players; but the space between the two sides of the

hoop was originally from about eight inches to a foot. The primitive mallets were rather flimsy affairs, about five or six inches in the length of the head, with a circumference of eight or ten inches, and having a handle about three feet long.

Year by year improvements were made, the game becoming more difficult in itself, and therefore more interesting. Small hoops were substituted for large

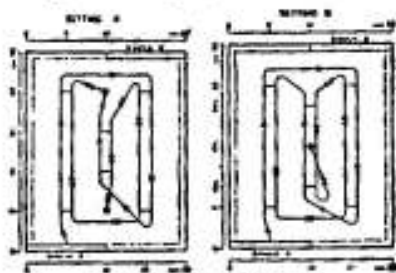


Fig. 1.—Settings for Croquet

ones, and the settings of the hoops were altered, Fig. 1 showing the two settings most generally used.

The following terms refer to

THE USE OF THE MALLET

The *Rush* is hitting a ball very hard, so as to drive it forward to a place from which croquet may be most advantageously taken. For instance, in Fig. 2, if A had to pass through hoop 3 in the direc-

tion indicated by the arrow, it would be best to "rush" B, if so placed, to point 2, from which croquet might easily be taken into



Fig. 2.—The "Rush"

position. The term "drive" has been suggested as better and more expressive than "rush." (Plate 7.)

The *Cut* is really the rush made under very difficult conditions. It has exactly the same meaning as in billiards, viz., hitting a ball very fine in order to make it travel to the side instead of forwards. For instance, if A wanted to pass through hoop 4 in the direction indicated by the arrow, it would be best to cut B to position. (See Fig. 3.)

The *Split* is a stroke used when you desire in taking croquet to move both balls some distance: the position of your own ball determines whether they shall both go equally far, or whether one shall go farther than the others. (Fig. 4.)

The terms "thick" and "thin" are applied peculiarly to this stroke. If you roquet a ball near its side you are said to be laying the ball "thin"; if near the middle, to be laying it "thick."

The *Roll* is a stroke used to propel both balls the same distance.

The *Pass* is a very difficult application of the roll. It is used to roll your own ball much farther than that from which you are taking croquet. (Fig. 5.)

The *Stop* is a stroke resembling as far as is possible in croquet the billiard screw. It is impossible to attain in croquet to that tremendous power of screw which is practicable on a billiard table.

Yet for all this, it is in the power of an experienced player to effect a stroke which savours of a screw, by hitting his own ball as low as possible and

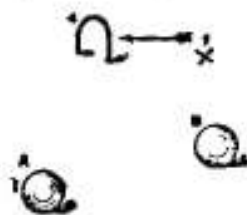


Fig. 3.—The "Cut"

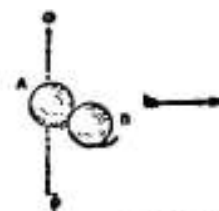


Fig. 4.—The "Split"



Fig. 5.—The "Pass"

full in the centre, with a kind of check of the mallet handle at the moment that it strikes the ball. (Fig. 6.)

"Dead and live ball" are terms applied to the adversary's balls in reference to the sequence of their play; the ball that has been played just previous to your



Fig. 6.—The "See"

turn being called the "dead" ball, as it cannot play again till you have had a turn with both balls, and hence, at present, it may be used by you as an inanimate enemy. The ball that will play immediately after your present turn is called the "live" ball, and must be treated with caution, as being alive to avail itself of any slip of yours.

A player is said to have "command of the balls" when he has made a hit and got all the balls into favourable positions; and he is said to retain that command as long as he continues his turn or leaves the balls well placed for his next ball. The object of finesse is mainly to prevent a player obtaining this command.

A player is said to "get the rush" on a ball when he so places his own ball as to be able to rush the other to the desired spot. He is said to "give the rush" when he either places his partner, so that it can rush some ball favourably next turn, or else places some ball in front of his partner, so that it can be favourably "rushed" by the partner.

A player is said to "pass the break" to his partner when, after making a break, he leaves the balls so that his partner can avail himself of them to make another break.

You are said to "play into your enemy's game" when you strike your ball into that part of the ground where it will be placed favourably for the play of your opponent with his next ball. Players who know little of the game are perpetually doing this, as they think that the main object of the game is to shoot at some ball, forgetting that, if they miss, their ball is going into a position advantageous to their adversary's play.

A ball is said to be "wired," either when it is played so that a wire intervenes between it and the ball to be hit, or when it has been driven close against a wire, so as to make it impossible for it to be struck in any direction except sideways from the hoop.

A ball is said to be "stuck," or "sticked," when one of the sticks takes the place of a hoop in hampering its play.

A player is said to "lay up" near a hoop or a ball when he ends his turn by placing his ball there.

A ball is said to be in hand after a roquet has been made and until croquet has been taken.

A ball is said to be a rover when it has made all the necessary

PLATE 7



CROQUET

(See pages 194-201.)

points but one, i.e. after it has passed through all the hoops, and hit the stick 'opposite to the starting-post; if it hits the other stick, it is *dead*, and can take no more part in the game.

Finesse is strategic management of your ball, by which you apparently waste a turn or two in order to hamper your adversary's play, and secure some future advantage.

Position is the best place suited for enabling you to pass through a hoop in the right direction.

How to Hold the Mallet

To return to the balls and mallets, the reason for treating them first is this: that it is well for any young player, and even for those who are climbing the ladder of success, to appreciate that a great deal is to be done towards attaining to good play with the mallet and balls alone, even if there be not a single hoop within a thousand miles. It must be remembered that though the main object of the game is to pass through hoops, position cannot be gained to pass through a number of these hoops consecutively, or even through one alone, without careful management of the balls. Now this is impossible without an accurate knowledge of the force you are applying with the mallet, the relative speed of the ball over the grass when it is dry or wet, short or long, and the various angles at which the balls divide.

There are various means for insuring a firm grasp of the handle. Some cover it with leather, but this gets slippery in wet weather; others bind it with whipcord, which is liable to blister the hands; others use the octagon-shaped handle, which is supposed to keep the head of the mallet pointed true; others cut notches in the wood; and we all know the familiar rings turned in the handles of the croquet-box mallet. The head of the mallet is made best of box, as it drives well when seasoned properly, and is not so liable to chip at the rim as *lignum vitæ*.

There remains a very important point to notice—the way to grasp the handle so as to insure good play. Here the words of a well-known expert serve admirably as a general principle.

"The hands ought not to be either too close to one another or too far apart; the arms neither too stiff nor too extended, but easy, so that the stroke may be free and unconstrained. The left hand, which is uppermost, ought to have the thumb opposite the middle of the mallet-head, and the thumb of the right should cross a little obliquely over to the tips of the fingers, because if in raising the mallet we do not keep the thumb so crossed, the mallet swerves in falling on the ball. The right hand must therefore hold the mallet as tennis players hold the racquet, for the thumb so clenched with the tip of the fingers is much firmer, and better directs the stroke to where one wishes to go, and gives more strength and ease to the wrist, which ought to work with freedom."

It is the right hand which does the main share of the work. The left hand steadies the mallet when great force is used, and the right hand directs the application of that force by the firm grip which the clenched thumb gives. It is difficult to state any precise rule as to what distance from the mallet-head the hands should be placed.

A few words are now required on the way of holding the mallets for the peculiar strokes we have described. In order to make a "rush" the mallet must be grasped very firmly, and swung rather more from the shoulders than the wrists; that is to say, there must be little elbow work, else the ball will be hit too high, and jump over that which it is intended to drive forward. It is best for this stroke to have your ball as nearly as possible midway between your feet, so that the mallet may be swung like a pendulum, and, as it were, pick up the ball in the middle of its swing, when it is at its nearest point to the ground. It is for getting underneath the ball, in order to insure its travelling, that the slice is chiefly useful. Let the beginner attempt this stroke first at very short distances, and then gradually increase the interval.

The "cut" requires a quick eye rather than any particular hold of the mallet. For the "split," "roll," and "pass," the mallet-handle must be gripped very tightly in all cases, but the method of applying force is quite different; for in the "split" there must be almost always a sharp, crisp blow; in the "roll" a heavy pressing stroke, with the whole weight of the body put into it; in the "pass" a pressing stroke, with the addition of wrist action, only to be learnt by actual instruction from a proficient. In the "stop" stroke the handle ought not to be grasped too tightly—just as in billiards the cue is held rather loosely for screwing—but the fingers must be clenched enough to make the mallet hit the ball full in the centre, or the stroke will be a failure.

HOOPS AND BALLS

Elm and box are the chief woods used for making balls; the latter is very preferable, as being less liable to chip, and heavier, so as to travel more steadily across the lawn and over the inequalities of the turf. This latter is really the best feature of the heavy balls, as the light ones, if struck sharply, jump and hop over others, so as to try one's patience sorely.

Let the mallet be undersized, with an octagon handle of good ash of green-heart, and a head of boxwood. A mallet of about $2\frac{1}{4}$ lbs. will be found a very convenient one so far as weight is concerned.

The balls should be painted in plain colours—light blue, red, black and yellow. The old fashion of having them partially painted with one, two, three or four stripes of one colour is now quite obsolete.

It is best, too, to have netting round the lawn, and thus prevent

the balls continually going off it, and getting dented or otherwise injured.

Hoops should be of round iron from $\frac{5}{8}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ inch in diameter, their width being from $3\frac{1}{4}$ to 4 inches inside measurement. The crown of the hoop should be twelve inches clear of the ground. It will be found best, for many reasons, to have the crown of the hoop at right angles to the legs—a thing insisted upon by the Croquet Association.

Hoops are useful, not only for balls to pass through, but also for punishing adversaries; as there is no more hopeless position for a striker's ball than rammed tight against a wire, or placed so that the hoop effectually prevents the mallet from striking the ball. Such a ball is much more safely disposed of than if it were at the bottom of the lawn, as in the latter case a fluky shot may turn the tables. In the former, any shot at all is almost impossible. It rewards any player to practise constantly the wiring of an adversary's ball.

There is a standard way of ascertaining whether a ball has really passed through a hoop. If there is any doubt as to whether a ball is through, apply the following test:—

First, set the hoop upright, then pass a mallet-head down the legs of the hoop, on the side from which the ball was played; then if the mallet-head reach the ground without touching the ball, the ball is through the hoop; but if it even graze the ball, the hoop must be passed again. The ball, however, is deemed "in position" for that hoop, and need not be struck back before going through at the next stroke.

THE LAWS OF CROQUET

1. *The Game.*—The game of croquet is played between two sides, playing alternate "turns" (Law 23), each side consisting either of one or of two players. Four balls, coloured respectively blue, red, black, and yellow, are played in the sequence named, one side playing blue and black, and the other red and yellow. When a side consists of two players, one partner plays throughout with one ball of the side, and the other partner with the other. The game is won by the side which first makes all its "points" in order (Law 15).

2. *The Ground.*—The ground shall be rectangular, 35 yards in length by 28 yards in width, within a defined boundary, which alone shall of necessity be marked by a continuous line. A flag shall be placed at each corner. The sides of an inner rectangle, parallel to and distant 3 feet from the boundary, are called the "Yard-line," its corners the "Corner Spots," and the space between the yard-line and the boundary the "Yard-line Area." Portions of the yard-line area, 14 yards long, called Baulks A and B, shall be defined as shown on the diagrams (Fig. 1). A ball played from within a baulk may be placed on either of its inner boundaries, but must not overhang any of the boundary lines of the ground.

Eight white pegs, not exceeding $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch in diameter or 3 inches in height above the ground, shall be placed on the boundary, at distances of 3 feet from the corners of the boundary. The square yard formed at

each corner by the two corner pegs, the corner spot, and the corner flag is called a "Corner Square."

3. *Hoops and Pegs.*—The hoops shall be of round iron, from $\frac{3}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ inch in diameter, and of uniform thickness. They shall be 12 inches in height above the ground, vertical, and firmly fixed.

The crown shall be straight, and at right angles to the uprights, which shall be from $3\frac{3}{4}$ to 4 inches apart (inside measurement) from the ground upwards.

The turning peg and the winning peg shall be of wood, of a uniform diameter above the ground of $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches. They shall be 18 inches in height above the ground, vertical, and firmly fixed.

No hoop or peg may be adjusted except by the umpire, or with the consent of the adversary.

4. *Settings.*—The setting of the hoops and pegs shall be in accordance with one of the diagrams (Fig. 1), the order of making the "points" being indicated by the arrows.

In both settings each corner hoop is 7 yards from the two adjacent boundaries. In Setting A the two pegs and the two central hoops are placed along the central line of the ground at intervals of 7 yards. In Setting B the turning peg is omitted, the winning peg is equi-distant from the four corners, and the two central hoops are placed on the central line, 7 yards on each side of the winning peg. (See Fig. 1.)

5. *Mallets.*—The head of the mallet shall be of wood only, except that metal may be used for weighting or strengthening it. The two end-faces shall be parallel, and identical in every respect. A player may not change his mallet more than once during a game, except in the case of bona fide damage.

6. *Balls.*—The balls shall be $3\frac{3}{8}$ inches in diameter, and of even weight, which shall be not less than $15\frac{3}{4}$ oz. nor more than $16\frac{1}{4}$ oz.

7. *Clips.*—The hoop or peg next in order for every ball at the commencement of a turn shall be distinguished by a clip of a colour corresponding with that of the ball. The clip shall be placed on the crown of the hoop until six hoops have been run by the corresponding ball, and afterwards on one of the uprights.

8. *The Striker.*—The player whose turn it is to play, or who has made any stroke called in question, is called the "striker," and the ball with which he is or has been playing any particular turn is called the "striker's ball." Apart from the actual making of the stroke, the striker's partner has the same privileges and is subject to the same penalties as the striker. If the players cannot come to an agreement on any question of fact, the striker's opinion shall prevail, except as provided by Law 35.

9. *Taking Aim and the Stroke.*—The striker shall be deemed to be "taking aim" when he has begun to put himself in position to strike a ball. A "stroke" is deemed to have been made if the striker "move" a ball with his mallet in taking aim, or if he make a forward or downward movement of his mallet with intent to strike a ball. A ball is deemed to have been moved if it leave its position and remain in another. A stroke is concluded as soon as all balls set in motion by it have either come to rest or reached the boundary.

10. *Marking Direction of Aim.*—No mark shall be made upon the ground, either within or without the boundary, for the purpose of guiding the striker in the direction or strength of a stroke; anything placed or held for this purpose must be removed to the satisfaction of the

adversary before the stroke is made. A breach of this law gives the adversary the option of having the stroke made again.

11. *Choice of Lead and of Balls.*—The winner of the toss shall decide whether he will take the choice of lead or the choice of balls. If he take the choice of lead the adversary has the choice of balls, and vice versa. When a match consists of more than one game the privilege of deciding shall follow alternately. The side playing first may commence with either ball of the side.

12. *The Commencement of the Game.*—The first "turn" of each ball shall commence from Bauk "A." As soon as a stroke has been made with a ball it is in "play," and continues to be in play, except when "in hand" (Law 17) or "off the ground" (Law 26), until it has made all its points in order.

13. *Ball in Position for Hoop.*—A ball is "in position" for running its hoop either: (1) If, whether in hand or not, it lie on the "playing side" of the hoop, or (2) If it has previously entered the hoop from the "playing side" and has not subsequently been clear of it or become "in hand." The "playing side" of the hoop is the side from which the ball has to run that hoop in order.

A ball is deemed to be lying on one side of a hoop when no part of it projects beyond the uprights on the other side.

14. *Hoop, when Run.*—A ball has "run" its hoop when, starting from position for that hoop, it has passed through, and finally come to rest on the non-playing side.

In all cases the question must be decided without any adjustment of the hoop; should any player touch the hoop before the question is decided, the other side has the option whether the point shall be scored or not.

15. *A Point.*—When a ball in play runs a hoop in order, or hits a peg in order, it is said to make a "point." The striker may make points for any ball (subject to Law 22), and may make any number of points in a single stroke. Whenever the striker makes a point for his own ball he shall make another stroke (subject to Law 20), unless that point be the winning peg.

If, at the commencement of a turn, the striker find his ball lying in contact with a peg in order, he may, at his option, either score the point without making a stroke, or play his ball in a direction away from the peg, in which case the point is not scored. A ball other than the striker's, lying in contact with a peg in order, cannot score the point.

16. *Placing of Clips.*—In the absence of an umpire the striker is responsible, at the conclusion of his turn, for the correct placing of any clips which have been or should have been moved during that turn. Should he fail to place any clip correctly, and the adversary in consequence make any stroke or strokes under a misapprehension, he shall be entitled to make again any such stroke or strokes, provided that he claim to do so before the commencement of the subsequent turn.

Should the players be unable to agree as to the correct position of any clip, its actual position at the time shall be taken as correct.

17. *Roquet and Ball in Hand.*—The striker makes a "roquet" when his ball in play hits another ball in play, provided that since he last "took croquet" from that ball, he has either made a point for his ball or commenced a fresh turn. On making a roquet the striker's ball immediately becomes "in hand," and remains so until "croquet" is taken. A ball displaced during a stroke by a ball in hand shall not be replaced, and any point made for a ball so displaced shall be scored. Should

a ball in hand be touched by an adversary before the stroke is concluded, the striker may make the stroke again.

18. *Balls Roqueted Simultaneously, etc.*—If the striker roquet two or more balls simultaneously he may "take croquet" from whichever he chooses; he may not take croquet from any other such ball until he has roqueted it again. If the striker roquet a ball and hit a peg in order simultaneously, he may choose whether he will take croquet or score the point.

19. *Taking Croquet.*—The striker, when he has roqueted a ball, shall "take croquet" by placing his ball, or causing it to be placed by his partner, in contact with the ball roqueted, and with that ball only, and then making a stroke. In making the stroke he must move or shake perceptibly the croqueted ball. Should he fail to do so the turn ceases, the balls shall remain where they lie, and any points made by such stroke shall not be scored. Should the striker, if challenged, be unable to assert definitely that he saw the croqueted ball move or shake, it shall be deemed not to have been perceptibly moved or shaken. The striker shall not place his foot on either ball while making the stroke. If, before the stroke is concluded, the striker's ball again hit the croqueted ball, a roquet is not scored, even though the striker's ball has made a point. After taking croquet the striker shall make another stroke (subject to Laws 20 and 22).

20. *Croquet-Stroke and Boundary.*—When the striker takes croquet:—(1) If the striker's ball be sent off the ground (Law 26) without making a roquet the turn shall cease; (2) If the croqueted ball be sent off the ground the turn shall cease, and in this case, if a roquet be made by the striker's ball, both it and the ball roqueted shall remain where they lie (subject to Laws 26 and 29).

In either case any points made shall be scored.

21. *Hoop and Roquet in same Stroke.*—If the striker's ball, being in position for running its hoop, pass between the uprights while still in play, and in the same stroke hit a ball lying on the non-playing side, finally coming to rest on that side, the hoop and roquet are both scored. But should any part of the ball hit project beyond the uprights on the playing side, the hoop is not scored if a roquet be made.

22. *Rover, and Pegging Out.*—A ball which has made all its points in order except the winning peg is called a "rover."

When a rover scores the winning peg in order, it is said to be "pegged out."

The striker must remove from the ground a ball pegged out. Should he continue his turn without doing so, the adversary may require him to make again the stroke immediately following the omission.

The striker cannot peg out a ball, other than his own, unless his ball be a rover at the commencement of the stroke. Should the striker peg out a rover by roqueting it, his turn shall at once cease.

A ball in play displaced by a ball pegged out shall remain where it comes to rest (subject to Laws 26 and 29). Any point made for a ball so displaced shall be scored.

23. *The Turn.*—A "turn" consists of a concluded stroke or a succession of such strokes. A turn begins when the striker has begun to take aim for the first stroke of that turn. In every turn the striker may roquet each ball before making a point, and may do so again after each point made for his own ball.

Whenever the striker scores a point for his own ball, or makes a

roquet, or takes croquet, he shall continue his turn (subject to Laws 20 and 22)

All strokes made after the conclusion of a turn by the player of that turn, and all strokes made at any time by a player playing instead of an adversary, are null and void. Any balls displaced by such strokes shall be replaced.

Should the striker, at the commencement of his turn, be in doubt as to which ball he ought to play, he is entitled to be informed by the adversary. If misinformed he may, at any time before the adversary plays, recommence the turn.

24. *Ball Lying in a Hole.*—A ball lying in a hole, other than one on a corner spot, must not be moved without the sanction of a referee. The striker may move a ball lying in a hole on a corner spot provided that it be his own ball or in contact with his own ball. When moving such ball the striker may place it just clear of the hole, in any direction.

25. *Wiring.*—The striker's ball is said to be "wired" from another ball if (1) Any part of a peg or an upright would impede the direct course of any part of it towards any part of the other ball; or (2) Any part of a peg or hoop so interferes with any part of the swing of the mallet that the striker cannot drive his ball freely towards any part of the other ball. The mere interference of a hoop or peg with the stance of the striker does not constitute wiring.

If at the commencement of a turn the striker's ball be wired from all the other balls, the striker, provided that it was placed in its present position by the stroke of an adversary, may lift it and play it from that baulk which the adversary may select.

If, however, all the balls be still wired from every point in that baulk, the striker may play instead from the other baulk.

26. *Ball off the Ground.*—A ball is said to be "off the ground" when any part of it, at the conclusion of or during a stroke touches or overhangs the boundary, or touches a corner peg or flag. When a ball in play is sent off the ground the striker shall at once place it on the yard-line, directly opposite to the point on the boundary first reached by it (except as provided by Law 27). All balls so placed, and any ball in contact with any one of them, are called "yard-line balls." If any other ball or balls already on or near the yard-line interfere with the correct placing of a ball sent off the ground, the striker shall place the ball sent off on the yard-line, in contact with any one of such balls.

27. *Corner Balls.*—When a ball in play is sent off the ground within 3 feet of a corner, or comes to rest within a corner square, the striker shall at once place it on the corner spot (except as provided by Law 29). If it cannot be so placed the striker shall place it on the yard-line, as near as possible to the corner spot. All balls so placed, and any ball in contact with any one of them, are called "corner balls." In cases of doubt under Law 26 a ball which has touched a corner peg shall be treated as a corner ball.

28. *Balls in Contact.*—If the striker's ball in play be in contact with one or more balls, a roquet shall be deemed to have been made, and the striker shall take croquet from one of such balls at his option.

If the striker's ball be one of two or more corner or yard-line balls, the striker may take croquet from any one of such balls at his option. Before doing so he may place all such balls in any position, provided that, in the case of corner balls, one be placed on the corner spot, and in the case of yard-line balls, one be placed on the spot which one of

them originally occupied; and provided also that every such ball be placed in contact with one of the others.

In all cases the striker shall take croquet off any ball which he may have actually roqueted.

29. *Ball in Yard-Line Area.*—A ball in play in the yard-line area shall at once be placed on the nearest point of the yard-line, as in Law 26, and becomes a yard-line ball. But if such ball be the striker's ball during a turn, the striker has the option of so placing his ball, or of playing it from where it lies.

30. *Ball not Correctly Placed.*—If the striker make a stroke while any ball (including his own ball), which might have either obstructed the striker or been moved by the stroke, is not correctly placed, the adversary, unless such ball was incorrectly placed by himself, may require the balls to be correctly placed and the stroke to be made again.

31. *Boundary, etc., Interfering with Stroke.*—If the striker find that the height of the boundary, or of any fixed obstacle outside it, is likely to interfere with his stroke, he may, to the satisfaction of the adversary, move his ball, and any other ball likely to be affected by the stroke, sufficiently to allow a free swing of the mallet. In so doing he must move his own ball along the intended line of aim, and the relative positions of any other balls so moved must be maintained. Any ball so moved, and not displaced by the stroke, shall at once be replaced.

32. *Balls Displaced.*—(a) Should a ball at rest be moved accidentally by the striker (except in striking or in taking aim), or by an adversary, it shall be replaced without penalty.

(b) Should a ball in play, when moving, be touched by an adversary, the striker shall elect whether he will make the stroke again, or whether the ball shall remain where it came to rest, or be placed where in his judgment it would, but for such interference, have finally come to rest; but no point or roquet not actually made shall be claimed as the result of such stroke.

(c) Should a ball at rest be moved by any agency outside the match, it shall be replaced.

(d) Should a ball in play, when moving, be interfered with by any agency outside the match, the striker may make the stroke again.

(e) Should a ball at rest make a point not due to the action of the striker, the ball shall be replaced and the point shall not be scored.

33. *Playing with a Wrong Ball, or Out of Turn.*—At the commencement of the game if the striker play with a wrong ball, or if a player play instead of his partner, such strokes and all subsequent strokes in any turn are null and void, provided that the error be discovered before the fifth turn of the game is commenced. In all other cases the striker shall be adjudged to have made a "foul" (Law 34), provided that the error be discovered before the commencement of another turn. Should more than one stroke have been played with a wrong ball, or out of turn, before the error is announced, the balls shall be replaced as they were after the first stroke in error was made, and the adversary shall then exact the penalty for a foul.

If the players be unable to agree as to the position the balls were in after the first stroke in error was made, the striker's opinion shall prevail (Law 8).

On the error being discovered after another turn has been commenced, all points made during the erroneous turn shall be scored,

except points made for any ball by an adversary's ball wrongly played with. Unless the player commencing the next turn has continued the sequence of balls and players which would have been in order if the error in the previous turn had not occurred, he shall be adjudged to have played with a wrong ball, or out of turn, and the balls shall be replaced and the turn recommenced without penalty.

34. *Fouls*.—If the striker make a foul his turn shall at once cease, and any point made during the stroke in which the foul occurred shall not be scored. Balls moved by such stroke shall either remain where they come to rest or be replaced, at the option of the adversary. A foul cannot be claimed after a fresh turn has been commenced.

The striker makes a foul if he—

- (a) Hit his ball with any part of the mallet other than an end face of the head, in making a stroke; or hold the mallet otherwise than by the shaft only; or cause or attempt to cause the mallet to hit the ball by kicking or striking the mallet.
- (b) Touch with the mallet or unlawfully move a ball other than his own ball, in taking aim or in striking.
- (c) Push or pull his ball, when taking croquet, without first striking it audibly or distinctly.
- (d) Push or pull his ball, when not taking croquet, whether he first strike it audibly or not.
- (e) Strike his ball twice in the same stroke, unless such ball be in hand.
- (f) Take croquet from two balls simultaneously.
- (g) Touch a ball when in play and moving except with his own ball in hand when in the act of striking.
- (h) Allow a ball in play to touch him, or his mallet, or his clothes.
- (i) Move his ball, when making a stroke, by striking a peg or a hoop without striking the ball.
- (j) Make a stroke after a roquet without taking croquet.
- (k) Strike his ball so as to cause it to touch a peg, or an upright of a hoop, while still in contact with the mallet, and while still in play.
- (l) Strike his ball, when lying in contact with a peg, or an upright of a hoop, otherwise than away from that peg or upright.
- (m) Move a ball in play intentionally in a manner not provided for by the laws.

35. *Bisques*.—A "bisque" is an extra turn (see Law 23) given in a game played under handicap. A "half-bisque" is a restricted bisque in which no point can be scored for any ball. The giver of odds shall keep a record of the bisques played. In the event of any dispute his decision shall, in the absence of an umpire, be final.

- (a) The striker, on announcing his intention, and with the cognisance of the adversary, may play a bisque or half-bisque to which he may be entitled, either immediately after concluding his ordinary turn, or immediately after concluding a bisque in which he has not made a roquet or scored a point for his ball; but he may not play a bisque immediately after a half-bisque.
- (b) If the striker, at the conclusion of his turn, definitely announce in reply to an adversary that he does not intend to play a bisque, his option of playing it thereby ceases.
- (c) If the striker, before the conclusion of his ordinary turn, purport to play a bisque, he shall be adjudged not to have played it, the

balls shall be replaced without penalty, and the ordinary turn shall be continued.

- (d) If the striker, after concluding a turn with the right ball, make a stroke of a bisque with a wrong ball, the penalty under Law 33 shall be exacted, and the bisque shall be adjudged to have been played.
- (e) If the striker, after concluding an ordinary turn with a wrong ball, commence a bisque with that ball, the penalty under Law 33 shall be exacted, and the bisque shall be adjudged not to have been played.

36. *Umpires.*—Either side may claim that an umpire, agreed on by the two sides, be appointed for any part of a game. The umpire's opinion on all questions of fact or replacement shall in all cases override the striker's.

The duties of an umpire are:

- (a) To draw attention to any breach of the laws, deciding, whether appealed to or not, all questions of fact.
- (b) To move the clips, or to see that they are properly moved.
- (c) To adjust hoops and pegs in accordance with Law 3.

37. *Errors not Provided For.*—Except as provided in these laws, no errors or omissions can be claimed after the next ordinary turn has commenced, or after the game has been concluded, or after all the players have left the ground in the belief that the game has been concluded.

Confirmed and adopted by the committee, February 1st, 1912.

[The Laws of Croquet have been reproduced above by the kind permission of the Croquet Association.]

General Hints on the Game

Roquets (Plate 7) may be divided into long and short, the former those effected from a distance of more than twelve yards, the latter those made at distances from one inch to twelve yards.

A doubt as to which is the easier will probably excite a smile of derision in our readers, and they will be surprised to hear that more matches are lost through missing the latter than the former.

At the moment of striking your eye ought to be *resting on your own ball*, and *not* on the ball aimed at.

Take a good look at the ball you wish to hit; then carry your eye back to the mallet, and point it according to the line which this glance has given; and, lastly, fix your eye on that part of your own ball which the mallet must hit in order to drive it straight; be sure, finally, to strike this part with the centre of the mallet's face.

In order to have command of the ball, the player *must settle himself well on his feet*, put himself in an easy posture, so that the ball be opposite the *left* foot, and must not draw back his right foot too much.

One fatal error is to stand with both feet too close together; such an attitude promotes more than any other that downward chop of the mallet so much to be deprecated, instead of the easy lateral swing, which is only to be obtained by a body poised evenly between legs a

little outstretched, and arms working well from the shoulders instead of from the elbows.

Tactics may be briefly described as the management of your own ball by itself, and in conjunction with others, in such a way that the required strokes are made easy for yourself, with the least possible risk of helping your adversary. Our last instructions, it is to be hoped, have led to some proficiency in the art of hitting a ball; but when the long-coveted shot has been made, what is to be done with the ball that has been hit? And by what means can we so arrange the balls as to run several hoops with the ball that has made the shot? Or how shall we leave them in positions favourable to the play of our next ball? It is in knowledge of this that real play consists; croquet presenting a great similarity to billiards in this respect—for a mediocre billiard player will make brilliant hazards and startling shots on many occasions, but poor scoring will result from them, as he has no care for the future position of the balls; while a really good player, whenever he gets a good hold of the balls, scores rapidly, owing to the way in which he works them into easy positions.

In order to command success in this, which is the highest accomplishment of the croquet player, it is necessary to have a considerable practical knowledge of angles, tangents, and the laws of ricochet and rebound.

A good player will croquet a ball a long way without moving far himself, by a skilful application of the system known in billiards as "breaking back." In order to accomplish this, it is necessary to hit the croqueting ball as low down as possible with a very smart hit or tap, immediately withdrawing the mallet, so that the reaction or rebound arising from the collision with the croqueted ball can



Fig. 7.—"Following" Croquet Shot

operate upon the croqueting ball without being interrupted and annulled by the continuing action of the mallet. The force with which this reaction will work if left to itself can never be exactly tested with a croquet ball, as it is impossible to draw back the mallet quickly enough to allow it to exert its full force; but there can be no doubt that if by some mechanical or other contrivance the mallet

could be removed out of the way at the exact moment of the stroke, the croquetting ball would remain stationary, while the other received the full force of the blow transmitted through it. This may be illustrated to some extent by experiments made either with an ordinary mallet and some bowls, or with ordinary full-sized croquet balls and a very diminutive mallet.

For effecting the following strokes, it is, of course, necessary to resort to exactly the opposite principle, and to allow the mallet to follow the croquetting ball as far as possible as it goes behind the other. For this stroke the heavier the mallet and the lighter the balls the easier is the task. It is, moreover, quite feasible to send the croquetting ball not only as far, but farther than the other, by making the mallet, as it follows on after the original blow, increase in velocity and motive force. The diagram (Fig. 7) will show a position in which such a stroke may be of the greatest use, and not improbably enable the player to win what was before an almost hopeless game. He must be supposed to have roqueted a ball lying at a long distance from the hoop which he has to pass, and on the wrong side of it—that is to say, in front. Now he can, of course, take a common turn off it, and place himself in position for the hoop. But having done so, he will have a very long shot at the other ball to roquet it, and if he misses, will be nearly as badly off as he was before. If, however, he can send the other ball (*n*) up to a short distance of the hoop, and on this side of it, while he sends his own (*m*) just to the other side, he is then in for a good break, and it will be his own fault if, after passing the hoop, he does not keep the balls together, and ultimately win the game. The dotted lines show the course which each of the balls will take when dealt with in this fashion.

For the study of "split" strokes, another series of principles has to be applied. The first of these is exceedingly simple: it relates to the course taken by the croquetted ball. Whatever sort of stroke is given to the croquetting ball—whether it is hit hard or softly, "thick" or "thin"—the croquetted ball will always move in the same direction; that is to say, in a straight line with the centres of the two balls. Thus, if the croquetting ball is placed exactly to the south of the other, and then hit in any direction to the east, the west, the north, or any intermediate point of the compass, the croquetted ball will in all cases move away exactly to the north.

This being the invariable rule with regard to the croquetted ball, it remains to explain the more difficult rules which govern the course of the other. To understand these, let it be supposed that the two balls (*m* and *n*) are lying close together and touching one another, and that the croquetting ball (*n*) is struck by the mallet in the direction *x* to *y* (see Figs. 8 and 9). The other ball will then fly off in the direction of *a*. In order to ascertain the direction taken by the croquetting ball, let a line be drawn from *n* to *b*, in such a

way that the angle $b n y$ is equal to the angle $a n y$. This line ($n b$) will be the natural course of the croquetting ball, if it is hit with tolerable force, so that each of the balls go to about equal distances from the place where they started. If, however, the stroke is a "following" stroke, and the mallet after hitting is driven forward, together with the balls, in the way already described, the course in which the croquetting ball (n) will then go is more directly forwards in the direction of y —that is to say, it will go towards a point (c) somewhere between b and y .

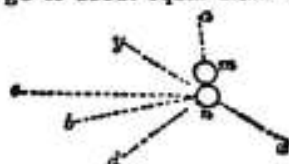


Fig. 8.—Course of a Croquetting Ball

If, on the other hand, the stroke is a short, sharp hit, it will then glance off more obliquely to the side in the direction of d . The deflection of the line ($n d$) will be greater in proportion to the obliquity with which the ball (n) is struck, as in Fig. 8; but it will never be greater—or, at all events, it will never be much greater—than such as to form a right angle with $n a$.

If it is desired to send the croquetting ball almost straight forward, and to leave the other ball almost where it was, the stroke will be given as in Fig. 10, and the ball (n) will then proceed to almost any distance in the direction of c , while the ball (m) is not moved more than a few inches. In order to move the croquetting ball to

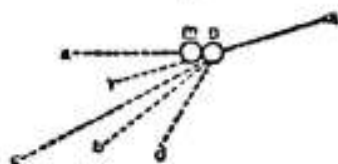


Fig. 9.—Course of a Croquetting Ball

d in the same figure—that is to say, to a point which is at an obtuse angle from $n a$, it is necessary to hit it gently, but with a smart blow, drawing back the mallet immediately; but in this case the ball (m) will move farther, and the ball (n) cannot, even by a skilful player, be made to travel far in the direction.

It will be seen from these diagrams and the above remarks that a great deal depends upon the force with which the balls are hit and the nature of the blow delivered, since not only the distance travelled by each ball, but also the direction in which one of them moves, is governed by this consideration. It is, however, still more important to place the balls correctly before hitting, so that a line drawn through the centres of the two balls will lie exactly in the direction which it is desired the croquetted ball shall take. But when all this art of science has been mastered, it still remains for the player to know what is the best stroke he can take under the varying circumstances of each game. Shall he, for instance, when at a

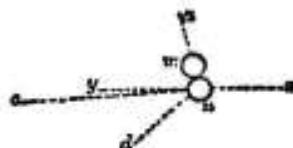


Fig. 10.—Course of a Croquetting Ball

long distance both from his friends and enemies, take a long shot at one of the latter, and risk the chance of so beginning a break? Or shall he pursue the slower, but perhaps surer, course of placing his ball near his partner, so that the latter may, when he gets his turn, be certain of a break? Much will depend upon a knowledge of the enemy's tactics, and of his skill in making long shots. If he is a very good hand at this, it will be unwise by going to the friend to give him two balls to aim at close together; but if he is an indifferent shot, and timid in his play, he will be more likely to leave his foes alone, and so give them the chance for which they are preparing by getting them into close company. Another question is whether, when a break is in course of being played, it will be worth while to go out of the way and separate two enemies' balls which are close together, and pretty sure to do mischief if left to themselves. Much will depend also upon the state of the game. When the adversary is far advanced, and likely to win at the next turn or so, the most desperate attempts must be made to spoil his game and interfere with his plans; whereas a player who is well ahead will, perhaps, do better to hold on his course, and not go far out of the way to meddle with the foe. These and other questions connected with the "tactics" of the game can only be thoroughly learnt by long practice; but enough has been said to show that a vast amount of head-work as well as nerve and manual neatness is essential to all who wish to excel in what is really, in many respects, a most interesting and difficult game.

CURLING

KEEN ice and a bracing day are all that is requisite to make the "roaring game" of curling perfectly enjoyable. No game affords better sport and exercise, or does more to promote good fellowship between man and man. Originally a purely Scottish pastime, curling now finds patrons in all parts of the world where the necessary climatic conditions exist. It can scarcely, however, be considered a boy's game, though doubtless many an enthusiastic curler tried his "prentice hand" when he had just entered his "teens." In making arrangements for a match, the first thing to be done is to prepare the "rink." This is a strip of ice, forty-two yards long and eight or nine wide, swept clear of snow and other obstacles. A "tee" is next to be set down at each end of the rink, thirty-eight yards apart; and seven feet behind each tee a small circle is to be



Fig. 1.—Curling Rink

described, from which foot-circle (as it is styled) the curlers launch the stone. Then, from each tee as centre, a circle must be struck with a radius of seven feet, and every stone which, when at rest, is not outside this circle, is to count in reckoning the points in every "head" or "end." (Plate 8.) Immediately outside, and beyond the tee-circle, a line is to be drawn at right angles to the rink, and every stone passing this boundary is considered "dead"—that is, does not count, and is removed from the ice. Seven yards from each tee a line is drawn across the rink, and every stone that does not pass this "hog-score," as it is called, is removed from the ice. Half-way between the tees another line, called the "middle line," is drawn, also at right angles. It may be added that no stone is considered to lie within the circle or over a line that, when at rest, is not clear of it. The accompanying diagram (Fig. 1) will explain the plan of the rink which has just been described. As to the players, a rink is usually composed of four a side, each curler using two stones, and each set of four being provided with a "skip," or director, whose duty it is to captain his set. The stones (Fig. 2) with which the

players are armed are of circular shape, with flattened sides, and must not weigh more, including the handle, than 44 lb., or less than 33 lb., or be of greater circumference than 36 inches, or of less height than one-eighth of the greatest circumference. Each stone



Fig. 2.—Curling Stone

is furnished with a handle, so that the player may be able to grasp his weapon in order to hurl it tee-wards with proper judgment and force. Sides having been chosen, an umpire is generally selected, to whose decision all disputed points are referred. The players are provided with brooms for sweeping the ice in front of an approaching stone (Plate 9), the sweeping being conducted under the control of the "skip." It is allowable for the player's party to sweep the ice from the middle line to the tee, so long as the running stone, or any of the stones at rest, is not disturbed, and provided that the sweepings are always brushed to the side of the rink. Need it be said that the aid of the broom is sought for the very practical purpose of removing falling snow or other impediment, and also of giving the surface of the ice the utmost possible degree of keenness, to help onwards a stone that may have been discharged with insufficient power? The "skips" having arranged the order of the play, the business of the game at once begins in thorough earnest. The number of points ordinarily appointed as decisive of a match is thirty-one, and the side which first scores that total (or scores most in the event of both totals exceeding that number) is victorious. There is a strong resemblance to bowls in the game of curling, and both present the same common object to the players. Their chief aim is to hurl the stone with just that proper amount of strength as will bring it within the charmed circle, and place it close to the very "tee." Then there is room, too, for a rival curler to try to drive an opponent's stone from a position of vantage, and secure it himself; or he may show his skill by planting his stone as a guard to those of his set which may happen to lie very advantageously for counting.

There is another variety of this game played, which necessitates a four-foot circle being drawn around the tee, in addition to the seven-foot circle. The method of scoring being not only somewhat complicated but also very rarely used by regular players, we do not think it necessary to describe it here. We cannot help feeling, in the interests of the sport, that it is most desirable to have one uniform and accepted method.



Photo. A. Brown & Co., Toronto

CURLING.

1. A close end.
2. The position a moment after the shot.
(See pages 212-213)

CYCLING

THE bicycle, as we know it now, has passed through many stages before attaining its present high standard. Our grandfathers rode the "hobby-horse," and our fathers the "bone-shaker," neither of which possessed the comfort and grace of the bicycle of to-day. When the rear-driving safety bicycle was first exhibited in 1885, it met with much ridicule and prejudice; it was not so easy to learn to ride; mounting was harder, and steering more difficult. But its disadvantages were far outweighed by its advantages, and since that time the bicycle has progressed in quality, and improvements have been made year by year.

PNEUMATIC AND CUSHION TYRE

An important feature is the change from the solid rubber tyre to the cushion tyre, and then to the pneumatic or air-tyre. The cushion was a tyre about $1\frac{3}{4}$ inches in diameter, as compared with a $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch solid tyre; the "cushion" consisting in the tyre having a hollow circular cut right down the centre, which not only lessened weight and thus allowed a larger surface of rubber to act between the steel rim and the road, but also, because of its hollowness, gave more elasticity than a solid tyre. The hollow of the cushion tyre, however, had in it only air at atmospheric pressure. The pneumatic tyre is a different affair altogether. It is made in two distinct pieces, although to the eye it appears when on the machine to be only in one piece. It is made in this way. There is an inner tube of very good pure rubber, less than $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch thick. This is the "blower" or air tube. Were it blown up, however, without any outer protection, it would extend to enormous dimensions, and probably take fantastic shapes at the weak points of the rubber. There is therefore an outer cover of stouter rubber, lined with canvas, silk, or specially prepared fabric. This outer cover is attached in various ways to the rim of the wheel, in most cases by concentric wires which remain stationary in the hollow edges of the rim when the inner tube is inflated with air. This outer cover keeps the inner tube symmetrical, and assists it to sustain considerable atmospheric pressure; it also limits the liability to puncture, while lessening as little as possible the resiliency of the tyre. It is to its resilience that the pneumatic tyre owes its wonderful power, a power not only of lessening vibration, which is considerable, but of adding to the speed of a rider; for as the air, compressed by the weight of the rider, is released on the passage forward of the wheel, it serves as an impetus to urge

the bicycle or tricycle forward. This one invention has after several years of rubber tyres revolutionised the entire trade of cycle manufacture. The pneumatic has its faults; these are its comparative costliness—it adds a good deal to the outlay—and its liability to burst at inconvenient times and places, either by an accidental or a malicious puncture.

FREE WHEELS

In 1899 was introduced the free wheel, which, in its importance, may be compared with the pneumatic tyre. Whereas men were content formerly to pedal their machines continuously on the level, uphill, and, in cases where the rider had no foot-rests, down-hill also, now it was possible for the rider, when he was satisfied with the speed which he had attained, to rest upon his pedals whilst the machine glided forward by the force of impetus. This result was obtained by various devices, generally in the rear hub. The simplest form of free wheel clutch was that on the ratchet principle, but there were so many others, actuated by balls, rollers and shifting pawls, that the space at our command will not admit of their description. Suffice it to say that when forward pressure was applied to the pedals the clutch was brought into operation, and communicated a driving pressure to the back wheel. When the pressure on the pedals was discontinued the clutch ceased to act and the impetus of the bicycle carried the machine forward. Anyone can understand this by observing the winding mechanism of a keyless watch, which is on the ratchet principle: when the winder is turned to the right the ratchet is in operation, but you may turn to the left for ever without making any impression on the mainspring.

RIM BRAKES

The invention of the free wheel abolished entirely the control over the machine to which many good riders trusted in the days of fixed wheels—the power of back-peddalling, or checking the speed of a machine by a pressure of the feet on the rising pedals. It had been admitted for a long time that a brake which exerted its power by scraping against the tyre of the front wheel was unsatisfactory for two reasons: first, because it tended to wear away the comparatively delicate cover of the front tyre; and secondly, because in the event of the front tyre puncturing the brake became useless. There was also a minor consideration put forward against the front tyre brake—that it put too much strain on an already overstrained part of the bicycle, namely, the head and the front forks. The rim brake had none of these drawbacks, because it acted on the inside of the strong steel rim of the wheel; it could be applied either to back wheel or front wheel, or both, and in the event of a puncture it was as powerful as ever. It had also the advantage over the older band brake that in wet weather its usefulness was not impaired to any extent. It came to be recognised that with a free wheel, brakes

both on the front and on the back were necessary, that on the back wheel to be the one for constant use in general riding and that on the front to be brought into operation for emergencies.

OTHER IMPROVEMENTS

Then came the back-peddalling brake, a contrivance worked by the feet, which, by pressing the pedals backwards instead of forwards, cause the brake to act on the rim of the back wheel and so lessen the speed of the machine. Two- and three-speed gears are among the most recent inventions and afford much rest to the rider, who is able, by pressing a lever attached to the frame of the bicycle, to make the gear higher or lower, according to his wish. The low gear is used for going up-hill, and the higher gear on level ground.

THE TRICYCLE OF TO-DAY

Having said so much as regards bicycles, it may be desirable, before proceeding to deal with the questions of learning, riding, racing, etc., to say just a few words about the tricycle. The modern tricycle is the outcome of the desire of those past the flush of youth to partake of the pleasures of cycling. The tricycle had no "bone-shaker" stage. There were four-wheeled wooden velocipedes running, and extensively used, in the early 'fifties at Cambridge and elsewhere, but it was not until the bicycle had passed some years of its suspension-wheel and rubber-tyred era that the tricycle came upon the scene. It was a clumsy affair even then, although fitted with spider wheels and rubber tyres. The driving wheels were large and consequently heavy, and the steering wheel was small and ineffective by reason of a bath-chair handle being fitted as a steerer, which, although safe enough for the pace of a bath-chair, was not delicate enough in touch to steer steadily a tricycle when pace began to increase. This was, however, improved by the substitution of a rod and cogged ratchet steering with spade handles at the side. Finally the bicycle handle was reached, and with it the size of the driving wheel came down in diameter and that of the front wheel went up; a necessity seeing that from it comes most of the vibration. The rear-steering tricycle had its short run, but the tricycle of the day is a machine with practically three equal-sized wheels, say 28 inches, one of which is in front as a steerer and the other two are drivers coupled together by balance gear, i.e. by a gear so arranged by bevelled cog-wheels that it locks solid when the machine is driving straight ahead and begins to revolve slightly the moment it diverges from the straight, thus driving on one wheel only and admitting of the steering being carried out. The tricycle is the machine of one's very early years, when it takes the form of a tricycle-horse—much harder to drive, by the way, than a regular tricycle—and also of one's later days, when the nerve-power for balancing begins to fail. "Bicycles for boys" is a truthful alliteration.

WHEN AND HOW TO LEARN CYCLING

The rider who begins cycling when young has, as in all athletic pursuits, the pull over those who start later in life. He has the elasticity of frame to learn without unduly straining himself, and he acquires such proficiency that cycling becomes part of his ordinary motion. With the exception of horse- and pony-riding, we can recall at the moment no one pastime which appeals equally to the old and young, except cycling. Extremes of age meet, and both derive in their separate ways pleasure and physical benefit from the wheel.

There are innumerable regular schools for teaching nowadays, and most vendors of machines will make arrangements for a purchaser to be taught by one of their men; but failing this, the assistance of a companion, or two for choice, is all that is necessary. The best preliminary step is for the learner to wheel his bicycle, and, letting it fall gently towards him, feel it spring upright again as he turns the front wheel towards him, i.e. the same way the machine is falling. He will then realise better than he could whilst in the saddle how a bicycle rights itself. His wits are clearer when on terra firma. Having thus gained an idea of how a bicycle is kept upright, the learner, with a friend on each side of him, can seat himself in the saddle, seeing first that it is at a proper height. The beginning and end of ease in cycling depend on this, and the gauge is as follows: when the rider is seated on the saddle, his heel should just be able to touch the pedal at its lowest point. In pedalling, however, he uses the ball of his foot, i.e. midway between the centre and the toe ends, and this enables him to use his ankles as well as his thrust of leg; but ankle action comes later—not in the learner's stage. Most modern machines are made with handle-bars so wide that no contraction of the chest can occur in holding them; but riders should insist on the handles being capable of being raised so high as to obviate the necessity of craning forward.

Learning to ride is the easiest part of early cycling. Mounting is the most difficult, and next comes dismounting. But to deal first with learning. If the tyro learns in the street let it be in a secluded one; a *cul-de-sac* for choice and on a very slight slope. Here, with a friend or friends to hold him up, he will soon acquire the balance, and if he has a fall or two it will give him confidence by letting him know the worst that can happen. It is useless to go on learning when fatigue sets in; either rest awhile, or stop till next day. An hour at a time when learning is enough for anyone.

In two or three lessons the learner should be able to wobble along for a good many yards by himself with only a light touch from his assistant. If he possesses a friend who is a good rider it will be a great assistance to go for a short ride, the friend holding lightly to the learner's sleeve or belt. Confidence is of the utmost importance to a learner, and this can be obtained best by feeling cer-

tain that he can come to no harm with his friend's protecting hand upon him. The necessity for assistance rapidly grows less, and it is a good plan in the middle of one of these experimental rides for the friend entirely to remove his restraining hand without telling the learner that he is doing so. If the learner is sufficiently far advanced it is probable that he will go for quite a long way without any support whatever. The moment he discovers that he is not held up he will begin to wobble hopelessly, and unless gripped firmly once more will probably fall off from sheer lack of confidence in himself. When he is able to ride fairly comfortably alone, he may learn to dismount.

DISMOUNTING

For a light-weight the dismount from the pedal is the best, and is effected by putting the weight of the left foot on the pedal (on a fixed wheel, as the pedal begins to rise), and swinging the right leg sharply and boldly back so as to clear the hind wheel, alighting gently with the right foot. Heavy-weights will find the step the best means of dismount. To dismount from the step, search back with the left foot, and having hit on the step, raise the weight of the body on the handles and swing the right leg clear of the back wheel as in the pedal dismount. Dismounting by swinging the right leg over the handle-bar is an acrobatic feat, and not one for a learner. There is a form of dismount which has been, or rather was, advocated in the days of the Ordinary bicycle, namely, vaulting off backwards. This is a form of dismount to be avoided, or exercised only with the greatest care. In the first place, to vault at all is to court rupture; it is one of its most frequent causes; and secondly, to vault off backwards and to alight on your rear wheel is to court a worse disaster than rupture. Therefore, avoid the vaulting dismount except in a case of emergency in traffic where there is no room for a pedal dismount and no time to feel for the step. It is most desirable to be able to dismount from either pedal, and when the left pedal dismount has been mastered the learner should make himself proficient in dismounting from the right pedal. A lady dismounts in exactly the same manner, except that the foot is brought through the frame instead of over the back wheel.

MOUNTING

To mount, put the rear wheel between the legs and take hold of each handle, place the left foot on the step and push on the ground with the right foot until the machine has sufficient motion to enable the saddle to be reached and the pedals seized by the feet before the pace ceases. When this operation can be accomplished in safety the learner may turn to a prettier form of mounting by the step. Stand on the left-hand side of the machine grasping the handles firmly, place the left foot on the step and give two or three hard thrusts with the right foot. Then, when the pace is sufficient,

swing the right leg round and over the back wheel and lower the body into the saddle. A very pretty mount for light riders with a free wheel is as follows: Stand as before on the left-hand side of the machine and with the right hip in front of the saddle; place the left foot on the left pedal, which should be at its lowest point, and give a long hard thrust with the right leg, completing the thrust by swinging the right leg over the back wheel and at the same time lowering the body on to the saddle. The vaulting mount is even more dangerous than the vaulting dismount, and should never be attempted even by the most experienced riders. The easiest mount for a lady is as follows: Stand on the left-hand side of the machine with the right pedal just past its highest point. Place the right foot on the right pedal, and see that the dress is settled comfortably over the saddle. Raise the body into the saddle with the assistance of the right foot (the weight upon it causing the bicycle to go forwards), and at the same time feel for the left pedal. A lady should learn to stand upon her pedals whilst the machine is in motion, in order to allow her skirt to settle down equally on each side of the back wheel.

CARE ON THE ROAD

The rider's cares are not over when he has learnt to ride, to mount, and to dismount. He then wants to acquire the "coachmanship" of the cycle. He requires to know the rule of the road amongst traffic and adhere to it; much can be learnt by a ride on the top of an omnibus in this respect. Then he needs to experience that, although very wet roads are not dangerous, stone paving, wood paving, asphalt, and even occasionally macadam (but never gravel), are most difficult to traverse on a pneumatic-tyred bicycle if they are greasy—namely, half dry or newly watered—because the wheels slip sideways from under their rider. "Grease" should always be ridden over slowly, and the rider should, if it be possible, ride in the centre of the road rather than on the side, where the slope of the road will tend to make his machine "side-slip." He must learn that, although he may go fast in a straight line, he must ease up at a corner, otherwise a bicycle will not make the curve required, and a tricycle will capsize. He needs to learn the skillful use of his brakes down-hill, and he must acquire the knowledge that to ride to a standstill up-hill frequently means an inability to dismount except by falling off; and also learn to work up-hill by his legs only, never pulling at the handles or swaying his body from side to side, which is the worst of style. When he has learnt these he will be a fairly accomplished rider.

HOW TO GET A MACHINE

There are various ways. The Rothschilds of life buy them at list price at the various depots as they strike their fancy; wise men with ready cash demand and mostly get discount for payment on the spot; those with limited but sure means buy of first-class firms on

the hire system, and pay by instalments at so much per month. As a rule, unless its history and its former owner be known, a second-hand machine should be avoided. A machine with no maker's name on it should not even be looked at by the novice. A second-hand machine bearing the name of a well-known firm should be accepted only after a searching examination by an expert. There are firms, makers of new machines, who apparently do a trade outside what is known as the wheel world—that is, away from the circles frequented by the men who know "what is what." No firm that is not known in the wheel world should be entrusted with an order. It is very easy to drop a postcard to a cycling paper of repute, and ask the question, "Can you recommend So-and-so's machines?" The answer, the meaning of which is known only to two persons, will appear in the "Answers to Correspondents" column, and the purchaser will be reassured or the reverse. There is no such thing as a best cycle. The machines made by the large first-class firms at Coventry, Nottingham, Birmingham, London, Manchester, and other places differ in detail, but in quality they are practically the same; the selection of one before another is a mere matter of individual taste. The boy or man who rushes in to buy a machine without asking advice when such can be obtained at the expenditure of a half-penny post-card is unwise. The same remarks apply to novices who desire to join a club, go on a tour, or indeed take any cycling action whatever.

RACING

It is hardly necessary in an article intended for beginners to do more than touch on racing. Long before the novice is either able or willing to race he will have made many personal friends who are cyclists, each of whom will be full of his own theories as to how he ought to race. Let him hear all they have to say, try their methods, and then decide whether his own ideas or theirs aid him best to get into the first rank.

CYCLING CLOTHING

The best advice that can be given to a cyclist is to dress as nearly as he does in ordinary life. It is the custom for some riders to bare their knees, to leave collars, shirts, and neckties to take care of themselves, and to wear simply an under-vest or sweater, and a coat, with a cricket cap to top the lot. Such a rider is an object of curiosity on his cycle, but off it, in the coffee-room of an hotel for instance, he is simply terrible to look at. A man when riding should wear a light cap, a short coat (lined, if at all, with wool), an easy-fitting waistcoat to match (also lined with wool), a flannel shirt with a collar. The nape of the neck is the point where the sun, when it does strike a man down, attacks him, and to protect it is a necessity. Damp warmth does not give sunstroke, but direct rays of the sun on the nape of the neck do. Knickerbockers, lined at the waist with flannel, should be worn with long stockings, and neat, flexible

shoes specially made for cycling. If the rider is likely to do any walking at the end of his ride, it is well to have an extra sole attached to the shoes, but not sufficiently thick to prevent his "feeling" the pedals. Ordinary walking shoes should be avoided, because in most cases they are unsuitably cut at the ankle and instep. Boots should never be worn for cycling.

TOURING AND FOOD

When going on tour the first thing to decide is what will most be enjoyed—scenery, or roads, or what? No fixed distances can be laid down, as the wind, the state of the roads, or the advent of rain may play an unrehearsed but effective part in the proceedings of any day. Therefore, never part from your change of clothes. There is nothing that differs so much in its capabilities as the human stomach, and therefore the sooner the better a boy starts on the principle that he will be either a fool or a physician at forty if he does not ere that period ascertain what he can eat to the best advantage. If a heavy or "square" midday meal must be taken, however, let at least one hour and a half ensue before resuming the day's journey; two hours for choice. Generally, however, it will be found better to be content with the lightest of meals at midday, and to curb one's appetite until the evening when the ride is over. As to drink, the less taken the better. No young man should require any stimulants, and the man who tours on temperance principles, or who takes liquor only with his dinner after the day's work is done, will start fresh next day. Stimulants taken *en route* urge a rider to over-exert himself, and reaction can only be the result. At the same time, if a feeling of exhaustion supervene *after* a long ride, a little stimulant may be taken. It is not so injurious to be wet through with perspiration as with rain, for the obvious reason that the rain chills at once, whilst the perspiration does not chill till it begins to get cold itself. The salt in it also lessens the evil; but all the same it is not good for either young or old to remain too long in damp clothes, be the original cause of dampness what it may. Therefore on tours always provide for dry underclothing from the waist upwards, and see that the hotel servants (send a *douceur* to the cook to be certain) dry the damp garments ready for next day. One great thing in favour of cycling is that, no matter how long the journey, the rider never gets footsore. He may, however, get saddle-sore, though not necessarily, and to remedy this there is nothing better than fuller's earth. Every tourist should be provided with this.

HANDLES

The human hand, like the human stomach, differs so greatly that it is impossible to lay down any law as to what should cover the handles of a cycle. Horn, rubber, cork, and even mother-of-pearl and pure ivory, have been used. With damp palms horn handles are

spt to slip, and cork coverings have a habit of breaking and splitting. All-indiarubber handle-ends are hot. Mother-of-pearl and ivory are as uncomfortable as they are costly. Celluloid smells unpleasantly when it gets warm. Therefore the writer strongly recommends ventilated felt handles, which, when properly constructed, are both cool and absorbent.

THE LAMPS TO USE

There are two positions for the carrying of lamps: one on the front forks near the hub and the other on the head of the bicycle. The argument in favour of the hub lamp is that it is nearer the road, and is therefore able better to illuminate the ground over which the cyclist has to go. But, on the other hand, it is near the dust and mud, and, being nearer the centre of vibration is not so steady as a head lamp. For these reasons, therefore, and also for its accessibility, the writer recommends the latter. When buying a lamp, pay a good price and disregard appearance. A cheap lamp is never satisfactory after the first week (if as long), and a "pretty" lamp rarely so. The lamp should have a large body and a good reservoir. Get a well-known make and you cannot go far wrong. Acetylene lamps have come in for a good deal of favour and still more condemnation. The writer's experience is this: If you have plenty of time to keep the lamp clean, and are of a mechanical turn of mind, get an acetylene lamp; its splendid light will thoroughly repay you. If, however, you are, like the majority of cyclists, unwilling to go to more trouble than you can possibly avoid, get a good oil lamp and save a lot of dirty work.

ACCESSORIES

Of bells not much need be said: get a good bell with a clear ring—as large as convenient, if you ride much in traffic—and keep it clean inside and out. A touch of oil on the end of a feather applied twice or three times a season will be found beneficial—too much oil invites dust. Spanners should be of a good, strong material, or they will twist and break; they should accurately fit every nut on the bicycle, and if the "adjustable" variety is used, always screw them *tight* when gripping a nut, otherwise they will slip and damage the nut by tearing off its corners. The pump should be strong, and as long as convenient. The writer has found the most useful form to be the 18-inch celluloid pumps which are in such general use. Repair outfits are made in great variety, and there is little to choose between them. In buying an outfit, take the cap off the tube of solution and make sure that the stuff has not dried up by being kept too long in stock, or you may find yourself badly stranded in the case of a roadside puncture. The cyclist can for luncheon purposes buy a special valise for the handle-bar, and he can also choose from a rare assortment of bags in which to carry clothing; neat iron carriers which clip on to the back forks are the best for this purpose.

CLUBS

The choice of a club is an important matter. As a rider grows he desires to join a club. The largest club not only in cycling but in the world—another proof of the growth of cycling—is the Cyclists' Touring Club, generally known as the "C.T.C." Its head-quarters are at 280 Euston Road, London, and the subscription is five shillings per annum, with an entrance fee of one shilling. It is the most cosmopolitan club in existence, and its members vary from peers of the realm to a day labourer or mechanic. It confers no social distinction, because, provided a man's character is good, his social status does not interfere with his election. It confers certain advantages, of which the following are some. It publishes a list of hotels at home and abroad at which cyclists are welcome, and where they will, like a commercial traveller, know precisely what they will be charged for their bed, attendance, breakfast, lunch, or tea. There is a tariff for dinner, but dinners vary so much that a certain amount of haze sometimes hangs over the price. In some places, such as the Highlands of Scotland, Brighton, and fashionable watering-places, the C.T.C. ticket is an undoubted saving. At some other places, modest country towns for instance, the tariff of the club is often the ordinary tariff of the hotel. On the whole, however, it is six shillings well spent to join the C.T.C., as one can choose the good hotels and go elsewhere at a town where the "C.T.C. house" is not what one desires. The wearing of the badge is a certain passport in the wheel world, and when thoroughly worked by an enthusiast, who appeals to the consuls (who are dotted all over the country) through the right channel for local information, the club organisation is of great use. The C.T.C. is comparatively easily entered. One writes to the secretary for a form, and gets one of the members to sign as proposer and another as seconder. One of the most apparent benefits it confers upon users of the roads is the provision of danger-posts at the top of steep hills throughout England. As regards other cycling clubs, when the time comes for a rider to join he should consider the following points, namely: Are the members of or about my own class, and can I afford the subscription and other expenses into which I shall be drawn? Most cycling clubs are open to the average man; all are if the would-be member is "all right" socially and as regards "form." In every case write to the secretary for information as to how to join. The subscription of the London clubs is from £1 per annum downwards, and the scale runs through many sums down as low as two shillings and sixpence; ten shillings and sixpence and five shillings being perhaps the most general figures for club subscriptions.

THE NATIONAL CYCLISTS' UNION

This body, started as the Bicycle Union, had to change its title to that given above in deference to tricyclists. Lord Bury, after-

wards Earl of Albemarle, a genial nobleman and an enthusiastic cyclist, was its first president. It was established not only to protect the interests of cyclists in and out of Parliament, as regards principles affecting the whole body generally, but also to avenge legally attacks on individuals, and likewise to watch the sport, i.e. the racing, side of cycling as apart from the pastime or purely recreative side. The Union arranges championship races, and would preclude a cyclist from riding as an amateur if he committed a breach of the code of amateur morals, or it would suspend him from racing as such for a limited period for a comparatively mild offence. It would resist any attempt by Parliament to harass or interfere with cycling on the road. It prevents, when it hears of them, any clubs from racing on the road, and it sometimes aids by money or legal advice cyclists who have been assaulted or injured wantonly by riders, drivers, or others on the high road. The subscription is small, being but five shillings per annum. The Union hails from 27 Chancery Lane, London. It possesses, like the C.T.C., a most interesting magazine, which is issued gratis to members.

DRIVING

THERE are few branches of a lad's outdoor education of greater importance, not only to himself, but also to others, than that of an ability to "handle the ribbons." Not a bagman, small tradesman, or man of business, but would be ashamed to say that he was incompetent, if in fair health and strength, to pilot his own "trap." And yet, though so large a proportion of society, aristocratic and bourgeois alike, can boast a smattering of the science, there is no pursuit in which perfection is proportionately so rarely attained.

The first requisite for a beginner is to learn to sit well (Fig. 1), and so to acquire the proper scope for his own power over his horse.

The seat should be above, or at least on a level with, the horses' heads, not below them; and it should, moreover, be so placed that the driver can use his legs and feet to restrain the pull of the horses if necessary, and that cannot be done if the reins pull down over the splash-board into the driver's lap.

Though most novices begin their essay with a horse in single harness, yet in a general way it is easier and safer to drive a pair than one. If the single horse is perfect in manners, all that has to be learned is to keep him straight, and to direct him without collisions. But if a horse has faults he is safer with a companion; though if the two have coincident faults, or could confabulate mischief together, they would be more dangerous than a single animal, yet it is in practice long chances against the two both doing wrong simultaneously. Each is a check on his fellow: the one may not want to bolt when the other does, or if one falls the other will probably keep his legs.

The learner should take his seat uprightly and squarely, plant his feet well in front of him, grasp his reins firmly, and let his left arm play lightly from the *shoulder* (not the elbow), his elbows both well squared. Nothing looks so slovenly, or entails such waste of necessary power, as a slouching back and hands sunk in the lap.

The whip should not be always used because it is handy; it is wanted to make a horse take hold of his collar if he shirks, and to feel his bit if he hangs back when there is difficulty in naviga-



Fig. 1.—A Good Seat

tion. Unless he runs up to his bit there is little or no communication between him and his driver. The whip should be used from the wrist, not from the arm; a lash delivered from the shoulder is far less effective and much more ugly than a stroke from the wrist. A good fly-fisher never makes a bad whip in this respect.

THE HARNESS

Let the beginner commence by casting an eye over his harness (Fig. 2); at first, rather that he may learn by inspection the place for everything and that everything is in its place; but later, when he has passed his apprenticeship, he should still do the same, and this time with a master's eye, to see that nothing is wanting before he mounts to his seat. Let him note that the breeching, if in single harness, is neither so loose as to be useless, nor so tight as to hamper the action of the horse and to rub the hair off. Let him see that the rein is on the proper bar of the bit; else, if the horse has been accustomed to be driven from one bar, and his biting is suddenly altered, his manners will probably change at the same time. If he is driving double harness, let him note the length of his traces, and see that his horses are properly "poled up," else the carriage will overrun them down hill.

In very light single two-wheel harness, breeching is sometimes dispensed with, and the holding back done from the saddle. It looks more elegant, and shows more of the horse; but, of course, it adds to the wear and tear of his fore-legs down hill, by throwing the whole weight of retention upon them, instead of letting the hind quarters bear their share with the breeching; and with a heavy load such a system is unsafe, however good the horse may be on his forelegs.

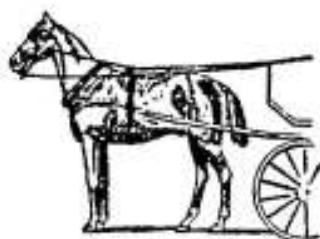


Fig. 2.—Harassed



Fig. 3.—Taking the Reins in Hand

MOUNTING

Having cast a careful glance round his harness, the driver will then proceed to mount.

Let him take the reins in his hand before he mounts the box; then, when seated, let the "near" or left-hand rein (N) pass between the forefinger and thumb, the "off" or right-hand rein (O) between the fore and middle fingers—palm of the hand uppermost (Fig. 3).

Then let the grasp of all the fingers close tightly on the loop of the rein, which should pass out under the remaining fingers. Though the grasp should be tight the touch should be light; let not the exercise of the muscles of grip confuse the driver into adding to this a tug from his shoulder upon his horse's mouth. How-

ever light a horse's mouth is, or supposing he is a slug that does not take his collar and run up to his bit, still the driver should always *feel* the mouth, else he has no control over him in sudden emergency, if the reins are hanging loosely. There is more danger in driving a sluggish or dead-mouthed horse in a crowd than a free goer. The latter runs up to his bit at once, and so feels your orders; the slug does not feel, and may interpret a touch of the reins to direct him into an order to stop in the teeth of a Pickford's van, or on a level railway crossing in sight of an express. Whipcord must keep a slug to his collar, and so to his bit, or the absence of constant communication between his mouth and his driver's hand may lead to collisions.

THE RULE OF THE ROAD

And now in the seat, and the grasp of the reins first secured, let the driver make a start; not in a hurry, not with an instant dose of whipcord—a word of encouragement to his horse should suffice at first. Let him learn to allow free room for his own wheels in turning corners or passing obstacles; he has got two things to provide for, his vehicle as well as the horse. Better give a wide margin at first than collide; though before long his eye will guide him, and he need not then make himself conspicuous as a green-horn by giving too wide berths at corners and rencontres. Go steadily round a corner; remember there is such a thing as centrifugal force; and a two-wheel vehicle, high hung, may easily be upset to the outside by a hasty whisk round a sharp corner, even without the help of a bank to lift the inner wheel.

Then, as to the rule of the road. If he meets anything coming the opposite way, he must take it on his right hand; if he overtakes it, on his left; if he is overtaken he must keep to the left, and be passed on the right.

"The rule of the road is a paradox quite,
For if you go right you go wrong,
And if you go left you go right,"

is an old saw he may bear in mind as implicitly as do sailors the rhymes which tell of the rule of the road at sea.

GENERAL HINTS

Down hill he will progress carefully, especially when on two wheels, for then the extra weight of the cart hangs on the pad or saddle on the horse's back. A stumble and fall will probably break the shafts, certainly cut the horse's knees, and may pitch the occupant over the splash-board. Let him hold well in, sit well back, play firmly and lightly with his hand, ready to hold up sharply in event of a stumble. Even a sure-footed horse may make a false step from the pain of a loose, sharp-pointed bit of stone cutting his frog. A judicious and timely support from the rein may save

the horse and preserve his balance, by thus suddenly shifting part of the weight of his head and neck on to the carriage itself.

Next to a powerful seat, the mouth of the horse and the lightness of the hand upon it are the requisites. "Half the value of a horse is in his mouth" is an old maxim. Few owners are aware how much "manners" depend upon the biting and handling of a horse. Shifting the rein from one bar to another makes all the difference in the going of the horse. The mouth is the link of communication between him and his driver; the bit must control him without fretting him, and the touch of the hand, unless light, deadens its own injunctions.

As the whip progresses with his craft, he will note many other minor details, apart from mere safety, which conduce to the welfare of his horse and carriage also. Though he is bound by rules of road in traffic, he may choose his own path when all is clear; he need not take his share of rolling into shape newly laid stones, if a smoother passage presents itself. Even if he cannot altogether avoid stones, he may yet ease the draught if he can manoeuvre only one wheel on to a smooth surface.

A few standard maxims to all who essay to take a rein in their hands, or to sit by those who do, will not be out of place. *Imprimis*, come what may, short of horses bolting straight to a precipice, never jump from a carriage. If horses bolt, stick to the seat. If a collision or upset is to ensue, the carriage must strike the ground or the obstacle before its occupants; till it is reached, nothing can strike them. Thus, care must be taken to hold tight, lest the concussion should fling them out and they fall in the road. For one accident that occurs to persons sitting in overthrown carriages, ten happen from leaps from the same while in motion. A road conveyance has never the speed of a railway train. Its inmates need never fear that any force of collision will so shatter it as to crush them also. The horses act as buffers to the shock. Broken glass is almost the only danger; therefore, in a runaway brougham instantly lower the windows, and then *sit tight*.

Learn how to put your own horse into harness, and how to take him out again. This will be of much use to the "young whip," for he will sometimes find himself in a place where no one is in attendance to take charge of his horse at the moment.

Get a gentleman rather than a groom to instruct you; the latter will probably know far less than a good horseman and whip, and will, from want of education, have less knack for teaching what little he does know. For one good rider or coachman among grooms, there are scores among gentlemen.

Avoid familiarity with grooms, and do not let study of the ins and outs of the stable induce you to cultivate stable slang and stable acquaintances.

FIVES

In its simplest form the game of fives consists merely in two players or sides taking turns to hit a ball with the hand above a line marked on a wall, this variety being still largely played by boys who have probably never seen a proper fives court. Nowadays there are two recognised fives courts, the Eton and the Rugby, though very few specimens of either will be found to correspond exactly in minor details. In the Eton game a curiously shaped buttress, called the "pepper-box," is purposely built into the court, which is also divided into two parts by a "step," the small opening between the buttress and the step being called the "hole." The origin of this peculiar shape lies in the fact that fives were first regularly played at Eton between the chapel buttresses, the end of the balustrade of the chapel steps projecting into the court. From this accidental circumstance may also be traced the "step" and the "hole."

As the game grew in popularity other courts were constructed, without the peculiarities of the Eton ones, and by degrees the two distinct types were evolved.

Nowadays courts of the Eton shape are usually open, while Rugby ones are generally covered in. To this there are, of course, exceptions, some large schools having covered and open courts of either or both kinds.

POINTS OF THE GAME

In both games the players endeavour to hit the ball above a line or ledge on the front wall in such a manner as to prevent their opponents from hitting it back again over the line before it has touched the ground for the second time.

In beginning the game, which may be played by either one or two on each side, the person who has won the toss first "serves" the ball to the other by striking it against the front wall, and making it fall into the side of the court where his adversary is; the latter "returns" it, and then the game proceeds by alternate strokes, until one or other of the players either fails to take the ball at all, or strikes it below the line. The player who thus misses his stroke is put out if he happens to be "in"; but if not, the miss counts one for his adversary. The game consists of fifteen points; though in Rugby fives, if both sides reach 13, the best of five may be played (or the best of three, when both are at 14, at the option of the "out" side). The rules are not exactly the same in every place where fives is still played, but for the most part they resemble those which are in vogue for the game of racquets. Occa-

sionally, also, when only two are playing, the method of serving varies from that adopted in four-handed game.

The balls used are round and solid, consisting of a cork core surrounded with felt and yarn. For the Rugby game they should weigh $1\frac{1}{8}$ oz. each; for the Eton one they are somewhat larger, and weigh $1\frac{1}{4}$ oz. each. They vary somewhat in price, and yet more in quality; and as the enjoyment of a game very greatly depends on good balls, it is poor economy to buy the cheapest.

For fives, as for all games which are played in covered courts, every player should wear shoes without any nails in the sole, in order that the smooth and polished surface of the floor may not be scratched by the metal. Rubber-soled shoes are far superior to leather-soled shoes on account of the better grip afforded by the rubber, and the consequently greater safety and certainty in performing the quick turning and sideways movements incidental to the game. It is advisable also to wear flannel costume, which can be changed immediately after play is over, as there are few exercises which make a person hotter than these games; and if a bath or a good rub down is not taken afterwards, there is great risk of catching cold. Fives is often considered to be a harder exercise than either racquets or tennis; and it is indeed perhaps the most severe of any when played with real energy and determination. One of the principal advantages which fives can boast over other games is that it exercises both hands and both sides of the body equally, since a good player must of course be prepared to return a ball as well with the left hand as with the right. No one can exaggerate the importance of this benefit; and it is to be hoped that, in spite of the competition of other games, fives will long retain and even improve upon its position as a favourite exercise for boys.

It is a great pity that so few men have the opportunity of playing fives after leaving school, the number of courts unconnected with one or other of the public schools being extremely small.

BAT FIVES

Bat-fives is played in the same way, only substituting a wooden bat for the hand. It is a game which deserves to be more popular than it is; for it makes a capital introduction to racquets, while it may be played in a common Rugby fives-court, without the expense that is attendant on the bigger game.

FOOTBALL

I.—THE RUGBY UNION GAME

WHAT is called Rugby football derives its name from Rugby School, where the game was first played.

The Rugby Football Union was established in 1871. Up to this time every club had had its own set of rules, which all varied slightly, and it was always necessary to play according to the rules of the home club. The Rugby Union made rules for all clubs.

DRESS

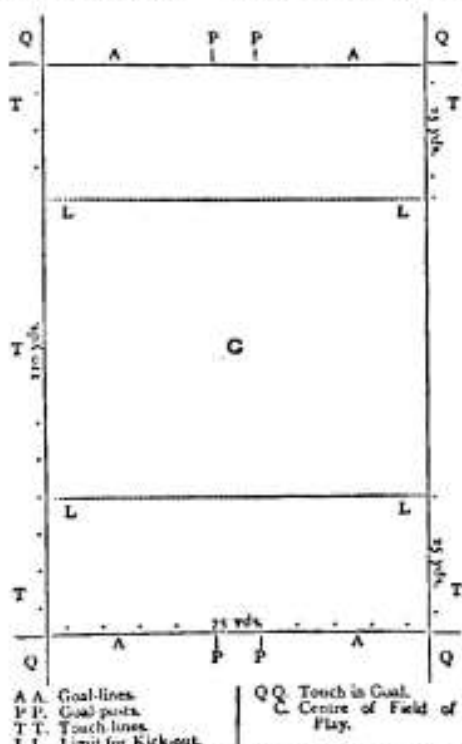
Those who play under the Rugby code dress somewhat differently from the players under Association rules. Both, of course, wear knickerbockers; but, as collaring is allowed in Rugby, a close-fitting jersey should be worn for this game, in order that a member of the opposing side may not have anything loose to seize hold of. Yet even when wearing a very tight jersey, a player running with the ball will often find himself seized by the neck of the garment. Many jerseys are liable to tear at this spot, and for this reason it is generally advisable to have a tape sewn on the inside round the neck. Every player should take great care with his boots. Neither spikes nor nails are allowed to be worn; but leather bars and leather studs make very good substitutes, besides giving opponents who may be accidentally kicked partial immunity from serious injury. As a rule, players leave their boots in their bags, or lying about, from one match to another, without taking any care of them. They will find it a good plan, however, to clean their boots after each match, and then rub them over with grease or vaseline. This treatment keeps the leather soft and pliable, and the wearer has his reward in comfort and long wear, for a pair of boots thus treated will last three times as long as those neglected.

And now for how to play the game!

THE FIELD

The field of play (Fig. 1) should be a level piece of turf, 110 yards in length between the goal-posts, and 75 yards in width; in cases of necessity these dimensions may be a little less, but they should never be exceeded. The ground should extend behind the posts for about 20 yards, so as to allow space for a run in when the ball is driven behind the goal. A little space is also required beyond the side boundaries, so that a piece of turf about 150 yards in length by 100 yards in width makes a desirable ground. The

goals are composed of two upright posts of indefinite height—those of about 15 feet will be found convenient—joined by a cross-bar 10 feet above the ground. Over this cross-bar the ball must be kicked in order to obtain a goal. The posts are placed 18 feet 6 inches apart, and on no account should flags be placed on them. The two goals having been fixed at the required distance, lines, should be marked on the turf from the side of each goal to the edge of the ground. These mark the limit of the field in point of length, and are represented by the lines A A in the accompanying diagram (Fig. 1). When the ball is on or behind one of these lines, it is "in goal." The sides of the ground should be indicated by lines marked on the turf, and at right angles to the goal, as shown by the lines T T in the diagram. These are known as the *touch-lines*, and when the ball is outside them it is said to be "in touch." The ground that lies in the four corners outside the field of play—that is to say, the space which is both outside the touch-lines and behind the goal-line (marked Q in the diagram)—is known as "touch in goal." Flags should be placed at the four corners of the field of play, and three additional flags are required for each touch-line, one to be placed at each end, at a distance of 25 yards from the goal (L L in diagram), to mark the spot from which the defending side must kick the ball out after it has been touched down by them in their own goal, or by them or their opponents in "touch in goal"; and one at a spot equidistant from the two goals (r r in diagram) to mark the



The touch-lines and goal-lines should be cut out of the turf or otherwise well defined. The limit for kick-out should be marked by flags set up in the touch-lines. Flags should also be posted at the corners of the field of play, and exactly at the centre of each touch-line, but well back from it.

Fig. 1.—Plan of the Field for the Rugby Union Game

Fig. 1.—Plan of the field of play, and three additional flags are required for each touch-line, one to be placed at each end, at a distance of 25 yards from the goal (L L in diagram), to mark the spot from which the defending side must kick the ball out after it has been touched down by them in their own goal, or by them or their opponents in "touch in goal"; and one at a spot equidistant from the two goals (r r in diagram) to mark the

half-distance, and in a line with which the ball is kicked off at the commencement of play, at half-time, or when a goal has been obtained by either side.

The flag-posts should be six or seven feet in height, so that they may be seen from all parts of the ground, even when players or onlookers are crowding around them. It is, of course, desirable that the flags should show the colours of the school or club to which the ground may belong.

The ball used for the Rugby Union game is oval or egg-shaped (see Fig. 2). The size and weight must be as nearly, as possible: length, 11 in. to 11¼ in.; length circumference, 30 in. to 31 in.; width circumference, 25½ in. to 26 in.; and weight, 13 oz. to 14½ oz.

Hand-sewn and not less than eight stitches to the inch.



Fig 2. A Drop-kick

THE TEAM

The team of players on each side must consist of fifteen men, who should be disposed of by the captain as follows:—Eight men should be appointed *forwards*, whose duty it is always to follow closely on the ball, and to gather round it when a scrummage has to be formed—that is to say, when the ball is held and cannot be run with. In theory, the forwards should be the heavier: men of the team, as they are required to exert their weight and strength

to push the ball through the ranks of their opponents when a scrummage is formed; in practice, however, it will generally be found more convenient to select the players who are to fill the more important places in the field, and to make all the rest "forwards." Two of the most active men in the team—two who are quick at running, tackling, and above all at *passing*—should be selected as "half-backs." The duty of these last is to be continually on the watch for a chance of running with the ball, or of passing it to one of the "three-quarter-backs," or of preventing any of their opponents from getting away with it. As a rule they should always be a little behind the forwards, unless they seize an opportunity of dashing in front for a run or to tackle an opponent. (Plate 9.) It is usual for one half-back to "work the scrummage," i.e. to put the ball in and pass it out when it is "heeled" by the forwards, and for the other half-back to stand some distance away ready to take the pass (or to mark his opponent) and so to form a connecting link between the scrum-half and the three-quarter line. A short distance behind the half-backs

should be the "three-quarter-backs"—the speediest men in the team, and the best at running, dodging, and tackling; two of these should stand rather wide of the play, one on each side, and two in the centre, in a line with the scrummage. Three-quarter-backs should be good "drop-kicks" (Fig. 2 and Plate 9)—men who can make a drop-kick* with either foot—as they will often have a chance of kicking a goal direct from the field of play. About fifteen yards or so behind the three-quarter-backs, in the centre of the ground, should be a "full-back," the last resource of his side in the event of an opponent carrying the ball through the other players. The backs must, therefore, be safe men—cool and quick in an emergency, to be depended upon, whether they have to make their kick, or to run with the ball, or to touch it down behind their own goal-line, or to tackle an opponent.

With this preliminary explanation of the field of play, and of the position of the players, it is now possible to give a short account of the game in some of its phases, with a view to the more ready comprehension of the numerous rules which make up the Rugby Football Code.

The teams having met on the field of play, the captains toss for choice of goals, the loser taking kick-off; or the winner may, if he prefer, elect to take kick-off, leaving choice of goals to his opponent.

The goals having been selected, the ball is taken to the centre of the ground, and placed in a small nick to keep it steady, preparatory to the kick-off. This must be a place-kick (which is explained in Law 2), and until the ball is kicked all the members of the opposing team must keep at least ten yards away from it in the direction of their own goal. The forwards of either side range themselves in two lines some ten yards apart, with their half-backs, three-quarter-backs, and backs at varying distances behind them. All being ready, the ball is kicked off. Should it pitch in touch, it must be kicked off again, if the opposite side so claim, or a scrummage may be claimed in the centre of the ground; but if not, play begins in earnest. It may be that, as the ball bounds from the ground, it is seized by one of the opposing backs, who either kicks it or runs with it, taking a kick when he sees he is about to be tackled. The next man who picks up the ball is, perhaps, caught ere he can start. All the forwards of both sides hurry up, and a "scrummage" (Plate 9) is formed. Here the eight forwards of either side face each other and their opponents' goal, packed tightly round the ball in a compact, circular mass, bodies and legs close together, every player pressing closely against his neighbour, and endeavouring by every

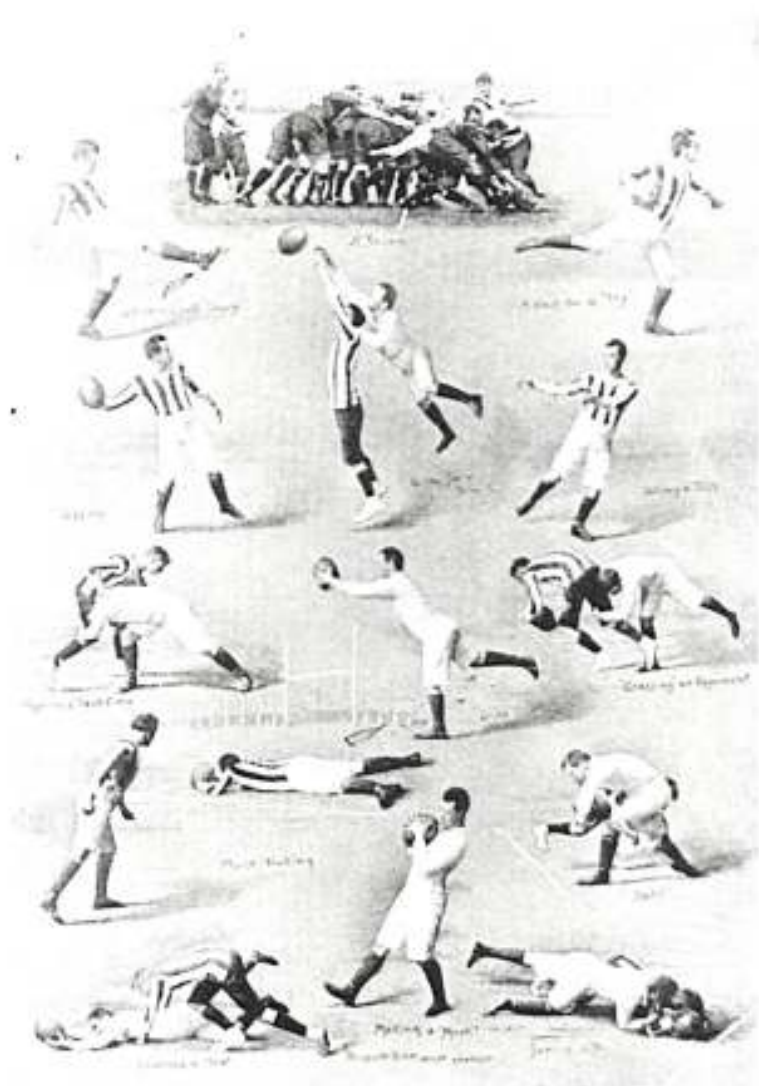
A "drop-kick" or "drop" is made by letting the ball fall from the hands and kicking it the very instant it rises. In this respect it differs from an ordinary kick made while the ball is rolling on the ground; from a "place-kick," made by kicking the ball after it has been placed in a nick in the ground prepared in order to keep it at rest; and from a "punt," made by letting the ball fall from the hands and kicking it *before* it touches the ground.

means in his power, *except by random kicking*, to drive the ball either by main force through the mass of his opponents and towards their goal, or to "screw" his opponents—that is to say, to slide them off the ball, while his own team keep well on it. As to the formation of a scrummage, the common practice is for players to put their heads down, both that they may be able to see the ball—especially important in "screwing"—and also that they may use their shoulders with more effect.

On emerging from the scrummage it may chance that the ball is driven over the goal-line of one or other side. If the ball be touched down by one of the defending side, what is called a "touch down" occurs, and the ball is then brought out to the line between the twenty-five yards post flags, and started again with a drop-kick. Or if the ball be touched down by an enemy a "try" is obtained, and a "try at goal" follows, the procedure being as follows:—The player who touched the ball down, or another of his side appointed by the captain, usually a half-back, brings the ball up to the goal-line in a direct straight line from the spot where it was touched down, and then he brings the ball out into the field of play such a distance as he may think convenient for a place-kick. (Plate 9.) The captain having appointed someone to try the kick at goal, the player who has brought the ball out makes a small nick for the ball to rest in; and just behind an imaginary straight line drawn through this spot parallel to the goal-line, all the other players of that side range themselves, stretching across the ground, and facing the enemy's goal. The other side must remain within their own goal until the ball has been placed on the ground, and they therefore spread themselves out along and behind the goal-line, waiting to rush out directly the ball touches the ground. All being ready, the player appointed to kick the ball gives the signal, the one who has brought it out from the goal-line places it on the ground, and the try is made. Directly the ball reaches the ground, the opposing team may rush out and charge the ball, and if any one of them should touch it no goal can be scored, even though it pass over the cross-bar. If a goal should be obtained, the ball is kicked off afresh from the centre of the ground by the side who lost the goal. But if the try fail the ball is dead, and the game proceeds by a "kick-out"—that is to say, by a drop-kick from within twenty-five yards outside the kicker's goal-line.

It will continually happen that the ball is driven into touch; but the method of procedure in such a case is so clearly explained in the laws of the game that further comment on this point is unnecessary. The ball should always be thrown out from touch by one of the half-backs, who should therefore be accurate throwers, and able to cast the ball a long distance. When the ball is thrown out the forwards of each side should range up in line, every player being careful to mark an opponent so as to prevent him from getting away with the ball. If possible, every man should have his own appointed

PLATE 9



FOOTBALL: THE RUGBY UNION GAME

(See pages 140-146.)

place in lining out, which he can occupy directly the ball goes into touch.

A great feature of the Rugby Union game consists in well-organised rushes by the forwards. In what is known as a rush the forwards of one side, acting closely in concert, rush the ball through their opponents, and by accurate and careful dribbling carry it right past the three-quarter-backs and the full-back, and beyond the goal-line. Backs find it very hard to meet these planned rushes: they contend with a single dribbler, or a man running with the ball, but as a rule they have but one chance when meeting a compact mass of dribblers—at all risks they must fall on the ball, and cause a scrummage to be formed.

THE LAWS OF THE GAME OF FOOTBALL, AS PLAYED BY THE RUGBY FOOTBALL UNION

N.B.—The annotations to various rules have been collated from the International Board's latest issue.

I. Introduction

1. The Rugby game of football should be played by 15 players on each side. The field of play shall not exceed 110 yards in length, nor 75 in breadth, and shall be as near these dimensions as practicable. The lines defining the boundary of the field of play shall be suitably marked, and shall be called the goal-lines at the ends and the touch-lines at the sides. On each goal-line and equidistant from the touch-lines shall be two upright posts, called goal-posts, exceeding 11 feet in height, and placed 18 feet 6 inches apart, and joined by a cross-bar 10 feet from the ground; and the object of the game shall be to kick the ball over the cross-bar and between the posts. The game shall be played with an oval ball of as nearly as possible the following size and weight, namely—

Length, 11 to 11½ inches; length circumference, 30 to 31 inches; width circumference, 25½ to 26 inches; weight, 13 to 14½ ounces. Hand sewn and not less than eight stitches to the inch.

NOTE.—It is the duty of the visiting team to see that the ground complies with Law 1 as to size, and is properly marked, and the dead-ball line is distinct, etc., and it is the duty of each side to see that their opponents do not play more than 15 men. If they fail to see to these points before the game begins, no appeal can afterwards be entertained in relation thereto, except in regard to the last-mentioned point, which can be objected to during the game, but such objection will not affect any score made prior thereto.

II. Glossary—Duties of Officials—Scoring

2. The following terms occur in the laws, and have the respective meanings attached to each:—

Dead-ball Lines.—Not more than 25 yards behind and equidistant from each goal-line, and parallel thereto, shall be lines which shall be called the dead-ball lines, and if the ball or player holding the ball touch or cross these lines the ball shall be dead and out of play.

In-goal.—Those portions of the ground immediately at the ends of

the field of play and between the touch-lines, produced to the dead-ball lines, are called in-goal. The goal-lines are in-goal.

NOTE.—As the goal-line is in-goal a try or touch-down may be obtained thereon.

If a player holding the ball in his own in-goal touches the referee, the ball is dead at the spot, and a drop out must be taken; except in the case of a player having run back behind his own goal-line, in which case the ball must be scrummaged at the spot whence it was carried back. Similarly a player who crosses the opponents' goal-line with the ball in his possession, and before grounding it touches the referee, shall be allowed a try at the spot.

Touch.—Those portions of the ground immediately at the sides of the field of play and between the goal-lines, if produced, are called touch. The touch-lines and all posts and flags marking these lines, or the centre or 25-yards lines, are in touch.

NOTE.—A player may be in touch and yet play the ball with his foot if the ball be not in touch.

A player, provided he is not carrying the ball, may be in touch and yet score a try by touching the ball down with his hands.

The ball blown over the touch-line and blown back shall be considered as in touch.

Touch-in-Goal.—Those portions of the ground immediately at the four corners of the field of play, and between the goal- and touch-lines, if respectively produced, are called touch-in-goal. The corner posts and flags are in touch-in-goal.

NOTE.—If the ball or a player holding it touch one of the corner posts or flags prior to touching down, the ball must be considered as in touch-in-goal. A player may himself be in touch-in-goal and yet play the ball with his foot, if the ball be not in touch-in-goal; or he may, provided he is not carrying the ball, touch it down with his hands and score a try.

A *drop-kick* is made by letting the ball fall from the hands and kicking it as it rises.

A *place-kick* is made by kicking the ball after it has been placed on the ground for the purpose.

A *punt* is made by letting the ball fall from the hands and kicking it before it touches the ground.

A *tackle* is when the holder of the ball is held by one or more players of the opposite side so that he cannot pass or play it.

NOTE.—When a player is tackled with the ball it can only be brought into play with the foot, but if a player carrying the ball be thrown or knocked over (but not tackled), and the ball touches the ground, he may nevertheless get up with it and continue his run or pass it.

A *scrummage*, which can only take place in the field of play, is formed by one or more players from each side closing round the ball when it is on the ground, or by their closing up in readiness to allow the ball to be put on the ground between them.

NOTE.—The referee may order the ball to be put into the scrummage from either side he may choose.

A player shall be considered as wilfully preventing a ball being fairly put into a scrummage under Law 11 (f) if before the ball is fairly in the scrummage—

- (a) He moves either of his feet beyond the front line of his forwards;
- (b) Follows the ball into the scrummage with either foot.

A *try* is gained by the player who first puts his hand on the ball on the ground in his opponents' in-goal.

NOTE.—It is a try if a player passes or kicks the ball back behind his own goal-line and if the ball is touched down by one of his opponents.

When an attacking side in a scrummage pushes the defending side over the in-goal-line and touches the ball down a try should be allowed, but if the ball be touched down by the defending side a touch-down should be allowed.

If a player touches the ball down behind his opponents' goal-line and picks it up again he should be allowed a try at the spot where it was first touched down.

In the case of the ball rolling over the goal-line and touching a spectator before a player of either side has had time to touch it down the referee shall:

- (a) Award a touch-down if he considers the ball would have gone dead before any attacking player could have touched it, or that a defending player would have touched it first.
- (b) Award a try if he thinks but for the interference a try would have been scored.
- (c) If in doubt give the point against the side responsible for the ground arrangements, and in doing so he shall regard all officials and spectators as offending players on the home side.
- (d) A player who crosses the opponents' goal-line with the ball in his possession, and before grounding it touches the referee, shall be allowed a try on the spot.
- (e) If the ball not in possession of a player strikes the referee or touch-judge when in in-goal, a try should be awarded to the attacking side if, in the referee's opinion, a try would undoubtedly have been obtained but for the ball touching the referee or touch-judge; the referee shall award a touch-down if he considers the ball would have gone dead or be touched down by a defending player before any attacking player could have touched it.

A *touch-down* is when a player touches down as above in his own in-goal.

A *goal* is obtained by kicking the ball from the field of play, by any place-kick except a kick-off, or by any drop-kick except a drop-out, without touching the ground or any player of either side over the opponents' cross-bar, whether it touch such cross-bar or either goal-post or not.

NOTE.—A goal is scored if the ball has crossed the bar, although it may be blown back afterwards.

A kicker and a placer must be distinct persons, and the kicker may not under any circumstances touch the ball when on the ground, even though the charge has been disallowed.

Knocking-on and *Throwing-forward* are propelling the ball by the hand or arm in the direction of the opponents' in-goal; a throw out of touch cannot be claimed as a throw-forward.

NOTE.—A rebound is not a knock-on, and therefore no fair-catch can be made therefrom or a penalty given. This is important, as some referees appear to regard a rebound as a knock-on. If a ball is passed back, but after alighting on the ground is blown forward, the pass is good, provided the ball did not alight in front of the passer.

A *fair catch* is a catch made direct from a kick or knock-on, or throw-forward by one of the opposite side; the catcher must immediately

claim the same by making a mark with his heel at the spot where he made the catch. (Plate 9)

NOTE.—If a player kicks the ball with his knee, or any part below it, and an opponent makes a fair-catch, a free-kick should be awarded.

A fair-catch can only be claimed by the catcher making his mark after he has caught the ball; the mark, however, must be made as soon after the ball is caught as possible; and, in practice, referees might allow a claim when the mark was simultaneously made with the catching. A fair-catch can be made in a player's own in-goal.

Kick-off is a place-kick from the centre of the field of play; the opposite side may not stand within ten yards of the ball, nor charge until the ball be kicked, otherwise another kick-off shall be allowed. If the ball pitch in touch, the opposite side may accept the kick, have the ball kicked off again, or scrummaged in the centre of the ground.

Drop-out is a drop-kick from within 25 yards of the kicker's goal-line, within which distance the opposite side may not charge, otherwise another drop-out shall be allowed. If the ball pitch in touch the opposite side may accept the kick, have the ball dropped out again, or scrummaged in the centre of the 25-yards line.

At kick-off the ball must reach the limit of ten yards, and at drop-out must reach the 25-yards line. If otherwise, the opposite side may have the ball re-kicked, or scrummaged, at the centre or in the middle of the 25-yards line, as the case may be.

NOTE.—A ball from a kick-off having reached 10 yards, and then blown back, shall be considered as in play; as also a ball having reached the 25-yards line from a drop-out, and blown back.

The limit of 10 yards means that distance parallel with the touch-lines.

If a player goes beyond the 25 yards at drop-out, or if he punts, the referee must blow his whistle and order the player to take a new kick, which must be a drop within the 25-yards limit.

Referees should not allow players to approach within 10 yards of the half-way line at a kick-off.

Off-side. See Laws 7 and 8.

3. In all matches a referee and two touch-judges must be appointed, the former being mutually agreed upon. The referee must carry a whistle, the blowing of which shall stop the game; he must whistle in the following cases:—

(a) When a player makes and claims a fair catch.

(b) When he notices rough or foul play or misconduct. For the first offence he shall either caution the player or order him off the ground, but for the second offence he must order him off. If ordered off, the player must be reported by him to this Union.

NOTE.—Law 3 (b) also covers the case of willful obstruction or interference. Referees must deal very sharply with all cases of this nature, as this has been a growing practice through players deciding to take the risk of a penalty to gain or save a try by unfair play. This practice is so contrary to the spirit of the game that the Board have decided to deal with it upon the same footing as rough or foul play or misconduct.

If the referee orders a man off, he must not allow him to take part in the game again, and must report him to the Board. The referee should also report to his Union any player he has had to warn.

- (c) When he considers that the continuation of the play is dangerous.

NOTE.—The latter point must be left entirely to the referee, but the Board wish to point out that if the tackled player played the laws in the spirit in which they are written, and at once fairly parted with the ball, very few cases of danger would arise; but by holding on a short time danger may arise. In such a case the referee should whistle and award the penalty of a free kick instead of simply ordering a scrummage on the plea of danger, as by so doing he deprives one side of an advantage, and does not inflict a penalty on the other, both of which are deserved.

If a player be hurt the referee should not whistle till the ball be dead, unless such hurt player is in a position that the continuance of play might entail further danger, and in no case should he permit a stoppage of play for more than three minutes.

- (d) When he wishes to stop the game for any purpose.

NOTE.—See footnote under Section (r) of new Law.

- (e) If the ball or a player running with the ball touch him, in which case it shall be scrummaged at the spot.

NOTE.—A player crossing the opponents' goal-line with the ball in his possession, and then, before grounding the ball, touching the referee, should be allowed a try at the spot where he touched him.

If the ball not in possession of a player strikes the referee or touch-judge when in in-goal, a try should be scored for the attacking side, if, in the referee's opinion, a try would undoubtedly have been obtained but for the ball touching the referee or touch-judge; otherwise a drop-out from the 25 should be ordered.

If a player running the ball out from his own in-goal touches the referee, the ball is dead at the spot where he touches him and a drop-out must be taken; except in the case of a player having run back behind his own goal-line, in which case the ball must be scrummaged at the spot whence it was carried back.

- (f) At half-time and no side, he being the sole timekeeper, having sole power to allow extra time for delays, but he shall not whistle for half-time or no-side until the ball be held or out of play.

NOTE.—At half-time the interval is not to exceed five minutes.

- (g) When he notices any irregularity of play whereby the side committing such gain an advantage.

NOTE.—This is a most important Law, and at present is not so generally observed by referees as it should be. There is unfortunately a pronounced tendency on their part to whistle immediately a law has been infringed, without waiting to see who gains the advantage of the infringement. The referee should not whistle when the non-offending side gain an advantage.

The Board desire to urge referees to pay particular attention to this Law along with Law 20.

- (h) When he notices a breach of Laws 5 and 15.
 (i) When he wishes to enforce any penalty.
 (j) When a goal is kicked.
 (k) When the ball goes into touch-in-goal.

NOTE.—No power is given to a referee to whistle simply because a player is tackled with the ball, and this is one of the most important points to which the Board wish to direct the attention

OUTDOOR SPORTS

of players and referees, as the habit of whistling the moment a man is tackled spoils the game by slowing it down and taking away any advantage a side of quick followers-up would otherwise gain. When a player with the ball is tackled, a referee may only blow his whistle for one of the following cases:—

- (1) Law 11 (b).—When such player does not at once fairly put the ball down.
- (2) Law 11 (c).—When such player is on the ground and he does not at once fairly part with the ball, and either get up or roll away from the ball.
If a player breaks either of the above sub-sections, or interferes with the ball in any way while he is lying on the ground, the penalty of a free-kick should be enforced against him.
- (3) Law 11 (d).—When a player of the opposite side prevents such player either putting the ball down or getting up, the penalty of a free-kick shall be enforced against him. The Board desire to urge referees to pay greater attention to this Law, and also to Law 20.

The referee shall be sole judge in all matters of fact, but as to matters of law, there shall be the right of appeal to this Union.

NOTE.—A referee, once he has given a decision, cannot alter it, and his decision alone is final. He may, however, consult the touch-judges in case of touch and touch-in-goal play, and when they are taking posts at kicks at goal, but the fact that it is now the duty of touch-judges to stand at the goal-posts when kicks at goal are being taken does not affect the right of the referee to decide for himself whether a goal has been kicked or not, in the same way as he may decide whether the ball has gone into touch or not, he being the sole judge of matters of fact. Under all circumstances the referee's whistle must stop the game, even if blown inadvertently, and the referee's decision as to time must be final, even if he has kept it inaccurately. On no account must the referee consult with any outsider, except in the case of a failure of his watch, when he should in the first instance consult the touch-judges.

The touch judges shall carry flags, and shall each take one side of the ground, outside the field of play, and the duty of each shall be to hold up his flag when and where the ball goes into touch, or touch-in-goal, and also to assist the referee when kicks at goal from a try, fair catch, or free kicks are being taken, each standing at a goal-post.

NOTE.—It may here be emphasised that the referee is the sole judge as to matters of fact, and if he considers either touch-judge is not doing his duty fairly he not only has the right, but should certainly exercise it, of over-ruling any decision such touch-judge may give.

It is the duty of the touch-judge, subject to the decision of the referee, to say to which side he considers the ball in touch belongs.

4. The captains of the respective sides shall toss for the choice of in-goals or the kick-off. Each side shall play an equal time from each in-goal, and a match shall be won by a majority of points; if no points be scored, or the number be equal, the match shall be drawn.

The following shall be the mode of scoring:—

A try equals three points; a goal from a try (in which case the try shall not count) equals five points; a dropped goal (except from a mark

or a penalty kick) equals four points; goal from a mark or penalty kick equals three points.

5. At the time of the kick-off all the kicker's side shall be behind the ball; if any be in front, the referee shall blow his whistle and order a scrummage where the kick-off took place. The game shall be started by a kick-off:—

(a) After a goal, by the side losing such goal, and

(b) After half-time by the opposite side to that which started the game.

III. Mode of Play—Definitions

6. When once the game is started, the ball may be kicked or picked up and run with by any player who is on-side, at any time; except that it may not be picked up—

(a) In a scrummage.

(b) When it has been put down after a tackle.

(c) When it is on the ground after a player has been tackled.

NOTE.—When a player is tackled with the ball it can only be brought into play with the foot.

It may be passed or knocked from one player to another, provided it be not passed, knocked or thrown forward. If a player, while holding or running with the ball, be tackled, he must at once put it fairly down between him and his opponents' goal-line.

7. A player is placed off-side if he enters a scrummage from his opponents' side, or if the ball has been kicked, touched, or is being run with by one of his own side behind him. A player can be off-side in his opponents' in-goal, but not in his own, except where one of his side takes a free kick behind his goal-line, in which case all his side must be behind the ball when kicked.

NOTE.—A player may play in any position so long as he is on-side and does not obstruct his opponents. He may come up to a scrummage and attempt to hook the ball out with his foot, provided the other foot is behind the ball.

8. An off-side player is placed on side:—

(a) When an opponent has run five yards with the ball.

(b) When the ball has been kicked by, or has touched an opponent.

(c) When one of his side has run in front of him with the ball.

(d) When one of his side has run in front of him, having kicked the ball when behind him.

NOTE.—A player must be in the field-of-play when he puts his men on-side after kicking the ball when behind them. Whilst he is not debarr'd from starting running up in touch, he must get into the field-of-play as soon as possible. It must be observed that only the kicker can place the off-side players on-side.

An off-side player shall not play the ball, nor actively or passively obstruct an opponent, or approach or wilfully remain within ten yards of any opponent waiting for the ball; on any breach of this law the opposite side shall be awarded, at their option:—

(e) A free-kick, the place of such breach being taken as the mark.

(f) A scrummage at the spot where the ball was last played by the offending side before such breach occurred.

Except in the case of unintentional off-side, when a scrummage shall be formed where such breach occurred.

NOTE.—It is important that referees should more strictly enforce these penalties, and it should be observed that a referee must award a free-kick if he thinks a fair-catch would have been made had not an off-side player, through his proximity and not retiring beyond the 10-yards limit, have rendered such catch more difficult. For instance, a player waiting to receive the ball fails to catch it properly, and it drops from his hands to the ground. An opponent who is off-side and who is standing or has approached within 10 yards of him, immediately pounces upon him and prevents him recovering and playing the ball. A free-kick should be awarded as it was the duty of the off-side player to have retired beyond the 10-yards limit.

Referees too often give offending players the benefit of unintentional off-side, instead of inflicting the free-kick penalty.

A player when off-side can intercept a pass from an opposing player, but he can only make a mark for a fair-catch if the pass intercepted is a forward one.

The Board has ruled that a player who has made a miskick when the opposite side is charging, and the ball hits one of his own off-side players, cannot claim a scrummage for unintentional off-side, provided the charging side gain an advantage, even though that be a try.

9. If a player makes a fair catch a free-kick shall be awarded, even though the whistle has been blown for a knock-on or a throw-forward. Any player on the same side may take the kick or place the ball.

10. All free-kicks may be place-kicks, drop-kicks, or punts, but must be in the direction of the opponents' goal-line, and across the kicker's goal-line, if kicked from behind the same. They may be taken at any spot behind the mark in a line parallel to the touch-lines. In all cases the kicker's side must be behind the ball when it is kicked, except the player who may be placing the ball for a place-kick, and it is the duty of the referee to see that the ball be kicked from the parallel line. In case of any infringement of this law the referee shall order a scrummage at the mark. The opposite side may come up to, and charge from anywhere on or behind a line drawn through the mark and parallel to the goal-lines, and may charge as soon as the kicker commences to run or offers to kick, or the ball be placed on the ground for a place-kick, but in case of a drop-kick or punt the kicker may always draw back, and unless he has dropped the ball the opposite side must retire to the line of the mark. But if any of the opposite side do charge before the player having the ball commences to run or offers to kick, or the ball has touched the ground for a place-kick (and this applies to tries at goal as well as free-kicks), provided the kicker has not taken his kick, the charge may be disallowed.

NOTE.—In cases of players waiting to charge when a kick, after a try, fair-catch or a free-kick is about to be taken, they must remain behind the goal-line or behind the mark with both feet, and any standing over the goal-line or over the mark with one foot shall be considered to have charged, and the referee shall blow his whistle and award no charge; the referee shall also be particular that any side waiting behind the mark do not gradually come up beyond the mark, which act shall be considered as a

charge. When a player is placing the ball he shall not wilfully do anything which may lead his opponents to think he has put the ball down—then he has not; if he does the charge shall not be disallowed. Even when a charge has been disallowed the would-be chargers may, provided they remain behind the mark, jump up and attempt to stop or touch the ball; if they so touch it no goal can be scored.

If a referee whistles to disallow a charge just as a kicker takes his kick, such kicker shall have the option of another kick—that is, if he has kicked a goal he can allow it to stand; if he has not he can take a second kick.

If a free-kick has been granted, and after a charge by the defending side has been disallowed, the kicker touches the ball when it is on the ground, the referee must order a scrummage.

Any player except the kicker may place or, after a charge has been disallowed, replace the ball, or alter the spot for a place-kick.

IV. Penalties

11. Free kicks by way of penalties shall be awarded if any player—

(a) Intentionally either handles the ball, or falls down in a scrummage, or picks the ball out of a scrummage, or picks it up in a scrummage, either by hands or legs.

(b) Does not immediately put it down in front of him on being tackled.

(c) Being on the ground, does not immediately get up.

NOTE.—Players must understand that the penalty will be inflicted if they interfere with the ball in any way while they are lying on the ground.

(d) Prevents an opponent getting up or putting the ball down.

(e) Illegally tackles, charges, or obstructs, as in Law 8.

NOTE.—When two opposing players are running for the ball, a player overtaking another may not shove the overtaken player from behind; if he does it is illegal, and should be penalised by a free-kick.

This would not, however, apply when the overtaken player had reached the ball and was stooping down to pick it up.

A player running at the ball may charge an opponent also running at the ball, but such charge may only be shoulder to shoulder.

(f) Wilfully tackles an opponent who has not got the ball.

(g) Wilfully hacks, hacks-over, or trips up.

NOTE.—Although a penalty of a free-kick is now given, the referee should still caution a player or even order him off the ground if side-hacking or tripping-up constitutes rough play.

(h) Wilfully puts the ball unfairly into a scrummage, or, the ball having come out, wilfully returns it by hand or foot into the scrummage.

(i) Not himself running for the ball, charges or obstructs an opponent not holding the ball.

NOTE.—In cases where two opposing players are running for the ball, a player overtaking another may not shove the overtaken player from behind. If he does it is illegal, and should be penalised by a free-kick. This would not, however, apply when the overtaken player has reached the ball and was stooping down to pick it up. A player running at the ball may charge an opponent also running at the ball, but such charge may only be shoulder to shoulder.

(j) Shouts "all on-side," or words to that effect, when the players are not on-side.

NOTE.—This is intended to apply chiefly to a back having kicked the ball, and, while following, he or others of his side shout "on-side" when he has not yet placed his side "on-side."

(k) Not in a scrummage, wilfully obstructs his opponents' backs by remaining on his opponents' side of the ball when it is in a scrummage.

NOTE.—This prohibits forwards as well as backs standing in front of the ball so as to mark the opposing backs, and should be strictly enforced. While wishful to emphasise this, the Board would also point out that it is not intended thereby to penalise a half-back who unintentionally over-runs the ball in a scrummage.

(l) Wilfully prevents the ball being fairly put into a scrummage.

NOTE.—Loose head is to be dealt with as "wilfully preventing" under that head.

(m) If any player or team wilfully and systematically break any law or laws, for which the penalty is only a scrummage, or cause unnecessary loss of time.

(n) Being in a scrummage, lift a foot from the ground before the ball has been put into such scrummage.

The places of infringement shall be taken as the mark, and any one of the side granted the free-kick may place or kick the ball.

On breach of sub-section (j) the opposite side shall be awarded at their option—

(a) A scrummage where the ball was last played.

(b) A free-kick at the place of infringement.

V. General

12. The ball is in touch when it, or a player carrying it, touch or cross the touch-line; it shall then belong to the side opposite to that last touching it in the field of play, except when a player carrying the ball is forced into touch by an opponent. One of the side to whom the ball belongs shall bring it into play at the spot where it went into touch, by one of the following methods:—

(a) Throwing it out so as to alight at right angles to the touch-line, or

(b) scrummaging it at any spot at right angles to the touch-line, 10 yards from the place where it went into touch.

If the referee blows his whistle because the ball has been thrown out so as not to alight at right angles to the touch-line, the opposite side shall bring it out as in (b).

NOTE.—It is the duty of the referee when the ball is taken out of touch as in (b) to see that it is scrummaged 10 yards from the touch-line.

"Forced into touch by an opponent" means "physically" forced. When a player is penalised for illegally throwing the ball out of touch, the penalty-kick should be given 10 yards from the touch-line.

13. When the side has scored a try (Plate 9), the ball shall be brought from the spot where the try was gained into the field of play in a line parallel to the touch-lines, such distance as the placer thinks proper, and there he shall place the ball for one of his side to try to kick a goal; this place-kick is governed by Law 10 as to charging, etc.,

the mark being taken as on the goal-line. It is the duty of the referee to see that the ball is taken out straight:

NOTE.—Any player except the kicker may place or, after a charge has been disallowed, he or another of his side (other than the kicker) may replace the ball or alter the spot for a place-kick. If a try has been scored and after a charge by the defending side has been disallowed, the kicker touches the ball when it is on the ground, the referee must order a "drop-out," the illegal act of the kicker in so handling the ball making it an unsuccessful try within the meaning of Law 15.

The referee shall award a try if, in his opinion, one would undoubtedly have been obtained but for unfair play or interference of the defending side. Or he shall disallow a try and adjudge a touch-down if, in his opinion, a try would undoubtedly not have been gained but for unfair play or interference of the attacking side. In case of a try so allowed, the kick at goal shall be taken at any point on a line parallel to the touch-lines, and passing through the spot where the ball was when such unfair play or interference took place.

NOTE.—This instruction also applies to a kick at goal from a free-kick, but in that case a scrummage should be ordered.

In case of any dispute relative to a try, where it is possible an appeal may be made to the Board, referees are recommended to allow a kick at goal, so that if the Board afterwards allows the try, the goal points may be added, if the kick was successful.

In the case of a kick for goal from a mark, penalty or try, if, in the opinion of the referee, the ball is illegally stopped after the kick has been taken, and he is of opinion that a goal would otherwise undoubtedly have been gained, he shall have power to award the goal.

14. If the ball, when over the goal-line and in possession of a player, be fairly held by an opposing player before it is grounded, it shall be scrummaged five yards from the goal-line, opposite the spot where the ball was held.

15. After an unsuccessful try, or touch-down, or if the ball, after crossing the goal-line, go into touch-in-goal or touch or cross the dead-ball line, it shall be brought into play by means of a drop-out, when all the kicker's side must be behind the ball when kicked; in case any are in front, the referee shall order a scrummage on the 25-yards line and equidistant from the touch-lines.

16. In case of a throw-forward or knock-on, the ball shall be brought back to the place where such infringement occurred and there be scrummaged, unless a fair catch has been allowed, or the opposite side gain an advantage.

17. If a player shall wilfully kick, pass, knock, or carry the ball back across his goal-line and it there be made dead, the opposite side may claim that the ball shall be brought back and a scrummage formed at the spot whence it was kicked, passed, knocked or carried back. Under any other circumstances a player may touch the ball down in his own in-goal.

NOTE.—Heeling back over own goal-line shall be considered as wilfully kicking back. If, when a ball is passed back, the would-be receiver fumbles it so that it goes over his own goal-line, the referee shall decide whether such fumble were intentional or not, and decide accordingly.

18. Hacking, backing-over, or tripping up are illegal. The referee shall have full power to decide what part of a player's dress, including boots and projections thereon, buckles, rings, etc., are dangerous, and having once decided that any part is dangerous shall order such player to remove the same, and shall not allow him to take further part in the game until such be removed.

NOTE.—It is the duty of the referee to see that this Law is complied with by players.

19. In case of any law being infringed in in-goal by the attacking side, a touch-down shall be awarded, but where such breach is committed by the defending side, a scrumage shall be awarded five yards from the goal-line, opposite to the spot where the breach occurred.

20. If when a law is broken or any irregularity of play occurs not otherwise provided for, and any advantage is gained therefrom by the opposite side, the referee shall not blow his whistle, but shall allow the game to proceed, but if no advantage is gained by such side, and if no other procedure is provided, the ball shall be taken back to the place where the breach of the law or irregularity occurred and a scrumage formed there.

[We have been enabled to give the foregoing rules by the kind permission of the Rugby Football Union.]

THE NORTHERN UNION

The strictness of the Rugby Union on the Amateur question was heavily felt by players, especially in Yorkshire and Lancashire. In these two Counties the majority of footballers belong to the working-classes. When these men played they generally had to lose a day's work—and a day's pay—to do so. Eventually, after much negotiation and discussion, they decided to secede from the parent body and form a Union of their own, in which payment for lost time—or "broken time," as it is generally called—would be allowed. The rules are frequently being altered, and the organisation is generally supported throughout the North.



FOOTBALL

II.—THE ASSOCIATION GAME

THE first rules of the Football Association were adopted and published in 1863, which date marks the beginning of the present game, the early game differing very considerably from that of to-day.

This game is much simpler than the Rugby Union. Its essential features are that no handling or running with the ball is allowed, that goals are the only advantages scored, and that the ball must pass under the cross-bar in order to secure a goal, and not over.

THE FIELD

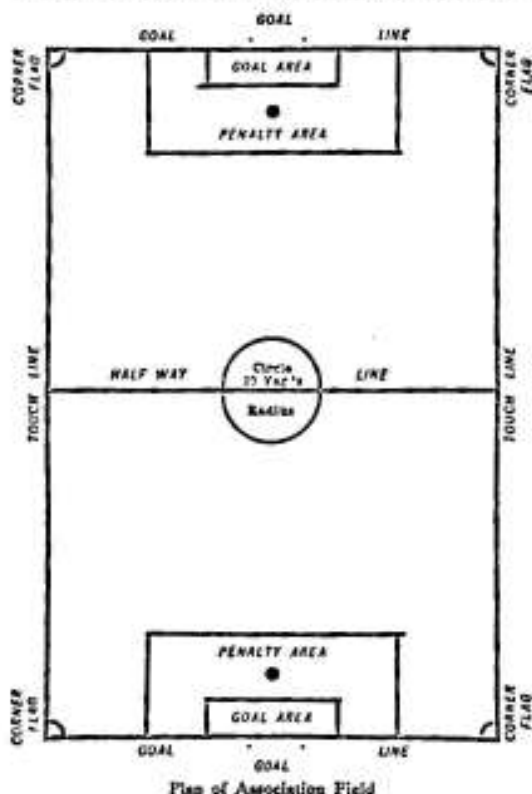
The ground from goal to goal should never be less than 100 yards in length, nor more than 130 yards; its width should vary in proportion to its length, from a minimum of 50 yards to a maximum of 100 yards. The lines must be marked on the turf and with flags, as already described for the Rugby Union game.

Each goal is composed of two posts, placed eight yards apart, with a bar across them eight feet from the ground. The maximum width of the goal-posts and the maximum depth of the cross-bar shall be five inches. The ball is not egg-shaped, as in the Rugby Union game, but round, and its size is prescribed by the Laws. (See Law 1.)

THE TEAM

Eleven players constitute a team, and as to the best method of placing these in the field, perhaps we cannot do better than adopt the opinion of the late Mr. C. W. Alcock, once the secretary of the Football Association, who advised for goalkeeper a cool, clear-headed player, an adept at catching. There should be two full-backs (in most cases the rule is to have two backs, three half-backs, and a goalkeeper), the half-backs following up as the forwards advance, tackling the opposing forwards and "feeding" their own forwards, the full-backs acting, of course, as the last line of defence in front of the goal-keeper. Half-backs should be quick, active, and sure kicks in any position, while full-backs should be strong, resolute, and able to kick with force as well as accuracy. In some special cases half-backs should have the option of dribbling or kicking at their discretion, but full-backs ought never to stand on the order of kicking, but kick at once. The five forwards should work together, the one in the centre being reserved as much as possible for shooting at goal. Wing-players should be good dribblers, and should be kept

as much as possible on one particular side of the ground, as with practice they get insensibly into the way of trusting more to the left foot if they follow the ball on the left side, to the right if used to the right side of the ground, and in case they are told off to the opposite side to which they have usually been accustomed are for a time all abroad. Of course, many of these hints may be altered as



circumstances demand an offensive or defensive kind of play, but such wrinkles experience alone will teach. When contending against a weak opponent, or with a very strong wind, one of the half-backs may be pushed to the front, but under no circumstances whatever should the goalkeeper be allowed to leave the immediate neighbourhood of his post. The disadvantage of a strong wind will be considerably lessened by strengthening the numbers placed on the windward side. Association Football, however, is of so varied a nature, that it is difficult to offer a prescription for all the different phases of the game, which can be gained only by the crucial test of experience. The best teaching is the unwritten law of constant, careful practice.

GENERAL HINTS

An important feature of the Association game consists in "dribbling" the ball—namely, in working the ball along with the feet, pushing it on with a series of gentle kicks, and guiding and piloting it past opponents towards the desired goal.

It is very essential that all the members of a team should work

well together, and especially that the forwards should follow close on the ball, and always be prepared to take it from a fellow-player, or to assist him by any means in their power. It is the business of the backs to clear their goal, and they should not hesitate to kick the ball over the touch-line when necessary. An unselfish game is absolutely essential to a good exposition. The defence will, in the main, rest with the backs and the goalkeeper, the attack with the forwards and the half-backs, it being the duty of the latter, as we have seen, both to feed their forwards and to tackle the opposing forwards when they have broken through the first line of attack. Never play roughly, and always keep your temper. The game usually lasts one hour and a half—that is, three-quarters of an hour each way. When circumstances permit, players should go in for some amount of practice between matches—the wing-men should sprint, and all should acquire dexterity and accuracy of aim in shooting at goal. Weakness in front of goal is a bad fault.

THE LAWS OF THE GAME

1. The game shall be played by 11 players on each side. The field of play shall be as shown in the plan on page 158, subject to the following provisions: The dimensions of the field of play shall be—maximum length, 130 yards; minimum length, 100 yards; maximum breadth, 100 yards; minimum breadth, 50 yards. The field of play shall be marked by boundary lines. The lines at each end are the goal-lines, and the lines at the sides are the touch-lines. The touch-lines shall be drawn at right angles with the goal-lines. A flag with a staff not less than 5 feet high shall be placed at each corner. A half-way line shall be marked out across the field of play. The centre of the field of play shall be indicated by a suitable mark, and a circle with a 10-yards radius shall be made round it. The goals shall be upright posts, fixed on the goal-lines, equi-distant from the corner flagstaffs, 8 yards apart, with a bar across them 8 feet from the ground. The maximum width of the goal-posts and the maximum depth of the cross-bar shall be 5 inches. Lines shall be marked 6 yards from each goal-post at right angles to the goal-lines for a distance of 6 yards, and these shall be connected with each other by a line parallel to the goal lines; the space within these lines shall be the goal area. Lines shall be marked 18 yards from each goal-post at right angles to the goal-lines for a distance of 18 yards, and these shall be connected with each other by a line parallel to the goal-lines; the space within these lines shall be the penalty area. A suitable mark shall be made opposite the centre of each goal, 12 yards from the goal line; this shall be the penalty kick mark. The circumference of the ball shall not be less than 27 inches, nor more than 28 inches. The outer casing of the ball must be of leather, and no material shall be used in the construction of the ball which would constitute a danger to the players. In International matches the dimensions of the field of play shall be—maximum length, 120 yards; minimum length, 110 yards; maximum breadth, 80 yards; minimum breadth, 70 yards; and at the commencement of the game the weight of the ball shall be from 13 to 15 ounces. The touch- and goal-lines must not be marked by a V-shaped rut.

2. The duration of the game shall be 90 minutes, unless otherwise mutually agreed upon. The winners of the toss shall have the option of kick-off or choice of goals. The game shall be commenced by a place-kick from the centre of the field of play in the direction of the opponents' goal-line; the opponents shall not approach within 10 yards of the ball until it is kicked off, nor shall any player on either side pass the centre of the ground in the direction of his opponent's goal until the ball is kicked off. If this law is not complied with, the kick-off must be taken again.

3. Ends shall only be changed at half-time. The interval at half-time shall not exceed five minutes, except by consent of the referee. After a goal is scored the losing side shall kick off, and after the change of ends at half-time the ball shall be kicked off by the opposite side from that which originally did so; and always as provided in Law 2.

4. Except as otherwise provided by these laws, a goal shall be scored when the ball has passed between the goal-posts under the bar, not being thrown, knocked on, nor carried by any player of the attacking side. If from any cause during the progress of the game the bar is displaced, the referee shall have power to award a goal if, in his opinion, the ball would have passed under the bar if it had not been displaced. The ball is in play if it rebounds from a goal-post, cross-bar, or a corner flagstaff into the field of play. The ball is in play if it touches the referee or a linesman when in the field of play. The ball is out of play when it has crossed the goal-line or touch-line, either on the ground or in the air.

The whole of the ball must have passed over the goal-line or touch-line before it is out of play.

5. When a ball is in touch, a player of the opposite side to that which played it out shall throw it in from the point on the touch-line where it left the field of play. The player throwing the ball must stand on the touch-line facing the field of play, and shall throw the ball in over his head with both hands in any direction, and it shall be in play when thrown in. A goal shall not be scored from a throw in, and the thrower shall not again play until the ball has been played by another player. (NOTE.—This law is complied with if the player has any part of both feet on the line when he throws the ball in.)

6. When a player plays the ball, or throws it in from touch, any player of the same side who at such moment of playing or throwing-in is nearer to his opponents' goal-line is out of play, and may not touch the ball himself, nor in any way whatever interfere with an opponent, or with the play, until the ball has been again played, unless there are at such moment of playing or throwing-in at least three of his opponents nearer their own goal-line. A player is not out of play in the case of a corner kick, or when the ball is kicked off from goal, or when it has been last played by an opponent, or when he himself is within his own half of the field of play at the moment the ball is played or thrown in from touch by any player of the same side.

A flag may be placed opposite the half-way line on each side of the field of play, but it must be at least one yard from the touch-line, and on a staff not less than five feet high.

7. When the ball is played behind the goal-line by a player of the opposite side, it shall be kicked off by any one of the players behind whose goal-line it went, within that half of the goal area nearest the

point where the ball left the field of play; but, if played behind by any one of the side whose goal-line it is, a player of the opposite side shall kick it from within one yard of the nearest corner flag-staff. In either case, an opponent shall not be allowed within six yards of the ball until it is kicked off. The corner flag must not be removed when a corner kick is taken.

8. The goal-keeper may, within his own half of the field of play, use his hands, but shall not carry the ball. The goal-keeper shall not be charged except when he is holding the ball, or obstructing an opponent, or when he has passed outside the goal area. The goal-keeper may be changed during the game, but notice of such change must first be given to the referee. If a goal-keeper has been changed without the referee being notified, and the new goal-keeper handles the ball within the penalty area, a penalty kick must be awarded.

9. Neither tripping, kicking, nor jumping at a player shall be allowed. A player (the goal-keeper excepted) shall not intentionally handle the ball. A player shall not use his hands to hold or push an opponent. Charging is permissible, but it must not be violent or dangerous. A player shall not be charged from behind, unless he is intentionally obstructing an opponent. Cases of handling the ball and tripping, pushing, kicking or holding an opponent, and charging an opponent from behind, may so happen as to be considered unintentional, and when this is so no penalty must be awarded.

10. When a free kick has been awarded, the kicker's opponents shall not approach within 6 yards of the ball unless they are standing on their own goal-line. The ball must at least be rolled over before it shall be considered played—i.e. it must make a complete circuit or travel the distance of its circumference. The kicker shall not play the ball a second time until it has been played by another player. The kick-off (except as provided by Law 2), corner-kick, and goal-kick shall be free kicks within the meaning of this law.

11. A goal may be scored from a free kick which is awarded because of any infringement of Law 9, but not from any other free kick.

12. A player shall not wear any nails, except such as have their heads driven in flush with the leather, or metal plates, or projections, or gutta percha, on his boots, or on his shin guards. If bars or studs on the soles or heels of the boots are used, they shall not project more than half an inch, and shall have all their fastenings driven in flush with the leather. Bars shall be transverse and flat, not less than half an inch in width, and shall extend from side to side of the boot. Studs shall be round in plan, not less than half an inch in diameter, and in no case conical or pointed. Any player discovered infringing this law shall be prohibited from taking further part in the match. The referee shall, if required, examine the players' boots before the commencement of a match. Wearing soft indiarubber on the soles of boots is not a violation of this law.

13. A referee shall be appointed, whose duties shall be to enforce the laws and decide all disputed points; and his decision on points of fact connected with the play shall be final. He shall also keep a record of the game and act as timekeeper. In the event of any ungentlemanly behaviour on the part of any of the players, the offender or offenders shall be cautioned, and if any further offence is committed, or in case of violent conduct without any previous caution, the referee shall have

power to order the offending player or players off the field of play, and shall transmit the name or names of such player or players to his or their (National) Association, who shall deal with the matter. The referee shall allow for time wasted, lost through accident or other cause, suspend or terminate the game whenever, by reason of darkness, interference by spectators, or other cause, he may deem necessary; but in all cases in which a game is so terminated he shall report the same to the Association under whose jurisdiction the game was played, who shall have full power to deal with the matter. The referee shall have power to award a free kick in any case in which he thinks the conduct of a player dangerous, or likely to prove dangerous, but not sufficiently so as to justify him in putting in force the greater powers vested in him. The power of the referee extends to offences committed when the play has been temporarily suspended, and when the ball is out of play. All reports by referees to be made within three days after the occurrence.

14. Two linesmen shall be appointed, whose duty (subject to the decision of the referee) shall be to decide when the ball is out of play, and which side is entitled to the corner-kick, goal-kick, or throw-in, and to assist the referee in carrying out the game in accordance with the laws. In the event of any undue interference or improper conduct by a linesman, the referee shall have power to order him off the field of play and appoint a substitute, and report the circumstances to the National Association having jurisdiction over him, who shall deal with the matter. Linesmen where neutral must call the attention of the referee to rough play or ungentlemanly conduct, and generally assist him to carry out the game in a proper manner.

15. In the event of a supposed infringement of the laws, the ball shall be in play until a decision has been given.

16. In the event of any temporary suspension of play from any cause, the ball not having gone into touch, or behind the goal-line, the referee shall throw the ball down where it was when play was suspended, and it shall be in play when it has touched the ground. If the ball goes into touch or behind the goal-line before it is played by a player, the referee shall again throw it down. The players on either side shall not play the ball until it has touched the ground.

17. In the event of any infringement of Laws 5, 6, 8, 10, or 16, or of a player being sent off the field under Law 13, a free kick shall be awarded to the opposite side, from the place where the infringement occurred. In the event of an intentional infringement of Law 9 outside the penalty area, or by the attacking side within the penalty area, a free kick shall be awarded to the opposite side from the place where the infringement occurred. In the event of any intentional infringement of Law 9 by the defending side within the penalty area, the referee shall award the opponents a penalty kick, which shall be taken from the penalty kick mark under the following conditions:—All players, with the exception of the player taking the penalty kick and the opponents' goal-keeper, shall be outside the penalty area. The opponents' goal-keeper shall not advance beyond his goal-line. The ball must be kicked forward. The ball shall be in play when the kick is taken, and a goal may be scored from the penalty kick; but the ball shall not be again played by the kicker until it has been played by another player. If necessary, time of play shall be extended to admit of the penalty kick being taken. A free kick shall also be awarded

to the opposite side if the ball is not kicked forward or is played a second time by the player who takes the penalty kick until it has been played by another player. The referee may refrain from putting the provisions of this law into effect in cases where he is satisfied that by enforcing them he would be giving an advantage to the offending side. If when a penalty kick is taken the ball passes between the goal-posts under the bar, the goal shall not be nullified by reason of any infringement by the offending side. A penalty kick can be awarded irrespective of the position of the ball at the time the offence is committed. In the event of the ball touching the goal-keeper before passing between the posts, when a penalty kick is being taken at the expiry of time, a goal is scored.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

A *Place Kick* is a kick at the ball while it is on the ground in the centre of the field of play.

A *Free Kick* is a kick at the ball in any direction the player pleases, when it is lying on the ground.

A place kick, a free kick, or a penalty kick must not be taken until the referee has given a signal for the same.

Garrying by the goal-keeper is taking more than two steps while holding the ball, or bouncing it on the hand.

Knocking-on is when a player strikes or propels the ball with his hands or arms.

Handling and Tripping.—Handling is intentionally playing the ball with the hand or arm, and Tripping is intentionally throwing, or attempting to throw, an opponent by the use of the legs, or by stooping in front of or behind him.

Holding includes the obstruction of a player by the hand or any part of the arm extending from the body.

Touch is that part of the ground on either side of the field of play.

HINTS TO REFEREES

Law 2 of the game:—The kick off must be *in the direction of the opponents' goal-line*; also that back kicking and encroaching must not be allowed. Any player wilfully encroaching must first be cautioned, and, on repetition, be ordered off the field of play. After the ball has been properly kicked off, the second and other players can play it in any direction.

Law 4 enacts that "a goal shall be scored when the ball *has passed between the goal-posts*." A goal, therefore, cannot be scored until the *whole* ball has passed over the goal-line. The ball is also in play until the whole ball has passed over the touch-line or goal-line.

Law 6. The point to notice is not where a player is when he plays the ball, but where he is at the moment it is played by a player of the same side. If a player is in line with or behind the ball when it is played he cannot possibly be off-side, but if he is in front of it he is liable to be so. Though a player cannot be off-side when an opponent last plays the ball, or when a corner-kick, or a goal-kick, is taken, this protection ceases the moment a second player plays the ball, so that a player not off-side when a corner-kick is taken may, without having moved, be off-side as soon as the ball has been played. Players may be off-side when a free kick or penalty kick is taken, and when the ball

is thrown in from touch. An opponent playing the ball puts a player on-side at once, but while standing off-side a player must not interfere in any way with an opponent or with the play. If a player is standing off-side, he is off-side until the ball is next played, even though sufficient opponents fall back to make three between him and their goal-line.

A player who is in his own half of the field of play at the moment the ball is last played cannot be off-side.

Law 12, which reads as follows, should be strictly carried out by the referees in *all matches*: "A player shall not wear any nails, except such as have their heads driven in flush with the leather, or metal plates, or projections, or gutta percha, on his boots, or on his shin guards. If bars or studs on the soles or heels of the boots are used, they shall not project more than half an inch, and shall have all their fastenings driven in flush with the leather. Bars shall be transverse and flat, not less than half an inch in width, and shall extend from side to side of the boot. Studs shall be round in plan, not less than half an inch in diameter, and in no case conical or pointed. Any player discovered infringing this law shall be prohibited from taking further part in the match. The referee shall, if required, examine the players' boots before the commencement of a match."

[We have been enabled to give the foregoing rules by kind permission of the Football Association.]

GOLF

THOUGH this is the national game of Scotland, it is enthusiastically played in England, France, America, and other parts of the world. It is an enjoyable amusement, involving as it does a great amount of muscular exercise and plenty of walking, without at the same time calling for those spasmodic outbursts of violent energy which render several outdoor games simply "forbidden fruit" to hundreds of boys and young men.

THE LINKS

It is played over "links" (*English*, "downs" or "commons"); and the "course" will be none the less pleasing to keen golfers should it contain a fair sprinkling of sandpits, and other "bunkers" or "hazards" (as they are styled), which it is the chief aim and prime duty of the player to avoid if he possibly can do so. Throughout the common there is a series of circular holes, $4\frac{1}{4}$ inches in diameter, situated at various distances, ranging from 80 to 500 yards from each other, which are generally cut on a patch of smooth turf, the putting green, to facilitate "putting"—the gentle tapping of the ball as it gets near the hole. The players are either two in number, the commoner and simpler arrangement, or four (two against two, constituting what is known as a "foursome"), in which latter case the two partners strike the ball on their side alternately. The object of the game is to drive the ball from hole to hole round the course, which generally consists of 18 holes, in the fewest number of strokes, the player (or pair of players) succeeding in "holing" the ball in the fewest number winning that hole.

When both parties hole the ball in the same number of strokes, the hole is "halved," and counts to neither. Obviously, whoever gains the majority of holes wins the match, which may be finished, however, without completing the round, if one of the sides has placed more holes to its credit than remain to be played. You are said to be "dormy" when it is impossible for you to lose, as, for instance, if you are two holes ahead and there are only two to play, because even should your adversary win the last two the match would be drawn. Disparity between the competitors is balanced by "odds," which serve the same purpose as points in billiards—the less skillful getting a stroke to every hole or every second or third hole, as the case may be. In medal, as opposed to match, play the number of strokes made in completing the whole course is reckoned, the smaller aggregate winning.

THE START

Each player must be furnished with a set of clubs of different lengths and shapes, to be employed according to the lie of the ball or distance to be driven; for the ball, having been struck from the "tee" (a small heap of sand, to give the requisite elevation for a full drive to start with), must afterwards be struck as it happens to lie, and must not be touched by anything except the club until it reaches the hole—saving in the cases provided for in the rules. Having "teed" his ball, the player with his "driver" will drive the ball as far as he can towards the first hole. If it should, unluckily for him, fall amongst whin-bushes, or into a sand-pit, he must use an iron-headed club instead of the "driver," which is useless for balls so situated; and if he succeed in hitting the ball well holewards, out of the bushes or sand, in one stroke, he may consider himself very fortunate. It is difficulties such as these that test a player's skill, and necessitate the use of a variety of clubs, which either the player himself or a "caddie" (as the man or boy attendant is called) must carry round the course. Suppose that the ball has at last been driven fairly near the hole, the player will use the "putter" for the last strokes till the ball is holed. The next hole is then to be fought for in much the same way, until the course is travelled over. The character of the "hazards" will doubtless vary, but the general instructions for play remain the same.

CLUBS AND BALLS

The balls are made of gutta-percha, and are scored with cross-cut lines, it having been found that they travel farther and more surely when thus treated.

The varieties of clubs are numerous, but the list below contains all that an ordinary player is likely to need.

Wooden Clubs :—*Drivers, Brasscys.*

Metal Clubs :—*Cleeks, Lofting Irons, Mashies, Niblicks, Putters.*

This is a formidable list; yet the beginner need not be disheartened. Armed with a *brasscy*, which may be used instead of a *driver*, a *lofting iron*, and a *putter*, he may acquire such proficiency as will afford him many a good day's sport; and as he advances in skill he may complete his set.

The *driver*, varying in length from forty-four inches downwards, should be selected inclining rather to stiffness than to springiness in the shaft, with a medium-weighted flattish head, neither too deep in the face nor too broad in the back. It should be grasped firmly with the left hand, the right being held loosely to act as a guide, both hands being kept close to each other, the wrists easy, and the thumbs over, not along, the shaft, while the knees should be a little bent. The club should then be drawn as far as possible back over the right shoulder (Plate 11), but without touching it, and brought smartly down to the ball—the swing describing three-fourths of a

circle, and the body swinging with the arms, while the spine acts as a pivot. The ascent can scarcely be too deliberate, or the descent too rapid. But during the operation the eye must remain steadily fixed upon the ball, else it will either be missed altogether or struck on the top. No attempt must be made to press the shot with the right hand, which is always fatal, as sureness of aim and distance of flight are more the result of art than strength. These conditions lie at the foundation of style, and patience and attention will soon carry them into successful practice. But of no less importance is the manner in which the ball is addressed. This depends on the stand. The feet should be from eighteen to twenty-four inches apart, the left foot being placed nearly opposite the ball. A careful study of the proper position will prevent the ball being sent off the course either to the right, by standing too near it, or to the left, by standing too far from it.

The *cleek* is a club with a straight-faced iron head, sloped slightly backwards, the principal use of which is to drive long shots from hollows or places where the lie is not good enough for the *brassey* to be used. It is frequently used for driving and as a substitute for the iron, and in the hands of some players it can be made to do duty for all purposes. (Plate 11.)

Lofting irons and *marshies* are used principally for short lofting shots, when the *cleek* or *brassey* would carry the ball farther than necessary. By their use the ball drops dead, instead of running on, a most important consideration in "approaching" the putting green. *Niblicks*, and also *marshies*, are used to get the ball out of special difficulties such as whins, bushes, rough gravel, etc. (Plate 11.)

The final stage of the game is that which is fought on the putting green, and the club here used is of a special shape, and is known as the *putter*. It was formerly made of wood shaped like a driver; it is now generally of steel or of gun-metal. In its use the ball should be made to travel as steadily and directly as a billiard ball. The action of striking should be done mainly by the wrist and forearm (Plate 11), and the stroke should be delivered with coolness and decision. It is one of the most important rules in golf that the player, when making a stroke, should never take his eyes off the ball.

To hesitate here is to be lost. No timidity should mar the chances of a "putt." Here and throughout the game it cannot be too strongly impressed upon the novice that he commits a greater mistake in stopping short of the goal than in going beyond it. There is no sounder saw of the links than "Never up, never in."

GOLFING COSTUME

The costume of the golfer varies with his own special taste, and with the season. Some wear boating flannels, others knickerbocker tweed suits. Clubs whose courses are situated on public commons insist on the use of red coats to serve as danger signals to the

public. Red coats, with appropriate buttons, are the official uniforms of some clubs, but on private grounds are rarely seen in actual use. Boots or shoes should be strong, and should in all cases be shod with nails. Old leather gloves will prevent blisters arising from the friction of the clubs; but the left hand only stands in need of such protection, and the fingers of the glove may be cut off below the second joint with advantage.

The rules given below are prescribed by the Royal and Ancient Club of St. Andrews; they are universally recognised as the standard golfing code, and, subject to slight local modifications, can be easily adapted to any green. The beginner should, therefore, carefully study them before attempting practical work, as they contain many useful details and suggestions as to the manner of playing the game which will be found to explain several points of the play that (to avoid needless repetition) were not entered into at length in the foregoing description.

RULES OF GOLF

Definitions

1. *Side*.—A "side" consists either of one player or of two players. If one player play against another, the match is called a "single." If two play against two, each side playing one ball, the match is called "a foursome." If one play against two, playing one ball between them, the match is called "a threesome."

2. *Advice*.—"Advice" is any counsel or suggestion which could influence a player in determining a line of play, in the choice of a club, or in the method of making a stroke.

3. *Course*.—The "course" is the whole area within which play is permitted; more particularly, it is the ground between the holes which is specially prepared for play.

4. *Teeing-ground*.—The "teeing-ground" is the starting place for a hole. The front of each teeing-ground shall be indicated by two marks placed in a line as nearly as possible at right angles to the line of play, and the teeing-ground shall include a rectangular space of the depth of two club lengths directly behind the line indicated by the two marks.

5. *Through the Green*.—"Through the green" is all ground on which play is permitted, except hazards and the putting-green of the hole that is being played.

6. *Hazard*.—A "hazard" is any bunker, water (except casual water), sand, path, road, ditch, bush, or rusbus. Sand blown on to the grass, or sprinkled on the course for its preservation, bare patches, sheep-tracks, snow and ice are not hazards.

7. *Casual Water*.—"Casual water" is any temporary accumulation of water (whether caused by rainfall, flooding, or otherwise) which is not one of the ordinary and recognised hazards of the course.

8. *Out of Bounds*.—"Out of bounds" is all ground on which play is prohibited.

9. *Ball, When out of Bounds*.—A ball is "out of bounds" when the greater part of it lies within a prohibited area.

10. *Putting-green*.—The "putting-green" is all ground, except hazards, within twenty yards of the hole.

11. *Hole*.—The hole shall be $4\frac{1}{4}$ inches in diameter, and at least 4 inches deep. If a metal lining be used, it shall be sunk below the lip of the hole, and its outer diameter shall not exceed $4\frac{1}{4}$ inches.

12. *Loose Impediments*.—The term "loose impediments" denotes any obstructions not fixed or growing, and includes dung, worm-casts, mole-hills, snow and ice.

13. *Stroke*.—A "stroke" is the forward movement of the club made with the intention of striking the ball, or any contact between the head of the club and the ball resulting in movement of the ball, except in the case of a ball accidentally knocked off a tee (Rule 11. [1]).

14. *Penalty Stroke*.—A "penalty stroke" is a stroke added to the score of a side under certain rules, and does not affect the rotation of play.

15. *Honour*.—The side which plays off first from a teeing-ground is said to have the "honour."

16. *Teeing*.—In "teeing" the ball may be placed on the ground, or on sand or other substance in order to raise it off the ground.

17. *Addressing the Ball*.—A player has "addressed the ball" when he has taken his stance and grounded his club, or, if in a hazard, when he has taken his stance preparatory to striking at the ball.

18. *In Play*.—A ball is "in play" as soon as the player has made a stroke at a teeing-ground, and it remains in play until holed out, except when lifted in accordance with the rules.

19. *Ball Deemed to Move*.—A ball is deemed to "move" if it leave its original position in the least degree; but it is not considered to "move" if it merely oscillate and come to rest in its original position.

20. *Ball Lost*.—A ball is "lost" if it be not found within five minutes after the search for it has begun.

21. *Terms used in Reckoning Game*.—The reckoning of strokes is kept by the terms—"the odd," "two more," "three more," etc., and "one off three," "one off two," "the like." The reckoning of holes is kept by the terms—so many "holes up," or "all even," and so many "to play."

A side is said to be "dormie" when it is as many holes up as there are holes remaining to be played.

General and Through the Green

1

1. *Mode of Play*.—The game of golf is played by two sides, each playing its own ball.

The game consists in each side playing a ball from a teeing-ground into a hole by successive strokes. The hole is won by the side which holes its ball in fewer strokes than the opposing side, except as otherwise provided for in the rules.

The hole is halved if both sides hole out in the same number of strokes.

2. *Conditions of Match*.—A match consists of one round of the course unless it be otherwise agreed. A match is won by the side which is leading by a number of holes greater than the number of holes remaining to be played.

A match is halved if each side win the same number of holes.

Priority on the Course.—Matches constituted of singles, threesomes, or foursomes shall have precedence of and be entitled to pass any other kind of match.

A single player has no standing, and shall always give way to a match of any kind.

Any match playing a whole round shall be entitled to pass a match playing a shorter round.

If a match fail to keep its place on the green, and lose in distance more than one clear hole on the players in front, it may be passed, on request being made.

II

1. *On the Teeing-ground.*—A match begins by each side playing a ball from the first teeing-ground.

A ball played from outside the limits of the teeing-ground, or played by a player when his opponent should have had the honour, may be at once recalled by the opposing side, and may be re-teeed without penalty.

If a ball fall or be knocked off a tee by the player in addressing it, it may be re-teeed without penalty; if the ball be struck when so moving, no penalty shall be incurred.

2. *The Honour.*—The option of taking the honour at the first teeing-ground shall, if necessary, be decided by lot.

The side which wins a hole shall take the honour at the next teeing-ground. If a hole has been halved, the side which had the honour at the previous teeing-ground shall retain it.

On beginning a new match, the winner of the long match in the previous round shall take the honour; if the previous long match was halved, the side which last won a hole shall take the honour.

III

Order of Play in Threesome and Foursome.—In a threesome or foursome the partners shall strike off alternately from the teeing-grounds, and shall strike alternately during the play of each hole.

If a player play when his partner should have played, his side shall lose the hole.

IV

1. *Asking Advice.*—A player may not ask for nor willingly receive advice from anyone except his own caddie, his partner, or his partner's caddie.

2. *Advice from Forecaddie.*—A player may employ a forecaddie, but may not receive advice from him.

3. *Indicating Line of Play.*—When playing through the green, or from a hazard, a player may have the line to the hole indicated to him, but no mark shall be placed nor shall anyone stand on the proposed line, in order to indicate it, while the stroke is being made.

The penalty for a breach of this rule shall be the loss of the hole.

V

Ball to be Fairly Struck at.—The ball must be fairly struck at with the head of the club, not pushed, scraped, nor spooned.

The penalty for a breach of this rule shall be the loss of the hole.

VI

Ball Played Wherever it Lies.—A ball must be played wherever it lies or the hole be given up, except as otherwise provided for in the rules and local rules.

V

The Ball Farther from Hole Played First.—When the balls are in

play, the ball farther from the hole shall be played first. Through the green, or in a hazard, if a player play when his opponent should have played, the opponent may at once recall the stroke. A ball so recalled shall be dropped as near as possible to the place where it lay, without penalty.

VIII

How to Drop a Ball.—A ball shall be dropped in the following manner:—The player himself shall drop it. He shall face the hole, stand erect, and drop the ball behind him over his shoulder.

The penalty for a breach of this rule shall be the loss of the hole.

If, in the act of dropping, the ball touch the player, he shall incur no penalty, and, if it roll into a hazard, the player may re-drop the ball without penalty.

IX

1. *Ball not to be Touched Except as Provided for in Rules.*—A ball in play may not be touched before the hole is played out, except as provided for in the rules.

The penalty for a breach of this rule shall be one stroke.

Ball not to be Touched Except in Addressing.—The player may, without penalty, touch his ball with his club in the act of addressing it, provided he does not move it.

Ball not to be Touched Except for Identification.—A ball in play may, with the opponent's consent, be lifted for the purpose of identification, but it must be carefully replaced.

2. *Ball Moved by Opponent's Ball.*—If the player's ball move the opponent's ball through the green or in a hazard, the opponent, if he choose, may drop a ball, without penalty, as near as possible to the place where his ball lay, but this must be done before another stroke is played by either side.

X

Removal of Irregularities of Surface.—In playing through the green, irregularities of surface which could in any way affect the player's stroke shall not be removed nor pressed down by the player, his partner, or either of their caddies; a player is, however, always entitled to place his feet firmly on the ground when taking his stance.

The penalty for a breach of this rule shall be the loss of the hole.

XI

Removal of Obstructions.—Any flag-stick, guide-flag, movable guide-post, wheelbarrow, tool, roller, grass-cutter, box, vehicle, or similar obstruction may be removed. A ball moved in removing such an obstruction shall be replaced without penalty. A ball lying on or touching such an obstruction, or lying on or touching clothes, or nets, or ground under repair, or covered up, or opened for the purpose of the upkeep of the course, or lying in one of the holes, or in a guide-flag hole, or in a hole made by the green-keeper, may be lifted and dropped without penalty as near as possible to the place where it lay, but not nearer to the hole. A ball lifted in a hazard under such circumstances shall be dropped in the hazard.

XII

1. *Removal of Loose Impediments.*—Any loose impediment lying within a club length of the ball and not being in or touching a hazard, may be removed without penalty; if the ball move after any such loose

impediment has been touched by the player, his partner, or either of their caddies, the player shall be deemed to have caused the ball to move and the penalty shall be one stroke.

2. A loose impediment lying more than a club length from the ball may not be moved under penalty of the loss of the hole, unless the loose impediment lie on the putting-green (see Rule XXVIII. [1]).

3. *Ball Accidentally Moved.*—When a ball is in play, if a player, or his partner, or either of their caddies accidentally move his or their ball, or by touching anything cause it to move, the penalty shall be one stroke.

4. *Ball Moving after Club Grounded.*—If a ball in play move after the player has grounded his club in the act of addressing it, or, if a ball in play being in a hazard move after the player has taken his stance to play it, he shall be deemed to have caused it to move, and the penalty shall be one stroke.

NOTE.—If the player has lifted a loose impediment (see Rules XII. [1] and XXVIII. [1]) and the ball has not moved until the player has grounded his club, he shall only be deemed to have caused the ball to move under Section 4 of this rule, and the penalty shall be one stroke.

XIII

Playing a Moving Ball.—A player shall not play while his ball is moving, under the penalty of the loss of the hole, except in the case of a teed ball (Rule II.), or a ball struck twice (Rule XIV.), or a ball in water (Rule XXVI). When the ball only begins to move while the player is making his backward or forward swing, he shall incur no penalty under this rule, but he is not exempted from the provisions of Rule XII. (1) or Rule XXVIII. (1), and of Rule XII. (3 and 4).

XIV

Striking Ball Twice.—If a player, when making a stroke, strike the ball twice, the penalty shall be one stroke, but he shall incur no further penalty by reason of his having played while his ball was moving.

XV

Moving or Bending Fixed or Growing Objects.—Before striking at a ball in play, a player shall not move, bend, or break anything fixed or growing, except so far as is necessary to enable him fairly to take his stance in addressing the ball, or in making his backward or forward swing. The club may only be grounded lightly, and not pressed on the ground.

The penalty for a breach of this rule shall be the loss of the hole.

XVI

Balls Within a Club Length of Each Other.—When the balls lie within a club length of each other through the green or in a hazard, the ball lying nearer to the hole may, at the option of either the player or the opponent, be lifted until the other ball is played, and shall then be replaced as near as possible to the place where it lay.

If either ball be accidentally moved in complying with this rule, no penalty shall be incurred, and the ball so moved shall be replaced.

If the lie of the lifted ball be altered in playing the other ball, the lifted ball may be placed as near as possible to the place where it lay and in a lie similar to that which it originally occupied.

XVII

1. *Moving Ball Stopped.*—If a ball *in motion* be stopped or deflected by any agency outside the match, or by a forecaddie, it is a rub of the green, and the ball shall be played from the spot where it lies.

2. *Ball Lodging in Anything Moving.*—If a ball lodge in *anything moving*, a ball shall be dropped, or if on the putting-green, placed as near as possible to the place where the object was when the ball lodged in it, without penalty.

3. *Ball at Rest Displaced by Outside Agency.*—If a ball *at rest* be displaced by any agency outside the match, except wind, the player shall drop a ball as near as possible to the place where it lay, without penalty; and if the ball be displaced on the putting-green, it shall be replaced without penalty.

XVIII

Ball Striking Opponent, etc.—If a player's ball strike, or be stopped, or be moved by an opponent or an opponent's caddie or clubs, the opponent shall lose the hole, except as provided for in Rule XXII. (3) and Rule XXXIII.

XIX

Ball Striking the Player, etc.—If a player's ball strike or be stopped by himself, or his partner, or either of their caddies or their clubs, his side shall lose the hole.

XX

1. *Playing Opponent's Ball.*—If a player play the opponent's ball his side shall lose the hole, unless—

(a) The opponent then plays the player's ball, in which case the penalty is cancelled, and the hole shall be played out with the balls thus exchanged;

(b) The mistake occur through wrong information given by an opponent or his caddie, in which case there shall be no penalty; if the mistake be discovered before the opponent has played, it shall be rectified by dropping a ball as near as possible to the place where the opponent's ball lay.

On the putting-green the ball shall be replaced.

2. *Playing Ball Outside the Match.*—If a player play a stroke with the ball of anyone not engaged in the match, and the mistake be discovered and intimated to his opponent before his opponent has played his next stroke, there shall be no penalty; if the mistake be not discovered and so intimated until after the opponent has played his next stroke, the player's side shall lose the hole.

XXI

Ball Lost.—If a ball be "lost," except in water, casual water, or out of bounds, the player's side shall lose the hole, unless it is afterwards discovered that the opponent's ball is also lost, when the hole shall be halved.

XXII

1. *Looking for Ball in Bent, etc.*—If a ball lie in fog, bent, bushes, long grass, or the like, only so much thereof shall be touched as will enable the player to find his ball.

2. *In Sand.*—If a ball be completely covered by sand, only so much thereof may be removed as will enable the player to see the top of the

ball; if the ball be touched in removing the sand, no penalty shall be incurred.

3. *Accidentally Moved by Opponent in Search.*—If a player or his caddie, when searching for an opponent's ball, accidentally touch or move it, no penalty shall be incurred, and the ball, if moved, shall be replaced.

The penalty for a breach of this rule shall be the loss of the hole.

XXIII

1. *Ball Out of Bounds.*—If a ball lie out of bounds, the player shall play his next stroke as nearly as possible at the spot from which the ball which is out of bounds was played. If the ball was played out of bounds from the teeing-ground, the player may tee a ball for his next stroke; in every other case the ball shall be dropped.

2. *Provisional Ball Played.*—If a player, after making a stroke, be doubtful whether his ball is out of bounds or not, he may play another ball, as provided for in paragraph 1 of this rule, but if it be discovered that the first ball is not out of bounds, it shall continue in play without penalty.

On reaching the place where the first ball is likely to be, if the player or his opponent be still in doubt, the player is not entitled to presume that the first ball is out of bounds till he has made a search of five minutes.

3. *Ascertaining Location of Ball.*—A player has the right at any time of ascertaining whether his opponent's ball is out of bounds or not, before his opponent can compel him to continue his play.

4. *Standing Out of Bounds.*—A player may stand out of bounds to play a ball lying within bounds.

XXIV

Ball Unfit for Play.—If a ball split into separate pieces, another ball may be dropped where any piece lies. If a ball crack or become unfit for play, the player may change it on intimating to his opponent his intention to do so. Mud adhering to a ball shall not be considered as making it unfit for play.

Hazards and Casual Water

XXV

Conditions of Play in Hazards.—When a ball lies in or touches a hazard, nothing shall be done which can in any way improve its lie; the club shall not touch the ground, nor shall anything be touched or moved, before the player strikes at the ball, subject to the following exceptions: (1) The player may place his feet firmly on the ground for the purpose of taking his stance. (2) In addressing the ball, or in the backward or forward swing, any grass, bent, bush, or other growing substance, or the side of a bunker, wall, paling, or other immovable obstacle may be touched. (3) Steps or planks placed in a hazard by the green committee for access to or egress from such hazard may be removed, and if a ball be moved in so doing, it shall be replaced without penalty. (4) Any loose impediment may be lifted from the putting-green. (5) The player shall be entitled to find his ball as provided for by Rule XXII.

The penalty for a breach of this rule shall be the loss of the hole.

XXVI

Ball Moving in Water.—When a ball is in water a player may,

without penalty, strike at it while it is moving, but he must not delay to make his stroke in order to allow the wind or current to better the position of the ball, under penalty of the loss of the hole.

XXVII

1. *Ball in Water Hazard.*—If a ball lie or be lost in a recognised water hazard (whether the ball lie in water or not) or

In Casual Water in a Hazard, the player may drop a ball under penalty of one stroke either (a) behind the hazard, keeping the spot at which the ball crossed the margin of the hazard between himself and the hole, or (b) in the hazard, keeping the spot at which the ball entered the water between himself and the hole.

2. *Ball in Casual Water Through the Green.*—If a ball lie or be lost in casual water through the green, the player may drop a ball, without penalty, within two club lengths of the margin, as near as possible to the spot where the ball lay, but not nearer to the hole.

If a ball when dropped roll into the water, it may be re-dropped without penalty.

3. *Ball in Casual Water on the Putting-green.*—If a ball on the putting-green lie in casual water, or if casual water intervene between a ball lying on the putting-green and the hole, the ball may be played where it lies, or it may be lifted without penalty and placed by hand, either within two club lengths directly behind the spot from which the ball was lifted, or in the nearest position to that spot which is not nearer to the hole and which affords a putt to the hole without casual water intervening.

4. *Water Interfering with Stance.*—A ball lying so near to casual water that the water interferes with the player's stance may be treated as if it lay in casual water, under the preceding sections of this rule.

5. *Want of Space to Drop.*—If it be impossible from want of space in which to play, or from any other cause, for a player to drop a ball in conformity with Sections 1 and 2 of this rule, or to place it in conformity with Section 3, he shall "drop" or "place" as nearly as possible within the limits laid down in these sections, but not nearer to the hole.

The penalty for a breach of this rule shall be the loss of the hole.

Putting-Green

XXVIII

1. *Removal of Loose Impediments.*—Any loose impediment may be lifted from the putting-green, irrespective of the position of the player's ball. If a player's ball, when on the putting-green, move after any loose impediment lying within six inches of it has been touched by the player, his partner, or either of their caddies, the player shall be deemed to have caused it to move and the penalty shall be one stroke.

2. *Removal of Dung, etc.*—Dung, wormcasts, snow, and ice may be scraped aside with a club, but the club must not be laid with more than its own weight upon the ground, nor must anything be pressed down either with the club or in any other way.

3. *Touching Line of Putt.*—The line of the putt must not be touched, except by placing the club immediately in front of the ball in the act of addressing it, and as above authorised.

The penalty for a breach of this rule shall be the loss of the hole.

XXIX

1. *Direction for Putting.*—When the player's ball is on the putting-green, the player's caddie, his partner, or his partner's caddie may, before the stroke is played, point out a direction for putting, but in doing this they shall not touch the ground on the proposed line of the putt. No mark shall be placed anywhere on the putting-green.

2. *Shielding Ball from Wind.*—Any player or caddie engaged in the match may stand at the hole, but no player or caddie shall endeavour, by moving or otherwise, to influence the action of the wind upon the ball.

A player is, however, always entitled to send his own caddie to stand at the hole while he plays his stroke.

Either side may refuse to allow a person who is not engaged in the match to stand at the hole.

The penalty for a breach of this rule shall be the loss of the hole.

XXX

Opponent's Ball to be at Rest.—When the player's ball lies on the putting-green, he shall not play until the opponent's ball is at rest.

The penalty for a breach of this rule shall be the loss of the hole.

XXXI

1. *Ball Within Six Inches, Lifted.*—When the balls lie within six inches of each other on the putting-green (the distance to be measured from their nearest points), the ball lying nearer to the hole may, at the option of either the player or the opponent, be lifted until the other ball is played, and the lifted ball shall then be replaced as near as possible to the place where it lay.

If either ball be accidentally moved in complying with this rule, no penalty shall be incurred, and the ball so moved shall be replaced.

2. *Playing Out of Turn.*—On the putting-green, if a player play when his opponent should have played, the stroke may be at once recalled by the opponent, and the ball replaced.

NOTE.—For a ball which is displaced on a putting-green, see Rule XVII. (2 and 3).

For a player playing the opponent's ball on the putting-green, see Rule XX (1).

Casual Water.—For casual water on a putting-green see Rule XXVII. (3).

XXXII

1. *Removal of Flag-stick.*—Either side is entitled to have the flag-stick removed when approaching the hole; if a player's ball strike the flag-stick, which has been so removed by himself, or his partner, or either of their caddies, his side shall lose the hole.

If the ball rest against the flag-stick which is in the hole, the player shall be entitled to remove the flag-stick, and, if the ball fall into the hole, the player shall be deemed to have holed out at his last stroke.

2. *Displacing and Replacing of Balls.*—If the player's ball knock the opponent's ball into the hole, the opponent shall be deemed to have holed out at his last stroke.

If the player's ball move the opponent's ball, the opponent, if he choose, may replace it, but this must be done before another stroke is played by either side.

PLATE II



GOLF
(See pages 182-82.)

If the player's ball stop on the spot formerly occupied by the opponent's ball, and the opponent declare his intention to replace his ball, the player shall first play another stroke, after which the opponent shall replace and play his ball.

3. *Ball on Lip of Hole.*—If the player has holed out and the opponent then plays to the lip of the hole, the player may not knock the ball away, but the opponent, if asked, shall play his next stroke without delay.

If the opponent's ball lie on the lip of the hole, the player, after holing out, may knock the ball away, claiming the hole if holing at the like, and the half if holing at the odd, provided that the player's ball does not strike the opponent's ball and set it in motion; if the player neglect to knock away the opponent's ball, and it fall into the hole, the opponent shall be deemed to have holed out at his last stroke.

XXXIII

Penalty of Loss of Hole Qualified by Half Previously Gained.—When a player has holed out and his opponent has been left with a stroke for the half, nothing that the player who has holed out can do shall deprive him of the half which he has already gained.

General Penalty

XXXIV

Loss of the Hole.—Where no penalty for the breach of a rule is stated, the penalty shall be the loss of the hole.

Disputes

XXXV

Duties of Umpire or Referee.—An umpire or referee, when appointed, shall take cognizance of any breach of rule that he may observe, whether he be appealed to on the point or not.

XXXVI

Claims, When and How Made.—If a dispute arise on any point, a claim must be made before the players strike off from the next teeing-ground, or, in the case of the last hole of the round, before they leave the putting-green. The players have the right of determining to whom the point shall be referred, but should they not agree, either side may have it referred officially through the secretary of the club to the rules of golf committee, whose decision shall be final. If the point in dispute be not covered by the rules of golf, the arbiters shall decide it by equity.

Three-Ball Matches

I

During a three-ball match, if no player is entitled at a teeing-ground to claim the honour from both opponents, the same order of striking shall be followed as at the last teeing-ground.

II

In a three-ball match, if a player's ball strike, or be stopped, or moved by an opponent or an opponent's caddie or clubs, that opponent shall lose the hole to the player. As regards the other opponent the occurrence shall be treated as a rub of the green.

Best Ball and Four-Ball Matches**III**

Balls belonging to the same side may be played in the order the side deems best.

IV

If a player's ball strike, or be stopped, or moved by an opponent, or an opponent's caddie or clubs, the opponent's side shall lose the hole.

V

If a player's ball (the player being one of a side) strike, or be stopped by himself, or his partner, or either of their caddies or clubs, only that player shall be disqualified for that hole.

VI

If a player play a stroke with his partner's ball, and the mistake be discovered and intimated to the other side before an opponent has played another stroke, the player shall be disqualified for that hole, and his partner shall drop a ball as near as possible to the spot from which his ball was played, without penalty. If the mistake be not discovered till after the opponent has played a stroke, the player's side shall lose the hole.

VII

In all other cases where a player would by the rules of golf incur the loss of the hole, he shall be disqualified for that hole, but the disqualification shall not apply to his partner.

SPECIAL RULES FOR STROKE COMPETITIONS**Rules for the Conduct of Stroke Competitions**

Committee Defined.—Wherever the word "committee" is used in these rules, it refers to the committee in charge of the competition.

I

1. *The Winner.*—In stroke competitions the competitor who holes the stipulated round or rounds in the fewest strokes shall be the winner.

2. *Order of Play.*—Competitors shall play in couples; if from any cause there be a single competitor the committee shall either provide him with a player, or select a marker for him and allow him to compete alone.

The order and times of starting should, when possible, be determined by ballot.

3. *Order of Starting.*—Competitors should strike off from the first tee in the order in which their names appear upon the starting list.

The Honour.—Thereafter the honour shall be taken as in match play, but if a competitor by mistake play out of turn, no penalty shall be incurred, and the stroke cannot be recalled.

II

1. *Not to Discontinue Play in Bad Weather.*—Competitors shall start in the order and at the times arranged by the committee. They shall not discontinue play nor delay to start on account of bad weather or for any other reason whatever, except such as the committee may consider satisfactory.

The penalty for a breach of this rule shall be disqualification.

3. *Course Unplayable.*—If the committee consider that the course is not in a playable condition, or that insufficient light renders the proper playing of the game impossible, it shall at any time have power to declare the day's play null and void.

III

Ties, How and When Decided.—If the lowest scores be made by two or more competitors, the tie or ties shall be decided by another round to be played on the same day; but if the committee determine that this is inexpedient or impossible, it shall appoint a day and time for the decision of the tie or ties.

Should an uneven number of competitors tie, their names shall be drawn by ballot and placed upon a list; the competitors shall then play in couples in the order in which their names appear. The single competitor shall be provided for by the committee either under Rule I. (2), or by allowing three competitors to play together if their unanimous consent has been obtained.

IV

1. *New Holes.*—New holes should be made on the day on which stroke competitions begin.

2. *Practice on Day of Competition.*—On the day of the competition, before starting, no competitor shall play on, or on to, any of the putting-greens, nor shall he intentionally play at any hole of the stipulated round which is within his reach, under penalty of disqualification.

V

1. *The Scores, How Kept.*—The score for each hole shall be kept by a marker or by each competitor noting the other's score. Should more than one marker keep a score, each shall sign the part of the score for which he is responsible. The scores should be called out after each hole. On completion of the stipulated round the card shall be signed by the person who has marked it, and the competitor shall see that it is handed in as soon as reasonably possible. The penalty for a breach of this rule shall be disqualification.

Scoring cards should be issued with the date and the player's name entered on the card.

2. *Marking and Addition of Scores.*—Competitors must satisfy themselves before the cards are handed in that the scores for each hole are correctly marked, as no alteration can be made on any card after it has been returned. If it be found that a competitor has returned a score lower than that actually played, he shall be disqualified. For the additions of the scores marked the committee shall be responsible.

3. *Committee to Decide Doubtful Penalties.*—If, on the completion of the stipulated round, a player is doubtful whether he has incurred a penalty at any hole, he may enclose his scoring card with a written statement of the circumstances to the committee, who shall decide what penalty, if any, has been incurred.

Rules for Play in Stroke Competitions

VI

Advice.—A competitor shall not ask for nor willingly receive advice from anyone except his caddie.

The penalty for a breach of this rule shall be disqualification.

VII

Playing Outside Limits of Teeing-ground.—If at any hole a competitor play his first stroke from outside the limits of the teeing-ground, he shall count that stroke, tee a ball, and play his second stroke from within these limits.

The penalty for a breach of this rule shall be disqualification.

VIII

1. *Must Hole Out with Own Ball.*—A competitor shall hole out with his own ball at every hole. The penalty for a breach of this rule shall be disqualification.

2. *Playing Two Consecutive Strokes with Wrong Ball.*—If a competitor play a stroke with a ball other than his own he shall incur no penalty provided he then play his own ball; but if he play two consecutive strokes with a wrong ball, he shall be disqualified.

3. *Exception in Hazards.*—In a hazard, if a competitor play more than one stroke with a ball other than his own, and the mistake be discovered before he has played a stroke with the wrong ball from outside the limits of the hazard, he shall incur no penalty provided he then play his own ball.

The penalty for a breach of this rule shall be disqualification.

IX

Ball Striking the Player.—If a competitor's ball strike or be stopped by himself, his clubs, or his caddie, the penalty shall be one stroke, except as provided for in Stroke Rule XIII. (1).

X

1. *Ball Striking or Moved by Another Competitor.*—If a competitor's ball strike or be stopped by another competitor, or his clubs, or his caddie, it is a rub of the green and the ball shall be played from where it lies, except as provided for in Stroke Rule XIII. (1). If a competitor's ball which is at rest be accidentally moved by another competitor, or his caddie, or his clubs, or his ball, or any outside agency except wind, it shall be replaced as near as possible to the spot where it lay.

The penalty for a breach of this rule shall be disqualification.

2. *Allowed to Lift Another Competitor's Ball.*—A competitor may have any other player's ball played or lifted, at the option of its owner, if he find that it interferes with his stroke.

XI

1. *Lifting Ball under Two-Stroke Penalty.*—A ball may be lifted from any place on the course under penalty of two strokes. A ball so lifted shall be teed and played behind the place where it lay; if this be impossible, it shall be teed and played as near as possible to the place where it lay, but not nearer to the hole.

In preparing a tee as above authorised, the player is exempted from the restrictions imposed by Rule XV.

The penalty for a breach of this section of the rule shall be disqualification.

2. *Lifting for Identification.*—For the purpose of identification a competitor may at any time lift and carefully replace his ball in the presence of the player with whom he is competing.

The penalty for a breach of this section of the rule shall be one stroke.

XII

Ball Lost.—If a ball be "lost" (except in water, casual water, or out of bounds) the competitor shall, whether he has played from "through the green" or from a hazard, return as near as possible to the spot from which the ball was struck, and there tee a ball under penalty of one stroke.

(Under this rule a ball shall only be considered "lost" when it has not been found after a search of five minutes.)

XIII

1. *Play Within 20 Yards of Hole. Ball Striking Flag-stick, etc.*—When a competitor's ball, lying within 20 yards of the hole, is played and strikes either the flag-stick or the person standing at the hole, the penalty shall be two strokes.

2. *Ball Striking Fellow Competitor's Ball.*—When both balls are on the putting-green, if a competitor's ball strike the ball of the player with whom he is competing, the competitor shall incur a penalty of one stroke, and the ball which was struck shall be at once replaced. See Stroke Rule X. (1).

3. *Nearer Ball may be Lifted.*—The competitor whose ball is the farther from the hole may have the ball which is nearer to the hole lifted or played at the option of its owner. If the latter refuse to comply with this rule when requested to do so he shall be disqualified.

4. *Ball nearer Hole of Assistance to Player.*—If the competitor whose ball is the nearer to the hole consider that his ball might be of assistance to the player with whom he is competing, he should lift it or play first.

5. *Ball Lifted when Player's Ball in Motion.*—If the competitor whose ball is the nearer to the hole lift his ball while the player's ball is in motion, he shall incur a penalty of one stroke.

6. *Ball Lifted Before Holed Out.*—If a competitor or his caddie pick up his ball from the putting-green before it is holed out (except as provided for above), he shall, before he has struck off from the next tee, or, in the case of the last hole of the round, before he has left the putting-green, be permitted to replace the ball under penalty of two strokes.

XIV

General Penalty.—Where in the rules of golf the penalty for the breach of any rule is the loss of the hole, in stroke competitions the penalty shall be the loss of two strokes, except where otherwise provided for in these special rules.

XV

General Rule.—The rules of golf, so far as they are not at variance with these special rules, shall apply to stroke competitions.

XVI

Disputes, How Decided.—If a dispute arise on any point it shall be decided by the committee, whose decision shall be final, unless an appeal be made to the Rules of Golf Committee, as provided for in Rule XXXVI.

Recommendations for Local Rules

Special Hazards or Conditions.—When necessary, local rules should be made for such obstructions as trees, hedges, fixed seats, fences, gates,

railways, and walls, for such difficulties as rabbit scrapes, hoof marks, and other damage caused to the course by animals, and for such local conditions as the existence of mud which may be held to interfere with the proper playing of the game.

Ball, When "Dropped"; When "Placed."—When a ball is lifted under a local rule, as in the case of a ball lifted from a putting-green other than that of the hole which is being played, the Rules of Golf Committee recommends that if it is to be played from "through the green," it should be *dropped*; if it is to be played on the putting-green of the hole that is being played, it should be *placed*.

Form and Make of Golf Clubs

The Rules of Golf Committee intimates that it will not sanction any substantial departure from the traditional and accepted form and make of golf clubs, which, in its opinion, consist of a plain shaft and a head which does not contain any mechanical contrivance, such as springs.

Etiquette of Golf

1. No one shall stand close to or directly behind the ball, move, or talk, when a player is making a stroke.

On the putting-green no one shall stand beyond the hole in the line of a player's stroke.

2. The player who has the honour should be allowed to play before his opponent tees his ball.

3. No player shall play from the tee until the party in front have played their second strokes and are out of range, nor play up to the putting-green till the party in front have holed out and moved away.

4. Players who have holed out should not try their putts over again when other players are following them.

5. Players looking for a lost ball should allow other matches coming up to pass them; they should signal to the players following them to pass, and having given such a signal, they should not continue their play until these players have passed and are out of reach.

6. Turf cut or displaced by a player should be at once replaced and pressed down with the foot.

7. A player should carefully fill up all holes made by himself in a bunker.

8. Players should see that their caddies do not injure the holes by standing close to them when the ground is soft.

9. A player who has incurred a penalty stroke should intimate the fact to his opponent as soon as possible.

Such are the Rules of Golf for the game as usually played. There are special rules for Stroke Competitions, and for Medal Play, but exigencies of space forbid us to give them here. Most links have, in addition, local rules suited to local circumstances, and a player should always consult these before playing on a course which is new to him.

HOCKEY

THE GROUND

HOCKEY has made such great strides during the last twenty years that it may be said to rank with cricket and football as a popular game. One thing in its favour is that it is admirably suited to both sexes; one feels, indeed, that the number of women and girls who find in it a pleasurable recreation are in the majority over men and boys. Hockey is usually played by twenty-two players, eleven on each side. (See Rule 1.) The ground is in the form of a rectangle, the sides of which measure 100 yards and 55 to 60 yards. Of these the long sides are termed "side lines" and the short sides "goal lines." The goals (formed of two uprights 12 ft. apart, and a horizontal bar 7 ft. from the ground) are placed in the centre of each goal line. At a distance of 15 yards in front of each goal a 12 ft. line parallel to the goal line is drawn, and with the goal posts as centres and the extremities of this line as radii quarter-circles are described terminating at the goal line. The curve thus formed is called the "striking circle," and the ball must be struck by a member of the attacking side from a point within the striking circle in order for a goal to be scored.

BALLS AND STICKS

The ball used is an ordinary cricket ball painted white, and umpires are instructed to forbid the use of any other ball.

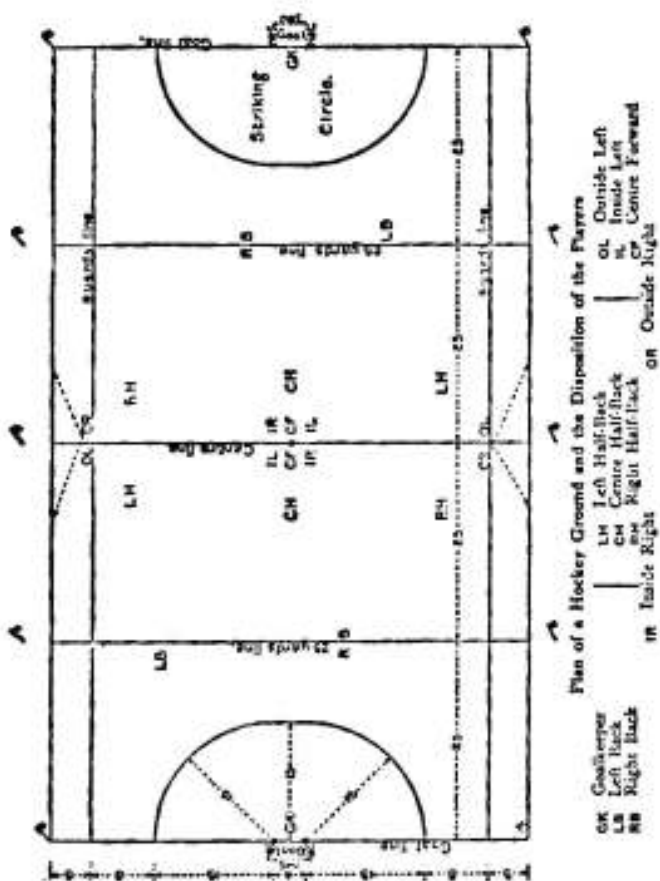
The stick is made of ash and must not only be able to pass through a ring two inches in diameter, but also have neither sharp edges, weights, nor metal fittings. The length of the stick will, of course, depend on the player, and the most convenient weight is considered to be from 22 to 25 oz. The weight must not exceed 28 oz.

THE GAME

The game is started by a "bully"—that is, the ball is placed in the centre of the field, and the two opposing centre forwards strike the ground with their sticks in front of the ball and then each other's stick above the ball. This is done three times, after which the ball is in play. After a goal is scored and at half-time, when the sides change over, the ball is again brought into play by means of a bully in the centre of the ground. In striking the ball the stick must not rise above the shoulder, neither is habitual left-handed play allowed, the only permissible stroke being from right to left. A player may stop the ball with any part of his body, but must not

OUTDOOR SPORTS

hold, carry, or otherwise impel it in any direction except by means of his stick. The goalkeeper, however, when defending his goal, is allowed to kick the ball away. No kicking, collaring, charging, tripping, or other rough play is permitted, and only when a man is actually playing the ball is hooking and fencing allowed. When the



ball is driven over the side line it must be rolled in by a member of the opposite side to that driving the ball over, and no other player must stand within five yards of the side line. Should the attacking side hit the ball over the goal line a bully takes place 25 yards in a direct line from the spot where the ball crosses the goal line; should, however, the ball glance behind off a defender a "corner"

is allowed—that is a full hit, and is taken by the attacking side from the nearest corner flag, the attacking side meanwhile being outside the striking circle and the defending side behind the goal line, but immediately the ball is struck they may rush forward. When a defender intentionally plays behind, a penalty-corner is given, the ball being hit from the point on the goal line where it crossed.

When a player strikes the ball, any member of his side nearer his opponents' goal line than he is ruled "off-side," and must not touch or interfere with the play in any way unless there be at least three of his opponents between him and their goal line. Neither can he become "on-side" again until another player strikes the ball. For any breach of rules outside the striking circle, a free hit is given against the offenders; and although a free hit is allowed the defending side should their opponents offend within the striking circle, the attacking side can only claim a bully when their opponents offend within the striking circle. This bully is taken on the spot where the rule is broken. When a free hit is taken, no member of the offending side is allowed within 5 yards of the ball, and in all cases of a bully players must be between their own goal line and the ball. A player can be off-side from a "roll in."

It is customary to appoint two umpires, as the game is usually too fast for one man to referee with any degree of accuracy. The umpires take each one half of the ground, and by keeping up and down their respective side lines act as linesmen.

THE TEAM

The following remarks upon the duties of the various players will, we trust, be of use to those wishing to play this fast and most exciting game. The forwards, constituting as they do the attack, must be dealt with first, and without doubt the most important of these is the centre forward. He must be an accurate shot at goal and a fast sprinter. It is he who is responsible for the uniform action of the whole line. He must keep both his wings in touch with each other, and be capable of shooting at goal from a pass without first stopping the ball, as he then gives the goalkeeper little or no time to judge the direction from which the ball is coming. He should be able to pass (Plate 12) the ball to both wings with equal ease. When passing, he must use his discretion as to whether the ball should be sent to the outside or inside wing-men. If near his opponents' goal he should pass to the inside men, otherwise the ball is apt to get too far away from the goal mouth and a likely shot at goal missed. Should, however, he be near his goal, it is safer to pass right out to one of the outside wings. An inside forward should miss no opportunity of passing the ball to his outside partner when the latter has a good opening; if he is a clever player he can generally obtain this opening for his partner by dribbling the ball (Plate 12) to the centre of the field, so draw-

ing the opposing half-backs away; he is then enabled to pass the ball to the outside man, who by this time should have a clear run before him. The wing players should not drive the ball too near the striking circle unless the other forwards are well on it, otherwise the backs will most probably be able to get it first and hit it well out into the field. Above all, there should be a perfect understanding among the forwards, as many a game has been won by a good combination on the part of mediocre forwards who knew each other's play when playing against brilliant individual play.

After the forwards the half-backs claim our attention. The three halves can either make or mar a team. It is not only their duty to keep their forwards well supplied with the ball at every possible opportunity, but also to repel the attack of the opposing forwards. In the event of their failing to break up the attack and get the ball away, they must retire and support their backs, being careful meanwhile to let the backs clear whenever possible, as they are generally in a better position to do so, it being a very difficult thing for a half to run back and then hit the ball out into the field before the forwards are on him. Centre-half has the most responsible position of the three, as he has three opposing forwards to mark, and is in a position to feed all five of his own forwards, whereas his wing-men have only to mark at most two opposing forwards and to feed half of their own forward line. A man at half must be prepared for all emergencies, as he may at any moment be required for either defence or attack.

The qualities necessary for a good back are safety and accuracy rather than brilliancy. A single mistake on the part of a back may result in a goal being registered against his side, and this may mean the loss of the game. He must be capable of hitting hard and accurately, and of supporting the half-backs by feeding his forwards. When the half-backs are tackling the forwards he must be ready to intercept any passes, and to relieve his goal by clearing well out into the field. He must be very careful not to obstruct the goalkeeper's view of the ball, and should always keep well to the centre of the ground, as otherwise he is apt to weaken the defence. For the same reason, unless he be a very fast player, he should not venture too far forward. It is also very desirable that he should be able to clear without first stopping the ball, as when the forwards are rushing down on him he will find he has very little time in which to strike. When there is time, however, the ball should be stopped first, as this minimises the chance of a miss-hit.

The goalkeeper, as the last defence on the side, as a critical position to fill. If, as has been said, a mistake on the part of a back may mean a goal to the other side, a mistake on the part of the goalkeeper is pretty nearly certain to mean one. A competent goalkeeper must therefore be capable of immediately deciding upon the right course of action to be followed, and then following it without

hesitation. For hesitation on the part of a goalkeeper is fatal. He should hold his stick in both hands so as to enable him to free either hand in order to stop a shot coming in the air. Ground shots should, if possible, be stopped with the feet, the stick only being used when the ball cannot be reached with them. It being very difficult to kick the ball far away, the stick should be used in all possible cases. It is not advisable to run out to a man, unless he is likely to have a chance of shooting before the back can tackle him.

OUTFIT

As regards outfit, boots fitted with either bars or studs so as to prevent slipping should be worn. No metal of any kind is allowed to protrude from the soles. Shin-guards are also generally worn, although many goalkeepers prefer cricket pads, affording as they do so much more protection to the knees and feet. The objection to cricket pads is that the ball bounds off them too easily, very often giving the opposing forwards a chance of a second shot from the rebound. Some protective covering is also necessary for the hands, as nasty knocks and bruises from sticks may otherwise be sustained. Batting gloves may be recommended, as they do not interfere with a proper grip being obtained of the stick.

RULES OF THE GAME OF HOCKEY

1. *Teams.*—A game of hockey shall be played by two teams of eleven players. The correct constitution of the team is five forwards, three half-backs, two backs, and a goalkeeper, but this formation shall not be compulsory. The duration of the game shall be 70 minutes (unless otherwise agreed by the respective captains), half-time being called after 35 minutes' play, when the teams shall change ends.

2. *Captains.*—The captains shall (1) toss for choice of ends; (2) act as umpires, if there be no umpires, or delegate the duties of umpires to one member of their respective teams; and (3) indicate the goalkeepers for their respective teams before starting play, and after any change of goalkeeper.

3. *Ground.*—The ground shall be rectangular, 100 yards long and not more than 60 yards nor less than 55 yards wide. The ground shall be marked with white lines in accordance with plan on page 184; the longer boundary lines to be called the side-lines, and the shorter boundary lines to be called the goal-lines. A flag-post shall be placed for the whole game at each corner, and at the centre of each side-line, one yard outside the line, and any other flag-posts must be a yard outside the ground. All flag-posts shall be at least four feet high.

4. *Goals, Posts, etc.*—A goal shall be in the centre of each goal-line, and shall consist of two posts four yards apart (inside measurement), joined together by a horizontal cross-bar 7 feet from the ground. The goal-posts shall not extend upward beyond the cross-bar, nor the cross-bar sideways beyond the goal-posts. The posts shall be two inches broad and not more than three inches in depth, and the cross-bars shall have rectangular edges. Nets shall be attached to the posts, cross-bars, and to the ground behind the goals.

5. *Striking Circle*.—In front of each goal shall be drawn a white line 4 yards long, parallel to, and 15 yards from, the goal-line. This line shall be continued each way to meet the goal-line by quarter circles having the goal-posts as centres. The space enclosed by these lines and the goal-lines, including the lines themselves, shall be called the striking circle.

6. *Ball*.—The ball shall be a leather cricket ball painted white or made of white leather.

Umpires shall forbid the use of any other ball.

7. *Sticks*.—A stick shall have a flat face on its left-hand side only. The head of the stick, i.e. the part below the top of the splice, shall not be edged with, or have insets or fittings of hard wood or of any other substance, nor shall there be any sharp edges or dangerous splinters. Each stick must be of such size that it can be passed through a 2-inch ring. An indiarubber ring, 4 inches in external diameter when on the stick, may be used, but, everything included, the total weight must not exceed 28 ozs. The extremity of the stick must not be cut square or pointed, but must have rounded edges.

Umpires shall prohibit play with a stick which does not comply with this rule.

NOTE.—Surgical binding on the head of the stick is allowed subject to its not preventing the head passing through a 2-inch ring.

8. *Boots, etc.*—No player shall wear any dangerous material such as spikes or nails, etc.

9. *Bully-off*.—The game shall be started by one player of each team together bullying the ball in the centre of the ground (and after each goal and half-time). To bully the ball each player shall strike the ground on his own side of the ball, and his opponent's stick over the ball three times alternately; after which one of these two players must strike the ball before it is in general play. In all cases of bullying, the two players who are bullying shall stand squarely facing the side-lines. Every other player shall be nearer to his own goal-line than the ball is (except in the case of a penalty bully).

For any breach of this rule the "bully" shall be taken again.

10. *Goal*.—A goal is scored when the whole ball has passed entirely over the goal-line under the bar, the ball, whilst within the striking circle, having been hit by or glanced off the stick of an attacker. Should the goal-posts or bar become displaced, and the ball pass at a point which, in the opinion of the umpire, is between where the posts or below where the bar should have been, he shall give a goal.

11. *Off-side*.—When a player hits or rolls in the ball, any other player of the same team who is nearer his opponent's goal-line than the striker or roller-in at the moment when the ball is hit or rolled in is off-side, unless there be at least three of his opponents nearer to their own goal-line than he is. He may not play the ball nor in any way interfere with any other player until the ball has been touched or hit by one of his opponents. No player, however, shall be off-side in his own half of the ground, nor if the ball was last touched or hit by one of his opponents, or by one of his own team who, at the time of hitting, is nearer his opponents' goal-line than himself.

Inside or outside the circles.—For any breach the penalty shall be a free hit by one of the opposing team on the spot where the breach occurred.

12. *General Details.*—The ball may be caught (but must be immediately released to fall perpendicularly to the ground) or stopped, but may not be picked up, carried, kicked, thrown, or knocked on or back, except with the stick. No player shall gain an advantage by the use of any part of his person or apparel except such as may accrue from stopping the ball; the foot, if used for that purpose, shall be taken away immediately. There shall be no play with the rounded back of the stick, no charging, kicking, shoving, shinning, tripping, personal handling, or hooking. Hooking sticks is allowed only when the stick hooked is within striking distance of the ball. There shall be no striking at sticks. A player may not obstruct by running in between his opponent and the ball, nor cross his opponent's left, unless he touches the ball before his opponent's person or stick, nor may he in any way interpose himself as an obstruction.

The goalkeeper is allowed to kick the ball only in his own striking circle, but in the event of his taking part in a penalty bully this privilege shall not be allowed him. A ball touching an umpire or post is in play unless it goes off the ground. No player shall in any way interfere with the game unless his stick is in his hand.

(1) *Outside the circles.*—For any breach the penalty shall be a free hit for one of the opposing team on the spot where the breach occurred.

(2) *Inside the circles.*—(a) For any breach by the attacking team the penalty shall be a free hit for the defending team.

(b) For any breach by the defending team the penalty shall be a "penalty corner" or a "penalty bully" on the spot where the breach occurred. A penalty bully should only be given for a wilful breach of a rule or when a goal would most probably have been scored but for the occurrence of the breach of the rule.

(3) *Inside or outside the circles.*—In the event of two players being simultaneously at fault the umpire shall give a bully at the spot where the breach of rule occurred.

13. *"Sticks."*—When a player strikes at the ball, no part of his stick must in any event rise above his shoulders at either the beginning or end of the stroke.

Inside or outside the circles.—In the event of two players being simultaneously at fault the umpire shall give a bully at the spot where the breach of rule occurred.

14. *"Undercutting."*—No player shall intentionally undercut the ball.

NOTE.—This rule is not intended to penalise the "scoop" stroke which raises the ball nor the hitting of the ball when in the air, except as provided for in Rule 15.

(1) *Outside the circles.*—For any breach the penalty shall be a free hit for one of the opposing team on the spot where the breach occurred.

(2) *Inside the circles.*—(a) For any breach by the attacking team the penalty shall be a free hit for the defending team.

(b) For any breach by the defending team the penalty shall be a "penalty corner" or a "penalty bully" (except in the case of "sticks," when a "penalty corner" only shall be allowed). A "penalty bully" should only be given for a wilful breach of a rule, or when a goal would most probably have been scored but for the occurrence of the breach of the rule.

15. *Free Hit.*—On the occasion of a free hit, no other player than the striker shall be within five yards of the spot where such a hit is

made. Should, however, the umpire consider that a player is standing within five yards to gain time, he shall not stop the game. After taking such hit the striker shall not participate in the game until the ball has been touched or hit by another player. He must fairly hit the ball, "scooping up" not being allowed. If the striker hit at but miss the ball, the stroke shall be taken again by him, provided that he has not given "sticks."

If any player, other than the striker, be within five yards of the ball at the time of a free hit, the umpire shall order the hit to be taken again, except as specially provided for in this rule.

If the striker, after taking such hit, participates in the game again before the ball has been touched or hit by another player

(1) *Inside the circles.*—The umpire shall give a "penalty corner."

(2) *Outside the circles.*—The umpire shall give a free hit to one of the opposite team to the offender.

If the ball is "scooped up"

(1) *Outside the circles.*—The umpire shall give a free hit to one of the opposite team to the offender.

(2) *Inside the circles.*—The umpire shall give a "penalty corner."

16. *Penalty Bully.*—A penalty bully shall be played by the offender, and by any player selected by the other team on the spot where the breach occurred. All other players shall be beyond the nearer 25-yards line in the field of play, and shall not cross such 25-yards line, or take any further part in the game until the penalty bully is completed. If during the progress of a penalty bully the ball goes over any part of the goal-line other than that between the goal-posts off the stick or person of the offender, the penalty bully shall be taken again. If the ball goes over the goal-line between the goal-posts off the stick or person of the offender, a penalty goal shall be awarded to the attacking team. In all other cases, as soon as the ball has passed wholly over the goal-line (not between the goal-posts), or outside the striking circle, the game shall be restarted by a bully on the centre of the nearer 25 yards line.

(a) Breach of any rule by the offender (except Rule 9):

The attacking team shall be awarded a penalty goal, which shall be of the same value as an ordinary goal.

(b) Breach of any rule by the player selected by the attacking team (except Rule 9):

The defending team shall be allowed a free hit.

(c) Simultaneous breach of any rule by both players:

The bully shall be taken again.

17. *Roll in.*—When a ball passes wholly over the side-line, it shall be rolled in along the ground (and not bounced) into play by hand from the point where it crossed the side-line in any direction by one of the team opposite to that of the player who last touched it. Players may cross the five-yards line immediately the ball leaves the hand of the roller-in. The ball may be rolled in at once, but no player shall stand (himself or his stick) within the five-yards line; should, however, the umpire consider that a player is standing within the five-yards line to gain time, he shall not stop the game. The roller-in must have both feet and stick behind the side-line, and may only play the ball again after another player.

(a) Breach of the rule by the player who rolls in:

The roll-in shall be taken by a player of the other team.

(b) Breach of the rule by any other player:

The roll-in shall be taken again, except as specially provided for in this rule.

18. *Behind.*—(a) If the ball is sent behind the goal-line by a player of the attacking team, or glance off the stick or person of, or be unintentionally, in the umpire's opinion, sent behind the goal-line by one of the defending team who is farther away from his own goal-line than the 25-yards line, it shall be brought out 25 yards in a direction at right angles to the goal-line from the point where it crossed the line and there "bullied."

(b) If the ball glances off, or is, in the umpire's opinion, unintentionally sent behind the goal-line by any player of the defending team behind the 25-yards line, he (the umpire) shall give a corner to the attacking team.

(c) If, however, the ball is intentionally, in the umpire's opinion, sent behind the goal-line by any player of the defending team, the umpire shall give a penalty corner to the attacking team.

19. *Corner.*—A player of the attacking team shall have a hit from a point on the side- or goal-line within three yards of the nearest corner flag, and at the moment of such hit all the defending team (their sticks and feet) must be behind their own goal-line, and all the attacking team must be outside the circle in the field of play.

Provided that no player shall stand within five yards of a striker when a corner hit is taken, and that no goal can be scored from a corner hit by the attacking team unless the ball has been stopped motionless on the ground by one of the attacking team, or has touched the person or stick of one of the defending team before the last stroke of the attacking team. A player taking a corner hit cannot participate in the game again until the ball has been played by another player. On taking a corner hit, if the striker miss the ball, he shall take the hit again, provided he does not contravene Rule 13.

If the striker, after taking such hit, participates in the game again before the ball has been touched or hit by another player, the umpire shall give a free hit to one of the opposite team to the offender.

If the player to whom the corner is hit out, without attempting to stop the ball, takes a flying hit at goal, the umpire shall award a free hit to the defending team.

20. *Penalty Corner.*—A player of the attacking team shall have a hit from any point on the goal-line he may choose, and at the moment of such hit all the defending team (their sticks and feet) must be behind their own goal-line; also all the attacking team must be outside the striking circle in the field of play.

Provided that no player shall stand within five yards of the striker when a penalty corner hit is taken, and that no penalty corner hit shall be taken at a less distance than ten yards from the nearest goal-post, and that no goal can be scored from a corner hit by the attacking team unless the ball has been stopped motionless on the ground by one of the attacking team, or has touched the person or stick of one of the defending team before the last stroke of the attacking team. A player hitting a penalty corner hit cannot participate in the game again until the ball has been played by another player. On taking a penalty corner hit, if the striker miss the ball he shall take the hit again, provided he does not contravene Rule 13.

If the striker, after taking such hit, participates in the game again before the ball has been touched or hit by another player, the umpire shall give a free hit to one of the opposite team to the offender.

If the player to whom the corner is hit out, without attempting to stop the ball, takes a flying hit at goal, the umpire shall award a free hit to the defending team.

21. *Umpires.*—Each umpire shall take half the ground for the whole game without changing ends. He shall also take one side-line and give decisions as to the roll-in (but not the corner hit) in both halves of the ground. The umpire shall allow (the elements permitting) the full or agreed time, neither more nor less, deducting all wastage, and keep a record of the game. In the event of a penalty bully falling to be taken on the call of half-time or time, an umpire shall allow extra time until either a goal has been scored or the penalty bully has been completed. Until a decision is given the ball is in play. If there be only one umpire there should be two linesmen to give decisions as to the ball passing over the side-lines, and as to where and by which team the ball shall be rolled in.

Umpires and linesmen are debarred from coaching during a game.

The umpire shall refrain from putting the provision of any rule into effect in cases where he is satisfied that by enforcing it he would be giving an advantage to the offending team. The umpires shall give all decisions without waiting for an appeal.

22. *Rough Play and Misconduct.*—For rough play or misconduct the umpire shall have a discretionary power to warn the offending player, or to suspend him from further participation in the game.

23. *Accidents.*—When a player is temporarily incapacitated, the umpire shall suspend the game. When it is resumed the ball shall be bullied off on a spot to be chosen by the umpire in whose half of the ground the player was hurt.

[The above Rules have been included in this book by the kind permission of the International Hockey Board and of their publisher, Horace Cox, Breams Buildings, London, E.C. The Hon. Sec. of the International Hockey Board is Mr. P. Collins, 6, Bedford Row, London, W.C.]



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5

HOCKEY

1. The way to catch a pass coming in on the right. 2. The way to pass a ball to the right. 3. Throwing in with the left hand. 4. The right way to dribble a ball. 5. The wrong way to dribble a ball.

(See pages 102-07.)

KNURR AND SPELL, OR NORTHERN SPELL

This is a game that has long been very popular in the neighbourhood of the towns on the Yorkshire moors, and is more or less played throughout all the Northern English counties. Beyond their borders, however, until very recent date, the game was unknown either by name or practice. Newspaper reports of Knurr and Spell matches have from time to time directed attention to the game, and it would seem that it has now a tendency to spread itself beyond those districts where it has so long found a home. Like Golf, it requires a large open space; and where such spaces are to be found there is no reason why Knurr and Spell should not rival Golf in the number of its devotees. Like Golf, too, it is essentially a game of hitting—hard, skilful, and practised hitting. It embraces in itself also many of the peculiarities of the minor game of Trap, Bat, and Ball, and is, doubtless, of similar origin, although it demands much more application and attention before any degree of proficiency can be attained.



The Drive

The "knurr"—or "nurr," as it is sometimes spelled—is a small boxwood ball, perfectly round, and about an inch in diameter. The "spell" is that which answers to the trap in the simpler game, and it is important that it should be selected with great care, for, it matters not how proficient the player may be, if the spring or springs of his spell are badly made or adjusted, his play will fail to secure him rank among his competitors. The principle of the spell is that of a spring regulated by a thumb-screw, the one end of the spring being secured to an iron back or to a wooden board, fastened by iron pins in the ground (*see figure*). The spring has fixed on it, at about two inches from the loose end, a small cup for the reception of the knurr, and before playing, the loose end of the spring is secured by a weighted toothed rack working on a loose pivot. The spring should be adjusted to the requirements of the player by means of the thumb-screw. The spell is supplied from the foundry of any

ordinary steel or iron founder, and its cost in England ranges from fifteen to thirty shillings. The weapon with which the knurr is struck is called a "pommel," and is sometimes made like an ordinary billiard cue, with a small block of wood at one end, the other end being padded and encircled with string to form a firm grip for the hand. Other pommels are made almost exactly similar in shape to the bagatelle cue ordinarily used by ladies.

To play the knurr, the spring of the spell is released by letting down the toothed rack that has secured its otherwise loose end, and this action will jerk the knurr upwards; the pommel is then swung round with the whole force of the hands, arms, and shoulders combined, so as to catch the knurr when about on a level with the player's chest (see figure), and if the hit be successful the knurr is likely to be driven off to a distance of 200 yards or more. The hit, to count, must be so managed that the knurr is neither split nor cloven, as in the event of the knurr being damaged the hit is not allowed. The game is one of individual skill, and each player plays for his own hand, the longest hit winning.

In some districts, where the game has become general, the heaths or commons are staked out by means of pins or bobs placed in the ground at distances of twenty yards apart. This arrangement avoids the necessity of measuring each hit, as sometimes matches or games are played and decided upon the largest score made in a given number of hits, rather than as above by the longest distance covered by any one hit. Each distance of twenty yards then is made to score one. It is usual in matches of this description for every player to bring his own spell and a supply of knurrs, and for each player to have five consecutive rises of the knurr. Ten minutes are allowed after the spell is fixed to adjust the spring to the tension required. In order to allow for the knurr not being sent in a direct line from the spell, it is customary to mark out the ground in the form of a triangle, each side of which should be about 250 yards long. A row of pins or bobs should be placed straight away from the angle at which the spells are fixed, and also along the sides of the triangle, meeting at that angle; additional rows should also be fixed on each side of the centre row, half-way between that and the sides of the triangle. The bobs are numbered according to the number of twenty yards they are from the spells, each completed twenty yards only counting towards score. No score may be allowed until the knurr has been inspected and found to be perfect as when it was first placed in the spell. As might be supposed, the game is best when played with, rather than against, the wind.

LACROSSE

LACROSSE, the national game of Canada, was introduced into England in 1867, but it was a long time before the game became popular, but, fortunately, of recent years it has come into greater prominence and is much more appreciated. We find it a matter of some difficulty to describe Lacrosse in these pages, for the reason that it is so entirely different from any other pastime, and that its many peculiarities require to be seen in action to be understood aright. However, close attention to the following details will at any rate initiate a would-be player into its mysteries, and the experience he will gain in practice will teach him the rest. The first things to be obtained are a crosse and a ball, the former being the instrument with which the game is played. Its appearance will be gathered from Plate 13. The measurement of the crosse from the top of the bend to the other end is about 4 ft. 3 in. The ball used is rather larger than a tennis ball, and is composed of solid sponge indiarubber. Like a cricket bat, a crosse has a right and a wrong side, a distinction that will be readily appreciated by the veriest tyro, for upon the right side the ball can be held, whilst upon the wrong it cannot—at least, not by novices.

Everything depends upon the way in which the crosse is held. If the player will take hold of the extreme end of the handle with his right hand, having the gut of the crosse towards him, and with his left hand grasp that portion of the stick where the handle terminates and the gut commences, he will be holding a crosse as it should be held. If he hold it very loosely he will find that the crosse (if it be a good one) will have a natural balance of its own, with the wooden side of it rather lower than the gut side, and he may be sure that the position it falls into is the correct one. He should then place a ball upon the net work, and he will find that it will (if the crosse is properly held) at once roll towards the straight part (or backbone) of the stick, and then proceed to roll along the backbone towards the semicircular end. This semicircular end (otherwise the point) should then be slightly raised, or the ball will drop from it to the ground. At the first few attempts the ball, doubtless, will drop to the ground, but as this happens in all cases, no beginner need fear that he is unusually awkward. Remember that when resting on the crosse, the ball should always be against the backbone. Having mastered this, "throwing" becomes the next operation. Here let us lay down the golden rule that the ball must never leave the

crosse at any other part than the point, and before doing so it must have rolled down at least a portion of the backbone.

A glance at Fig. 1 will now be of some assistance, and if the player will hold the crosse in the manner there depicted, being careful



Fig. 1.—Throwing

that the ball is in the proper position, and will, with a circular movement, swing it towards the left shoulder, he will find that the ball will travel rapidly down the backbone and fly off at the point—the greater the speed of the ball down the backbone the farther it will go. Like all other movements, this requires practice, and failures will surely attend first attempts, but after a while the ball will be found to “bite” the stick, as it were, and success will soon follow. The ball has frequently been thrown from 100 to 130 yards by means of this throw. Fig. 2 introduces us to another

throw, and here the player will find some difficulty in bringing the crosse into position whilst the ball is upon it; but, if he will remember that the ball must at all times rest against the backbone (we cannot repeat this too often), he will soon attain his object. This throw is performed by bringing the right hand, which holds the end of the handle, sharply towards the body, and, as in the former throw, the ball will run down the backbone, and shoot from the point.

There are a variety of other throws, all variations of the two described, which are the chief ones, but if the beginner will master these thoroughly, the others will come to him naturally. Next we have an essential feature of the game, “Catching” (Plate 13), and this requires more practice and care for proficiency than any other particular.

The novice will be almost certain to hold out his crosse like a frying-pan, and allow the ball simply to drop into it, which, of course, it will do, and immediately jump out again. To ensure a safe catch the point of the crosse should be pointed at the ball whilst it is in the air, and then as the ball reaches the gut the crosse should receive a slightly downward movement. In fact, the crosse should give way to the ball in the same way that a fielder at cricket gives way to a ball when he catches it. Frequently the ball comes too swiftly to permit of it being caught at the first attempt; then it should be merely blocked, as it were, and be caught on the rebound. If the player has access to a blank wall the throw in Fig. 2 can be practised against it, and the ball can be caught on the return.



Fig. 2.—Throwing
(Another Position)

THE LAWS OF LACROSSE

I. The Crosse

Section 1.—The crosse may be of any length to suit the player, woven with raw hide or gut—not cord or soft leather. In its widest part the crosse shall not exceed one foot. A string must be brought through a hole at the side of the tip of the turn, to prevent the point of the stick catching an opponent's crosse. A leading string resting upon the top of the stick may be used, but must not be fastened so as to form a pocket lower down the stick than the end of the length strings. The length strings must be woven to within two inches of their termination, so that the ball cannot catch in the meshes.

Section 2.—No kind of metal, either in wire or sheet, screws, or nails, shall be allowed upon the crosse. Splices must be made either of string or gut.

II. The Ball

The ball must be of indiarubber sponge, not less than 8 inches and not more than $8\frac{1}{4}$ inches in circumference. It must weigh not less than $4\frac{1}{2}$ ounces. In matches it must be furnished by the home club.

III. The Goals

The goals shall be placed not less than 100 yards and not more than 150 yards apart, unless otherwise arranged, and in any position agreeable to the captains on both sides. The posts must be 6 feet apart, and the tops thereof, including any ornament, must be 6 feet above the ground. In matches they must be furnished by the home club. Goal nets may be used, if agreed to by both captains.

IV. The Boundaries

The boundaries of the field of play shall be agreed upon by the captains before the commencement of the match. Should the ball be thrown out of bounds, the referee shall, unless the captains have arranged otherwise, call "stand," and the ball shall then be "faced" by the two nearest players not less than four yards within the bounds at the point where the ball went out.

V. The Umpires

Section 1.—There must be only one umpire at each goal, who shall be agreed to by both captains before the commencement of the match. They shall not be changed during the progress of a match without the consent of both captains. They shall not change goals during a match.

Section 2.—No umpire shall, directly or indirectly, be interested in any bet upon the result of the match. No person shall be allowed to speak to the umpires, or in any way distract their attention.

Section 3.—The umpire shall stand behind the posts. In the event of "goal" being claimed, he shall at once decide whether or not the ball has fairly passed through the goal space, his decision being simply "goal" or "no goal." His decision shall be final, without appeal, and he shall not be required to give a reason.

Section 4.—In the absence of the referee, the umpires shall assume his functions, as set down in Law VI., each over his own half of the field. One only shall act as timekeeper and starter failing a referee, and this to be decided by tossing.

VI. The Referee

Section 1.—The referee shall be selected by the officers of the competing teams at any time prior to the match. He shall be a disinterested person.

Section 2.—Before the match begins he shall see that umpires have been properly chosen.

Section 3.—He shall draw up the players in lines, and see that the regulations respecting the crosses, balls, goals, and spiked shoes, etc. are adhered to. He shall ascertain the length of time the match shall last, directly from both captains, and he shall be sole timekeeper and starter.

Section 4.—If the referee observe any infringement of the rules or when a "foul" claimed by any player has been allowed, or in any case of injury or accident (Law VIII., Sections 2 and 3), the referee shall immediately call "stand." If the ball enter goal after "stand" has been called by the referee, it shall not count; or if a foul be claimed by one side and their opponents score a goal immediately afterwards the referee shall first give a decision on the foul, which, if allowed, shall nullify the goal. If the foul, however, be claimed by the scoring party whether the claim be allowed or not, a goal scored before the referee has called "stand" shall count.

Section 5.—The infliction of penalties (Law XII.) shall be in the province of the referee, without appeal, and any side rejecting his decision or refusing to continue the match shall be declared the losers.

Section 6.—The referee shall arbitrate in all disputes between the captains, and his decision shall be final.

Section 7.—At the commencement of each game, and after "stand" has been called, the referee shall see that the ball is properly "faced," or otherwise dealt with according to the laws. No "face" shall take place within ten yards of the centre of goal when it is caused by the action of an attacking player.

VII. The Captains

Section 1.—A captain shall be appointed by each side previously to the commencement of a match. He shall be a member of the club by whom he is appointed. He may or may not be a player in a match; if not, he shall not carry a crosse, nor appear in Lacrosse uniform. He shall incur the same penalties as though he were a player should he infringe such Sections of Law X. as may be applicable to him. He shall be the mouthpiece of his team in all disputes, in which he may be assisted by one player selected by himself, and shall report any infringement of these laws during the match to the referee.

Section 2.—Captains shall arrange, previous to a match, the length of time it shall last, and shall toss for choice of goals.

Section 3.—Nothing in this law shall prevent a player appealing direct to the referee in case of rough or foul play.

VIII. The Teams

Section 1.—*Number.*—Twelve players shall constitute a full team. They must be regular members of the club they represent. Should one side be deficient in numbers at the time fixed for starting the match, their opponents may either limit their own numbers to equalise the sides, or compel them to play with as many as they have.

Section 2.—Injury.—Should a player be incapacitated from playing through wilful injury or rough play from an opponent during a match, his side shall be at liberty to replace such injured player or compel the other side to take off the offending player to equalise the sides. No change of players may be made after a match has commenced, except in cases of injury during the game.

Section 3.—Accidents.—Should an accident occur to any player which, in the opinion of the referee, incapacitates him from playing, the other side must put off a man during his absence.

Section 4.—Spiked Soles.—No player may wear spiked soles under any circumstances. The soles must in every case be indiarubber if boots or shoes are worn.

Section 5.—The players* on each side shall be designated as follows:—

- | | |
|-------------------|------------------|
| 1. Goalkeeper. | 7. Centre. |
| 2. Point. | 8. Right attack. |
| 3. Cover-point. | 9. Left attack. |
| 4. Third man. | 10. Third home. |
| 5. Right defence. | 11. Second home. |
| 6. Left defence. | 12. First home. |

IX. The Game

Section 1.—Each game shall be started at the centres facing at the centre mark, and when both sides are ready the referee shall call "play."

Section 2.—A match shall be decided by a majority of goals taken within a specified time. A goal shall be scored by the ball passing through the goal-space from the front, not being propelled with any part of the foot or leg.

Section 3.—Should the ball be accidentally put through either goal-space by one of the players defending it, by whatsoever means, it shall be counted a goal to the opposite side. Should it be put through by anyone not actually a player, it shall not count.

Section 4.—In the event of a goal-post being knocked down during a match, and the ball put through what would be the goal if the post were standing, it shall count a goal for the attacking side.

Section 5.—When goal has been claimed and allowed, the ball shall be again faced in mid-field.

Section 6.—Ends shall be changed at "half-time," when either side may claim not more than ten minutes' rest, such rest not being counted as occupied in play.

Section 7.—The goalkeeper, while defending goal within the goal-crease, may put the ball away with his foot or hand (but not throw it), or block it in any manner with his crosse or body.

Section 8.—Any player is at liberty to propel the ball with his foot or leg.

Section 9.—A match is ended by the referee calling "time."

X. Fouls

Section 1.—No attacking party shall stand within the goal-crease, or check the goalkeeper within it, until the ball has passed within the

* Fig. 3 shows the positions of the players, the white dots (○) representing one side, and the black dots (●) the other.

bounds of the goal-crease. This shall not prevent a player from running through or across a corner of the goal-crease to field a wide ball. Each umpire at his own goal shall decide these points.

Section 2.—No player shall interfere in any way with another who is in pursuit of an opponent.

Section 3.—No player, except the goalkeeper (under Law IX., Section 7), shall wilfully touch the ball with his hand, save as provided in Section 4 of this law; nor shall he wilfully fall and cover the ball with his body.

Section 4.—When the ball lodges in a place inaccessible to his crosse, or about his clothing, the player must at once remove it and "face" with his nearest opponent, all other players standing in the positions they may then occupy.

Section 5.—Should the ball catch in the netting the crosse must immediately be struck on the ground and the ball dislodged.

Section 6.—No player shall grasp an opponent's crosse with his hands, hold it with his arms or between his legs or under his feet, or kick it.

Section 7.—If a player drop his crosse during the game, he may not touch the ball or impede an opponent in any way until he recovers his own crosse.

XI. Rough Play

Section 1.—No player, with his crosse or otherwise, shall hold or trip another, nor push with the hand; nor shall any player deliberately charge or shoulder an opponent, nor wrestle with the legs entwined, so as to throw an opponent. This does not prevent the use of the "body-check," provided the same be strictly as defined (Law XIII.), nor the pushing an opponent with the shoulder in ground scuffles.

Section 2.—No player shall deliberately strike another, or threaten to do so under any circumstances, and anyone considering himself purposely injured during play must report to the referee.

Section 3.—The check commonly known as "the square" or "crosse" check, which consists of one player *charging* into another with both hands on the crosse, so as to make the stick meet the body of an opponent, is strictly forbidden.

Section 4.—No player shall throw his crosse under any circumstances.

XII. Penalties

Section 1.—For breach of Law X., Sections 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, and 7, the referee may either order a "face" or order a "free position" at the place where the foul occurred.

Section 2.—Claiming "fouls" on trivial grounds, as when, in the opinion of the referee, no foul was intended, cannot be tolerated, and the referee shall first caution a player so offending, and, if persisted in, shall disqualify him until a goal is scored.

Section 3.—For rough play (Law XI., Sections 1, 2, 3, and 4) the penalty shall be either:—

- (a) A "free position" for the side offended against; or
- (b) Suspension of the offending player until a goal is scored; or
- (c) Suspension of the offending player for the remainder of the match.

XIII. Definition of Terms

Goal is the space contained between the posts.

Goal-crease shall be a marked line 12 feet square, and the goal-

posts shall be placed 6 feet from the front and back lines, and 3 feet from the side lines. If not marked it shall be left to the umpire to decide.

Goal-nets shall be as follows: From a point 6 feet behind the centre of a line along the ground from post to post, nets shall be taken to each post, and to a bar placed across the top of the posts.

Face.—The ball shall be placed upon the ground between the crosses of two opponents, and each of them shall have his left side towards the goal he is attacking. They shall not move till "Play" has been called, but must then immediately draw their crosses apart (towards them) before removing them from the ground.

Tripping is the use of the legs, feet, or crosse to throw an opponent.

Holding shall mean clutching with the hand or arm, or detaining an opponent between the two arms and the crosse, or placing the crosse against his body so as to impede his movement.

Body-check is the placing of one's body in the way of an approaching opponent, so that the latter is simply impeded. No checker shall use force in the body-check. (Plate 13.)

Striking means the giving of a deliberate blow with either crosse or hand.

Charging or Shouldering implies motion and unnecessary force in checking, and is forbidden, because the object shall be to play the ball and not the man.

Stand.—The ball is dead when the referee calls "stand," and no player shall move until the referee calls "play."

Free Positions.—The players shall "stand," except the goalkeeper, who may resume his place, and the player to whom the referee awards the "free position"; and no player may be nearer than 5 yards to the



Fig. 3.—Position of Players on Lacrosse Ground
One Team is shown in White Dots, the other in Black

last mentioned. If anyone be within the prescribed distance, he must retire to the satisfaction of the referee. The player awarded the "free position" shall then take the ball on his crosse in front of him, and at the word "play" from the referee the game shall proceed. The "free positions" shall never be within 10 yards of goal, but the referee may, under extreme circumstances, order any player or players, including the goalkeeper, from between such "free position" and goal. The 10 yards shall be measured in a straight line from the centre of the goal through the place where the foul occurred.

THE TEAM

It will be seen from Fig. 3 that each team extends the entire length of the field, from goalkeeper to first home, and that the players (with the exception of the goalkeepers) are in opposing couples. Everyone knows the work of a goalkeeper. He has to do his best to prevent the ball from going through the 6-foot square he is defending, and, be it carefully noted, he is the only player on the field who may touch the ball with his hands. "Point" takes his position immediately in front of goal. This is considered the most responsible position on the field, and is always filled by the best and most reliable player. "Cover-point" stands a few yards farther from the goal being defended, and his position is only second in importance to that of "Point," and the same remarks apply to "Third Man" in a slightly lesser degree. These three men compare somewhat with "backs" at football, and all must be steady, sure men. It is by them, and sometimes the goalkeeper, that the throw first described is so frequently used. The next men out are the "Defence Fields." These should be speedy men to run the ball down the sides. "Centre" is a sort of "rover" who has no fixed position, but should endeavour to help his side on the defence when they are in trouble, or assist them on the attack when they are assaulting their opponents' goal. The players hitherto described are (with the exception of Centre) confined to one-half of the field, and are called "defence men"—because their chief object is to defend their goal from the onslaughts of the enemy. The remainder of the team are called "attack men," because to them is left the task of attacking the opposing fortress—of scoring goals, in fact. They all need to be active, if not speedy men, and the throw of Fig. 2 is the one used by them more than any other. The reason that the players are separated into couples is that each "defence man" is opposed individually to an "attack man" of the other side. Thus "Point" has always to "check" (that is the recognised term) "First Home." "Cover-point" checks "Second Home." "Third man" checks "Third Home," and the "Defence Fields" check the "Attack Fields." A careful study of the diagram in Fig. 3 will explain this more clearly.

THE GAME

The game is begun by the two "centres" in the manner shown in Plate 13 ("Face-off" by centres). This starting position is



Photo: Ronkaki Thiele.

LACROSSE
(See pages 195-203.)

termed "facing." When "Play" is called the centres will struggle for the ball; one will secure it, and immediately run with it towards his opponents' goal; if closely followed he will pass the ball to one of his side who has managed to elude the attentions of his check, and he will at once make a sharp throw for goal. The ball will be stopped—say by the opposing "point," who will make a long shy of 100 yards or more, and the game is immediately carried on at the other end of the field. The "attack men," by dodging and other means, do their best to become "unchecked," and by judicious passing (Plate 13) of the ball endeavour to retain the possession of it until one of them gets an opportunity of shooting at goal. The "defence men," of course, do all in their power to prevent the "attack men" from becoming unchecked, and at the same time try to secure the ball and throw it away from such dangerous proximity to their goal. Perhaps an "attack man" succeeds in obtaining a shot at "goal" (Plate 13), but he throws wide, and the ball goes behind the posts. In this case it is generally advisable for "Goalkeeper" to go after it, as he is a yard or so nearer than anyone else. "First Home" goes out to him, and "Point" takes "Goalkeeper's" place for the time being. "Goalkeeper" throws up from some distance behind "goal," the ball falling in the centre of the ground, and play takes place amongst the fielders. By them the ball is carried to either one end or the other, and the game continues in this way, the ball visiting every part of the field until a good and successful shot at one of the goals puts an end to it. The ball is then brought to the centre of the ground, and the next game is started by "facing," as at the beginning.

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LAWN TENNIS

THERE is a special recommendation of Lawn Tennis, namely, that it can be played by girls as well as boys, and that ladies are not unfrequently known to be able to hold their own against really excellent players belonging to the stronger sex.

The diagram (Fig. 1) represents a Lawn Tennis court, marked off for a four-handed game, the service side lines being continued to the base lines at *k m* and *i l*: the advantage of so marking a court being that the single-handed game can be played on it by taking the service side lines as side lines for that game, and the court as it stands for the four- or three-handed games.

THE COURT

The net is stretched across the court at a height of three feet in the middle, and of three feet six inches at each end. These ends are supported on poles, which are braced or stayed back by being attached with cords to two pegs in the ground; or, as is more general now, the net is suspended between two posts, which either fit into sockets in the ground, or are themselves fixtures in it; the net being tightened by drawing up the cord running through it at the top, by means either of a wheel or lever affixed to one of the posts. Of late years the many excellent inventions, in the way of fixed poles and fastenings, have almost entirely superseded the old posts and pegs, which had the serious disadvantage of continually requiring the readjustment of the net to the right height. The top of the net should be distinguished plainly by having a broad band of tape or braid run along it, as without some such mark it is sometimes difficult to see clearly where it is. Before commencing a game, the umpire or one of the players should see that the net is adjusted at the right height from the ground.

The net, when thus fixed, will measure forty-two feet from post to post. Inside the posts, and at a distance of three feet from them, straight lines will be drawn on the grass or the asphalt, or whatever ground serves as a floor, at right angles to the net, and reaching to a distance of thirty-nine feet on each side of it. The ends of these lines on each side are then joined by two other straight lines, which are of course parallel with the net, so that the whole court forms an exact parallelogram, seventy-eight feet long and thirty-six feet broad. It is divided into two equal parts by a line running lengthwise down it, so that on each side of the net there are two courts—a right-hand court (*c a l* and *f h k*) and a left-hand

court (*d b m* and *e g i*). These courts are, again, once more intersected by a cross line, twenty-one feet from the net, which is called the "service line," and which separates the ground on each side of the net into four rather unequally sized courts. These are all the divisions which in the early stage of the game's history were known or allowed; and it may be well to explain the manner of playing without complicating it by making any mention for the present of the service side lines *l i* and *k m*, which are referred to on page 211.

THE GAME

Supposing, then, that the player standing at *l* has won the toss or the "spin" for innings, and has elected to begin serving from this end of the court. He will stand at the edge of the court *a* with both feet outside the boundary line, and then holding the ball in his left hand will strike it over the net into the diagonally opposite court (*f*). If he fails to do so, and either strikes the net or places the ball in any other spot except in court *f* it is a "fault," and if a second fault is served it scores for the opposite side. But what if the ball hits the top of the net, as it often does, and then falls over into the right court? Originally this was a good service; but a rule afterwards adopted has decided that it shall count as a "let"—that is to say, it shall make no difference whatever to the score, but the in-player shall serve again, just as if nothing had occurred. Suppose, however, that the service is a good one, and the ball falls straight and clean over the net into court *f*; one of the opposing players, who has been standing somewhere between *h* and *g*, will hereupon attempt to return it, by striking it at its first bound, and hitting it over the net. There is no limit to the height of the stroke. It may be as high or as low as the striker pleases, provided that the ball clears the net and falls somewhere within the outside boundary lines of the court opposite. It is not lawful to take a service at the volley—that is, before it has touched the ground once; nor may the other out-player take it instead of his partner, to whom the ball is served.

It is now the turn of the other side to return the ball, and this either of them may do by hitting it either at the volley or at the first bound. Generally the two partners on both sides take each one side of the court, and keep to it throughout the set, except when, owing to the rules about serving, they are obliged to exchange.

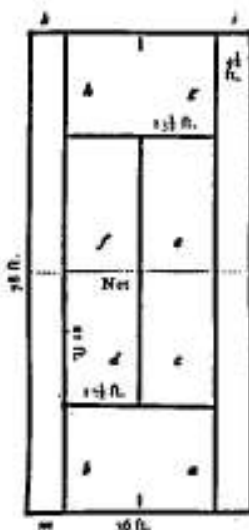


Fig. 1.—A Lawn Tennis Court

Other players divide the work, and set one partner to take all the balls falling in front of the service lines, while the other takes all which fall farther from the net; and this is perhaps the better plan when one of the players is good at volleying; for, as we shall see, the advantages which he can secure by his "up" play are very important. The server always starts from the right-hand court, as already indicated, and serves into *f*; for his second serve he crosses over to the left of the centre line, and serves into *e*, his partner usually moving to a position in court *a*, somewhat similar to the one previously occupied in *b*. The out-players thus take the service alternately throughout the game. For the second game one of the out-players in the first game serves, the partner of the first server serving in the third game, the partner of the second server serving in the fourth game, and so on in the same order for all the subsequent games of the set.

The game being thus started, the ball is returned alternately from side to side until one player makes a failure, by either striking the ball into the net, or so as to fall somewhere outside the opposite court. It is sufficient for the ball to fall into the court, even if it should hit the top of the net on the way; for this, although it is counted a "let" in serving, is not so dealt with at any subsequent period in the game. When a failure is made, a "point"—that is to say, one stage in the game—is scored against the side which failed, and that whether the other side is or is not "in" at the time. This method of scoring is entirely different from that adopted at racquets or fives. There the person who serves must be put "out," and his place taken by the adversary before that adversary can score an ace; so that many services may be made, and result one after another in a "hand out," without any addition being made to the score. In Lawn Tennis, on the other hand, every service must lead to some addition to the score (or some diminution of it) on one side or the other, and there is no such thing as putting a hand out. The person who began to serve continues serving till the game is finished; and thus a great deal of time is saved, and a good deal of trouble in shifting places is avoided.

SCORING

The easiest way to explain a game of Lawn Tennis is to imagine one, and keep the score of it from beginning to end. Suppose, then, that *m* and *n* are playing against *x* and *y*. *m* serves from some point—any point will do—along the line which forms the outer boundary of court *a*. The ball, skimming over the top of the net, falls at the near end of court *f*; and *x*, who is posted there to return it, has to exercise some diligence in getting up in time to strike it at all. He does so, however; but the stroke is too vigorous, and the ball, flying past *n*, who wisely omits to volley it, falls just outside *m*, and gives a point to the adversary. The game is then called 15 to 0, or, as the correct phrase hath it, "15 love," love being

equivalent, in the tennis player's language, to nought. *M* then changes over to some spot along the left side of the boundary line, and serves into court *e* to *Y*; *Y* is more fortunate, or rather more skillful, than his partner, and returns the ball to *M*, *M* to *X*, and *X* to *N*, who hits it into the net. Now this failure, instead of putting *M* out, simply adds a point to the score of *X* and *Y*, making the game "15 all." *M* now returns to the other side of the court, and in attempting to give one of his difficult low services, hits the ball too low, so that it fails to clear the net. This is a "fault," and being followed by another, gives a point to the adversary, making the game 15 to 30. At the next service into court *e* the ball is returned by *Y*, and taken at the volley by *N*. The stroke is a good one, for it is a hard downward hit, and aimed straight at *Y*. But *Y*, instead of getting out of the way, holds up his racket as a sort of shield, and the ball, striking against it, returns itself gently into court *a*, so far to the left of *N* that he cannot get across to it, and so near to the net that *M*, though he rushes up from the back part of the court, cannot arrive quite in time. This gives another point to the out-players, and makes the game 15 to 40. Another failure, and *M* and his partner will lose the game. But *M* now thinks it time to wake up, and makes two good shooting services in succession, each of which the adversaries fail to return; and the score becomes 40 all, or rather "deuce."

It is now necessary for one side to score two points or "vantage" in succession. *M* gives another good successful service, and gains one of the "vantages." But his second service is less lucky; and *Y*, who has to play it, places his return stroke so deftly in the corner of court *a* that the partner of *M*, who is standing a bit too near the net, cannot volley it as it comes over nor get back to play it as it bounds. The vantage is lost; and the game returns to "deuce." *M*, who still continues to serve, now hopes to put an end to the long game by a couple of his brilliant services, but, in attempting to do so, again strikes the net, first at its extreme edge by the tape which runs along the top of it, and on the second trial still lower down. He is becoming impatient, and thus losing more than all the advantage which his superior skill and practice gave him to begin with. The game is now "vantage" to *X* and *Y*, or "vantage out"; and a single mistake on the part of the others will secure the victory to the out-players. In order to avoid a repetition of his last fiasco, which has just annoyed his partner, *M* makes a rather easy service some feet above the net. The ball is returned sharply, and a severe struggle ensues, *M* and *N* straining every nerve to return it each time it comes across the net to them. They make a capital fight, and the ball flies backwards and forwards without a miss on either side, as if it would never stop. But from the first the in-players were the most put to it to make their returns, and *Y*, who intends to maintain his advantage, keeps placing the ball in all the most difficult

corners of the court, where his opponents will have the greatest difficulty in getting to it. *M*, especially, is obliged to rush backwards and forwards from right to left, and from left to right, glad enough if he can return the ball at all, without much hope of "placing" it or "cutting" it so as to puzzle the out-players. He makes a good stroke at last, only an inch above the net. *X*, standing very close behind it, and keeping a very sharp look out is sorely tempted to volley it as it comes past him. But he feels that if he did so the chances are it would rebound too far, and fall outside the court. He exercises self-denial, therefore, and leaves the ball to his partner behind. *Y* can only just reach it, and he falls as he reaches out a long arm. But the ball is hit straight and true, and it flies sharp towards the net. If it clears it, it will puzzle both the others, and they get back to be ready for it. But it strikes the very top of the net. Hurrah for *M* and *N*! they may yet win the game. But, alas! although the ball has hit the net, it may roll over it. It does, and falls as gently as a rain-drop just on the right side. It is hopeless for *N* to try for it, however he may run forward. He is too late; and the second vantage, conferring the honours of victory, remains to *X* and *Y*.

Such is the sketch of a game at Lawn Tennis, the like of which may be seen any day on hundreds of lawns in England. The interest felt both by players and spectators is kept up to the very last, for the player who makes the worst start is never so far behind that he has not an excellent chance of catching up his opponent. There is no contest, perhaps, in which the quaint old saying that a game is "never lost till it is won" appears to have so much truth in it as in Lawn Tennis. Often are the three first points scored straight off by the in-player, and yet his adversary, thus left behind, makes up to "deuce," and then, after a long tussle, secures a hard-earned victory.

Lawn Tennis matches are played in "sets" of eleven games, so that he who first secures six games is the winner of a set, except as in Law 22. After each set the players change ends, and this often makes a difference, for not only is the wind (when there is any) likely to make the play for one court more difficult than for the other, but also in the afternoon or evening, the effect of the sun in one player's eyes is a great disadvantage to him. Good players will of course soon get accustomed to allow almost instinctively for the wind, but nevertheless there will always remain some inequalities between the windward and the leeward side of the net.

GENERAL HINTS

There are several incidents to the game which deserve a passing notice. Volleying has already been explained; but it may be added that in a double game if one of the players is good at this branch of the art, and stands constantly close behind the net, he can influ-

ence to an extraordinary degree the fortunes of the game. It is wonderful what a large extent of space all along the top of the net within five feet of it and upwards will be covered by a really active player having a keen eye and a quick nerve. So difficult is it, indeed, to get a ball past him near the net that the adversaries, in order to avoid his ubiquitous racket, often resort to spooning their balls up in the air, and so although they escape the Scylla of the up-player, fall into the Charybdis of affording to his partner an easy stroke which he will often return with fatal effect. Of late years, however, and especially since the lowering of the net and the prohibition of volleying over it, the best players have been more and more abandoning the practice of "up" play. Those who are opposed to it maintain that, although in a good many cases the up-player may succeed in intercepting the ball, and "killing" it by a sharp down-stroke, yet he must also in a large proportion of cases fail. And when he does so, and lets the ball go by, he leaves his partner single-handed to guard the whole length and breadth of the full court behind. It is, therefore, very likely, if the up-player does fail to return the ball, the back-player will also be unable to do so, and thus more is lost by the attempt than is at all likely to be gained. The great object with a tennis player being to protect his court and return every ball, it is, as they argue, unwise, on the chance of making some telling strokes, to run the risk of leaving that court unguarded. It is pretty easy, say they, to run in to the net to take a drop-stroke which just comes over it, but wholly impossible for a man standing at the net to get back to the farther court, or even to attempt any return except a volley. For these reasons they are more disposed than they were to believe in the principle of assigning one side of the court to each partner, and leaving him to take the balls which come to that side either at the volley or on the bound, as seems to him easiest and best. There is in this plan certainly one very great advantage which cannot well be overrated. It is this, that when each partner has his own territory to guard, and knows exactly what balls he is expected to take and which he ought to leave alone, there is little opportunity for jealousy or annoyance arising between the two.

The first requisite in a young player—and, for that matter, in an old one also—is to return the ball somehow or other. Let the return be made in the shape of a good stroke, if possible; there is no fault to be found with that. But whether good or bad, let it be at least well and safely over the net, for if it falls short nothing can prevent the other side from scoring a point against you. As long as it gets over there is at least a chance that you may win the ace, however easy the ball may be to take. Your opponent may be too eager, or try to be too clever, and make a miss altogether. Or he may send the ball back to your partner, who may then make a brilliant and successful stroke. At any rate, if he misses, the discredit is his, not yours. Remember that the discredit of missing a

stroke is, or ought to be, always considered far greater than the credit of making a fine stroke.

As a general rule, players should endeavour, both in serving and returning a ball, to hit it hard and low over the net; there will, of course, be exceptions to this rule, as, for instance, with a good player at the net it is often necessary to lob a ball over his head. "Placing," or putting a ball into that corner of the court most difficult for your opponent to reach, is an art only to be acquired by practice. In serving, whether a player adopts the under- or over-hand style, he should always make certain of getting his second serve into the court, because nothing is so annoying to a partner as a series of faults. The other maxims which should be borne in mind are—to hold the racket with its face forward, and parallel with the net, and in striking to present it as nearly as may be in the same position, only with its face sloping slightly upwards, unless the ball is high up, or coming with force in an upward direction, in which cases it should be held so that the lattice work is exactly perpendicular. Volleying is a dangerous practice, for it is difficult, even supposing that the ball is taken full and fairly, to "place" it skilfully in the opposite court. It is inadvisable on the part of the "up" player, because he thereby generally spoils his partner's stroke; and on the part of the back player, because if he left the ball alone it would probably go out of court. There are, nevertheless, many obvious cases where both the one and the other may volley with advantage; while in a single-handed game it is essentially necessary for a player to be almost as good with these as with the more ordinary strokes.

Other rules are, "not to take your partner's strokes"—that is, the balls which fall, or are about to fall, into his court; not to lose your temper, nor to find fault with your partner; not to rail at luck when you have missed a stroke or lost a game. Above all, however, do not abandon the hope of returning a ball till you have done your very utmost. Many strokes which look impossible are made by a desperate effort, beyond the hopes of the striker; and as the practice of trying for them becomes more regular, it is found that there are fewer and fewer balls which cannot be taken. Energy and perseverance, and a determination to do all that can be done to win, achieve wonderful results at this game, which is, indeed, one of those at which a player may go on indefinitely improving. It is, at the same time, one in which the temptations to laziness are great, and prove fatal, to a vast number of players who might have done well if they had stuck to it with courage from the first. There can be little real enjoyment in a game played in such a fashion; and the boy who strikes idly and carelessly, and is listless as to winning or losing, will soon find himself excluded from sets in which the real lovers of the game are engaged.

It remains now to mention some changes which have been made

in the game since, it was first taken up with vigour in England. These have mostly been designed to make strokes more easy, or in other words to prevent those strokes which it is almost or quite impossible to return. With this view an inner line on each side of the ground has been run across it parallel with the side lines, four feet and a half from them, and at right angles to the net. These lines will be seen marked in the diagram (Fig. 1) at *k m, l i*. They are intended to serve two purposes. In the first place, in a four game, they cut off from the four inner courts, into which the ball is served from time to time, a considerable part of the extreme portion, where it used in former times to be most easy to place difficult services. Unless the ball falls into the other, the central part, it is now a "fault," just as much as if it fell too far into the back courts. This, it will be observed, is a decided advantage to the out-player, and a proportionate obstacle to the server. In the second place the lines serve, in a single game, to reduce the size of the court, by cutting off the outer portion between them and what is in a four game the boundary. Formerly it was almost more than an ordinary player could hope to do to get about all over a full-sized court. He can now, if possessed of tolerable activity, accomplish this with success within the court thus circumscribed.

Another very important alteration relates to "volleying over the net," that is to say, reaching the racket over the net and taking a ball while it is still on the opposite side. There must always have been a great doubt as to the legality of this manœuvre, which may be compared to taking a ball at the wicket before it has passed the crease for the purpose of stumping a batsman, and it conduced much to the interest of Lawn Tennis when, in 1880, the authorities adopted the rule that by volleying the ball before it passes the net the player loses a stroke.

THE LAWS OF LAWN TENNIS

The Single-Handed Game

1. For the single-handed game the court is 27 feet in width and 78 feet in length. It is divided across the middle by a net, the ends of which are attached to the tops of two posts, which stand 3 feet outside the court on each side. The height of the net is 3 feet 6 inches at the posts, and 3 feet at the centre. At each end of the court, parallel with the net, and at a distance of 39 feet from it, are drawn the base-lines (C D and E F), the extremities of which are connected by the side-lines (C E and D F). Half-way between the side-lines, and parallel with them, is drawn the half-court-line (G H), dividing the space on each side of the net into two equal parts, called the right and left courts. On each side of the net, at a distance of 21 feet from it, and parallel with it, are drawn the service-lines (X X and Y Y). The marking of the part of the half-court-line between the service-lines and the base-lines may be omitted, with the exception of a small portion at the centre of each base-line, as indicated in the plans appended to these laws. (See Figs. 2 and 3.)

2. The balls shall not be less than $2\frac{1}{8}$ inches, nor more than $2\frac{3}{8}$ inches in diameter, and not less than $1\frac{1}{8}$ ounces, nor more than 2 ounces in weight.

3. In matches where umpires are appointed, their decision shall be final; but where a referee is appointed, an appeal shall lie to him from the decision of an umpire on a question of law, and in all such cases the decision of the referee shall be final.

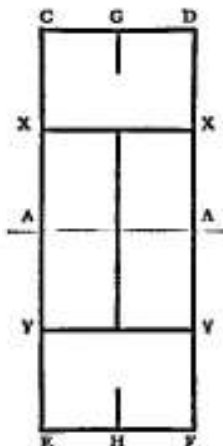


FIG. 2.—Plan of Court for the Single-Headed Game

4. The choice of sides and the right to be server or striker-out during the first games shall be decided by toss, provided that, if the winner of the toss choose the right to be server or striker-out, the other player shall have the choice of sides, and vice versa, and provided that the winner of the toss may, if he prefer it, require the other player to make the first choice.

5. The players shall stand on opposite sides of the net; the player who first delivers the ball shall be called the "server," the other the "striker-out."

6. At the end of the first game the striker-out shall become server, and the server shall become striker-out; and so on alternately in the subsequent games of the set.

7. The server shall, before commencing to serve, stand with both feet at rest on the ground behind (i.e. further from the net than) the baseline, and within the limits of the imaginary continuation of the half-court and side-lines, and thereafter the server shall not run, walk, hop, or jump before the service has been delivered, but the server may raise one foot from (and, if desired, replace it on) the ground, provided that both feet are kept behind the base-line until the service has been delivered.

8. The service shall be delivered from the right and left courts alternately, beginning from the right in every game, even though odds be given or owed, and the ball served shall drop within the service-line, half-court-line, and side-line of the court, which is diagonally opposite to that from which it was served, or upon any such line.

9. It is a "fault" if the server commit any breach of Law 7, or if the service be delivered from the wrong court, or if the ball served drop in the net or beyond the service-line, or if it drop out of court or in the wrong court. If the server, in attempting to serve, miss the ball altogether, it does not count a fault; but if the ball be touched, no matter how slightly, by the racket, a service is thereby delivered, and the laws governing the service at once apply.

10. A fault may not be taken.

11. After a fault the server shall serve again from the same court from which he served that fault, unless it was a fault because served from the wrong court.

12. A fault may not be claimed after the next service has been delivered.

13. The service may not be volleyed, i.e. taken before it touches the ground, even though the ball be clearly outside the service court.

14. The server shall not serve until the striker-out is ready. If the latter attempt to return the service, but fail, he loses the stroke. If, however, the striker-out signify that he is not ready after the service has been delivered, but before the ball touch the ground, he may not claim a fault because the ball ultimately drops outside the service court.

15. A ball is in play from the moment at which it is delivered in service (unless a fault) until it has been volleyed by the striker-out in his first stroke, or has dropped in the net or out of court, or has touched either of the players or anything that he wears or carries, except his racket in the act of striking, or has been struck by either of the players with his racket more than once consecutively, or has been volleyed before it has passed over the net, or has failed to pass over the net before its first bound (except as provided in Law 17), or has touched the ground twice consecutively on either side of the net, though the second time may be out of court.

16. It is a "let" if the ball served touch the net, provided the service be otherwise good; or if a service or fault be delivered when the striker-out is not ready. In case a player is obstructed by any accident not within his control, the ball shall be considered a let; but where a permanent fixture of the court is the cause of the accident, the point shall be counted. The benches and chairs placed around the court, and their occupants, and the umpire and linesmen, shall be considered permanent fixtures. If, however, a ball in play strike a permanent fixture of the court (other than the net or posts) before it touches the ground, the point is lost; if after it has touched the ground, the point shall be counted. In case of a let, the service or stroke counts for nothing, and the server shall serve again. A let does not annul a previous fault.

17. It is a good return—

a. If a ball touch the net or post, provided that it passes over either and drops into the court;

b. If a ball, served or returned, drop into the proper court and screw or be blown back over the net, and the player whose turn it is to strike reach over the net and play the ball, provided that neither he nor any part of his clothes or racket touch the net, and that the stroke be otherwise good;

c. If a ball be returned outside the post, either above or below the level of the top of the net, even though it touch the post, provided that it drop into the proper court;

d. If a player's racket pass over the net after he has returned the ball, provided the ball pass over the net before being played and be properly returned;

e. If a player succeed in returning a ball, served or in play, which strikes a ball lying in the court.

18. The server wins a stroke if the striker-out volley the service, or fail to return the service or the ball in play (except in the case of a let), or return the service or ball in play so that it drop outside any of the lines which bound his opponent's court, or otherwise lose a stroke, as provided by Law 20.

19. The striker-out wins a stroke if the server serve two consecutive faults, or fail to return the ball in play (except in the case of a let), or return the ball in play so that it drop outside any of the lines which

bound his opponent's court, or otherwise lose a stroke, as provided by Law 20.

20. Either player loses a stroke if the ball in play touch him or anything that he wears or carries, except his racket in the act of striking; or if he volley the ball (unless he thereby makes a good return), no matter whether he is standing within the precincts of the court or outside them; or if he touch or strike the ball in play with his racket more than once consecutively; or if he or his racket (in his hand or otherwise) touch the net or any of its supports while the ball is in play; or if he volley the ball before it has passed the net.

21. On either player winning his first stroke, the score is called 15 for that player; on either player winning his second stroke, the score is called 30 for that player; on either player winning his third stroke, the score is called 40 for that player; and the fourth stroke won by either player is scored game for that player, except as below:—

If both players have won three strokes, the score is called deuce, and the next stroke won by either player is scored advantage for that player. If the same player win the next stroke he wins the game; if he lose the next stroke the score is again called deuce, and so on until either player win the two strokes immediately following the score at deuce, when the game is scored for that player.

22. The player who first wins six games wins a set, except as below:—

If both players win five games the score is called games-all, and the next game won by either player is scored advantage-game for that player. If the same player win the next game he wins the set; if he lose the next game the score is again called games-all, and so on until either player win the two games immediately following the score of games-all, when he wins the set.

NOTE.—Players may agree not to play advantage sets, but to decide the set by one game after arriving at the score of games-all.

23. The players shall change sides at the end of the first, third, and every subsequent alternate game of each set, and at the end of each set, unless the number of games in such set be even. It shall, however, be open to the players by mutual consent and notification to the umpire before the opening of the second game of the match, to change sides instead at the end of every set until the odd and concluding set, in which they shall change sides at the end of the first, third, and every subsequent alternate game of such set.

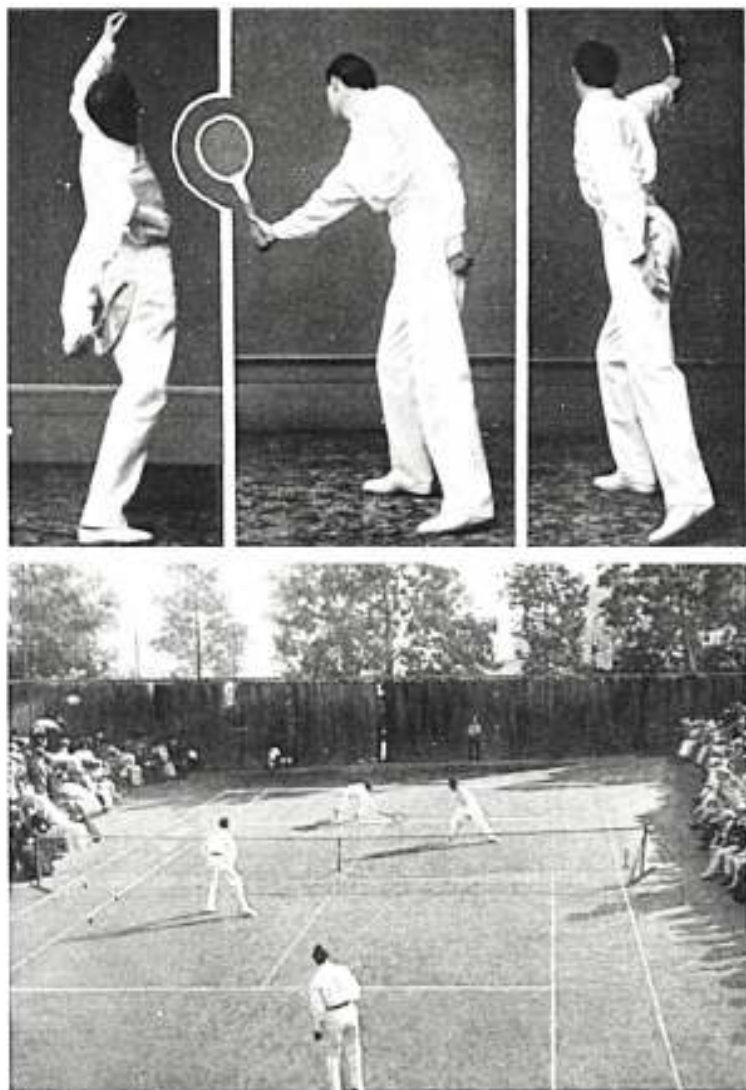
24. When a series of sets is played, the player who was server in the last game of one set shall be striker-out in the first game of the next.

Odds

25. Odds are received in each group of six games, in the first place in the earliest possible even games; that is to say, a receiver of one-sixth receives a stroke in the second game of each group of six; a receiver of two-sixths, in the second and fourth games; and a receiver of three-sixths, in the second, fourth, and sixth games.

When the even games are exhausted, odds are then received in the earliest possible odd games; that is to say, a receiver of four-sixths receives his strokes, over and above a receiver of three-sixths, in the first game of each group of six; and a receiver of five-sixths in the first and third games.

PLATE 14



LAWN TENNIS

1. A good service. 2. Backhand drive (top being put on the ball).
3. Finish of backhand drive. 4. Making a low, backhanded volley.

(See pages 204-16.)

The positions in which strokes are received are shown in the following table.

EXAMPLE.—A player receiving four-sixths of fifteen receives nothing in the third and fifth games, and fifteen in the first, second, fourth, and sixth games of a set.

NOTE.—The table is not carried beyond the sixth game, as in the next and every succeeding six games the odds recur in the same positions.

The above odds may be given in augmentation of other received odds.

	1st Game	2nd Game	3rd Game	4th Game	5th Game	6th Game
1/6 of 15	0	15	0	0	0	0
2/6 of 15	0	15	0	15	0	0
3/6 of 15	0	15	0	15	0	15
4/6 of 15	15	15	0	15	0	15
5/6 of 15	15	15	15	15	0	15

Fifteen is one stroke given at the beginning of every game of a set.

Thirty is two strokes given at the beginning of every game of a set.

Forty is three strokes given at the beginning of every game of a set.

26. Odds are "owed" in each group of six games in the first place in the latest possible odd games; that is to say, an ower of one-sixth owes a stroke in the fifth game of each group of six; an ower of two-sixths in the fifth and third games; and an ower of three-sixths in the fifth, third, and first games.

When the odd games are exhausted, odds are then owed in the latest possible even games; that is to say, an ower of four-sixths owes his strokes, over and above an ower of three-sixths, in the sixth game of each group of six; and an ower of five-sixths in the sixth and fourth games. The positions in which strokes are owed are shown in the following table.

EXAMPLE.—A player owing two-sixths of fifteen would owe fifteen in the third and fifth games, and nothing in the first, second, fourth, and sixth games.

	1st Game	2nd Game	3rd Game	4th Game	5th Game	6th Game
1/6 of 15	0	0	0	0	15	0
2/6 of 15	0	0	15	0	15	0
3/6 of 15	15	0	15	0	15	0
4/6 of 15	15	0	15	0	15	15
5/6 of 15	15	0	15	15	15	15

NOTE.—The table is not carried beyond the sixth game, as in the next and every succeeding six games the odds recur in the same positions.

The above odds may be owed in augmentation of other owed odds.

Fifteen is one stroke owed at the beginning of every game of a set.

Thirty is two strokes owed at the beginning of every game of a set.

Forty is three strokes owed at the beginning of every game of a set.

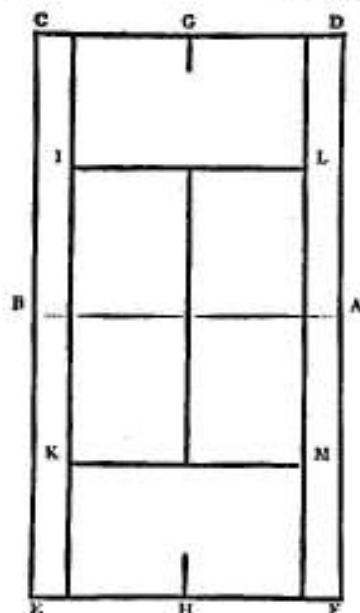


Fig. 3.—Plan of Court for Three-Handed and Four-Handed Games

The Three-Handed and Four-Handed Games

27. The above laws shall apply to the three-handed and four-handed games, except as below.

28. For the three-handed and four-handed games the court is 36 feet in width. Within the side-lines, at a distance of $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet from them, and parallel with them, are drawn the service side-lines (Fig. 3). In other respects the court is similar to that which is described in Law 1.

29. In the three-handed game the single player shall serve in every alternate game.

30. In the four-handed game the pair who have the right to serve in the first game may decide which partner shall do so, and the opposing pair may decide similarly for the second game. The partner of the player who served in the first game shall serve in the third, and the partner of the player who served in the second game shall serve in the fourth, and so on in the same order in all the subsequent games of a set.

31. The players shall take the service alternately throughout each game; no player shall receive or return a service delivered to his partner; and the order of service and of striking-out, once arranged, shall not be altered, nor shall the striker-out change courts to receive the service before the end of the set.

32. The ball served must drop within the service-line, half-court-line, and service side-line of the court, which is diagonally opposite to that from which it was served, or upon any such line.

33. It is a fault if the ball do not drop as provided in Law 32, or if it touch the server's partner or anything that he wears or carries. If, however, the ball in service strike either the striker-out or his partner, the server wins the stroke.

34. If a player serve out of his turn, the umpire, as soon as the mistake is discovered by himself or by one of the players, shall direct the player to serve who ought to have served; but all strokes scored, and any fault served before such discovery shall be reckoned. If a game shall have been completed before such discovery, then the service in the next alternate game shall be delivered by the partner of the player who served out of his turn, and so on in regular rotation.

[The above Laws are reproduced by the kind permission of the Lawn Tennis Association.]

MOTOR CYCLING

In the past few years there has been quite a "boom" in the new pursuit of motor cycling, so much so that in a book dealing with outdoor recreations it cannot be altogether ignored. It is not possible, however, within the limits at our disposal to do more than outline the main principle on which motor cycles are worked.

Briefly put, a motor cycle consists of a cycle strengthened to stand the strains to which it will be put, and shaped according to the fancy of the individual maker, and a motor.

The motor may roughly be divided into two main portions—the tank containing the reserve of the liquid petrol which is used for motive power; the engine, consisting of a cylinder in which the charge of petrol vapour is exploded, and various valves; accessory to these are the carburettor, into which the liquid is drawn by instalments preparatory to being projected into the engine, and the sparking apparatus, by which a spark is made periodically to pass across two points in the explosion chamber at the most suitable time, which varies according to the speed of the cycle.

The amount of horse-power developed by a motor cycle varies in proportion to the rider's requirements, and in a lesser extent to the price which the purchaser is prepared to pay. Roughly speaking, for a light rider who is willing to help his cycle with the pedals up the worst hills $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 horse-power will be found sufficient for all purposes. For heavy riders or hilly roads an engine of $2\frac{1}{2}$ horse-power will be desirable. Under favourable conditions those cycles will develop a speed of between thirty and forty miles an hour.

In choosing a motor cycle even greater care is needed than in selecting an ordinary cycle. The engine should be fully examined by a competent mechanical engineer, and where possible proof should be required that the engine will develop the advertised horse-power.

The question of driving is far too complicated to be dealt with in any book but a technical manual devoted entirely to the subject. We would only say that the qualities necessary to the pursuit of this pastime are those which are needed in cycling, and in addition the prospective motorist should have a good working knowledge of mechanics and a clear grasp of electrical problems, so that he may be able to execute his own repairs on the road in the very probable event of a breakdown.

QUOITS

THE game of Quoits, which, be it observed, differs greatly from the celebrated Grecian exercise known by the same name, is one of those which require a considerable amount of muscular force besides skill and steadiness of nerve. The *discobolia* of the Greek contests consisted of a trial who could send the quoit, or rather disk, to the



Fig. 1.—Quoits

greatest distance; and it was a test of strength in the back, shoulders and forearm. In our English game, although strength is an advantage, it need not be possessed in a very marked degree; and there are some, although perhaps not many, good Quoit players who have no great development of muscular power in the arm and shoulder. The quoit itself is so well known as to need little description. It is a ring of iron shaped like the base of a wineglass, if it be imagined that a circular piece were taken out of the middle of it, leaving a flat ring, which has its inner edge thicker than the outer, and which has its lower surface flat or concave, while the other is raised or convex (Fig. 1). The only other requisites for the game are a flat piece of turf thirty yards long and a few feet wide, and two "hobs," which serve as the mark to be aimed at. The hobs are made of iron or wood, and are in the shape of tent-pegs, driven into the ground, until about an inch of them is left projecting above the surface. In the absence of "hobs" properly made, the game is not infrequently played with leathers, or even small sticks instead of them. The quoits are of such a size and weight as the player chooses, or as may be agreed upon, but they are in no case allowed to measure more than eight inches from outer edge to outer edge. They are held (Fig. 2) in a peculiar way between the thumb, which is on the convex side, and three of the fingers which are on the concave side. On the outer edge is to be found a small dent, in which the end of the forefinger is placed, the rest of that finger being laid along the rim of the quoit. The use of this is to impart a twirling or rotatory movement to the quoit, enabling it to fly without wobbling in the air, and to fall clean and direct upon the ground in the same position as it had when discharged.



Fig. 2.—Holding the Quoits

When the sides have been chosen the first player stands level

with one of the hobs, and taking a step forward with his left foot (or his right foot if he is left-handed) delivers the quoit by a swinging movement of the arm from behind him to the front. The quoit must fall and remain with its convex side uppermost, either embedded in the earth or clay or else lying flat with the concave side on the ground. If it rolls along the ground and then stops, it does not count unless the cause of its rolling was a collision with some other quoit already delivered, or unless, after having been properly thrown, it is knocked out by another afterwards played. The proper rule is, that each player should play his two quoits in succession, and then be followed by his opponent; but in a party of four it is usual for each player to have only one quoit. When all the quoits are thrown the score is taken by measuring the distance from the hob to the nearest part of the nearest quoit, and the side which has thrown best scores one or two, according as his one or two quoits are better than any one thrown by the other side. But every

"ringer," or quoit which falls over the hob and remains with the hob enclosed within its ring (Fig. 3 A), counts two; and in some places the feat of cutting the hob (Fig. 3 B) also scores one or two points. The distance between the two hobs is usually nineteen yards, and the game is also generally reckoned at eleven points when two play, or fifteen points when there are four playing.

Some skill is required to insure that the quoit, when it falls, shall cut directly into the soil, and so retain its place (Fig. 3C); and the more straight and steady its flight is, the less likely will it be to be disturbed or knocked out by a subsequent player. It is of course necessary to have a good eye, to judge not only of the distance to be thrown, but also of the space which remains open after the adversary's quoit has been placed in a good position. The young player will do well in practice not to stick constantly to the same limit of distance, but to change it by extending it to twenty, twenty-five, or even thirty yards, until he becomes strong enough to throw those distances without great fatigue or effort.



Fig. 3.—A. Ringed Quoit. B. Cutter Quoit. C. Quoit pitched correctly (properly embedded in the clay)

RACQUETS

A RACQUET-COURT (Fig. 1) resembles a fives-court, just as the game of racquets resembles fives; but it is very much bigger, and can be erected only at a large cost. Hence, it is for the most part only in the large public schools and at the Universities, and a few great towns, where one can be found to play in. These courts are of various sizes, ranging from fifty to fully eighty feet in length, and from thirty to forty feet wide, with a very high roof and a back wall of less height, having at the top of it a gallery for spectators, who can thus look into the court from above. The regulation sizes of the back and side walls are marked in the figure. Across the front wall, which is black, are two lines, one about eight feet from the floor, running from side to side, called the service-line, while the other is two feet two inches from the floor, and being always formed by a board running parallel to the service-line, is called the play-line or board.

The floor itself, which should be of smooth stone, asphalt, or concrete, perfectly level, is divided into sections, as shown in the diagram (Fig. 1). About half-way down the court, but nearer to the back wall than to the front, a line is marked parallel to those walls; and the back part so marked off is divided into two equal portions, c and d, by a line traced at right angles to the back wall. The two small spaces marked a and b are service-spaces, within which the person who serves must place one of or both his feet. The bat or racquet (Fig. 2) used by the players is a wooden hoop about seven inches in diameter, and tightly strung with catgut, the handle being about $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet long. The ball, which is made of closely compressed strips of cloth with a white skin covering, is about $4\frac{1}{4}$ inches in circumference.

THE GAME

The game is begun by one of the players striking the ball against the front wall, above the white line, so as to fall, without bounding, into the back court opposite. Thus, if he stands at a, he must strike the ball into d, where it must be taken by one of the players on the other side, either at the volley or at first bound. If, in serving, the ball is struck against the side wall, or roof, or floor, before it hits the front wall, or if it is served below the baulk line, or is struck so hard as to go out of court, it is a "hand out"—that is to say, the striker loses his innings. If the ball is served from the wrong place, or if it hits the front wall above the baulk line, but below the white one, or if, after properly hitting the front wall, it falls into any but

the right court, or hits the roof or gallery without going out of court, it is called a "fault," and the person to whom it is served is not obliged to take it. He may do so, however; and if he does, the game proceeds as if it had been properly served. Should he attempt to take it, and fail, the server then scores an ace; and the same result follows whenever his opponent or opponents fail to return the ball above the lower line. When an ace is won, the man in goes over from A to B, and then "serves left"—that is to say, into court c. The out-players stand behind the server while the ball is being served and taken; and afterwards the usual arrangement is that the server shall take all the balls which fall inside the cross-lines, and his partner shall take all the balls which fall farther back. The man who is served to, on the other side, takes all which fall in the back courts, while his partner attends to those which fall nearer the front wall.

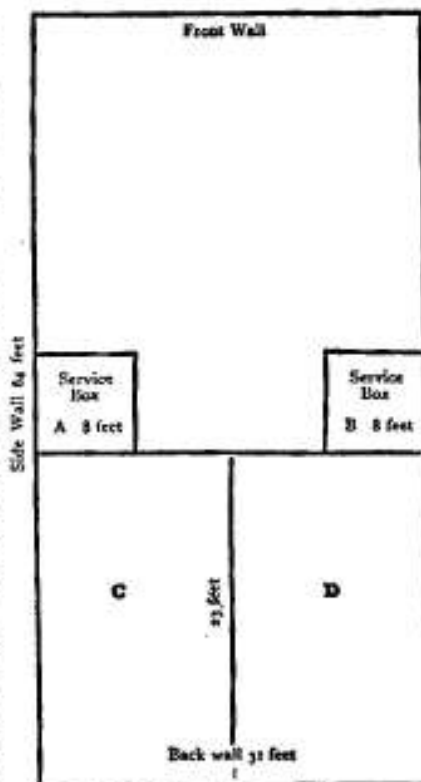


FIG. 1.—Plan of Racquet Court



Fig. 2.—The Racquet

following way. It will be discovered, on looking closely at a racquet, that at the thin end of it, nearest the handle, the strings which cross the frame from edge to edge are twisted round the

The game is made up of fifteen points or aces, and after the first player is put out the others succeed one another in order, each pair of partners having to be put out before the other side goes in. Thus, supposing that M and N are playing against X and Y, and that M and X are both better players than their respective partners. The question which side shall go in first is usually decided, not by tossing a coin as in cricket, but in the

others which go lengthwise, so as to project on one side or face of the racquet, and give it a "rough" appearance, whereas on the other side they do not project, but are "smooth." When, therefore, it is required to decide as to innings, one of the players holds his racquet downwards with the handle between his finger and thumb, so that the top part of it rests on the floor of the court. He then gives it a spin, and lets it fall, while one of the adversaries in the meantime calls "Rough" or "Smooth." When the racquet has fallen on its face, it is examined to see which side is uppermost, and the question of innings is decided accordingly. Supposing, then, that M and N have called "rough," and that "rough it is," M, being the better player of the two, will proceed to serve, and as he and his partner score each ace, the game will be called, "one love," "two love," "three love," etc. If he is put out after making three aces, X will succeed him, and as he serves the game will be called "love three." As he makes his score it will be called "one three," "two three," "three all," and so on, until he also is put out, when his partner must go in, and serve from the court opposite to that from which the last service was made. When he is out M will go in, and be followed by N. When a game has been won there is no change of innings, but the player who was serving when the game ended begins the next game at "love all," and when he is out his two adversaries go in in what order they please. Thus it will be seen that at the commencement only one hand is allowed to go in, but afterwards the two hands on each side go in successively till the game is won. It will also be remarked that a player who is good at serving has a great advantage, as whenever he scores the game, which he is sure often to do, he secures not only this benefit, but that of first innings in the next game. If the players should arrive at "13 all," the game can be "set" at the option of the one who first reaches 13—that is, a further 3 or 5 aces may be played. Should each reach 14, 3 aces may be similarly played.

GENERAL HINTS

The rules as to touching a ball with the body or racquet are rather difficult. If, in serving, the ball touches either the server or his partner before it has made a second bound, it puts him out. If any striker, in returning the ball, hits it against the racquet, or any part of the body, of his partner, it counts an ace, or a hand-out, as the case may be, against him. If, however, it hit an adversary, it is for the umpire to decide whether it would have gone up or not. If not, it scores an ace against the striker, but in the other case it is a "let," and the ace must be played over again. It is a "let," also, if an out-player get involuntarily in the way of the striker, or baulk him in getting to the ball; but if he do either of these things purposely, or touch the ball out of his turn, whether willingly

or not, it counts an ace against him. It is a "hand-out" when the server makes two consecutive "faults" in his service.

These are the principal rules; and to achieve success in what is really one of the most difficult of games, a good eye, a strong wrist, and, above all, a quick nerve and great activity are required. The young player should not be too ambitious of making sharp returns just above the line, but be content at first if he can return the ball at all. When he is able to make pretty sure of this it will be plenty of time to practise "drops," in which the ball is sent gently back into one corner, or those long, low, slashing hits just above the board, which are made by the most brilliant and successful players. It will be easily perceived that for this game a great practical knowledge of angles is required, especially as regards the back corners of the court, where the play is most difficult.

A few hints for general use in a racquet-court will be of assistance to young players:—

1. Never take a ball which does not "belong to you"—that is to say, which does not fall in the court which for the time being it is your place to defend.

2. The only exception to this rule is when your partner, seeing that he cannot get the ball, and you can, shouts "Take it," or implies the same by getting out of the way.

3. Never take a ball at the volley when there is any reasonable chance of taking it at the first bound. Never by any means do so simply to save trouble. A volley stroke is always risky, especially for young players, and has a tendency to unsettle one's play.

4. Never hurry to take a ball before the time when you have the best chance of making a good stroke. You may wait till it is within a very few inches of the ground, and yet make quite as good a stroke as if you hit when it was a foot or a yard high.

5. Do not be continually trying to do fancy strokes, and win the ace at one *coup*, but play a safe game, and let your partner think that he can depend upon you.

6. Do not stand too far "up" in the court; it is easier to run forward than backwards; but you must be ready to start forward at the first sign of a "drop" stroke.

7. When playing "up" do not turn round and face the strikers behind you.

8. When playing "back," if you cannot judge whether a ball will hit the back wall or the ground first, allow rather for the former event. If you are wrong, you will still very likely have time to get back; whereas, in the other case, if you have miscalculated, the ball will easily outstrip you beyond hope of recovery.

RIDING

EDUCATION for the saddle should precede, if possible, that of harness—for horse as well as man.

A child may begin to learn riding from the time that he has mastered his first spelling-book; but though the education may be thus early, it should not be taken to any excess, or it may stunt or deform physical growth.



Fig. 1.—Single-Rein Grip

Within due bounds it is not only healthful, and inculcative of nerve and self-reliance, but valuable in after life. Nevertheless, a boy who spends too many hours in the saddle instead of running after hoop and ball, and using his muscles all round, will stunt his growth and deform his legs; and a girl may similarly cripple her growth and contract a crooked spine.

GRIPPING THE REINS

First, let the beginner learn how to take up the reins before mounting. They must be held in the left hand, knuckles uppermost (not undermost, as in driving); then, if a single rein (Fig. 1), divide the reins with the middle finger, the off or right-hand rein passing between the middle and forefinger, and the near or left-hand rein being grasped by the middle and remaining fingers, while the thumb is clenched below where the rein passes out through the top of the grasp.

If a double rein (Fig. 2), let the snaffle (s) be first taken up on the middle finger, and then let the curb (c) reins pass in a similar way on each side of the *third* finger; let the loop of the reins come out *below* the thumb, which thus divides the reins distinctly, so that the rider can discover which of the two to tighten when required, by drawing them through his left hand by means of the right. Then, with the reins in the grasp, it is safe to mount (or take a hand up, if the rider is too small to reach the stirrup).



Fig. 2.—Double-Rein Grip

To mount in the orthodox manner, place the left hand on the pommel, then the left foot in the stirrup, then the right hand on the croup of the saddle, and with a spring from the right foot, still on the ground, rise and settle in the saddle.

LEARNING TO SIT WELL.

With a beginner, it is best to give the earliest lessons without stirrups (Fig. 3); this teaches him to use his lower limbs to cling to the saddle, while a man walking beside him can lend a hand to steady his balance if required. The canter (though an artificial pace in the horse) should be the first alteration of pace from a walk.

During early walking lessons let the pupil keep the toes in, the leg flat, the knee tight to the saddle, gripping the saddle with the side and not the back of the calf, as well as with the knee and lower portion of the thigh.

The body should be square and upright, not stiff, but playing from the hips with each motion of the animal; shoulders square, not slouching; left hand down, just close to the pommel, right hand holding the whip (butt uppermost), just in front of the right hip, ready either to use the whip if required, or to aid the left by drawing the reins through the grasp or strengthening the pull when wanted.

A few days' walking practice, especially without stirrups, will do much towards bringing into play those muscles which give the power of grip on the saddle, and towards teaching the limbs instinctively to adopt the postures above indicated.

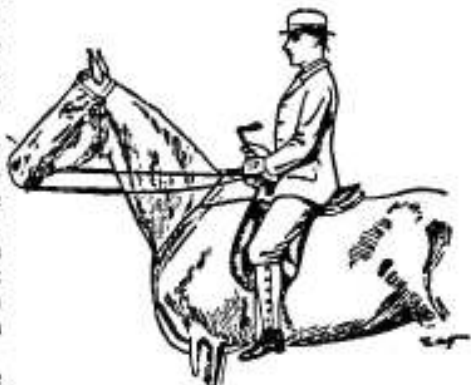


Fig. 3.—Seat without Stirrups



Fig. 4.—Seat with Stirrups

THE USE OF STIRRUPS

Now begin to use the stirrups. For ordinary riding do not thrust the foot "home" in the stirrup, up to the instep, but rest the ball of the foot on the bar of the stirrup (Fig. 4). By this time, having learnt something of the grip of the saddle, the pupil will

feel what length of stirrup he requires, and will first settle his grip, and then adapt the stirrup to the position of his foot.

If he has begun to learn with stirrups he will depend on them from the outset, and ride either too long or too short (most probably the former), and not having been obliged to rely upon his grip, may take months, or even years, in feeling, if indeed he ever do so, the position of his legs, which gives him most power over his seat.

Self-taught riders who begin to ride with stirrups usually find that they require to shorten their stirrups periodically, as they gradually acquire a grip, with limbs more or less contracting in position as they acquire the right use of them from day to day. Their seat is thus continually shifting; and they no sooner think they have acquired what they want, than they find they can improve still more with a shorter leather and consequently stronger grip.

All this time is wasted, and the seat often spoilt permanently, by allowing the grip to follow the stirrup in the first instance, instead of making the stirrup follow the first acquisition of grip.



Fig. 5.—Rising in the Stirrups

CANTERING AND TROTTING

And now, with confidence inspired by the acquisition of grip on the saddle, and with the feet in the stirrups, heels down, toes in, it will be time to progress to a canter.

If the pupil be a child, the teacher should ride or run alongside with a leading rein attached to the pony, in case the rider should lack strength to restrain the pace and pull up when wanted. The learner should sit well up, and "give and take" with the back at

each motion of the animal; let him keep the knees tight, and hold on by them only, and not seek to support the body by the rein—that is meant to guide the horse, and to support him in case of a false step, not to support the rider.

By letting the body play gently from the hips with each motion of the horse, that unsightly bumping up and down upon the saddle will be avoided.

The trot, though a more natural pace to the horse, requires, for the sake of comfort, a less natural motion on the part of the rider, and is therefore best postponed till the latter has begun to feel more at ease at the paces of walk and canter.

In trotting, the rider should "rise" in his stirrups (Fig. 5). This means that his legs should play slightly from the knee-joint in time with the trot, raising the body from the saddle during one step, and lowering it gently to touch the saddle on the next.

This play of the back should be very slight, and naturally done; not a mountebank sort of bobbing in and out of the stomach, but

an easy and elegant play of the muscles of the loins, giving and taking with the action of the horse, and thus varying the position of the centre of gravity according to which part of the body at the instant supports the most weight. A practical illustration from an elegant horseman would, however, explain more in half a minute than this description can convey to a tyro.

GENERAL HINTS

The rider must rise first sufficiently to allow for this play of the centre of gravity; but he must not exaggerate the action into a stand up and sit down again between each step of his horse. The feel and play of his own muscles must guide him. As before, a careful notice of the action of a good horseman will at once open his eyes practically to what here on paper may seem a rather puzzling theory.

Always "feel" your horse's mouth; do not hang on by the rein (Fig. 6), but touch lightly. A light bridle-hand implies constant and instant communication between horse and rider, to direct and control. A heavy hand is like a constant cry of "Wolf!"—it leaves no margin for direction when really required. Moreover, in the event of a stumble or a false step, prompt and timely support from the reins aids to shift the horse's centre of gravity farther backwards, and so to save a fall. When you pull up, do so with a firm and steadily increasing pressure of the rein; not with a jerk—the latter spoils the horse's mouth and manners also—though you really do not seek to lift the horse's head high up, but simply to afford him a support to his neck when outstretched in his effort to save his balance. A stumbling horse at once drops his head and neck. Pulling him up eases the weight on his shoulders, and so aids his recovery. When the neck has reached its full stretch the support of the rein is of value, to keep the weight of the neck to the back, instead of letting it once more hang from the shoulders, before the horse has fully regained his balance.



Fig. 6.—Hanging on by the Rein

Do as you would be done by, viz. do not rattle along hard roads, still less loose stones; even if the horse is not your own, you cause him pain. If you want a horse to last you, use him fairly; a trot or gentle canter is pace enough on hard, macadamised roads. If you want to go faster, look out for turf or a soft piece of riding-ground.

Do not let a horse catch cold any more than you would yourself; if he is in a perspiration, and you have to stop, keep him moving gently till he cools, or have a rug put over him.

Don't give him water when he is hot; it will cause him to break out in unsightly lumps, and perhaps worse than this may happen.

Don't be in a hurry down hill; at anything approaching a steep gradient pull up and walk, or you may both come to grief.

Don't be so vain and foolish as to keep working a horse up slyly with spur or whip, and holding him in, that he may show his action. Those who understand horses will at once "spot" you, and set you down a fool for your pains.

On the same principle, do not fret a horse with the curb, so long as you can ride him on the snaffle.

If you have a horse that will canter with the wrong leg (i.e. left) foremost, hold him short by the left rein, so as to bring his right shoulder forward, then touch him with the spur, and he will probably break into the right pace.

If he "shies," coax, and even lead him up to the object of his terror, that he may smell it, and so reassure himself. Do not lose your temper with him; that only adds to his fright.



Fig. 7.—Saddle and Bridle
B. Snaffle C. Curb

If a horse bolts, and bores his head down to get the reins free, try to get his head up by sawing his mouth with the snaffle, and then hold at him. Anyhow, do not lose your presence of mind, nor seek to throw yourself off; sit tight, and pay extra attention to guiding him in his career; though he cannot, perhaps, be immediately stopped, he may be steered.

If a horse has a trick of taking the bit in his teeth (i.e. of taking the cheek of the curb in his mouth), pull it out with a lateral motion of your hand, low down on the rein, and in future ride him with a lip strap. This latter appendage is usually a safeguard.

Many horses that have no vicious intention of bolting learn the trick of protecting themselves from the pain of the curb by picking up the cheek of it with their lips, so that one side of it lies against their teeth.

See that your saddle fits your horse, is well stuffed, and does not press on his withers. Every horse is not comfortable in every saddle, any more than you would be in anybody's clothes (Fig. 7).

If your horse has any tendency to sore back, see that the saddle (after the girths have been slackened) remains on till he is cool.

Use a bit suitable to your horse's mouth and manners; half his manners, and with them half his value, lies in his mouth.

Don't use spurs until you have acquired sufficient seat to keep your heels down and toes in, else you may be hanging on by them, driving your mount mad, half disembowelling him, and risking your own neck.

JUMPING

And now, having acquired confidence and command of the horse for ordinary purposes of what may be termed "domestic" equestrianism, it is but natural that the next aspiration should be to ride to hounds. In the case of a lad and pony, it will do to turn him loose in the hunting field to follow his leaders as best he may; to stick on if he can, and to tumble off if he can't.

If he is a "good plucked" one, such a contretemps will not injure him, and his feather weight will fall light at the worst. Besides, he will thereby learn how to fall—an art in itself. As Assheton Smith used to say, "Any fool can fall; the thing is to know how to fall"; and if a horseman really rides up to the motto "Be with them I will," he will often, what with a tired horse or an impracticable place, be compelled to ride for a fall, or to lose his place in a run.

A few lessons in private, in a riding-school or in the open, will soon give him confidence; and if his heart is in the right place he will then be able to make his debut, and gradually to improve by practical experience, without being necessitated to hold himself up to public ridicule in his earlier essays.

On some steady old fencer, who has no idea of refusing or of rushing, let him ride at his first obstacle. His "hunting" seat should not be quite the same as that which he would adopt for a long, plain ride or park parade. The stirrups should be a hole shorter, and the feet well home in them (Fig. 8), up to the instep. This will bring him well down in his saddle, and though he will lose the elasticity of ankle and instep which, with the stirrup under the ball of the foot, makes all the motions of the horse, especially the trot, play so much easier upon the human frame, he will have at once a firmer seat, and avoid the risk of losing a foot from the stirrup as he alights from a fence.

Let him come steadily at the fence (Fig. 9), allowing the old hunter to take his own pace. It is a mistake to make a habit of shoving a horse fast at a fence, unless there is a chance of his refusing, or width to be cleared on the farther side. It teaches him to rush, a habit which some day, in a cramped corner, may bring him to grief, and, moreover, when by any chance it becomes really necessary to negotiate a place at a slow pace, the horse, from want of being driven, fancies his rider irresolute, and probably refuses. Get a lead given you if you can, and it will give you confidence.



Fig. 8.—Foot Home in the Stirrup



Fig. 9.—Coming to a Fence

Keep the knees well in, hands down, body upright. Do not lean forward as if to see what is on the other side of the fence. Sit still till you feel the horse raise his fore-quarters to the jump; then, as he springs with his hind-quarters to project his whole body over the fence, throw your own body well back, so as not to be canted forward on to the pommel, and perhaps out of the saddle, by the concussion of his alighting.

We have known some riders of both sexes who, from fidget, nervousness, or awkwardness, could never get themselves to swing the body well back by the ordinary motion, but always sat forward, as if trying to see where the horse was going to place his forefeet, and as a matter of course got canted forward (if nothing worse) in an ugly and uncomfortable manner. In such cases the natural balance may be acquired by teaching the rider to strike the horse with the right hand on the haunch as he rises to his fence. The whip should not be used if the horse does not require it, but the



Fig. 10.—Sitting Back at the Drop

blow struck with the open hand. This will swing the body back; at the same time the hand, striking against the haunch of the horse, will there stop, and so prevent the body from losing its equilibrium, by the hand swinging round behind it unsupported.

Give the horse his head as he rises to his fence, not by dropping a slack rein (else you will jerk him in taking it in upon landing, or not take it up at all, and so lack control), but by letting the arm play quickly and freely out from the shoulder as his neck stretches out. Then, as he lands, play the arm in again, ready to control him, or to support him in case he should blunder on landing.

Do not allow yourself nervously to snatch at the rein as the horse rises, as if to save yourself from slipping back out of the saddle. That will only cramp the horse's action (for he must stretch out his neck to jump), balk his spring, and bring both you and him to grief.

An easy hurdle or two will be the scene of your first essay. When you have learned to sit still and not to show daylight over the saddle at such easy obstacles, attempt something bigger, and go sometimes a little faster at your fences, that by seeing how much ground you have cleared on the landing side you may acquire confidence to ride at fences that involve width as well as height, brooks, etc., and may judge the pace at which to go at them. The greater your fence and the deeper your drop on landing, the more must you sit back (Fig. 10). This precaution, and the tightest grip with your knees that you can muster for the instant, will not only maintain elegance and security in your seat, but will be a safeguard against your being shot unexpectedly over your horse's

ears should he suddenly refuse (still worse should he whip round into the bargain), especially when you are going fast at an obstacle.

If you do fall, remember a golden maxim, *stick to your reins*, unless your horse kicks you or you are stunned by the fall.

Throw your heart over a fence, and the horse will be pretty sure to follow it. The least indecision in your own mind instils itself instantly into your action, and the horse feels that your mind is not made up. If you are undecided, too probably he will also be in the same mind. The more you ride the more will you feel how instantly and unconsciously the *will* of the rider communicates itself to the horse.

When you have gained confidence sufficient, both in your horse and yourself, to ride at ordinary fences which you know beforehand are negotiable, you will be ready to present yourself in the hunting field. Once there, you will be astonished to find how, when the blood is up with excitement and example, both of you rise, literally, to your work. Hesitation and refusal should there be out of the question for ordinary and practicable fences; certainly, if you do not hesitate your horse is not likely to do so for you, when he sees his own species leading him the way in which he should go.

Above all, as we have repeatedly said, the hand cannot be too light, especially in negotiating awkward, cramped, or "soft" sorts of places. It is astonishing what can be done by a light hand and a heart in the right place.

To teach a novice to ride to hounds by mere book-work would be a sheer impossibility. Lessons in that line should be practical, not simply theoretical. However, a few standard maxims may be recapitulated, and borne in mind. Some of these maxims concern his own welfare, some that of his fellows in the field.

For the sake of his duty towards his neighbours, the last-mentioned claim prior notice.

Let him keep his own line. By that we do not mean necessarily that he is to cut out his own line for himself, or to ride straight. If neither his own powers and nerve nor the capacities of his mount admit of it, he is welcome to ride to a leader, and to dodge in and out like a hare from field to field, if he will. But he should scrupulously avoid crossing any other rider at a fence, or attempting to take an obstacle at a time and at a place that is not his own.

If he rides to a leader, let him keep at a safe distance in the rear, and not press upon his heels.

ROWING

In dealing with this subject, we will first treat of the boats and their fittings. As a rule, all boats used in racing are built and fitted as outriggers—from the twelve-oars, eight-oars, four-oars, pair-oars, to the sculling boats. The term "outrigger" is understood to mean the iron framework fixed to the boat's side to support the rowlocks, and is generally applied to any boat fitted with this contrivance (Fig. 1). Another name for them, which is but seldom used now, is

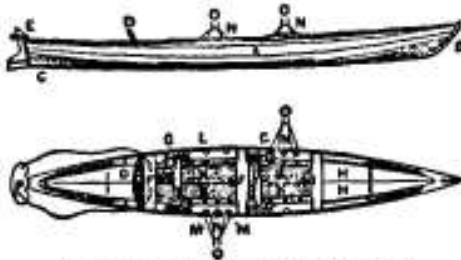


Fig. 1.—Pair-Oar Outrigger for "Tubbing"
 a, Skin; b, Stem; c, Stern; d, Backboard; e, Yoke;
 f, Thwarts; g, Stretchers; h, Fore Sheets; i, After
 Sheets; k, Bottom Boards or Burden; l, Timbers;
 m, Outrigged Timbers; n, Outriggers; o, Thowls.

that of the "Clasper boat," from the builder, Henry Clasper, of Newcastle-on-Tyne, who is supposed to have invented this simple but most useful addition to our old-fashioned boats. The sculling boat is composed of two portions: the body or boat proper, and the projecting irons or outriggers—to support the rowlocks, which necessarily are placed one on each side, exactly opposite one another. The body is generally built of cedar-wood, in lengths, with ribs or "timbers" of ash, edible chestnut, or sometimes beech, fixed to the inwale, at the upper part (the inwale is a long strip of deal running lengthwise down the inside of the upper edge of the boat), and below, into the inner keel or keelson. Upon the inner keel is fastened a long piece of wood, generally fir, which rises in the centre, under the thwarts or seats, which are fastened to it, to their level, and tapers off fore and aft; the object of this false keelson or backbone being to impart strength to the floor of the boat and to assist in carrying the thwart. The inner keel, keelson, and inwale are first laid down, bottom upwards, on the frame upon which these boats are usually built, and, when built on moulds, the moulds next. The skin is then laid on to the inner keel, inwale, and moulds by the application of hot water, and fastened to the inner keel and inwale; this having been done, the boat in her then condition is turned over, right way uppermost, and firmly fixed on the stocks or frame; the timbers are then put in, and the moulds removed as their places are thus supplied.

Some builders, however, cut out the timbers by rule, and, using no moulds, fasten the skin at once on to them, before turning the boat over. The stem and stern are made of solid pieces of wood, which is sometimes mahogany, cedar or fir, at the option of the builder, and the skin worked up to them; the stem is usually protected by a brass clamp, and the nails used are all made of copper. In addition to the ordinary kind of timbers, larger or "outrigged timbers" are inserted where the iron outriggers will be fixed, and to them the latter are fastened. The interior of the boat is divided into three portions by bulkheads, upon which are fastened the wooden decks, at whose upper corners are small holes for allowing the water to run out, when leaky, by turning the boat topsy-turvy. The washboard rests upon the forward deck, and prevents rough and broken water from coming in. The breakwater runs round the sides of the boat to the coxswain's thwart, and crossing the boat abaft his thwart, so ends. The remainder of the boat is covered over with what is technically known as the "canvas," but the covering is made of linen, well varnished, stretched, and nailed to the inwale. It is supported by a long strip of wood running longitudinally down the centre, and called the rising piece, and by cross-beams, which run transversely from the rising piece to the inwale. The canvas is nailed on the outside through the skin to the inwale, and its edge is hidden by a thin beading which runs fore and aft. The skin meets in the centre of the boat at the joints, and is fastened into the inner keel; and there being no outer or visible keel, the bottom is round. The lengths of which the skin is composed are joined by "scarves," put in opposite one another. There are usually four scarves, two on each side, and the boat is thus divided into three lengths of skin, one long and two short; but this rule is not universal. The centre portion of sculling boats is called the "box," and of oar boats the "body."

It is almost needless to observe that all these boats are well varnished outside and in. The stretcher against which the rower's feet are placed is a strong piece of fir fitted into a rack with brass thumbscrews, and this shifts according to the length of the rower's leg; a leather strap for the toes is fastened to it by a small staple. In some boats there are bottom boards or burdens, and in others there are not. If you go to twenty boat-builders, each will have a different way of putting the work together and of fitting out his boats; it is therefore of no benefit to enter into a lengthy description of all the small technicalities of their business, as it would not answer our present purpose.

The iron outriggers now in use are made of four round stays; not so long ago they were of square iron, and the two lower or middle stays were then crossed. The two upper stays are the shortest, and, with the rowlock-plate, are in one piece; the thows, which are generally made of beech-wood cased with iron, are

separate, and, being fitted with shoulders through holes in the rowlock-plate, receive the lower stays, fastened underneath by means of nuts screwed tight and firm. All four stays are fastened (at their lower extremities) through the outriggered timbers by means of nuts and bolts. When required, cross-stays are also placed inside the boat. The thowls are known by the names of "thowl" for the fore one, and the "stopper" for the after one; across their tops there is generally fixed a piece of twisted string, to keep the oar or scull from unshipping or jumping out of the rowlock.

The sculls and oars are made of white deal, and consist of three parts or divisions, known as the handle, loom, and blade. The handle and loom occupy the length from the rowlock to the middle of the boat, where they should (for river rowing) overlap one another from four to six inches for the style of sculling known as the "overhand," in which one hand passes over the other; but to avoid this the rowlocks are sometimes constructed far enough apart to allow a sufficient length of loom without such overlapping, so that the length of the outrigger irons and half the breadth of the boat, when added together, give the length of the inboard part of the scull, which may be generally taken as something over two feet; but for the overhanded arrangement the boat should not be less than twenty inches wide, and the outrigger must project at least fourteen inches beyond the side of the boat. The handles of sculls or oars are made round for the width of the hand, but the makers are careful not to polish or make them too smooth, usually leaving them just as finished by the rasp.

From the handle to just outside the rowlock most sculls are made square, with an oblong leather "button" nailed fast to the upper side, which corresponds with the back part of the blade, so as just to bear or butt against the inside of the thowl, and keep the scull or oar from sliding out. The "Clasper oar and scull" is different, as it is quite round and covered with leather, with a very peculiarly shaped "button" encircling three-fourths of the oar at this part, and projecting nearly an inch. Outboard the scull or oar is round at the back for some distance, and square in front; then it gradually becomes oval in section, tapering till it reaches the blade, which gradually spreads out till it forms a breadth of thin wood some four inches wide, or in some cases even more. This blade is curved, the centre being nearly two inches deeper in the hollow than at either end, and is hollowed out something like a spoon in shape, with a web or strengthening piece running from the loom half down the middle, very much the same as the raised rib in a spade; the back of the blade is a little rounded, and the end is usually guarded and finished with a strap formed by a narrow strip of copper carefully nailed on so as to prevent the wood splitting. The oar or scull should be nearly balanced at the nut or button, but in all cases must fall out rather than inboard. In racing boats the

sculls should never be less than ten feet or more than ten feet four inches long.

The rower in the modern outrigger sits nearly in the middle of the boat, that is to say, about on that part which is one-third of the length of the thwart from the side opposite to his rowlock, where his mat or pad is firmly tied, and upon the front edge of this he sits, bending his knees, separating them about a foot, and placing his feet, with his heels close together, firmly against the stretcher, exactly in front of the middle of his body. Thus he sits quite square to his work, and will then be sure to swing backwards and forwards exactly in a line with the boat's keel, or parallel with it. If his feet are nearer the side of the boat than they ought to be he will swing towards the middle, or "row into the boat"; and if they are too near the middle line he will "row out of it," both being bad faults, and making the boat rock and roll very considerably; the stretcher should be adjusted to such a convenient length that in the stroke the oar should just clear the knees, and the strap should be buckled tightly over the inside foot, which is the one upon which most strain falls in feathering the oar. The thwart on which the rower is seated should be of such height that the rower may have a good command over his oar, but sufficiently low to let him get well over his knees; the lower the seat the more likely is the rower to depress or drag his boat's bow under water, and the higher in reason that he sits—so that his hands clear his knees—the lighter and smarter will be the stroke, and the less will be the boat's dip when she is hanging on the rower's hands.

The action of rowing is made up of two portions, and therefore twofold—i.e. the stroke and the feather. The stroke is the pulling of the oar through the water with the blade, to which the water offers a resistance in its passage at right angles to the fluid traversed.

Feathering (Fig. 2) is, strictly speaking, the turning of the oar at the conclusion of the stroke by turning the wrists, and thereby bringing the blade into a plane with the surface of the water; but the term is also commonly used as including the carrying back of the oar in the same position or plane and recommencing another stroke, as the oar is then said to be on the feather. This great accomplishment of rowers can be acquired or caught only by the learner carefully watching and imitating masters of the art, and this is succeeded instantly by the oar being restored to its former state, in doing which the wrist is straightened, and both hand and elbow thrust rapidly forward at the same time, to which is added a forward action



Fig. 2. Feathering: First (A) and Second (B) Positions

of the shoulders, so as to carry away the loom from the body at once, and then when the arm becomes straight the body follows as rapidly as is necessary.

The head is kept well up, and the eyes looking full at the back of the man in front; the chest full, and well to the front; the back straight, the shoulders moving easily forward, and the hands reaching well over the toes.

All these evolutions cannot be carried out in the first few lessons, the pupil gradually learning the first rules of rowing—i.e. the power of swinging his body properly, and of preventing the catching of "crabs," which usually results from the water being allowed to catch the oars when the boat is moving rapidly through the water, or, technically speaking, has considerable "way" on her, and turning the blade flat, so that the rower cannot bring it out, and by the impetus of the boat is forced backwards over the thwart.

As a rule the pair-oared outrigger is much the same as the sculling boat, but longer, wider, and sometimes with a keel. They are built much stronger and heavier than the ordinary sculling boat, from the strain not being even on the two sides, owing to the alternate fixing of the outriggers on each gunwale (Fig. 1). Unless a boat is reasonably stiff in her length she will not row well, because at the moment she is being impelled by the oar she trembles and twists, changing for that instant her proper form, as well as taking a slightly serpentine course. The racing pair-oars are usually about thirty-four to thirty-six feet long, and from seventeen to nineteen inches wide; but they are always built in proportions suited to the weight of the men they have to carry. These boats are usually covered in at the bows and stern with canvas or duck, in place of mahogany or cedar, as in former days, in order to save the weight of the wood, and their skin is usually of yellow pine, though in some cases it is made of mahogany or cedar. The greater length in comparison with the sculling boat is placed in the middle, so as to give room for two men instead of one; and when steering is required, more room is given for the coxswain to sit when handling the yoke lines. But this addition is only allowed in winding rivers, where it is almost impossible to avoid running on shore without a coxswain. Boats do not always follow a perfectly straight course; and, as a consequence, lose some distance by overshooting the line to the right or left.

The two rowlocks are known as the after or "stroke rowlock," and "bow rowlock;" the former is generally bolted to the left side, in front of the "stroke" man's thwart, and between the two thwarts on the other side is bolted the bow rowlock; the exception to this is when the stroke-oar cannot row on the stroke side, in which case the rowlocks are reversed, and he is said to row stroke on the bow side. The oars are in form merely enlarged sculls, being somewhat longer, and the square of the loom is gradually rounded off into it

for about five or six inches, for the greater convenience of holding it with the inside hand. When all are on board, pair-oars are very little higher out of the water than sculling boats, being about four inches and a half between the water-line and edge of the gunwale.

The strakes or skins are put on in breadths or sheets of the same lengths, scarfed together about four feet apart on the two sides, so that each side is divided into two unequal portions, one having the greater length of plank forward, the other the greater aft. The skin is of the same thickness or substance as in the sculling boat, but the timbers or ribs are considerably stronger, and are carefully framed into the keel, which is now usually strengthened by what we may call a backbone, which is a piece of deal or other light wood, running longitudinally fore and aft along its surface, and shaped so as to rise up to the under surface of the thwarts, which are securely nailed to it.

The four-oared outrigger of the present day is constructed just like the pair-oared, except that it is some eight feet longer. It is generally forty-two feet long, from twenty to twenty-two inches wide over all, and one foot deep amidships, seven inches and a half at the bow, and six and a half at the stern; the distance from the thwart to the thowl of the outrigger is one foot one inch. The midship oars are twelve feet five inches long, and the buttons are fixed on at a distance of three feet five inches from the end of the handle; the bow and stroke oars are twelve feet four inches long, and have the buttons put on three feet four inches from the end of the handle. The space between the coxswain's thwart and the stroke's stretcher is one foot, the breadth of coxswain's thwart being eighteen inches. Formerly these boats were built forty-eight feet in length, and only twenty-one inches in width, even for a heavy crew; but the present proportions are found to be a marked improvement, for when they were so very narrow and long they did not offer sufficient resistance to the burying power of the stroke, and were forced deep into the water while "on the hand," rising again in a technically termed "the shoot," the consequence being the made a succession of dips, causing a great loss in her speed. In many years the iller prevalent was that the only limit to breadth and increase in length was the difficulty in making of such stiffness as to stand up under the weight of her crew. The reasons, derived from experience, have been the chief cause of length and breadth and depth now adopted, the proportions now offering the right amount of resistance to the downpull when the rowers are in full swing. Up to recent times rudders have always been used in four-oared boats, a thwart being fixed for the coxswain, who is usually chosen for his light weight. Now four-oared races are sometimes rowed without coxswains, stroke or some other man

steering by means of an apparatus coming to his feet as they are on the stretcher, when he is rowing.

The eight-oared outriggers are constructed in exactly the same manner as the pair-oared boat, except that they require more space for extra men. They are much longer, being fifty-six feet in length, two feet two inches wide over all, and one foot one inch deep amidships. The old-fashioned boats were commonly sixty-five feet long, in some cases even seventy feet, and two feet three or four inches wide. The outriggers are placed four on each side, and must be suited to the men who are to row in her, as the position that will suit one will not do for another; the six amidship oars are twelve feet six inches long, the bow and stroke twelve feet five inches in length.

Twelve-oared outriggers have been built, but are not now used. They are simply elongated eight-oars, and need not be further described.

Before purchasing any boats, or taking them over if built to order, they must be carefully tested and examined, to see if they are sufficiently stiff to prevent their getting "screwed"—i.e. getting out of shape when rested on either end. A crooked keel, resulting from a strain, is always an annoyance, as it causes the boat to bear more on one hand than the other, and, from requiring constant steering on the side affected, impedes her way. Of course no boats are mathematically correct, as a practised eye will detect some little deviation from an exact correspondence between the two halves of the boat when standing at head or stern, and looking down the centre line.

Since the introduction of the sliding seat, the art of rowing has undergone material changes, but it is open to question whether style has gained by the alteration in the seat. The sliding seat is an American invention, and consists of a seat which is capable of sliding backwards and forwards, through the motion of the oarsman's body. This has the effect of reducing the swing forward to a great extent, as the crew slide forward in a more upright position than was formerly the case.

The three main principles of successful rowing are, first, perfect time; secondly, getting the oar into the water square—i.e. at right angles to it; and thirdly, rowing the stroke right out and using the legs well. With reference to "time," all that can be said in the way of advice to a beginner is, be determined never to remove your eyes from the shoulders of the man in front of you. Follow his every motion, and if the time is wrong you will not, at all events, be to blame. Be careful not to hurry the body forward, under the impression that you may otherwise be late, for this only makes the boat roll, and nothing demoralises a crew more than that. Be sure to bring your hands well up to your body at the end of the stroke, and on no account keep them there longer than you are able. A

quick recovery after a stroke and the free use of the legs the moment the oar gets into the water are important agents in the acquisition of that "lift" which is so desirable to obtain in boat-racing. A well-coached crew will, when rowing, fairly make their boat seem to jump out of the water at the beginning of each stroke; and the value of all work done in *front of the rowlocks*—i.e. in the first part of the stroke before the blade of the oar comes level with the oarsman's body—is almost beyond estimation. As regards the oar itself, it should be brought straight home to the chest (Fig. 3), the knuckles touching the body about an inch or less below the bottom of the breast-bone, where the ribs branch off, thus every inch of the water is made use of. When there, the hands should be dropped straight down, and then be turned over and shot out again along the legs, and the body should follow without the least pause. If this is not done the oar will be feathered under water, and thus the boat will be buried, water will be thrown on the next oar, and the recovery will be impeded. To effect a quick recovery the back must be perfectly straight, the knees must not have been dropped down too low, and the straps must not be used too much; a light touch is all that is needed. The muscles of the body—in this case those that cross the stomach—must be used, and not the boat itself, of which the strap is a part. The body should be swung evenly forward from the hips, not with a jerk or a plunge, or quicker at one time than another, but freely and easily, as if the hip-joint worked well and not stiffly.



Fig. 3.—Bringing the Oar "Home"

Be careful always to get the oar in *square*; if it goes into the water obliquely the blade will get in much too deeply, and the ship will roll; be sure also that the blade of the oar is well covered by water, but no more. Deep rowing makes the boat roll, and if the oar is not deep enough an insufficient amount of work is done, and a splash is also caused which inconveniences the other men. In swinging backwards and forwards, be sure to do so straight between the knees. Many otherwise good men screw across the boat, and thereby not only spoil the appearance of the crew, but make the boat unsteady, and so spoil the pace. Feathering under water is a very common fault in the best of crews, and it consists in commencing the feather before the oar is well out of the water. This is never the case when the stroke is rowed well out, and the hands brought well up to the body before the feather is commenced.

"Holding water" is necessary when the boat is to be suddenly stopped, in which case her crew on both sides reverse the blades of their oars, and, according to the pace at which they have been going, drop them more or less into the water, holding their arms

straight, and keeping the inside hand firmly upon the loom, to prevent the water from sinking the blade too far under, and thus causing a "crab." It is a very difficult manœuvre to execute well, but after a great deal of practice it will be found that by a simple turn of the wrist, so as to twist the handle to or from the body, the blade can be raised or lowered according as it is found necessary to slacken or increase the power exerted to check the boat—i.e. by simply turning the blade with its upper edge downwards towards the nose of the boat the oar sinks, and by depressing the lower or after edge it immediately rises to the surface of the water.

"Backing" is performed in exactly the opposite manner to rowing, *pushing* the blade through the water, and *pulling* it through the air the moment it leaves the water. The blade should be neatly feathered, care being taken not to dig too deep, and to back in *good time* and with the same length of stroke. In rowing and backing a boat round, care should be taken that it is done as gently as possible, for nothing strains or screws an outrigger so much as force applied under these circumstances. A boat will last as long again as she otherwise would if this point is always attended to.

"Paddling" is simply the act of rowing at about half-power, or a milder form of rowing hard, of which the opposite extreme is *sputting*; the pace is about twenty to thirty strokes per minute, according to their length, and according to the amount of strength applied. At this pace one can detect every fault, the keeping of time and stroke, if bad, being very evident; paddling is therefore very valuable for the coaching of crews before venturing on races, especially those that are to be contested over long distances.

"Sputting" is performed by all the crew exerting themselves to their utmost powers to propel the boat through the water with the greatest velocity of which she is capable, whatever the distance may be, a few lengths or half a mile at a time.

"Easing," or stopping, and starting, being the exact opposites of one another, are performed differently; the former is merely the ceasing to row, all together, at exactly the same moment, and when the coxswain gives the word "Easy all," which he should invariably do at the end of the stroke, all the oars should not be wholly recovered from the feather.

The length of the stroke is that which all in the boat can well keep up without the forward reach being so far as to make the drop unsteady, or the backward swing being carried so far as to bear too hard on the oar, and thus cause a depressing or downward pull on the boat. The stroke-oar must be very careful not to *over-reach* his crew, though he should be able to do so if necessary, by which a young crew will be greatly improved, and have their style of rowing developed to the fullest extent.

They have come greatly into use since the present light racing

boats have been the fashion, and were introduced to enable the rower to raise himself after delivering his stroke without bearing too heavily on his oar; and now a regular rower could not put forth his powers of muscle, and get the utmost amount of speed from his egg-shell boat, if he were without straps. Some great authorities say that straps are objectionable, as they cause the body to be doubled forward on the oar; but this is more owing to the lightness of the boat than to the straps themselves.

Coaching is a very important portion of a rower's studies, as upon it depends his proficiency in the art; and novices should always learn from an acknowledged master of the oar, as their form will in the future depend entirely on the capacity of their teacher. Beginners should invariably be taught in "tubs," to acquire the proper manner of handling their oars, boats, and yoke lines, and their teacher should accompany them in their boats to correct every error, and tell them how to become perfect in each action and movement. It takes a very, very long time to get a crew to row well together; and in commencing it is a vital point to select healthy men, as during their training they have to undergo some trying work, which will tell severely on any but a thoroughly good strong constitution. Some people say that from the waist down in rowing the whole limbs are idle, but one moment's consideration will show the fallacy of such a statement, for the legs, thighs, and lumbar muscles all have to take their share of the work, and are most essential to the proper performance of the oarsman, good thighs and knees being as requisite as shoulders, chest, and arms. The power seems to be in the arms and back, but this force cannot be exerted unless the pushing power of the thighs and legs against the stretcher tends to prevent the body from slipping off the seat and taking its place on the floor of the boat. The man's frame should in all cases be examined, to see if he has a muscular development such as will enable him to put forth the force that will pull the oar through the water in the orthodox manner; for unless the loins are powerfully developed the finest muscle and bone of the arms and shoulders are utterly worthless, and a race may be lost from mere want of attention in selecting a properly proportioned and developed crew. The best way of selecting men is to take them out in an old-fashioned boat or skiff, and before the start everything should be set in proper order, or the mat, stretcher, oar, or other things may be found wrong, and in the end cause unexpected errors in the pupil's work. The instructor sees that his pupil is in a proper position—i.e. that he is quite square and upright on his seat, his feet pressed firmly against the stretcher, with heels together and toes well apart. The outer hand should be close to the end of the oar, the inner hand about three or four inches from the other, his arms being straight his shoulders square, chest well out, the head well up, and the knees apart. He must reach out and try a stroke, which is to b

closely watched by the teacher, and every movement explained and pointed out to him, and shown at the same time by the teacher himself rowing a stroke or two. The body should bring its weight to bear on the oar steadily, and both the entry and finish be clean and neat, command being kept over the oar from beginning to end of the stroke, for with a novice the oar will, in naval parlance, "take charge," and be the master of the learner.

These last lessons must not be too long in their continuance, but be frequently repeated for some weeks, till the learner has perfectly mastered the rudiments of the craft. Much good is derived by the pupil occasionally changing places with the instructor, and carefully watching every movement as to handling the oars, and after feeling that he has overcome many little points he could not quite see before, he should again change places, and practise what he previously did not see the way to accomplish.

When he is considered to be a proficient in pulling his oar through the water, he may have some practice with a good oarsman rowing stroke, by which he, in taking the bow oar, can learn to keep time, and see how the oar should be manipulated to get the utmost power out of it in the act of propelling the boat; but it is by no means the case that the best oarsman makes the best "stroke," for many men who are excellent when in a boat behind others are so wanting in judgment and "time" that the whole crew are thrown out directly they take the after oar. The man entrusted with the all-important post of stroke should under every circumstance be a good oarsman, and possessed of that amount of pluck that will enable him to "spurt" when the critical moment comes, and by sheer force of example put new life into his exhausted crew.

Presence of mind is another much-needed requisite with a good stroke, as it enables him to keep the time of his stroke throughout the race, and avoid any hurry when his antagonists may be pressing him unpleasantly. Many a race has been lost for want of presence of mind; and it seems hard to reproach a man for the absence of a quality that he does not possess.

Every one of the crew should copy the manner and style of the stroke. During the whole of this practice the teacher must be careful to give a reason for every little thing that he shows his pupil; let him be forbearing and not lose his temper, for on this very much will depend, the end being that the learner will leave off a proficient in all the little niceties and finished actions which make an accomplished oarsman. A coach will soon find after some practice those of his pupils who give the greatest promise of being good oarsmen, and, when the time comes, preference can be given to them if they can be placed in such crews as are to race.

The duty of the coxswain is one of the most important in boat-racing, but at the same time a very simple one, as it often makes a very great difference in the distance to be rowed over whether the

men are taken in-shore to save them, or out in the current, when rowing against the stream, to tire them, or kept well out in the current in place of along the bank when coming down with the stream. The coxswain should direct each man what to do and when to put forth his strength, give the order when to start, stop, or ease; the yoke lines should be kept "taut," so that the rudder cannot move with the pressure of the water on either side, and by a careful adhesion to this rule the boat can be moved in any direction by the slightest touch of the lines, as a sharp pull when the boat is going at a rapid rate will send her out of her course far more than is necessary.

In turning sharp curves the outside oars must be pulled hardest, the inside being just kept moving, and in some cases even backing water. The coxswain should call out to his crew, saying, "Pull, bow side," or "Pull, stroke side"; and again it may be necessary for him to say, "Easy, stroke" or "bow side." But of course these tactics do not refer to the management of a boat during a race. The rudder should be used as sparingly as possible in turning, as a sudden use of it will impede the boat's way too much and tire the men, when, by using the oars, all is done that is necessary. Coxswains are chosen for their light weight, and, if possible, they should be men endowed with great presence of mind and decision of action to get the boat out of any position of danger or difficulty in which she may be placed; but this seeking after light weights should not be carried too far, as a stone or two of greater weight, combined with the requisite knowledge and a cool head, will do more to win a race than having a feather-weight, empty-headed coxswain, who does not think of what he is doing. Races are sometimes thrown away when hanging in the balance by a lamentable want of judgment on the coxswain's part, by his steering suddenly in the wrong direction, or failing to call on his crew at the right moment to make a spurt, which in all probability would have made them win by half a length or so. It requires considerable nerve and determination to keep a boat going on her course when pressed close by an opponent, as if the coxswain were to give way the loss of the race might be the consequence.

In coming up to a point that has to be rounded the boat must go round in a steady curve, in place of being jerked round at almost an angle. In a heavy wind abeam the coxswain's best judgment is called into action, as then the boat is fast making lee-way, and it will be found very necessary to keep her head pointed somewhat to windward of her true course.

The coxswain may very much influence the fate of a race by judiciously washing his adversary; that is, giving him the full benefit of the wash from the wave of displacement which usually follows a boat's quarters, for if sent on the bow of a boat it very materially affects the result of the contest.

PUNTING

Before closing this article on Rowing, it may not be altogether out of place to allude to Punting, which is a sport of far more modern growth than rowing, for it is only within the last twenty years or so that punting has become popular, as before then punts were chiefly used by anglers. Punting looks delightfully easy when one sees a first-class exponent of the art driving the punt through the water at great speed, but the beginner will find that he has much to learn before he can become proficient. The punt seems to play all kinds of tricks on a punter who has the pole in his hands for the first time. It will go in any direction but the right one, and sometimes even leave the would-be punter hanging on the pole in mid-air—and in mid-stream, too! But it is a form of exercise that will repay the learner for his labours, and much can be learned by watching an expert in a punt. The chief secret is to learn the right methods and then practise, practise, and again practise.

CAMPING

A pleasant way of spending a holiday is to take a camping outfit in a boat, and set out for a few days on a river. Second-hand army bell tents can be secured quite cheaply, as can the necessary cooking utensils. Care should always be taken, before encamping on shore, to find out if it is necessary to obtain permission. But boys should not attempt an expedition of this kind without an older person, for accidents will happen even in the best regulated families.

SKATING

THE whole art of skating consists in a knowledge of the rules of gravity, or what is commonly called "balance." When you start you are perpetually "off your balance." As you get on, you gradually gain an intuitive practical idea of the way to "keep your balance." This is the great object. Remember always that by throwing the weight of the body forward you escape the risk of those terrible backward falls, which occur through the feet slipping away in front. If you must fall, it is much better to fall forward. Moreover, the body, in skating at all quickly, must always be a good deal inclined to the front. If the feet are well turned out, that will make it impossible for them to go far astray as long as the body is prevented from leaning back.

Lastly, courage, confidence in the possibility of succeeding, and a resolution not to be beaten, will do as great wonders in the matter of learning to skate as we know they do in objects of more arduous and serious ambition. But in point of fact it is much more important, in this humble elementary stage, as well as in the proud art of figure-skating, to know what to avoid than what to do. In both cases nothing is easier than to pick up a bad style; nothing more difficult than to get rid of it. The most usual faults in common

inside-edge skating, which is all that we have to do with at present, are these—bent knees, high shoulders, waving arms, and shuffling scratchy strokes with the feet. Avoid these failings, hold your head up and your hands down, turn your toes well out, and make long, clear, and firm strokes with each of your feet, and you will soon be master of the inside edge.

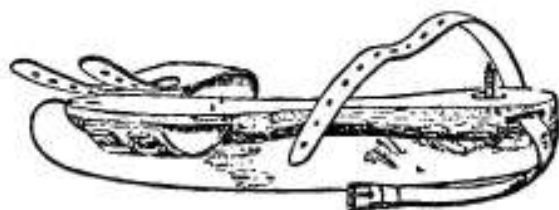


Fig. 1.—Old Screw-and-Buckle Skate

SELECTING SKATES

We must now say a few words as to the *selection of a pair of skates*. Out of the almost innumerable varieties, there are two which at once suggest themselves to notice as the simplest and most generally used—that is to say, the old screw-and-buckle skate (Fig. 1)

and the American lever, or "Acme" patent. The old ordinary skate is so well known as to need but little description. It has the advantage of great security, of being able to stand any amount of wear and tear, of fitting to any boot without the necessity of alteration or adaptation, and lastly, of cheapness. On the other hand, its disadvantages are that it requires a good deal of time and trouble to take on and off, that its use necessitates the carrying of a gimlet to bore the holes in the boot-heel, that the straps used with it are apt to cramp the feet and ankles, and lastly, that the holes bored in the



Fig. 2.—"Acme" Skate

sole and heel of the boot are gripped by clasps which are compressed by one motion of a lever, as illustrated above, which shows the main principles of this make of skate.

The lever, after the clasps are fixed in their place, is fastened securely and neatly by a spring snap. To detach the skate it is necessary only to push aside the spring, and, by a single motion of the lever, the skate falls off from the foot. Thus a few seconds are all that is required to put on and to take off a pair of these skates. It is quite possible for a man, skating at full speed upon one leg, to take off and put on again several times the skate belonging to the other. The advantages of the "Acme" skate, besides the rapidity with which it can be put on, are—its neat and clean appearance, and its completeness, without the need of straps and buckles and the troublesome and dangerous gimlet. Its disadvantages are the great height at which its framework stands above the ice, thus needlessly tiring the wearer's ankle; and a certain

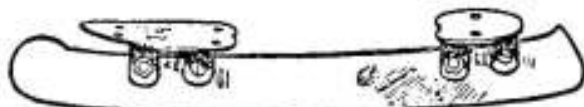


Fig. 3.—"Mount Charles" Skate

liability to give in some part or other under the strain of very hard wear. This last objection has been fatal to the skate in the opinion of most good skaters, and has led to the adoption by them of various other types, such as the "Barney and Berry," the "Mount Charles" (Fig. 3), and the "Monier Williams." The objections to almost all the other forms of skates are that they require a boot specially made to fit them.

Nevertheless, as soon as the preliminaries have been got over, and the young skater begins to be really proficient in his art, it will

boot-heel will in course of time become worn, and cease to hold the screw tight when inserted in it.

In the "Acme" skate (Fig. 2) the

be found best to have a special pair of boots reserved for skating, and fitted with the old club skate, or some other blade securely fastened to the sole by some sort of clasps. It is important that the curve of the blade, where it touches the ice, should not be too round or too flat. The most approved shape for a blade-edge is one forming the segment of a circle of which the radius is 7 feet and the diameter 14. This will be flat enough to give a good support to the foot without being so straight as to interfere with the execution of threes, double threes, and loops. Generally, the skates exposed for sale in shops are much too curved in the blade. Of course, for figure-skating, the square-heeled blade is altogether inadmissible.

ABOUT ICE

Another necessary part of an article on skating will consist of some preliminary hints as to the terrible dangers that unfortunately attend upon this amusement. In the first place, then, unless he has conclusive evidence that the ice is of a perfectly safe thickness, a skater should never venture upon water which is out of his depth unless he can swim well. The ability to swim, however, is often insufficient without other aid. A few minutes' immersion in ice-cold water will chill the limbs and paralyse the strength of the stoutest swimmer; and unless a ladder, or a rope, or some means of escape, be close at hand, he will inevitably sink to rise no more. On all ponds or pieces of water, therefore, where the depth is in any part sufficient to drown a person, one at least of these appliances should be on the spot. Next, as to the signs by which *safe may be known from unsafe ice*. There is a common saying, "Cracks, it bears; bends, it breaks"—and to a certain extent and in some cases this is true. Almost all ice, certainly all white ice, unless it is of an immense thickness, will crack when it covers at all a large piece of water. Sometimes, even of its own accord, with no one on it, it will burst into one of those great jagged fissures many yards in length, cracking with a sound like the explosion of gunpowder, either through the motion of the water underneath, or, like glass, from the action of the hot sun above. Oftener still, its brittle material will yield to the weight of bodies above it, and relieve the tension upon its broad surface by snapping into a sort of joint in the midst. But such cracks as these are no sign of immediate danger: the edges of the crack remain close, or almost close, together. But there is another kind of cracking, the soft quiet cracking, which may well arouse one's fears. When the fissures are of short length, and extend all over the ice like a network, when they burst with a low hissing or crushing sound, and water oozes up between the sides, then it is that they are suspicious: then is the time to take flight. It is when the ice is loaded beyond its weight, when the warmth of the sun is too strong, or when an insidious thaw has set in, that this sort of thing occurs; and when it does, let not anyone who values a dry skin tempt

fortune any longer. As for the ice that bends, it is true that in the case of *white* ice the bending is a most suspicious sign. It betokens usually a softness or rottenness, which is the result of a weak frost or a gradual thaw. Such ice will often be found on close inspection to be cracked or broken up in the manner we have already described. The sound of these small cracks is hardly heard, and they spread imperceptibly, until sometimes there is not a square foot of the surface without several seams traced across it in this way. The ice, thus weakened, gives under the weight of each skater as he passes over it, and seems, as one regards it from the bank, to undulate in great troubled waves in the most alarming fashion. At last the crash comes; two or three heavy men meet together, or a fall or collision occurs, and the ice is seen sinking quietly and sulkily beneath the strain.

There is, however, another kind of ice, the *black* ice, which is made by very severe and sudden frosts, which is of quite a different sort. This is the most strong and durable ice that can be found. An inch of this black ice will bear a man's weight comfortably, if its surface is not too broad; whereas, an inch and a half is the very least that can be trusted as the ordinary rule. It is usually on rivers or on pieces of water where there is a considerable current that this sort of ice is to be found. The smaller frosts have no effect upon this kind of water, and it is only the severe "black frosts," as they are commonly called, that can cover it with solid ice. It is the ice thus formed that is termed by skaters "black ice." It is very elastic, and has the adhesive powers as well as the elasticity of indiarubber. It will bend, therefore, like whalebone, without giving way, and will crack only under a strain that shows it is being tried very much beyond its powers. Thus, when it does break, it always does so suddenly, and the danger is the greater, inasmuch as the skater, once in, may be carried off before he rises again by the current that runs beneath.

PRACTICE

So much, then, for the sign by which safe and unsafe ice may generally be tested. We may now proceed with our instructions in some higher branches of the art. After the pains and griefs that accompany the early education of the skater, he is amply repaid for his troubles by the ease and rapidity with which he gets along when once he has achieved success. Almost everyone, after a day or two's practice, finds one foot much farther advanced than the other in its education. The ankle of one foot is stronger, or its skate fits more comfortably, or, in fine, it seems to have "taken more kindly" to the business. Then is the time to devote one's chief attention to the backward foot. It is all a matter of practice. From this stage, from the first moment that one can get along at all, it is experience alone that can be one's guide in learning the inside edge. The grand

principle is to *keep one foot only on the ice at the same time*; the longer the better—the strokes cannot possibly be too long. And as you get to bear more weight upon the skate, it will begin to describe the proper curve *on the inside edge*. There is no fear of beginning with the wrong edge, the only thing to be guarded against is a tendency to use neither, to attempt to slide along upon the flat of the skate. This is bad, and must be avoided by turning the toes well outwards. That is the unfailing remedy; the weight of the body then throws its balance naturally on to the inside edge, and the skate, by a law of mechanics, describes a curved sweep onwards and inwards as it goes. The curve described by one stroke properly made should be about that of a quarter circle. When this is finished, the force of the stroke should about have been expended, and the other foot should be ready to be put down. The next stroke should be commenced almost at right angles with the end of the last, and thus, in a succession of quarter circles, you progress in a zigzag course, the eyes pointing alternately at the beginning of each stroke to the extreme right and left.

For quite a beginner, three to five yards is a respectable space to cover at each stroke. Racers do three and four times that distance at each stride when going at full speed. If both feet are put down at the same time, they must be kept carefully parallel, otherwise, if they separate, each taking its own direction, the consequence is obvious—an absurd and often painful tumble.

The inside edge thus once mastered, it becomes incumbent on the skater to decide as to his further progress in the art. Three courses are open to him. He may either content himself with the inside edge pure and simple, and devote himself to hockey or other games; or, secondly, he may qualify as a "runner," or racing skater; or, lastly, he may aspire to become a cutter of figures, and graduate as a professor of the highest arts. In each of the last two cases, his inside edge skating will be a merely intermediate stage. But for the majority of games on the ice, and especially for hockey, which is the prince of them all, no greater skill is required than a knowledge of the simple inside edge. Speed, and a facility in turning rapidly or arresting one's course suddenly, are important adjuncts to the art, and they must be acquired by all who would excel. But in acquiring them, practice must be the best mistress. Those will learn the quickest who care the least for falls. *Pulling up short* is sometimes effected by a species of "putting on the drag." This is done by simply leaning heavily on the heel, whereby the back of the skate, being driven into the ice, and having to plough its way by cutting deep into the surface, acts as a suitable "skid." It is, of course, only on skates which have the back part of their steel blade flat upon the ice, and not rounded off as it is in front, that this device can be resorted to. Those who are accustomed to use it should be very careful, in wearing a new or borrowed pair of skates, to see that the

steel is not of the rounded pattern. Should they inadvertently try to stop themselves in this way while wearing skates of the latter description, the consequence may be terrible, for they are likely to get the worst fall that can possibly occur—that which happens from the feet slipping away forward, and leaving the back part of the head to come full on the hard ice.

To return, however, to our games.

HOCKEY ON THE ICE

in its only suitable place, on the frozen pond, is a wild, glorious, almost maddening excitement. The ball (of tough seasoned cork it should be) flies at the slightest touch, like mercury; skims like the wind over the clear bright surface, dashes with lightning speed backwards and forwards, hither and thither, in the most unexpected and ever-changing directions, under the quick blows of the strikers' sticks. No goals are necessary for the game thus played, no sides chosen, no rules as to "off-side" or "out of bounds" imposed, though in Canada and the United States the game has fixed rules, and is very popular. "All against all" is generally the rule, and each man, according to the time he can retain the ball, or drive it before him where he likes, reaps the lion's share of honours and amusement. The sole boundaries are the limits of the pond; and he who, however hard pressed, hits the ball off on to the land is justly accounted a "muff." To play the game well, speed is not the only requisite. It is, as in coursing matches, only one of the "points." Of course, there are continual races either after a ball hit far away, or to catch a competitor who is carrying it off with him. But it is not sufficient to be first up with the quarry. He is considered the best player, and gets the largest share of the game, who can manœuvre and "dribble" the ball along with foresight. "Dodging" is everything, and the knowing hands will double like hares, throwing out their followers just as puss baffles the greyhounds, and getting a fresh start and fresh breathing time, and a good look round to choose where to go. The best players do not hit hard; it is the gentle, neat touches and turns of the wrist that guide the ball the best. As you tear along at full speed after the leader, he can throw you out fifty yards by moving the tip of his stick an inch. If he only aims his stroke properly, he can "place" his hit with perfect accuracy, and reach the spot to which he intends his ball to go, almost before you are aware of his intention to send it there. For there is no chance about the game; everything is true and regular. No billiard-table in the world is truer than a piece of good ice; no cricket ground can compare with it. The game demands skill and activity, knowledge of pace and time, the power of racing, turning, and pulling up rapidly, and the nerve to strike straight, and to keep a sharp look out. Yet, however interesting this game, let not hockey players, in their excitement, spoil the figure-skater's sport.

On every pond there should be a sacred corner given up to the scientific. It need not be a large space; but it really ought to be select and safe from the noisy boisterous whirlwind of the hockey-players.

The chief dangers in this fascinating game are falling through holes or unsafe spots in the ice, stumbling over rough ice, and the snapping of a buckle or screw, while in the full swing of the fun. The first two dangers can be guarded against by the exercise of some amount of care; and as for the last, everyone should see that his skates are securely fastened when on, and well dried and slightly smeared with grease or oil when taken off.

The skates used for hockey ought to be of the very strongest and safest made; no spring that we have ever seen will bear the ordeal. The sticks should be light; but this is a needless caution, for a very short essay will show how impossible it is to play well with an unwieldy and heavy one.

DANCING ON THE ICE

might be more fashionable than it is. In many towns a band is often available; and a quadrille is capital exercise for ladies and skaters who are not quite up to the orthodox "figures." The space for a quadrille on the ice ought to be almost ten times the size of that in an ordinary ballroom. To dance the figures properly—especially the last figure of the Lancers, which is the prettiest of all—it is far better that all the dancers should do the outside edge; but even without this refinement, the dance is a beautiful sight, and, where there are ladies and music, should always be attempted. An effort is sometimes made—of course by first-class skaters only—to get through a waltz upon the ice, but the result is not very often successful or elegant.

ROUNDERS ON THE ICE

Such games as rounders and the other ordinary playground sports can almost all be played with increased zest upon the ice. Of all of them, prisoners' base is the most exciting, and a good rally at it resembles a gigantic coursing match, with a dozen hares and as many greyhounds, wheeling, doubling, racing, and dodging one another in an endless complication of circles.

LEAPING ON THE ICE

is an accomplishment more rare than difficult. It is worth learning by anyone who is tired of the plain straightforward skating, or who wishes to indulge in a steeplechase. To make a leap on the ice the same motion is required as in making a standing jump on dry land. The skater must, when he is going at a tolerable pace, get his feet parallel, both upright and firmly on the ice. Then, bending at the knees, he presses downwards and springs up, keeping his feet exactly level till he alights. On alighting, the feet resume their old position, and the course is then continued. The height and width of the jump

depend upon the strength of the spring and the speed at which the jumper was going when he leaped. A very moderate performer will soon be able to clear a chair turned on its face, but we have seen as many as four chairs ranged thus in a row cleared with ease, and a railing as high as a five-barred gate taken beautifully. The great danger is the coming down, for the least alteration in the position of the feet, or in the upright position of the body, will insure a terrible and often dangerous fall.

When the skater is well practised in jumping over chairs and sticks, etc., he may actually turn his accomplishment to practical use. It is not a bad thing to be able to clear a piece which is doubtfully safe or actually unsound. On an emergency, with the wind behind, and everything else favourable, a good jumper will clear quite eighteen feet, and make those who try to follow him look very foolish. Among those who can jump, steeplechases can be arranged, or a run across the floods, "taking" all obstacles *en route*.

There is only one other species of skating that need detain us before we proceed to the study of figures. This is the

ART OF RACING, OR "RUNNING"

as it is called by those who are proficient at it.

It is at the present day practised more by professionals than by amateurs, although there is no reason at all why it should not be equally popular with the latter. The part of England where the sport is best known is the fen country of the eastern counties; and it is hither that the most successful "runners" repair when once a severe frost has set in. Probably there is not a more severe and trying exercise in the world than racing on skates. Certainly there is none in which man, by his own unaided exertions, can attain so high a rate of speed.

The action is very much that of fast walking, and those who would excel in it must observe pretty much the same rules observed in training for a walking race. The arms, however, instead of being held up above the waist, and close to the body, are swung violently from side to side; the legs, moreover, although they should be left as straight as possible, can never, in practice, be prevented from bending slightly at the knee. As the beginner learns to lengthen his strokes—the great object which he must always keep in view—he will learn also to make them straighter and less oblique. Some of the best men only deviate about a yard on their alternate feet from each side of the straight line. This directness of stroke is rendered much easier by the form of the skate used, which is quite straight in the blade, without any of that curve that is to be observed in figure skates.

With regard to the pace attained by runners, there prevailed formerly the most wild and exaggerated ideas. A number of races held under responsible management have shown that the speed attainable is far less than had been supposed, and that, putting wind

out of the question, a mile in four minutes must be reckoned, even amongst the best skaters, a most creditable performance.

FIGURE SKATING

Skating on the outside edge means simply resting on the outer of the two edges of the skate on either foot—that is to say, on the right-hand edge of the right foot, or on the left-hand edge of the left foot—and thus describing a curve which bends outwards, instead of inwards, as was the case in skating on the inside edge. A glance at the diagrams, where the two movements are contrasted (Figs. 4 and 5), will at once explain the nature of the curves.

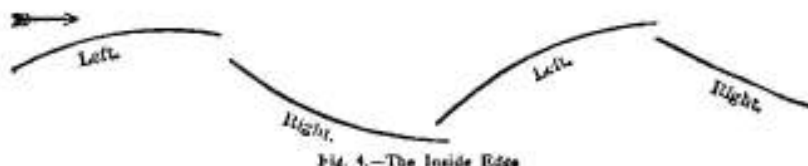


Fig. 4.—The Inside Edge



Fig. 5.—The Outside Edge

All this sounds very simple, and it naturally occurs to the learner that by simply inclining the ankle outwards the necessary effect can be at once produced. Unfortunately, on trying the experiment, the desired result does not "come off." It soon becomes evident that an entire change in the posture of the body, as well as in the mere position of the foot, is an absolute necessity. In effect, the principal weight of the body must be thrown outside of the perpendicular line which ascends from the edge of the skate that is on the ice. Technically speaking, the line of gravity must be brought over from its natural position between the feet to a place outside of one of them. This is a distribution of balance which is required of the human figure in no other sport or exercise.

Ingenious teachers have discovered a variety of devices for helping their pupils over this grand problem. Most of them, however, need be mentioned only for the purpose of warning beginners against them.

By far the simplest, safest, and best method is the following:—learn first to skate the *ordinary forward roll*, of which Fig. 6 is a diagram. The two feet are kept continuously on the ice, and the skater moves forward in a serpentine course, getting his impulse by leaning from time to time alternately on the inside edge of each foot.

To acquire the outside edge, begin gradually, instead of leaning, as is natural, on the foot which is doing inside edge, to rest more weight upon the other. After a bit, raise the foot which is doing inside altogether off the ice, putting it down again when there is any danger of falling.

By thus lifting each time for a longer space the "inside edge

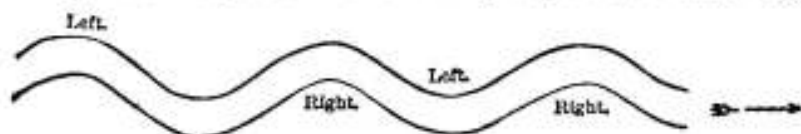


Fig. 6.—The Ordinary Forward Roll

foot," you will learn to use the other with more and more confidence, until at length whole strokes can be completed on the outside edge alone.

The progress from the first step (Fig. 5) to the third (Fig. 8), via the intermediate stage (Fig. 7), will be understood more easily from the diagrams.

The greatest care must be taken throughout not to allow the foot



Fig. 7.—Outside Edge: Intermediate Stage

which is off the ice to get in front of the other. This is one of the most important and at the same time the least known and observed maxims of forward skating. Only on the rarest occasions, and then only for the shortest space of time, is the "off" foot to be advanced. At all other times it must be kept well back, with the toes well turned out, and the heel close to that of the other foot. This rule

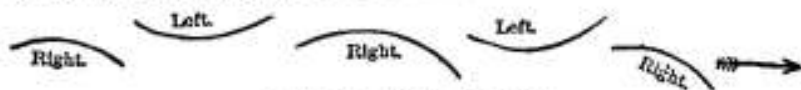


Fig. 8.—Outside Edge: Final Stage

is, moreover, to be observed by all who would skate gracefully in doing the inside edge.

The *other rules for outside edge* are very simple in theory, very difficult in practice, especially if a bad habit has once been contracted. They are, to hold the head well up, and keep the eyes raised and not directed downwards to the ice; to keep the whole body quite upright and the shoulders down; to abstain from throwing the arms

about, and, indeed, from any violent contortions whatever of arms, legs, or body; and finally, to keep the knee of the leg on which you are skating perfectly and unremittingly straight and unbent.

The *inside and outside edges backwards* are learnt in a somewhat similar way, by practising the inside roll backwards, and, when sufficiently strong and confident, lifting up one or other of the feet, and continuing the stroke on the inside or outside edge, as the case may be, of the skate left on the ice. Skating on the outside edge is the first step to be learnt in figure skating.

He who has fairly mastered the outside edge forwards is introduced at once to the study of the "figure," properly so called; and of these the first that invite his attention are the "eight" and the "three."

To accomplish an eight, start on the right foot with a strong bold stroke, leaning the body rather far out of the perpendicular, so as to insure a rapid curve, and continuing that curve firmly and steadily until a circle is almost entirely completed.

By this time your impetus will be pretty well exhausted; but before you come quite to a standstill bring the left foot (which, of course, has been hitherto held just behind the other) to the front; cross it quickly over the right toe, and as the latter completes its stroke put the left down at an angle pointing well to the right; throw the whole weight of the body at the same time steadily to the right, so as to rest it entirely on the foot, just put down, and thus commence another stroke of precisely the same sort, describing another circle on the left.

These successive circles, all returning nearly to the same spot, constitute each the half of a very handsome figure resembling accurately the Arabic symbol 8 (Fig. 9). Of course, it is not to be supposed that the beginner will succeed at once in making the ends of the circle fit with one another. Many of the strokes will come far short of the proper distance. But disasters must not discourage him. Practice will give confidence; and the two together will triumph surely in the end. Above all, *do not look down upon the ice* to watch whether the feet are going in the right direction. Get a friend, if you like, or if you can, to stand at the place whence you started, and shape your course by looking towards him. But do not on any account, as some do, put an orange on the ice and steer to that. The head must always be kept upright, and the eyes raised. Once let them down, and it is all up with your hopes of skating

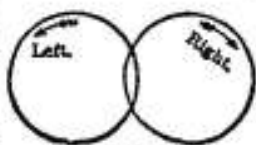


Fig. 9.—The Eight



Fig. 10.—The Eight

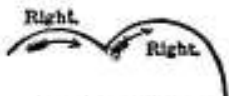


Fig. 11.—The Three

properly. The other grand rule is to *keep the circles large*; eight feet should be the *minimum* diameter of any circle, and this is much too small. The off leg which is not on the ice should be kept quite behind the other, with its heel close up and almost touching, and its toe turned very much outwards and backwards.



Fig. 12.—The Three

We have begun by describing the eight as properly skated, with the feet crossed; but it is possible to execute a very capital eight without crossing the feet at all, as appears in Fig. 10.

The second of the elementary figures is the three—a very easy one, moreover, to learn, and to do—badly; though not so easy to do well. It consists of a half-stroke on the inside backwards of the same foot (Figs. 11, 12, 13, 14). Of the peculiar jerk, or rather shift, whereby the motion forwards is suddenly reversed at the point where the turn



Fig. 14.—The Three

is made, it is quite impossible to give a good explanation. The problem is to be solved only by trying it, and a very short trial will make it easy. At first it will no doubt be necessary, as the twist is made, and the motion backwards commences, to put down the other foot upon the ice, just to steady the balance and avoid the strange and formidable feeling which such a shifting of balance must inspire. At first the forward stroke should be made long, as in Fig. 13, and the turn not made till the impetus is dying away. What is called the "tail" of the three—that is, its second half—will at first be a very feeble and straggly stroke. Soon it will become stronger and bolder; the turn may then be made earlier; and at last the forward stroke may become merely a tiny introductory step leading up to the long rounded sweep of Fig. 14.

The attitude in skating is half the battle: in the first place, a straight knee throughout—terribly difficult this one requisite; secondly, the absence of jerks and whirlings of the arms; thirdly, a perfectly clean-cut edge to the angle where the turn is made; no scraping of the ice with the flat of the blade; no loops; no swinging of the legs.



Fig. 13.—The Three



Fig. 15.—The Double Three

From the simple threes it is a short step to the double and triple, and even quadruple threes. In short, the complications of edges practicable by the double and "half-double" threes are endless. And the skater must so manage his balance as at any time to be able to shift from either edge forwards or backwards to the reverse edge in the other direction.

The annexed figures show a double three (Fig. 15), a half double (Fig. 16)—the most difficult—and a triple three (Fig. 17) on the right foot. By multiplying the turns, and making each forward and backward stroke equal in size, a figure is achieved which goes by the name of the "rose" (Fig. 18).



Fig. 17.—The Triple Three

even apparent effort. The most difficult "edge" of all is the turn from inside to outside backwards, and few indeed are those who can start on a common three, and then edge the tail into an outside backwards.

When once the turn is learnt, it should be practised till there is no difficulty in cutting the figure S. After the S, practise a long serpentine line, and you may attain at length to the power of keeping



Fig. 19.—The Loop

up and even increasing speed by the management of the balance, as in the forward or backward roll upon both feet. By this device a good skater will wander about for minutes over the surface of the pond or river without putting down more than one foot during the whole of the time, and without bending the knee of the leg he is using.

Next to the S, and its sequel the serpentine, comes in a difficult but beautiful and favourite figure called the Q. This involves an edge and a three; for instance, start on the right outside forwards; when the circle is nearly completed, change the edge suddenly to the right inside forwards, and

We arrive now at a totally new stage, that of "edges" — technically so called—that is to say, the practice of changing from one edge to another without altering the foot or the speed. A perfect skater must be able in a twinkling, at the tenth part of a second's warning, to change from the outside to the inside, or back again, without difficulty or

Fig. 16.—The Half Double Three



Fig. 18.—The Rose

soon afterwards shift again by making a simple three, thus arriving at the right outside backwards. It will be seen, by looking at the marks made on the ice, that the figure bears a pretty distinct resemblance to the letter. Q's may be made suddenly when going at

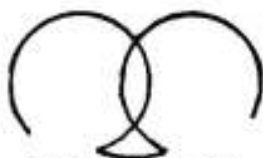


Fig. 20.—The Cross Cut

a high rate of speed, and the effect is electrical. This is, in fact, by far the most "sensational" figure. It is also the most dangerous, as the least slip brings the performer to grief. Then there is the "reverse Q," in which the three comes first, and the edge is made in the tail of it—equally difficult but less effective.

Finally, "continuous Q's," by which the skater, always on the same foot, flits along over the ice in a succession of beautiful and mysterious evolutions, perfectly wonderful to the eye of the looker-on. He who can do this well has little left to learn in the way of skating figures.

Among other well-known exercises, "loop" is effected by overbalancing the body, and recovering equilibrium by a quick turn of the foot (Fig. 19). Another is the "cross-cut," in which the balance is still further lost, and recovered by a backward stroke and then a three (Fig. 20), so that the second stroke of three cuts backwards through the first stroke of all. Finally, most difficult of all, is the "rocking turn," or "broken-backed" three, in which, after the first two strokes of the last-mentioned figure have been made, the same edge is continued, so that the mark made on the ice resembles a shark's tooth, and the skater finds that he has "rocked" back from outside forwards to outside back, or from any forward or backward edge to the same edge in a contrary direction (Fig. 21).



Fig. 21.—The Rocking-Turn

The skater who has advanced beyond the first few stages above described may now as soon as he chooses begin to join in some of the concerted figures which are the chief charm of our art. To begin them, let him stand face to face with another skater, and at a few yards' distance from him. The two then start forward, on the inside forwards, and at the moment of closely passing one another—each being on the left—they begin the stroke of a forward three on the right foot. This three is continued until the long tail of it comes round to the same point where the two skaters first passed one another. Let them complete the stroke till they almost touch one another, and then, putting down the left foot, start afresh on a second three on the left foot. By this movement, the poise of the body being altered, each is just enabled to clear the other, and pass on the right side of him; that is to say, the two left shoulders just escape touching one another, as the right shoulders just escaped at the

start. Of course, the second three on the left foot brings the two skaters round as before to meet one another, and ready to start on a third stroke.

After the "simple threes" come a series of figures, the name of which is sung out by the leader of the party as he comes into the centre just as the leader of a peal calls the changes on the bells. In all of them the skaters, whether they consist of only two partners, or of four, six, or even eight, stand facing one another in pairs, and come back after each evolution to pass one another as at first. When four pairs are skating the utmost accuracy in distance, pace, and time is required, and long practice only will insure anything like success.

ROLLER-SKATING

Rinks and Roller-skates, which have been so popular within the last few years, require some notice at our hands. The art of roller-skating will be worth the attention of those who are really fond of exercise, whatever may be the season of the year or the state of the thermometer. The chief difference between roller-skating and the more legitimate branch of the art is that the strokes are made more laboriously, and, of course, therefore, at a slower pace, than on the ice. There are some figures, such as small loops and continuous eights, which it is almost if not quite impossible to do upon roller-skates, but these are very few; and for the most part what can be done on the ice can also be done nearly as accurately, though by means of greater exertion, on a dry rink. It was for some time supposed that lessons learnt upon roller-skates were of little use for practice upon ice; but the idea has been refuted by numerous examples; and now it is no longer to be denied that those who wish to excel in either branch of the art may qualify themselves very effectually by practice in the other. The laws of balance are the same in each; and we have seen that these laws are the most essential principle in skating. As the trial to the ankles is much less severe in roller-skating, beginners would do well in all cases to take their early lessons in this way before venturing upon the ice. The position of the feet and body, and, in a word, the attitude generally, should be attended to as carefully in rink-skating as elsewhere; and it is consequently most important that a bad style should not be adopted in either case, but that the young skater should secure the services of a skilful instructor, and implicitly follow his advice.

Now that asphalted streets are becoming common in large towns, roller-skating is often much indulged in by the youths living near them. The practice is, however, decidedly not one to be encouraged; the surface, though not impossibly bad, is far from good, and the risks of accident are great.

SWIMMING

SWIMMING is not only the most enjoyable but the most useful of all the many pastimes in which old and young alike indulge; and it is, indeed, time that boys and girls were taught to swim, as part of their ordinary education. Of all the athletic exercises it is the most easily learned; but in learning to swim instead of to float we begin at the wrong end, and with the erroneous notion that swimming (instead of our own natural buoyancy) floats us in the water. Any person accustomed to the water will tell you that he finds it very difficult really to *sink* (i.e. to strive against the natural buoyancy of the body) and not to float. Let one of our readers try to pick up a bright object from the bottom in five or six feet of water, and the very strong resistance he meets will convince him that it is far easier to remain at the top than to go to the bottom. When a horse, dog, pig, or bullock gets out of its depth, it finds itself at once lifted up, and floating with its head above water, and, having no fear of sinking, its anxiety to reach the shore prompts it to make the natural motion with its four limbs.

Man has not, like the quadruped, the advantage of guiding himself in the water in his ordinary position; and his uninstructed reason becomes a worse guide than the unerring instinct of the brute. Fear prompts him to raise his arms out of the water, and then they tend to sink him, whilst the necessary position of the animal's four limbs keeps them under water; thus, the efforts of the timorous to save themselves are the very cause of their drowning. Tossing with the arms above water, screaming with the mouth wide open, they get out of breath, water supplies the place of air, and they are choked or stifled—that is, drowned. But the time that it takes to frustrate their natural buoyancy proves the very thing they ignorantly doubted; for, if not lighter in themselves than water, they would have sunk like a stone. Nature has benevolently given us this buoyant principle of safety in common with the lower order of animals, and we perversely mar it by our ignorant terrors, and by absurdly fancying that the action of swimming, which is only moving through the water, keeps us on the surface, and not our own natural buoyancy.

There are various modes of swimming. To begin with, there is the usual method; the upright or Italian; the dog-like; the hand-over-hand; on the back; on the side; with various limbs only; also under water or diving; and various fancy and ornamental methods of displaying one's power in the water.

The first rule in learning to swim is to gain confidence; and until

one has that one cannot swim. As a rule one should never employ artificial means, such as corks, life preservers, or any such contrivance, as more can be gained by frequenting a tepid swimming-bath, where there are usually plenty of facilities for learning from qualified attendants, who are always at hand. We shall lead off our practical instructions with a consideration of *swimming on the breast*.

THE BREAST STROKE

Having selected the most suitable place for the purpose, enter the water gradually, and when you have waded as far out as to let the water reach to your chest, turn towards the shore, draw your hands up to your chest, keeping the fingers close together, the thumbs pressing against the forefingers so as to form a sort of hollow scoop, which gives you a greater power of propulsion: the palms of the hands must be downwards. The lower part of the arm and elbow should be close to the body (*see Plate 15*); next stretch out the arms to the full extent just under the surface of the water, as in Pos. 2, turn the palms of the hands out and take a circular stroke until the arms are square with the shoulder, then draw the hands back to the first position. These three movements in our new extension motions for learners of swimming should be repeated several times by numbers—i.e. at the word *one*, draw your hands up to your chest, keeping the fingers close together, etc. (Pos. 1); at the word *two*, stretch your arms out to the full extent, keeping them just under the surface of the water (Pos. 2); at the word *three*, turn the palms of the hands out, and take a circular stroke until the arms are square with the shoulder (Pos. 3 and 4). When the learner has gone through these motions several times by word from the instructor, he should practise them himself, judging his own time, the speed of the movement being gradually increased until the three separate actions merge into one motion easily performed by the pupil.

A glance at Plate 15 will show these movements as the stroke is made in the art of swimming; position one shows a slight modification in the position of the arms, which naturally cannot be kept close to the side when the feet are off the ground.

The mouth must be kept carefully closed until the arms arrive again at the third position, then a full breath should be taken whilst the hands are returning to position number one. This drawing of the breath is most essential, as all learners are very apt to draw their breath just at the moment they strike out, and to a certainty get a mouthful of water, the effect of which, especially in the sea, is to make them very nervous and uncomfortable.

These strokes in swimming should be taken slowly and steadily, not exceeding a speed of twenty per minute. Having got so far, now is the time when learners require some amount of assistance; and one learner can help another, by following a few simple rules.

Have a belt made at a saddler's of the webbing generally used for horses' girths, of such a size as will go round the body easily; eyelet-holes must be punched into the ends instead of buckles, and about two yards of strong line the size of an ordinary little finger should be spliced at one end into one of the eyelet-holes, the other end being run through the other eyelet-hole at the other end of the belt.

The teacher should then place the belt round the pupil's waist with the rope in front of the chest, and, holding the other end in his hand, must direct him to enter the water to his middle, and then strike out; the teacher walking backwards in his depth, or along the boards if in a bath, holding the end rather tight, so as to keep the learner in the most favourable position for swimming, and prevent his sinking. The pupil must keep his head well back on the shoulders, and the back hollowed, which tends to the inflation of the chest, and gives more buoyancy, and he must at the same time kick out his legs well. By repeating this exercise several times, he will get more confidence in the sustaining power of the water.

Sometimes the rope is passed over a pulley, at the end of a projecting beam, or crane, working on a centre, and giving way with the movements of the swimmer, or a strong wire is stretched across a large bath, and kept tight with screws; on this a pulley runs, and to it is attached the wire belonging to the belt, buckled round the learner's waist, the cord in this case being attached at the back.

This contrivance (than which nothing can be more simple) will not only facilitate the acquirement of the art of swimming, but enable anyone who may be a tolerably good swimmer to instruct any number of pupils in the art, by imitating the actions of the frog. Now that swimming has come to be considered a necessary part of every boy's education in those public schools that have any water within reach, this simple apparatus will prove the more useful, as it permits of the art being satisfactorily taught in smaller spaces of water. However, should the apparatus above described not be obtainable, the instructor may support his pupil by placing a hand underneath the latter's stomach or chin. In fact, many of our better-known swimmers prefer this method, as it allows freer action on the part of the learner.

It is very essential for intending swimmers to remember that the use of the legs is the most important factor in the movement of the body through the water, the arms playing a secondary part. A convenient way of acquiring the leg movement for the breast stroke is as follows:—Grasp the rails of a swimming bath with both hands, and extend the body just beneath the surface of the water, with the legs straight out. Then keeping the heels well together, and the toes pointing to left and right respectively, draw them up towards the body, letting the knees open out sideways, being careful meanwhile not to allow the feet to be drawn underneath the body. The

stroke is finished by shooting the legs to the side as far as possible, and bringing them back to the first position with a powerful sweep. When these actions have been thoroughly mastered, and can be performed as one continuous motion, the learner may direct his attention to the movements of the arms.

FLOATING

After learning to swim a few strokes, you should thoroughly acquire the power of *floating*, that being the easiest mode of supporting the body; indeed, when not able to swim, you can always learn to float in salt water in a single lesson, simply by placing yourself on your back, throwing your chest well out of the water, and the head well back. (Plate 15.)

With beginners, it is always very difficult to get them to keep their heads back; they generally lift their heads up, principally on account of the water entering their ears, the result being that the body is thrown into a position that entirely prevents them from floating, because it brings the mouth under water. The arms can be placed in any position, but it is preferable for them to be stretched right out, the palm of the hand just under the water. By this position the learner has a better mode of balancing himself, otherwise he is very liable to turn over.

After he has obtained sufficient confidence to be able to balance himself, he can place his arms in any position, either by the side, across the chest, or folded under the head; the latter position is best, as it throws the chest more forward, and naturally inflates the lungs. The lives of many persons have been saved by this simple plan; whilst thousands could have been saved had they merely remained quiet, with their heads thrown well back, instead of struggling and throwing their arms out of the water, which naturally causes the head to sink. Of course it is much easier to accomplish this in the sea than in fresh water. If in the latter, it would be better just to paddle the hands at your side a little, which will prevent your feet from sinking.

CRAMP

To acquire the power of floating well is to possess the key to all kinds of swimming on scientific principles; it is also very useful in cases of that terrible bane of the swimmer, the muscular contraction called the *cramp*, whatever part of the body which is thus attacked being rendered temporarily powerless. All are affected alike, and perhaps more good swimmers have been drowned by cramp than from all other causes. Strong men and good swimmers, when seized with the cramp, have been known to sink instantly, overcome with the sudden pain, and nothing but the very greatest presence of mind can save the victim.

The legs and arms are the parts of the body that are most fre-

quently assailed, by which means the difficulty of getting ashore is much increased, but there is no real danger so long as the swimmer preserves his presence of mind. *When accompanied by presence of mind, cramp is comparatively harmless*, but when accompanied with fear, it is almost certain to be followed by drowning.

If both legs are disabled, try to paddle ashore with the arms; if, on the other hand, the arms are seized, the sufferer should lie on his back, and get to land by the use of his legs; if unable to do either, he should throw himself on his back, and endeavour to float until succour reaches him. Under such circumstances, the following method has been recommended:—Turn on the back at once, kick out the leg in the air, without minding the pain, and rub the part attacked with one hand smartly, whilst the other is used in paddling towards the shore. It is very easy to give these directions, but they are most difficult to follow. Cramp appears to deprive the person attacked of all reason for the time, and to render him quite powerless from mingled pain and terror.

The causes of cramp are usually believed to be two: the first is from indigestion, for those in good health are seldom attacked by it; but remember that it can be brought on by entering the water too soon after a meal; the second is the over-exertion of muscles that have been but little used, and when a very strong stroke with the legs or arms is given, it usually comes on; therefore, easy swimming is to be preferred to that with sudden strokes or jerks.

Balancing or perpendicular floating in the water is done by allowing the legs to sink gradually, so that the body may assume an upright position; the head must be thrown back, so that the chin may be on a level with the surface. The great requisite for the proper performance of perpendicular floating, is confidence; caution is always necessary; and the water should be quite still.

TREADING WATER

Treading water is a mode of supporting the body without making any progress through the water, but of carrying the head well above the surface. By it, if a man is drowning, he may very possibly be saved, if two people take him by the arms, and keep his head above water till assistance arrives; but it must be borne in mind that it is a very dangerous experiment, unless the two rescuers seize the drowning person with very great determination, so as to prevent him from grappling them. The treading of the water can be done one leg at a time, or both together, but the latter is the better way, as a greater weight can be supported, when both legs raise the body at the same time. If one wishes to seize anything above the water level, such as the gunwale of a boat, or a rope, the body is raised by this plan of treading water with great vigour; also it is sometimes done with the hands alone, or with both hands and feet together.

UPRIGHT SWIMMING

In *upright swimming*, or the Italian method, the pupil is supported in the upright posture in deep water, by means of a hand under the arms, which are stretched out horizontally under water. The head should never be allowed to sink, but the body may be left unsupported for a short time, if the pupil can be persuaded to remain quite quiet, which he will do if he has full confidence in his master.

If the legs are inclined to come forward or backward, or to rise on either side, a movement of the head in the same direction corrects the tendency; and this is instilled into the pupil, and practised accordingly.

When he can manage to maintain the perpendicular position by this mode of balancing, the most difficult part of the process is accomplished. The next thing is to teach him to advance one leg, keeping the other back, and with the arms still horizontal; this is easily done, and the legs may be taught to be used as in walking. After this, the arms are practised in the manner peculiar to the plan which is first attempted, while the body is stationary, and is exactly the reverse of the use of the arms in the old style, each hand being thrust out nearly sideways, and then brought one after the other round in front of the chest, embracing, as it were, a body of water within its grasp.

When wishing to retreat, the body is inclined backwards, the arms are reversed, and the water is pushed from the body. The fastest rate of swimming in this fashion is considered to be probably not more than half the speed of the ordinary mode.

DOG-LIKE SWIMMING

Dog-like swimming consists in simply following the same motions as the limbs of the dog make when progressing through the water. It is in all respects less useful than the usual mode, being so much slower, but as it affords rest through a different action of the muscles, it may be turned to very good account when the swimmer is much exhausted by a long swim.

The swimmer should lie on his chest, and move his hands and legs alternately, the right hand with the left foot, and the left hand with the right foot, one hand being thrust gently forward, with the palm flat and fingers close together; it is then brought back to the level of the breast, and the other used in the same way.

During the time that each hand is being so used, the foot and leg of the other side are drawn up, and then thrust backwards, outwards, and downwards with a good kick, but the learner must bear in mind the necessity of working the arms and legs in perfect unison.

HAND-OVER-HAND STROKE

The *hand-over-hand* mode of swimming is a very rapid one, and is frequently used when short distances have to be traversed, such

as reaching a friend in the water who may be in danger, but it is too fatiguing to be used for any length of time, and is most commonly adopted for the sake of the rest obtained by the change of muscular action.

It seems to be the dog-like method carried to an extreme; each hand is successively drawn out of the water and thrown forward, with the arm and shoulder to its full extent, with an action like a circular sweep. The last joints of the fingers should be a little bent, so as to make a small cavity, and enable the swimmer to hold the water as he draws his hands downwards towards the hips; the action of the legs is the same as in dog-like swimming. Whilst these motions have been gone through, the shoulder has become so far advanced as to throw the body on its side, just as the hand on that side reaches the water, and the opposite, by having come into position, is strongly thrust backwards.

The arms, as it were, revolve in an oval, but each hand must pause a moment at the hip, whilst the other is being thrust forward, and the stroke of the opposite leg is to be made at the same moment.

SWIMMING ON THE BACK

Swimming on the back, much the same as floating, is at once the easiest, pleasantest, and most useful method of swimming; indeed, some learners can make very good progress in this way, even before they can swim on the breast. (See Plate 15.)

Turn on the back, by forcing the leg and arm of one side against the water; next place the hand on the side of the body, just inside the hips, by the groin. Take care to keep the head well thrown back and immersed, all except the actual face; hollow the back a little, and at the same time expand the chest as much as possible; the elbows and knees are to be turned out, so as to be kept under the surface of the water, the head and body being in a perfectly composed state.

The legs are next to be drawn up and thrust back as in ordinary swimming, but the knees must not come out of the water; if the legs are not to be used, possibly owing to cramp, they must be kept in a horizontal position, with the toes and heels together. This method permits a great rate of speed being attained.

If a bather will only keep his lips tightly closed, and the body still, he will find that when he inflates the lungs by a deep inspiration, his face will rise almost entirely out of the water, and at each expiration, his face will sink as far as the eyebrows and lower lip, but not any lower, his nostrils being always free for the passage of the air required by the lungs.

If anyone will give this plan a fair trial he will learn more in an hour than in many days by other methods. Here he experiences the immensely powerful buoyancy of the water, which would certainly prevent anyone from drowning, whether he could swim or

not, if he would only lie in the position of swimming on his back without moving his body or limbs, as *he would be unable to sink, if he tried.*

Another way of obtaining a position of total rest is to stretch out the arms as far as possible above the head, their weight acting as a counterpoise to that of the legs, the effect being that the toes are forced above the surface.

As before said, in the sea this plan of floating is very much easier than in fresh water, the face during expiration hardly ever sinking lower than the chin, whilst a good full inspiration will raise the whole face out of the water.

SWIMMING UNDER WATER

It is as well to acquire the power of *swimming under water* before learning the side stroke. This is practised by drawing as much air into the lungs as possible, and then with a spring forcing yourself under water and striking out in the same manner as on the surface, holding the breath. The learner will find greater difficulty in keeping under water, the tendency of the body being to come to the surface, in spite of the effort made to keep beneath. The length of time one can remain under water is largely dependent on the formation of the chest, but the average time is about forty seconds. People can swim under water much faster than above.

After becoming an adept at swimming under water, you should learn to *swim with your clothes (old ones!) on, and with your eyes open*—they must be kept open in the act of diving or entering the water, as it is very difficult to open them after the head is once under water. In commencing to swim with your clothes on, begin at first with your trousers and stockings on, then with your waist-coat, next the coat, etc., until you put on all your ordinary clothing. By proceeding in this manner you will, by imperceptible degrees, become able to swim easily in all your clothes, and, in cases of necessity, be of infinite use in saving the lives of others when in danger of drowning.

To make the *Mill, Catherine Wheel, or Washing Tub*, the swimmer must lie on his back with his knees up to his chin, then, whilst one hand is kept close to the body, and paddled with to sustain the swimmer, the other is moved with very powerful sweeps, so as to rotate the body on its centre at a rapid pace.

THE SIDE-STROKE

Speaking of the *side-stroke*, one writer says:—"Lay yourself on your side, and draw your hands up to your chest, as in the chest stroke, then the right hand must be thrust out to its full extent, the left hand only going about as far as the elbow of the right arm; next, the thumb should be tightened over the forefinger of the left hand, so as to form a cavity or scoop, which gives a much greater

power over the water, a stroke with that hand should then be taken back to the thigh, using your full power with this stroke, the right hand taking a downward stroke, which act propels you along. The arms are then drawn up into the first position; at this movement you should inhale sufficient air to well fill your lungs; at the same time as your arms are being drawn up to the first position, draw your legs up to your body, and as the arms are struck out as before described, so also shoot out the legs, taking care not to let the feet come out of the water; or if so, the power of the leg-stroke will be quite lost."

In commencing it is not advised that more than five or six strokes should be taken, then a few should be taken on the chest, and as you become more expert, you can increase the number of strokes, until the side swimming becomes the natural mode of progressing through the water, to the exclusion almost of any other style, unless you may happen to be in a sea-way, when the chest stroke will be found preferable, from its keeping the head and face so well raised out of the water and surf.

The principal feature in this side stroke is to keep your head in exactly the same position in relation to the body as when walking, and not to raise it up and down, as most inexperienced swimmers do, giving as a reason for so doing that it is to prevent the water from touching their faces or going into their mouths, instead of closing their mouths and pushing their heads through the water, the apex of the head being used as the cutwater in advance, to ease the progress of the body through the resisting water.

By lifting up the head the way or impetus is stopped, just as in a rowing or sailing boat any rolling or other motion than advancing tends greatly to impede her progress; therefore, on exactly the same principle, when swimming, the body and head should not move, only the arms and legs, as propellers. Being on the side, and in the proper position for this stroke, it is impossible to see ahead, you should therefore steer yourself by an object behind you. By occasionally making a slight turn of the head, you can easily see whether you are keeping in the right direction, or what is in your way. Care should be taken in turning the head that it is not done suddenly, but gradually, as any sudden turn is sure to check your speed.

The side-stroke as above described has, however, been almost, if not entirely superseded, in the case of the fastest and most up-to-date swimmers, by the "over-arm" and "trudgeon" strokes.

THE OVER-ARM STROKE

In the *over-arm* stroke the lower arm is extended beyond the head, and forced down through the water to the hips, and then shot out past the head again. Half-way through the stroke, the upper arm, slightly bent, is brought round over the head, through the water, past the breast, and out again ready for the next stroke.

With regard to the legs, the lower one is bent back, and the upper is advanced with the knee straight. When the upper arm is opposite the shoulders (about which time the breath should be taken) the legs are brought together with a scissor-like motion. This way of swimming, which is extremely speedy, is principally used for racing.

THE TRUDGEON STROKE

The *trudgeon* method of progression through the water (Plate 15) was, until a few years ago, considered too fatiguing for use, except in sprint races, but it has of late been successfully employed in long-distance work.

It may be described as a double over-arm stroke. The swimmer starts on his breast with one arm extended in front of him, the other being right back at his side. The forward arm, palm outwards, is then forced down through the water till it occupies a similar position to the other, which is brought over the head into the water, and so on. The leg kick is shorter, but practically identical with that used in the side-stroke.

FANCY STROKES

A favourite kind of fancy swimming is to turn *Head-over-heels*. The body is curved or bent at the hips, the hands are straightened along the sides, and used as if throwing the water over the back. In this way you drive the head under, at the same time using the feet as in ordinary swimming, the result being that you make a complete somersault, or turn head-over-heels. Now for the other way about.

Heels-over-head is done by the swimmer lying on his back, drawing his legs up with the knees straight, then paddling very sharply with his hands, and bringing his feet over his head, when, the body being overbalanced, a complete revolution is effected.

Sometimes two swimmers join in making a *Double Wheel*. This is done by interlacing their feet and knees, and then, whilst keeping their bodies apart, they each use their right hands with great power, and their left hands as sustaining paddles, thus making revolutions in a large circle. If this is tried in public without previous practice, the result will be ignominious failure.

The *Float* is the name given to a very useful method which should be practised more frequently than it is. It is done as follows:—When one swimmer lies on his back with feet stretched out, another takes him by the feet and propels him forward—a most useful plan to adopt in cases of cramp or danger.

Another mode, called *The Plank*, varies only a little from the last, and is done by two swimmers; one places himself flat on his back with feet widely apart, hands close to his body and the head well up; his companion takes hold just above his ankles, and pulls at them, and at the same time impels himself, and, if correctly done,

one swimmer will quickly pass over the other. This exercise requires good swimmers.

Leap-Frog is another amusing way of swimming, and is practised by one swimmer treading water, whilst his companion swims up to him, then laying both hands on his head, he gives a shove downwards, and whilst his companion sinks he passes on, and then treading water himself offers a "back" in his turn, just as it had been given him before.

DIVING (See Plate 75)

Diving, or taking a header, should be practised by all learners of swimming; a graceful and proper manner of entering the water being cultivated assiduously, it is just as easy to learn this accomplishment gracefully as clumsily, common care being all that is necessary from the first. Headers may be taken from a boat, from the bank with a good run, or from any platform or other height, such as a spring-board, or off a ladder step by step; but jumping off any height should not be attempted till after great practice at the jumps off boats or other slight elevations. However, bear in mind that when diving at a spot where the depth of water is not known to you, it is very necessary for you to ascertain that the water is deep enough for diving purposes. Death has, it should be stated, in many cases resulted from accidents that have happened to persons unknowingly diving in too shallow water.

Beginners are generally much alarmed when first told to jump into the water, fancying instinctively that their heads will come in contact with something; therefore, when trying the "header" they come flat on the water with a regular flop, and make a splash, sometimes hurting themselves very much, the act of striking the water having almost as stinging an effect as a smart stroke from a schoolboy's birch. The learner may go to the river bank at a spot where it is not too shallow, and then, stooping down until he is nearly double, he must place his hands together over his head, lean over till they nearly touch the surface, and so quietly glide, rather than fall, into the water. He will not at first acquire the proper position, but after a while he will take his header without any hesitation. He must practise headers over and over again, taking care each time to increase the height from which he jumps. After becoming proficient in this exercise, he should practise taking short runs, and leap head first into the water from the place where he took his first lessons in plunging, as he will have much more confidence in a place he is accustomed to. It is excellent to practise diving from spring-boards.

In taking headers properly, raise the arms over the head several times, so as to expand the lungs; then the hands must be joined over the head, fingers and thumbs together, the back kept hollow, and the body stiff, straight, and still, the legs being stretched out firmly, the feet pressed together, and the toes pointing in a line

with the body and legs. Enter the water like an arrow without making any splash (this being the test of a good "header"), gliding down into deep water as far as your impetus will carry you, at about the angle forty-five. Care must be taken, however, to enter the water head first, or you may fall on your chest or stomach, injuring yourself very much, or, at the least, knocking the breath out of your body, and running the risk, especially if alone, of being drowned before recovering yourself.

If the plunge is taken properly, the "shoot," as it is termed, will be from twelve to fifteen yards. If you wish to swim near the bottom, place your hands back to back, and take a downward stroke till you reach the bottom, and then practise swimming under water as long as you can—this being a very important part of a good swimmer's education. By entering the water with the eyes open, with the view to fetch some object from the bottom, you will soon become a thoroughly good diver without noticing the progress you are making. A lump of chalk, a small plate, or piece of tin, are very good things to throw in and then search for till you find them, commencing a few feet from you, and then increasing the distance gradually till the object is some twenty yards off.

The main points to be observed in diving are to *keep the body, arms and legs perfectly stiff, and all in the same right line.*

Those who will follow this rule will be able to leap from considerable heights without danger. The hands placed together over the head form a kind of wedge, which cuts its way into the water and opens a passage into which the body enters. The diver must bend his head over the chest in such a way that even the slight shock which is sure to ensue on reaching the water affects only the crown of the head, which is the very part best able to bear it.

The exact position can best be learned by watching good swimmers taking headers. Their bodies are quite stiff, and on reaching the water there is not the least alteration of attitude, the body shooting through the water like a fish, and passing through a wonderful space by the impetus of the spring. Some teachers are advocates for jumping into the water from a height feet first, the legs and feet being kept close together with the arms against the sides, entering the water quite perpendicularly.

One recommendation of this way of entering the water is that there is no fear of accident with it, and though it is not so graceful as the header, yet in jumping from a height it is just as effective, and far safer in jumping into strange places, where, from not knowing the depth of the water, or the nature of the bottom, an accident might arise from going in head first, by which many excellent swimmers have been killed.

In *jumping out of a boat*, the best way is to go to the stern and leap over, as there is much more resistance to the feet than is obtained by leaping over the side; and in getting into the boat again

always come to the stern, never the side. In approaching the boat, swim with the feet high, grasp the transom with both hands, and kick the feet on the surface of the water, so as to keep them up. If you do not mind this, the legs will be sucked under the boat.

With a vigorous kick of the feet and spring and pull of the hands combined, you rise up out of the water, and find yourself with your breast lying over the stern, so that you are able to crawl easily into the boat, but there is great exertion required to perform this exercise properly, and almost everyone gets many hard knocks on the shins, however careful he may be. For these reasons a short broad ladder, with four or five steps, or a roller across the transom to be pulled in over, forms a far more pleasant means of regaining the boat and your clothes than climbing over the stern at the risk of hurting your skin and bones.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR SAVING DROWNING PERSONS

1. When you approach a person drowning in the water, assure him, with a loud and firm voice, that he is safe.

2. Before jumping in to save him, divest yourself as far and as quickly as you possibly can of all clothes; tear them off if necessary, but if there is not time, loosen, at all events, the foot of your drawers, if they are tied, as, if you do not do so, they fill with water and drag you.

3. On swimming to a person in the sea, if he be struggling, do not seize him then, but keep off for a few seconds till he gets quiet, which will be after he gets a few mouthfuls of water; for it is sheer madness to take hold of a man when he is struggling in the water, and if you do you run a great risk.

4. Then get close to him and take fast hold of the hair of his head, turn him as quickly as possible on to his back, give him a sudden pull, and this will cause him to float; then throw yourself on your back also and swim for the shore, both hands having hold of his hair, you on your back, and he on his also, and, of course, his back to your breast. In this way you will get sooner and safer to the shore than by any other means. One great advantage of this method is that it enables you to keep your head up, and also to hold up the head of the person you are trying to save. It is of primary importance that you take fast hold of the hair, and throw both the person and yourself on your backs. After many experiments, this is found to be vastly preferable to all other methods. You can in this manner float nearly as long as you please, or until a boat or other help can be obtained.

5. It is, at all events, doubtful whether there is such a thing as a *death-grasp*; at least, it must be unusual, for many who have witnessed several cases of drowning have never seen it. As soon as a drowning man begins to get feeble, and to lose his recollection, he gradually slackens his hold till he quits it altogether. No apprehension need therefore be felt on this score when attempting to rescue a drowning person.

6. After a person has sunk to the bottom, if the water be smooth, the exact position where the body is may be known by the air-bubbles which will occasionally rise to the surface, allowance being, of course, made for the motion of the water, if in a tide-way or stream, which will have carried the bubbles out of a perpendicular course in rising to the

surface. A body may often be regained from the bottom before too late for recovery by diving for it in the direction indicated by these bubbles.

7. On rescuing a person by diving to the bottom, the hair of the head should be seized by one hand only, and the other used, in conjunction with the feet, in raising yourself and the drowning person to the surface.

8. If in the sea, it may sometimes be a great error to try and get to land. If there be a strong "outsetting" tide, and you are swimming by yourself, or have hold of a person who cannot swim, then get on your back and float till help comes. Many a man exhausts himself by stemming the billows from the shore on a back-going tide, and sinks in the effort, whereas, if he had floated, a boat or other aid might have been obtained.

9. These instructions apply alike to all circumstances, whether the roughest sea or smooth water.

10. In case you are roughly seized by a drowning man when attempting his rescue, the best thing to do is to dive with him at once, as this is almost sure to make him let you go, as he won't like the sensation of going to the bottom; but, in the event of his sticking to you, as a last resort, a smart rap or two on his head will make him quiet and enable you to save him in safety.

The above are only a few elementary rules for rendering assistance to persons in danger of drowning. The Royal Life Saving Society, London, publish a shilling handbook, in which they set forth very clear instructions for rescuing and resuscitating drowning persons in almost any contingency. It is very advisable for all swimmers to possess this little book.

MINOR OUTDOOR GAMES

BALL GAMES

It is universally admitted that games with balls not only afford healthy and invigorating recreation to the young, but also to "children of a larger growth." Their advantages are many, the chief being that they are nearly all easily adaptable to the number of persons wishing to play, and the initial expense is practically nil. In the following pages we have described some of the better known and more generally played games, which we trust will make this section of use to our readers. Many of these are capable of variation according to the skill and ingenuity of the players.

DAYS OF THE WEEK

This game has various cognomens. It is known as Days of the Week; Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday; Here Goes up for Monday; and no doubt by other equally expressive names.

The game is to be played by seven boys, or less, each boy, according to the number playing, taking for his name that of one or more days of the week. The game must be played against the side of a house or a high wall, opposite to which the players range themselves. Sunday, as a general rule (though any one may do so), then takes the ball and throws it high against the wall, at the same time calling aloud the day-name of any one player, whose duty it is to catch the ball before it reaches the ground, the other players, in the meanwhile, running away to a short distance, and ready to take a further run, should the ball not be caught by the player called. Upon the ball being duly caught, it is thrown by the catcher to the wall as before, the name of some other player being called, and so on again, so long as the ball is not missed. Should, however, any player, when called, miss the catch he loses a point, or "egg," as it is customarily termed, and he has to pick up the ball and throw it at one of the other players, all of whom by this time will have scampered away to a distance. If the ball hits any of them, that player also loses a point, and has to serve the ball as at the commencement of the game. If, however, the ball, when thrown, hits no one, the player who missed the catch serves. Three eggs, or points, put a player out, the one last in being the winner, and he is the only one who administers, but himself escapes, punishment, which, by the way, is not to hearty lads a very serious matter.

The punishment inflicted is arranged in the following manner:—The last player out takes the ball, and leaning on his left hand, with his arm outstretched against the wall, throws the ball with his right hand as hard as he possibly can against the wall, sending the ball as far from the wall as his strength and skill can make it rebound. The winner then picks up the ball where it rests, and proceeding to a point straight in front of the loser, and at a distance from the wall equal to that at which the ball rested, is entitled to have three throws at the loser's right hand placed on the wall at a level with his shoulder, or should the loser prefer, he may take his punishment by turning his face to the wall, and letting the winner have three throws at his back. The winner is in this manner entitled to punish all the losers. Any winner who is content with the laurels gained in winning the game may waive his right to administer punishment, and he will generally find more fun and satisfaction in so doing, and in calling a fresh game, than by claiming all the privileges to which he is entitled.

DOUTEE STOOL

Doutee Stool, or Stool Ball, is a game shrouded in some degree of mystery. Some descriptions of the game are indeed of so hazy a nature as to put it beyond the understanding of all but a very select few. It appears, however, to be an ancient ball game, and is by name referred to in certain of the Early English classics as a common out-of-door ball game. The description of the game that appears the most reasonable, and apparently that which gave the game its name of Stool Ball, is the following:—The game requires but two players, the one taking the ball, the other a stool; it is then the duty of the one with the ball to throw it at the stool, which should have been placed at some distance off on the ground, while the other player defends the stool with one of his hands, as a cricketer's wicket is defended with his bat; each successful defence scores one to the defender of the stool, whereas, should the stool be hit, the players change places and duties.

Stools is a variety of the same game, there being, in this case, two or more stools placed at considerable but equal distances apart. The dealer or out-player then throws the ball in succession at the various stools, at each of which a player must be stationed. The player at whose stool the ball is thrown endeavours to hit it as explained above, and so soon as the ball is hit the various players change positions by running to some other stool, and if while the change in places is being effected the dealer recovers the ball in time to throw it at and to hit any one of the runners, the runner so hit changes places with the dealer. If the dealer's attack on any one stool is successful, the unlucky defender of that stool, of course, is out, and the dealer comes in instead. In this game, as in *Doutee Stool*, if any one player strikes a ball so that it is caught by the dealer, before the ball touches the ground, such player is out.

EGG HAT OR EGG CAP (*See Plate 16*)

This is a capital game for any number of lads up to a dozen or fifteen. It affords good sport in running and throwing, and may indeed be considered much better for the players' constitution and health than for the well-being of their, for the time, discarded head-gear.

Each boy places his cap against a wall, so that together the caps form a row, they being placed so as just to touch each other; a line at a distance of five or six yards from the row of caps should then be drawn, it being first seen that all the caps are so placed that a ball may readily be thrown, at the distance named, into any one of them. Some player is then selected to pitch, whose duty it is to throw the ball into any of the caps—for his own sake carefully avoiding his own. The owner of the cap into which the ball is thrown must immediately rush to the cap, snatch out the ball, and then do his best to throw the ball so as to hit one or other of his fellow-players, all of whom will, of course, in the meantime, have made the best use possible of their legs to secure a safe distance. In the event of the ball striking any boy, a stone or pebble, called, and after which the game is named, an "egg," is placed in his cap, and he takes the pitch; if, however, all are so fortunate as to escape being hit by the ball, then he who threw the ball scores one to the bad in a similar manner, and himself has the task of proceeding with the pitch as first explained, and so on the game proceeds until some player scores three "eggs," and has then to resume his cap, temporarily leaving the game, and is termed "out." The game then again goes forward until all but one, the winner, are out.

An "egg" should be charged for every pitch that results in missing all the caps; but if the ball remains to be pitched by a player already debited with the full number of "eggs," he continues playing until he succeeds in placing the ball in some other player's cap; upon this being accomplished, he retires as already set forth. It may be agreed among the players that three throws should be allowed before the "egg" is charged to the account of the thrower. The winner may claim to punish the losers as is described under the heading of Days of the Week.

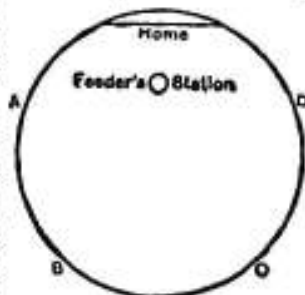
A good variation of this game is known as "Nine Holes." Nine holes are made in the ground against a wall, and three pebbles are placed in each. The game is then carried on in exactly the same way as "Egg Hat," the only difference being that in Nine Holes pebbles are taken out instead of being put in, as penalty for "misses" other than "hits."

FEEDER

This is a good round game for summer or winter, and for any out-of-door weather. With the exception of one who is termed "feeder," all the players are in. Before play is commenced, a space

of ground called "home," and sufficiently large to accommodate all the "ins," should be marked out, and then "bases" or "rests" at distances of from twelve to twenty yards apart, verging round from home back again to home, in the manner shown in the diagram, should be arranged, each "base" being conspicuously marked by a post, large stone-wicket, or any convenient object. The rests or bases should number at least not more than one less than the players who are in.

Feeder is then to be selected, and he places himself two or three yards in front of home, and prepares to feed by giving a fair pitch of the ball to the first of the other players, who should be standing in "home" at the nearest point to the base marked A, the other players being ranged in a line behind him, or to his left hand. The object of the player is to strike the ball, when fed, in such a way and to such a distance as to enable him to make at least one base, and as many more as possible, before the ball can be recovered by the feeder, as feeder may throw the ball, when in his possession, at any player not at home, or at any one of the different bases, and if such a player should be hit, he takes feeder's place, and feeder runs home. The first player having been fed and having made one or more bases safely, the second player is fed and runs as before, and so on.



Plan of Feeder

Although all players may be at home at one time, no more than one player can occupy the same base at the same time, nor may any player pass by an occupied base. It therefore follows, if player No. 1 has not vacated the base A when player No. 2 strikes the ball, player No. 1 is then, at all risks, bound to make for base B, and so on farther, when again player No. 3 is fed.

Should a player strike a ball so that it is caught by feeder, the latter is released. This is also the case if a player strikes at, but misses, a ball. No player, although bound to run if he strikes a ball never so gently, is bound to strike at any ball unless he chooses; and it will be apparent that this rule is necessary to compel the player acting as feeder to deliver fair balls. On the other hand, however, no player may leave a base while feeder is in the act of serving the ball, as when refused by a player it is considered "dead."

A round stick or a small bat may be used by the players for striking, but this is not essential, the open hand being a more ready and a sufficiently serviceable weapon. When a stick or bat, however, is used, it must, when the ball has been hit, be dropped and left at home for the next player.

This game resembles in many particulars the game of Rounders (which see).

NINE HOLES

See "Egg Hat."

PALL MALL

This game is believed to be entirely extinct. Its best-known memorial is the fashionable street in London bearing its name. It appears, however, that the place for playing was known as the "mall," and the stick employed the "pall mall." The game of Croquet is undoubtedly a revival and development of the ancient game of Pall Mall; but indeed the latter, because of its simplicity, seems worthy of revival for its own sake. In Cotgrave's Dictionary (1632), the game, as popularly played in the time of the Stuarts, is described in the following words:—"Paille Maille is a game wherein a round box bowle is with a mallet struck through a high arch of yron (standing at either end of an ally), which he that can do at the fewest blowes, or at the number agreed on, wins."

In France there is a game of "Mall" indulged in that more nearly resembles the modern English game of Croquet. The following description of the game has been obtained from the "Académie Universelle des Jeux," and although the game is not now so popular as it was at the commencement of the century, it may still be seen in many of the rural districts. The game is played on a prepared piece of level ground or lawn, enclosed by a low stone wall, or by wooden planks. The ground is usually from 150 to 200 yards long, and 10 or 12 broad. A hoop is placed at each end of the ground, and in the centre is an iron or wooden peg. The game is best adapted for two players only, each one of whom takes up his position at opposite ends of the ground. The players are each supplied with a wooden ball and mallet, and the object of the game is to knock the ball with the mallet from one end of the ground through the hoop at the opposite end, and then to hit the centre peg with the ball. The player who accomplishes this in the smallest number of tries wins the game.

RING BALL

Ring Ball is a most ancient game, and is doubtless the old game of Pall Mall in its first development towards the modern game of Croquet.

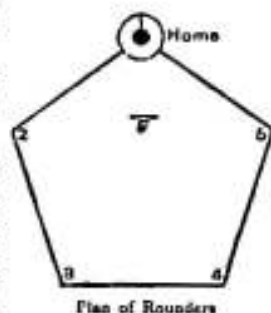
The game of Ring Ball has to be played on a ground or alley appropriated to the purpose. A wooden ball about three inches to three inches and a half in diameter has to be driven from one end of the ground to the other, through an arch or arches, with a mallet three feet to three feet six inches long. The game, so far, resembles that described above as Pall Mall, but in addition to the iron arch or arches, there is a ring placed in the ground about two-thirds of the way towards the far end of the alley. This ring is differently marked on its front and back, is placed upright, and turns upon a

swivel, so that anything touching the sides of the ring causes it to turn. The ball is started from home as in Pall Mall, and has to be driven with the mallet through the ring in addition to the arches, and it is only lawful for the ball to pass through the ring, entering it first by the side originally turned towards the top of the round. The player who first succeeds in passing his ball through the ring and arch or arches, or so succeeds in the smallest number of blows, wins the game.

ROUNDERS (See Plate 16.)

Rounders is the king of all the ball games described under the heading of Minor Outdoor Sports; for although in this country it still remains a minor game, there is little or no essential difference between Rounders and Baseball, which latter game is admittedly the national pastime of the United States. This fact alone should be sufficient proof, if such were needed, of the capabilities and advantages of the parent game.

For a perfect game of Rounders there should be twenty players, divided into ten on each side, the "ins" and the "outs." Five bases should be arranged in the form of a pentagon, the sides of which measure from fifteen to twenty yards. In the diagram *F* is feeder; 1, home base; 2, 3, 4, 5, the bases that are to be successively run to. Should, however, the players on each side be so few as five, the out bases should not number more than three. The captains of the



respective sides toss for the choice of first innings, the loser's side acting as fielders, the "in" side arranging themselves at the home base. The fielders select one of their number to act as "pitcher" or "feeder," the others placing themselves round the field under his direction to assist in putting out their opponents. A "bat," generally a cricket stump, or some similar object, should be provided, with which the striker is to hit the ball. The pitch is given, as in the game of Feeder, to the first one of the "in" side that offers himself, and to the others in succession, every player being allowed one trial, or if desired three. If he fails to make a hit from these three balls he is out. The running from base to base proceeds as in Feeder, except that more speed and care have to be exhibited, as the pitcher has the whole of his field to take the ball when hit, and to throw it at the players as they run from base to base or home.

Any striker hitting the ball so that it is caught by any one of the fielders is out; any of the "in" party being hit by the ball when absent from home or away from a base is out. No more than one player may at the same time occupy the same base, and all the bases are to be run in regular order.

OUTDOOR SPORTS

The ball is "dead" when it leaves the pitcher's hand until it has been struck at by the player, and no one may move from the base he is occupying while the ball is dead. A fielder should, however, be placed close to the home base to take advantage of any breach of this law, as, although no player may improve his position while the ball is dead, he is liable to be thrown at and made "out" if hit when away from a base. Each player as he strikes the ball must drop the bat for the next player before running.

When all but one on the "in" side have been put out, the latter player may call for what is technically called "three hits for a rounder." That is to say, he has then to be served with the ball until he has had three trial hits thereat, and on the third hit, or attempted hit, if he has not previously tried for his rounder, must run from home round to every base in succession and back again to home, without either being hit with the ball or without the ball being grounded at home during his absence while running. Grounding the ball at home consists in placing the ball at home when "home" is otherwise empty. If the rounder is successfully made the side is again all in, and the game proceeds as before; if, on the contrary, the rounder be lost, the sides change places.

A side is out at any time if a ball be grounded at home when no player is there. Excepting only for the rounder hit, a player must run if he strikes at a ball, however short the distance to which he sends it, and if he should strike the ball behind him he is out.

At Rounders matches, in order to prevent disputes, an umpire, whose decision on all points is to be final, should be appointed to ensure the due observance of all the rules of the game.

STOOL BALL AND STOOL

See "Doutee Stool."

STRIKE UP AND LAY DOWN

In this game, which may be joined in by any number of players, one player only is "in" at a time, he being opposed by the remainder of the boys, who are scouting with the object of getting him out as soon as possible.

A circle at one end of the ground should be formed; in which the "in" player, provided with a ball and a round stick of the thickness of a broom handle and about eighteen inches long, takes his place. His play is to throw up the ball, and while it is in the air to knock it with the stick as far away as he can, so long as it is knocked out of bounds. If he hits the ball so that it is caught by any of the scouting players, he and the one who caught the ball change positions; if, however, the ball is not caught, it is picked up by one or other of the scouts, the "in" player places the stick on the ground within the circle, and the scout who has picked up the ball, then throws or bowls it towards the stick, endeavouring to hit it. If the

aim succeeds the scout comes in and the striker of the ball takes up position as a scout. Should, however, the thrower of the ball fail in his aim, the game proceeds as at first. If any player fails three times in succession to strike the ball after it has been thrown by himself in the air, he is out. To decide the next to come in, he has to drop the stick, and the different fielders run in for it, the first to touch being entitled to the innings.

TRAP, BAT, AND BALL

This game is very similar to the above game of Strike Up and Lay Down, except in the manner in which the ball is started.

The ball is placed in a trap (*see illustration*), shaped somewhat like a shoe, which at the heel has been hollowed out like a cup; a handle fixed along the trap is balanced at the middle, and has a flat end which nearly covers the cup-like hole at the heel of the trap. The ball being placed on the flat end of the handle, depresses that end, and upon the other end of the handle being struck smartly with the bat, the ball is sent up into the air, and should then be hit with the bat, and the game proceeded with as in Strike Up and Lay Down. The bat should be about fifteen inches long, the handle being six inches, and the blade of the bat nine. The ball upon being fielded is to be thrown at the trap instead of the bat.



The Trap

The game may be varied by the players, when numerous, being divided into sides, and when such is the case the "out" side only takes part in the fielding.

Points may be scored and counted towards game in the following manner:—When the batsman has hit the ball he should name the number of bats' lengths within which he considers it probable that the scout, who has picked up the ball (or anyone on the opposite side when sides are playing), will be able to throw the ball at the trap; if right in his challenge the number named are points scored; but if the scout throws the ball so as to hit the trap or so as to place the ball when at rest within the distance named, or indeed within one bat's length, if no distance be named, measuring always from the front point of the trap, the player is out. A ball being thrown so as to pass to the rear of the trap without touching it, counts as outside the distance named by the batsman.

Striking the ball with the bat so that it is caught by a scout, or failing to hit the ball with the bat in three successive tries, or striking a ball behind the trap, puts the batsman out.

FIELD GAMES

The games described and mentioned under this heading may be thought to be very similar in character to those styled later on as Playground Games, but it has been thought well to make a distinction between the two, and it will generally be found that the distinction is borne out, and that the games here described are truly "field games," and require either the open country to practise them or else a space of ground larger than generally is allotted to any ordinary school playground.

CATAPULT

The Catapult, like the Boomerang, was originally a weapon employed for attacking enemies or for killing game, by means of the propulsion of darts or arrows, but the toy catapult is mainly used for propelling stones or marbles. It is very simple, and may be easily made, a cleft stick, in the form of a letter Y, with a few inches of stout indiarubber, being the sole requirements. The stick, which should be about six inches in length, must have two prongs or clefts, each about three inches long, with a similar distance between the ends of the prongs, to which ends the indiarubber band should be firmly attached. The stone or marble to be propelled should then be tightly held between the thumb and forefinger of the right hand and placed at the centre of the indiarubber band, but on that side of the band away from the palm of the hand. The handle of the instrument should then be firmly grasped in the left hand, the wooden part of the catapult being held perpendicularly. The holder should next stretch the indiarubber band as far back as possible, pulling it towards his right ear, and keeping it well at right angles with the stick, the ammunition being tightly pressed to the inside of the band. Now let him take a straight aim at the target or object to be hit, and when the weapon is at full tension, suddenly let go the right hand, still keeping the catapult firmly held with the left. Skill in straight shooting may soon be acquired; but this is a dangerous toy to practise with in towns or streets, and we must warn boys against its wanton use, for they will certainly be held responsible for any mischief that may result from their thoughtlessly using the weapon in the neighbourhood of houses. In the country, however, a clever marksman will find many opportunities of displaying his skill without harming anyone.

COASTING

Coasting, or sledging, as it is more familiarly called, is an exciting winter pastime. It can be enjoyed to perfection only in hilly

districts, and during long and severe winters. The "coaster," or "sled," is made in all sizes, and very much in the manner of an ordinary sledge, except that the front part is more turned up to prevent the machine becoming embedded in the snow. The "sled" should be taken to the top of a hill or incline, the slopes of which are covered with snow; passengers then take their seats, one of their number starting the machine by pushing behind and jumping in so soon as sufficient momentum has been obtained. The weight of the coaster and its load will keep it moving, and if the incline be steep the pace will be accordingly fast. The pace may be slackened or increased, and the course guided, by means of short poles thrust from time to time into the snow to the right or left, as necessity requires. For a venturesome boy, a lid of a box or a similarly shaped plank can soon be made into a rough and serviceable sled.

CROSSBOW

The Crossbow as a weapon has long been obsolete. In archery sports it is now rarely if ever seen, and seldom is it that even a boy cares to take his sport with so old-fashioned a toy. It is not easy to make a good crossbow, and it is not cheap to buy one. An ingenious lad will, however, with a piece of stout wood, a piece of cane or whalebone, and some string, make a tolerable substitute for what is not worth the buying. A piece of wood thirty inches long, two inches wide, and half an inch thick should be obtained, and cut down to something of the shape of a gun-stock, a slight groove being scooped out of the thin side from the top, in which should be fastened, a short way down to the butt end, a brass tube, through which the missile which is to be discharged from the bow must travel. A piece of cane or whalebone, from fifteen to eighteen inches in length, should then be thrust through a round hole bored through a piece of projecting wood at the back of the groove, within a few inches of the top of the stock, and a piece of cord or string, the length of the cane or whalebone, should be fastened thereto at both ends. The crossbow is then made and ready for use. With the left hand raise the crossbow, and place the butt to the shoulder, pull the string down until the cane is well bent, place the shot against the string, in the groove before mentioned, take the necessary aim, and suddenly release the string. The rest need not be told. A trigger screw or button fastened to the side of the gun will be useful to attach the cord to when the bow is bent, and when an aim is taken the string may be released by pulling the trigger or turning the button and letting the bow fly up.

JAVELIN

The weapons employed in this game are rods of ash or fir, varying from four to six feet in length, tapering from an inch and a half in diameter at the thick end to about an inch at the thin

end, which should be tipped with an iron spike about two inches long. These spikes, if made to order at the forge of a local blacksmith, and fitted by him on to the rods, will be more serviceable, and probably cheaper, than if purchased in the usual way. A target, at which to throw the javelin, will be required, and it may be improvised out of any convenient material, and marked to suit the fancy of the players; it should be, however, of some soft material, so that a well-thrown javelin will, when striking it, become embedded at the tip.

To throw the javelin, it should be balanced in the hollow of the hand from which it is to be thrown, usually, of course, the right, and held a little above the level of the shoulder; the shaft of the weapon is then to be firmly grasped with the fingers, the thumb being extended along the fingers; the left leg is to be advanced and the body balanced on the right leg. After the aim has been carefully taken the javelin should be hurled towards the object to be hit, and to secure the requisite momentum it will be necessary, when in the act of casting the javelin, to bring the body quickly forward from the right on to the left leg. Left-handed throwers will understand that they must balance themselves on the left leg, advancing when throwing on to the right.

SLEDGING

See "Coasting."

SLING

The construction of the sling is very simple. A piece of leather should be cut into an oval shape, being not more than two inches in width at its broadest part, and five inches long. A piece of string should be fastened to each end of the leather, and at the end of one of the pieces of string a loop should be made; the string with the loop being about twenty-seven inches in length, the other about twenty-four inches. In use, a stone, pebble, or bullet is to be placed in the centre of the leather, the loop of the one string placed round the little finger, and the end of the other string being held between the forefinger and the thumb. Upon the sling being then whirled swiftly round the head, and the shorter string suddenly released, the stone will be sent to a considerable distance with very remarkable force and speed.

Although accuracy of aim may be ensured by frequent practice in this way, it is yet very dangerous for a novice to try his hand at it, unless he is very cautious in his first endeavours. The sling, like the catapult, and other toys of a similar nature, should be used only in the open country, and not brought into the streets or playgrounds.

TOBOGGANING

See "Coasting."

KITE-FLYING

ABOUT MAKING CALICO AND PAPER KITES

HAVING decided upon the size, the skeleton is to be prepared in the following manner (see Fig. 1). A straight, strong but light lath should be obtained, of the required length, to form the backbone of the kite; it should be shaped to a point at the top. A small piece should be notched out of the lath a short way from the top on each side, and also on each side a little way from the bottom. A notch is also to be cut at the point H in the figure. The backbone is marked in the diagram A B. The "bow" or "bender," marked C D, should be of a piece of plain wood, such as may be obtained from the ash or hazel, should a piece of cane not be readily procurable. A piece of a wooden hoop, thinned down to the thickness of a common cane, will be found useful out of which to form the bow. Whatever it be, it is essential that it be of equal thickness and weight throughout its whole extent, and that its length be about the same as that of the backbone. The exact centre of the bow should next be ascertained, and fastened with thin string to that point of the backbone where the first two notches were cut. A small notch is then to be cut at each end of the bow, and the bow bent down to the points marked E and F. In the diagram the thick lines represent the bow and the backbone of the kite, which are made of wood, as above described;

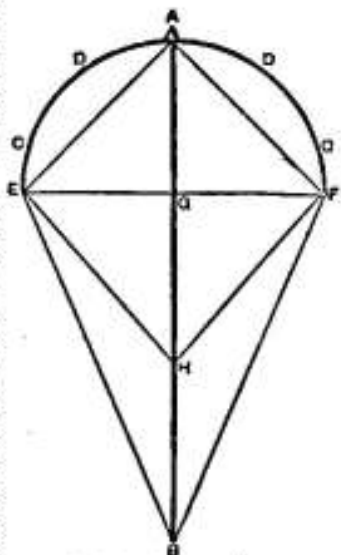


Fig. 1—Skeleton Kite

the thin lines represent string, and should be secured to the wooden frame as follows:—Secure the end of the string at the point E, pass it on then in succession to the points B, F, E, A, F, H and E, fastening the string at each point, and upon passing the string from F to E twist it once round the backbone at the point G. The skeleton is then complete; but if the balance is not quite true, shavings from the heavier side should be sufficient to remedy the defect.

Having agreed to use paper as the covering, it should be cut of

the shape of the kite, leaving a margin just sufficient to overlap the bow and the strings, so as to curl round; the edges of the paper should then be fastened to the frame of the skeleton by means of gum or paste, and left to dry. The covering is to be secured to the backbone of the kite by pasting some slips of paper across the back of the kite. If the kite is large it is also well to secure the covering to the cross strings in the same manner. Should it be found that one sheet of paper is of insufficient size, two or more sheets may be pasted together, the edges of which should overlap about an inch. Calico, or materials of that nature, may be sewn on the strings and bow instead of being pasted on, and should in that way also be secured at the back to the cross strings and the backbone. Before securing the covering to the backbone two holes should be pierced therein, the one at the fifth of the whole length from the top, the other at a trifle less than the same distance from the bottom. Through these holes a string is to be passed and fastened at the back of the kite; this string is known as the "belly-band," and to it is fastened the string by which the kite is flown.

The kite proper is now complete; but as the kite cannot fly without a tail, the construction of that appendage is next to be proceeded with. Ordinarily, the tail is a long string with pieces of folded paper fastened on to it at regular intervals. Its length depends on the size of the kite and the weight of the string and paper out of which the tail is made, together with a number of other considerations, all of which experience will soon point out. It should, however, never be less than twelve times the length of the kite, and the longer it is the better, so long as the kite is big enough to carry it. The tail papers should be tied on by noose knots, and at intervals of from three to four inches. A paper tassel tied to the end of the tail forms a graceful finish. The tail is then complete and ready to be fastened to the bottom of the kite; for convenience of carrying it is better to keep it rolled up, and to fasten it on only when the kite is in the field from which it is to be flown. The use of the tail is to steady the kite and to keep the kite's head to the wind. If the kite seems to rise with difficulty the tail has probably been made too heavy; should the kite dip and plunge, or show a tendency to topple over, the tail is probably too light, and may be resighted with any convenient object, a stone or piece of turf being generally found handy and serviceable.

Wings or tassels attached to the ends of the bow add to the graceful appearance of the kite, but will usually be found to diminish its flying powers. Experience will in this matter, as indeed in all others, soon teach when tassels may be judiciously affixed and when removed, the state of the wind having very much to do with all these questions of additions to and ornamentations of kites.

Upon the preceding instructions being carried out, a useful kite of the common pattern will have been made, and although the

pattern and form of the kite may be much varied, it being sometimes made of very fantastic shapes, the above will be found to be the best kite for flying. Some of these fantastic shapes will be mentioned farther on; but first a few words of

ADVICE ABOUT FLYING

had better be given. As to the day on which to fly the kite, it is necessary to say that a calm day is of no use, and a stormy day with a gale blowing is not much better; a nice bright day, with a steady, even breeze, should be fixed upon for choice. The end of a ball of string should then be tied on to the belly-band of the kite, in just that place most suited to the capabilities of the kite, for it will vary with every kite. To raise the kite, assistance from a friend will be required. The friend should hold the kite upwards by the lower end as far from the ground as he can. Sufficient length of string being unwound from the ball, he who is about to fly the kite should, string in hand, face towards the wind, and having given the signal to let the kite go, start off at a run. The kite being properly made, if the breeze is suitable the kite will soon rise, and the run need be neither very far nor very fast, for a good kite will soon find its balance, and float quite steadily in the air, slowly rising upwards as more string is gradually unwound. The string should, however, be let out only gradually, and in such a way as to keep, as it were, a gentle hold on the kite. When the kite pulls let it have a little liberty, but as a good driver always feels his horse's mouth on the reins, so should the kite flyer always feel the kite on the string, and string should not be paid out except when it is called for. A kite will not rise to an unlimited height, but by fastening one kite to the back of another, and starting the second kite as the first was started, and so on, two, three, or more kites may, with a favourable wind, be sent to a very great height. To bring the kite down is an easy matter. The string that has been paid out is to be slowly wound up, so as to bring the kite down gradually, any sudden jerk being avoided; the kite may thus, by careful treatment, be taken safely home, and be fit to fly again some other day.

Large kites are sometimes effectively coloured and marked with various patterns, according to taste; but, as a general rule, all ornamentation whatever should be done in the boldest possible style. Brilliant colours and decided lines alone are to be employed, or the decorative work will be entirely lost to sight. The colouring may be painted on the kite, but any addition of this sort is most effectual when the figures to be portrayed are cut out of coloured tissue paper and pasted on the body of the kite.

Although a kite flies best when made after the model described above, it may be much varied and made in such a way as to represent different objects or figures. An ingenious maker will soon discover forms and figures that will suit his own fancy; but, among

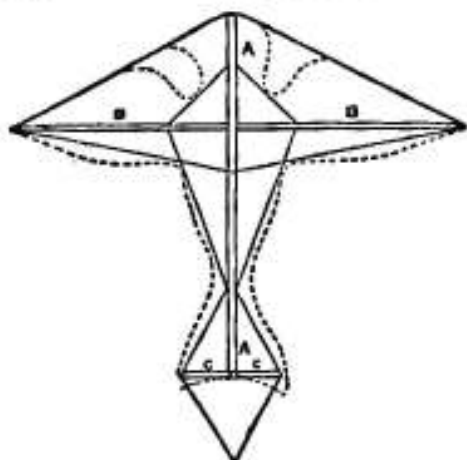


Fig. 2.—Skeleton of Bird Kite

(B B) fixed about a third of the length of the upright from the top, and a smaller cross-piece (C C) fitted at the bottom of the upright. The head and beak should be of bonnet wire or split cane, and secured in a notch at the top of the upright. The string should then be placed as shown in the thin lines in the accompanying figure, and the skeleton is then to be covered as explained in the preceding description, the covering being cut out as nearly as possible in the manner shown by the dotted lines. It will be understood that the double lines in the figure are intended to represent the upright and the two cross-pieces. The larger cross-piece may be jointed at an inch or two from the point where it is attached to the upright, and in flying, if strings are attached to the points of the wings they may be made to flap in the air, and by a little management hawk-like swoops and pounces

others, the Bird, Dog and Fish Kites may be more fully described, and it will, indeed, be found that almost any oblong figure can be made in such a way as to fly more or less successfully.

BIRD KITE

This should be made to represent a bird, say a hawk, with its wings outspread. It makes a very pretty toy, and when high in the air forms a pleasing and natural-looking object. The skeleton (Fig. 2) consists of an upright (A A), with a large cross-piece



Fig. 3.—Bird Kite complete

may be very fairly imitated. Fig. 3 shows the bird kite in its completed state.

The foregoing description of the Bird Kite must be taken as an example only of the form out of which kites to represent birds may be made. A favourite specimen, representing a large bat, may frequently be seen on commons and parks during the early summer months, which may be taken as the time of year during which kite-flying is fashionable.

DOG KITE

This kite is made in a similar manner to the preceding one, but in order to obtain the requisite shape, it is to be made in imitation of a dog sitting on its haunches, or standing on its hind legs. The top cross-piece, however, of this kite must be much smaller in proportion than that shown in the figure explaining the instructions as to making the Bird Kite.

FISH KITE

For kites of the fish shape, again, a backbone and two cross-pieces are required, the larger being placed well up towards the top of the kite and at the back of the fins, the shorter cross-piece being made to serve as the framework for the tail. As in the previous shapes the outlines must be secured on string stretched as nearly as possible at the outside edge of the toy. Before dismissing the subject of kites from notice, there remains to say a little on the subject of

BOX KITES

These kites are so called because they are made in the outline of a box, of which the middle portions have been cut away (see Fig. 4), and will reach a great height. They are often used in these days for advertising purposes, having flags or banners attached to them. On page 290 will be found diagrams of kites of various shapes, all of which are fairly easy to make, and are noted for their flying powers.

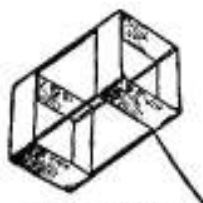


Fig 4.—Box kite.

MESSENGERS

In flying a kite, and when all the string is paid out, or when the kite shows no tendency to fly any higher, the fun, with the exception of hauling down, would be over, were it not for the messengers, and by the aid of these clever little people the amusement may be prolonged considerably.

Messengers may be made in various ways; ordinarily they are small pieces of paper or pasteboard three or four inches square with a hole in the centre. The end of the string held in the hand, and

which is the extreme end of that attached to the kite, is to be passed through the hole in the messenger, which will then be swiftly borne along the string by the wind right up to the kite flying so peacefully high in the air. These messengers may be sent from time to time, but the number must be limited, or they will prove too heavy for the kite, and drag it prematurely down. A more complicated form of messenger consists of a hollow cylinder of thin wood, the diameter of which is sufficient to allow of its free revolution round the string; to the cylinder are attached in an oblique direction several

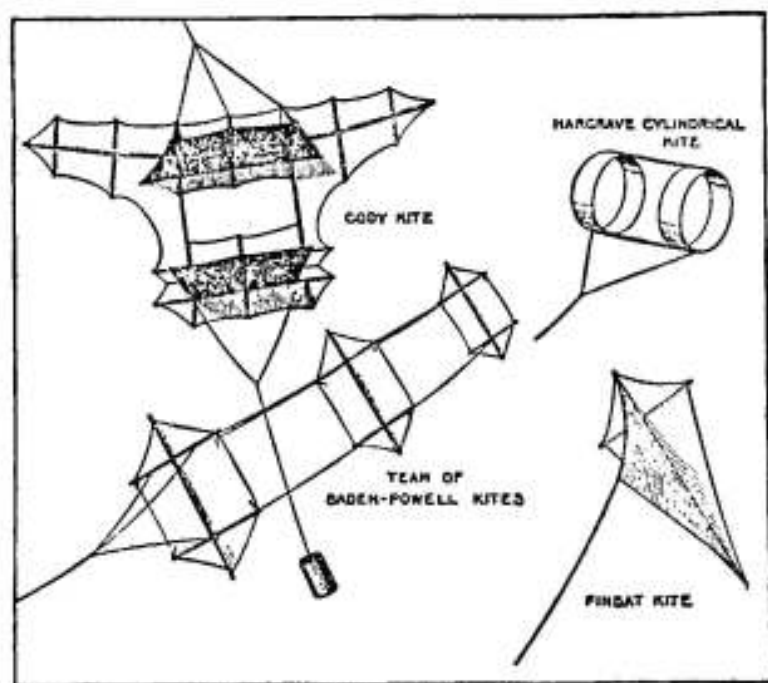


Fig. 5.—HIGH-FLYING KITES.

flappers, or sails made of paper. The action of the wind on these flappers will cause the cylinder to revolve, and carry the messenger upwards to its destination.

As a final hint to kite-flyers, it should be said that a clear open space, as free as possible of trees, houses, or hedges, should be chosen for the kite in its descent is apt to be somewhat erratic in its course, and if caught on any of the objects named, it is likely to be so seriously damaged as to be of no further service without spending much time and care on its renovation.

MARBLE GAMES

ABOUT SHOOTING THE MARBLES

ALL boys careful to do well that which is done at all should, before entering into any contested marble games, be quite satisfied that they thoroughly understand how to shoot a marble in the truly scientific and orthodox manner. There is only one way to shoot a marble properly. There may be plenty of ways never yet recorded as to the manner in which a marble may be projected from the hand unscientifically, but among the unscientific modes that have been recorded, and all of which should be unhesitatingly discarded in the higher marble games, are the following:—Marbles are sometimes irregularly bowled, or thrown, or shot, by placing the marble in the bent joint of the forefinger, and projecting it by means of the top of the thumb, commonly called "fulking"); but these and the kindred methods must not, under any circumstances, be resorted to by those who would be even considered able to play marbles. To shoot properly, correctly, and accurately, the marble is to be placed just above the first joint of the thumb of the right hand, and held there by the tip of the forefinger, the top of the thumb being firmly grasped by the middle finger, bent for the purpose (*see diagram*). The aim is then to be taken, and the thumb let fly with such a force as to shoot the marble away with the required speed. With practice great skill may soon be obtained, a fairly good shot being able to hit another marble nine times out of ten at a distance of several feet. In marble games, as, indeed, in all shooting practice, it should be remembered that the object aimed at is to be steadily looked at, its exact position being thoroughly taken in by the eye; the marble to be shot being firmly grasped by a hand in strict obedience to the brain of the shooter, it will find its correct position without any guidance sensible to the player. In discharging the marble from the thumb great care is to be taken to keep the hand perfectly still; the forefinger knuckle should be made to touch the ground, and not moved until the marble has been fairly shot away. The success of a shot depends, next to the skill of the shooter, on the quality of the marble. It should be of the very hardest material, perfectly round, with no dents or cracks in it. Generally, however, marbles are not shot to-day; they are bowled—which is quite unscientific, boys will derive much more pleasure from shooting than they will from the modern methods of playing, for as will be seen there is much more skill required.



How to Shoot the Marble

ARCH-BOARD

This game is also known sometimes by the name of Bridge-board, and sometimes by that of Nine Holes. For it a narrow piece of thin board is required, in which nine arches are to be cut, each arch being a trifle over an inch in height, but less than an inch wide. Over each arch a number should be written, these numbers varying according to the general size of the arches, and according to the skill of the players. If the arches are small and the players indifferent shots, the numbers may be 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8; higher numbers than these should never be used. The lowest numbers should be an alternation of noughts and ones. A mean between the two, however, will generally be the best to fix upon, and they should be arranged with the low numbers in the middle of the bridge, and the high numbers at the corners, something in the following order: 3 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 3. One player is then to be made bridge-keeper, the remainder shooting from a point about four feet or four feet and a half from the centre of the bridge. For every shot that fails to make any hole a marble is to be paid to the bridge-keeper, but for every successful shot marbles corresponding in number with that written over the arch under which the shot marble went, are to be paid by the bridge-keeper to the shooter. As the position of bridge-keeper is generally a lucrative one, he is to be changed at every round, and every player in succession should take his stand at the bridge.

BOUNCE EYE

A circle about a foot in diameter is to be made on the ground, and each player is to subscribe one marble to form a pool. The marbles comprising the pool are then placed in a cluster in the middle of the circle, and lots drawn to decide the order of the players. The first player then stands over the ring, and taking a marble between his thumb and forefinger, holds it near his eye, taking aim so as to let it fall into the middle of the marbles in the ring. Upon the marble being dropped, any marbles driven by it out of the ring become the property of the player. If, however, no marbles are knocked out, the cluster is again formed, one marble being paid thereto by the player to atone for his unfortunate aim. So on the game proceeds until the pool is dry, when a new subscription may be made and the game recommenced.

DIE SHOT

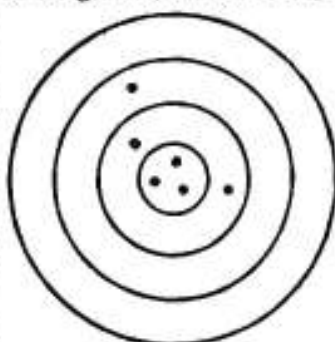
This game requires skill and caution in shooting, and the players should arrange themselves as in the game of Arch-board; that is, one should be selected as the "die-keeper," who is to be changed with every round, so that all the players alternately have the office. A marble ground down slightly at its sides is to be obtained, together with a cube-die, marked in the usual manner on its various sides from one to six. The marble is then to be placed on the ground with the die on the top. The various players then, in their different

turns, knuckle down at a point from four to six feet from the die, and aim at it, endeavouring to knock it over. For every shot made, whether successful or the reverse, the die-keeper has to be paid one marble, and every time the die is knocked off the player whose marble knocked it off receives from the die-keeper marbles corresponding in number with that which the die shows uppermost.

FORTIFICATIONS

The game called Fortifications is but little known out of France, in which country it has obtained very considerable popularity. It is, however, nothing more than a variation of other marble games, differing but little, and that only in detail, and not at all in principle, from the more generally known game of Ring Taw, or the locally known game of Increase Pound, though, as a slight variation on this, it will be found interesting.

Several concentric circles should be marked out on a piece of tolerably level ground, the circles varying from six or nine inches to ten or twelve feet in diameter, the outer circle being at least two feet outside that next inside. The outer circle is to be left empty; in the first inner circle each player should place one marble, in the second two marbles, and in the next three marbles, and so on; but unless the players are very anxious for a long game, four circles, each player placing three marbles in the innermost circle, and two and one respectively in the next two circles, will be found generally sufficient (see diagram). The innermost circle is called the "fort," and contains the prize most to be desired. The players having decided the order of their play, No. 1 knuckles down at the outside circle and shoots his "taw," endeavouring to knock a marble from the second circle; if he succeeds he pockets the marble and leaves his "taw" where it rested; if, on the contrary, he fails to secure a marble from the circle in question, he pays a forfeit of one to that circle. No. 2 proceeds in the same way, but no player shoots more times in succession, until every player has had a chance, than he placed marbles in the circle which is being attacked. Upon the first round being completed, No. 1 begins again, it being understood that no inner fortification be attacked until the one immediately outside it has been completely cleared. No player who has failed to secure at least one marble from the circle attacked is allowed to participate in the attacks on those within, but retires until a fresh game is started. After the first shot the player has to knuckle down where his "taw" rests, or, if he elects to do so, at any



Plan of Fortifications

point on the outside circle; nothing is gained by striking an opponent's "taw"; but if it be struck it must remain at the spot to which it is knocked. A "taw" may be temporarily lifted to allow of a clear shot at a marble when necessary. Upon the attack on the circle in which the players have each placed two marbles a successful shot entitles the player to a follow; and when the next inner circle is attacked two successful shots give the right to a third try, and so on when the circles are more numerous, it, however, being clearly understood that every unsuccessful shot entails the penalty of one marble to be paid into the circle or fortification under attack.

HANDERS

Handers, or Tip-shears, is another of the many marble games in which chance plays a very considerable part. A small hole, about three inches wide, is made in the ground, at least a foot distant from a wall. The players decide the order in which they shall play by standing at a point a few yards away from the hole, and each bowling or pitching a marble towards the hole. The order of proximity in which the marbles lie to the hole is the order to be taken by the players. If more than one marble should have gone into the hole, the owners of those marbles throw again for the earlier places. Each player then subscribes one or more marbles, as may have been decided upon; the first player taking all, and throwing them together towards the hole, is considered the possessor of all that roll therein, return bounces not being counted. The remainder is then to be handed to the next player for a similar purpose, and with a like result, and so on. As each subscription is exhausted a fresh one is made, the player next in turn having first try with the new subscription. The winnings and losings are not so large when a condition is made that if the number of marbles falling into the hole is odd—say one, three, five, or seven—the player who threw them shall pocket none, but if an even number fall in—say two, four, six, or eight—then these will belong to him; or vice versa, the odd number being taken and the even left.

INCREASE POUND

Two concentric circles are to be made, the one with a diameter of from six to nine inches, which is called the "pound"; the other, known as the "bar," being ten to twelve feet in diameter. Each player puts one or more marbles into the pound; player No. 1, knuckling down at any point of the bar, shoots his taw at the pound. If he knocks a marble out it becomes his, if he fail his taw is to remain where it rests, if within the bar and outside the pound. If within the pound, the taw has to be lifted, and a forfeit of one marble paid to the pound. Player No. 2 follows, and may shoot either at his opponent's taw or at the pound, and if he hits the taw the owner thereof subscribes further to the general fund, and so on. If a

taw struck by the taw of another player has, during the game, made any winnings, such winnings have to be handed to the owner of the last-shot taw, the taw struck being also fined, as stated.

PICKING THE PLUMS

A straight line is to be drawn on the ground, and each player is to place thereon one or more marbles, the marbles being arranged at distances of about an inch apart. A parallel line is then drawn at a distance to be decided upon, but usually varying from four to eight feet. The order of the players is to be arranged in some manner similar to that described under the heading of *Handers*, and each one then, in proper order, "knuckles down" at the last-drawn line, and, by shooting his "taw," endeavours to pick a plum off the other line. A successful shot entitles the marksman to the plum, but not to a second shot. When the plums are all picked a fresh subscription should be made. Many boys play a modern variant of this game; a groove is made in the ground by the side of a wall, and each player puts a certain number of marbles in the groove, touching each other. Then at a specified distance the players, in turn, with a sideways, downward swoop, throw their taw at the line of marbles, the aim being to knock out as many as is possible. All so knocked out are the property of the player who is thus successful. It will be evident that if the right-hand marble in the groove is hit there is quite the possibility that even the whole line of marbles may be knocked out.

PYRAMID

Some enterprising boy is needed to start this game. He draws a circle on the ground and places in it a number of marbles—usually four—pyramid fashion, that is, three marbles at the three points of a triangle, the fourth resting on the top. He then charges those wishing to play a marble for a shot, which is usually taken at a distance of four, five, or six feet. All the marbles knocked out of the ring become the property of the shooter, and the pyramid has to be again formed, at the expense of the pyramid-keeper. Pyramid-keeping is generally considered the more profitable part of the game.

RING TAW

This is, after all, about the best of all the many marble games known. It contains in itself a happy combination of luck and skill that together go so far to make up that which is exhilarating in all games. A game of mere skill soon becomes wearisome from the very certainty of knowing beforehand what the result must be; while the mere game of chance fosters an unhealthy feverishness peculiar to the gambler.

A piece of fairly smooth ground should be selected, and on it a small circle, of about a foot in diameter, is to be drawn. Into this ring each player puts one or more marbles, as may be agreed upon,

the marbles being placed, as near as possible, at equal distances from each other. An outer circle, the ring of which is some six or seven feet from the ring of the inner circle, is then to be made, the ring of which is called indifferently the "offing," "bar," "balk," or "taw-line," and from it the various players hoot their taws.

The order of the players may be decided in any way, but some way similar to that described above in the game of Handers will generally be found to be the most satisfactory.

The opening player shoots his taw from the taw-line at the marbles in the ring. Should he knock one or more out he wins it or them, as the case may be, and is entitled to shoot again at the marbles from the spot where his taw rests. Whenever a player fails to shoot a marble out of the ring, the right of shooting passes, the succeeding players having the right to shoot at their opponents' taws, as well as at the marbles in the ring, provided always such taws remain at some point within the ring of one or other of the circles. A player hitting a taw receives a marble from the owner thereof, and is entitled to a further shot.

So on the game proceeds, until the ring is cleared. It should be insisted upon that no player may shoot at another player's taw more than once in succession.

THREE HOLES

This is a game affording good amusement to several players, and is in some districts as popular as that of Ring Taw. Three holes are made in the ground, each of them about an inch deep and two inches in diameter, the distance between them being from a yard to a yard and a half. The holes may be placed relatively in any position, but should be numbered one, two and three, and must be played at in that order. A starting-point a yard and a half from No. 1 is to be fixed, and the order of the players arranged. They each, in their respective turns, try to put their taws successively into the different holes, he who first succeeds winning a marble from each one of the other players. When the first hole has been passed, a player has the right to shoot at an opponent's taw as well as at the next hole, and as each successful shot entitles to a follow, the way onwards may be thus considerably helped, and in addition the owner of the taw hit has to pay a fine to the successful shot. No one taw may be hit more than once by any one other taw while passing between the same holes. A hole successfully reached entitles to a following shot. The game may be continued up and down as long as time will allow or the players desire, a marble being collected all round every time a third hole is passed. Any player should be at liberty to retire from a game when he chooses.

In some districts variations in this game will be found; they are, however, but slight, and the above is not antagonistic to the practice obtaining in any district.

PLAYGROUND GAMES

It is, from a superficial point of view, quite correct to say that many of the playground games indulged in by lads of school age are boisterous and rough; that they are senseless in their design and inartistic in the manner in which they are carried out; but, like most remarks of a superficial character, it needs but little penetration to detect the selfishness and affectation that underlie this apparently candid criticism.

The games described under this heading are, for the most part, recommended because of their simplicity and their ready adaptability to different circumstances; they may be played at by the poor lad just escaped from the public elementary school, as well as by the young gentleman let loose for a short period from the lectures of learned dons in the different University training schools. The boisterousness and roughness characteristic of some of the games, paradoxical as it may sound, give scope for the practice of "gentlemanliness," as well as gentleness; and by rendering necessary a hearty readiness to give and take, form a training for the real hardships that sooner or later come to all. Above all, they attain the object for which they were instituted, in affording a variety of fun, amusement, and recreation to hard-worked schoolboys.

BASTE THE BEAR

Lord Macaulay remarks, in his "History of England," that the Puritans objected to the old English pastime of Baiting the Bear, "not because it gave pain to the bear, but because it gave pleasure to the spectators." It is to be hoped that no one will prohibit the game of Baste the Bear for similar reasons.

From among the players one to take the office of bear is to be selected, and he chooses another player to act as his keeper. The bear, with a cord or rope about four or five feet long tied round his waist, has then to take his place, crouching on his hands and knees, within a circle of a yard and a half, or thereabouts, in diameter; the keeper holding the further end of the rope. The remainder of the players are then entitled to baste the bear, that is, to flog him on the back with knotted handkerchiefs. If, however, without the bear quitting the circle or getting off his knees, either he or his keeper can catch any player, that player becomes the bear, and the first bear is released. Every bear has the right to select from the other players his own keeper.

Considerable difficulty is often experienced in catching a player

in the limited space allowed to the bear and his keeper; but, on the other hand, it requires a good deal of nimbleness to give the bear a very severe basting.

BATTLE FOR THE BANNER

Versions of this game will be found under different names; but the peculiarity in the game of Battle for the Banner is that a banner is the object struggled for.

The players are to be divided into two sides, each under a captain, the one side defending the banner, which is to be securely placed in the ground on the top of a mound, the opposite attacking and endeavouring to carry it off. The defending force should place themselves on and around the mound, and as the different members of the attacking force come up, should do their best to repel them. Pushing and wrestling are perfectly fair, both in the attack and the defence, and any member of either party being thrown or pushed to the ground is considered a dead man, and takes no further part in the play until the attack succeeds or the attacking force is all dead. Upon the banner being captured the attacking party becomes the custodian and defender thereof. It is quite needless to suggest to schoolboy ingenuity how a banner may very easily be provided.

BLACKTHORN

See "King Senio."

BUCK, BUCK, HOW MANY FINGERS DO I HOLD UP?

This is a game for three boys, called respectively the Master, the Buck, and the Frog, who should alternately fill the various offices. The Master places himself with his back to the wall, and has to guard over the interests of the Buck. The Buck makes a back by bending down and placing his head at the pit of the Master's stomach. Frog then takes a leap and seats himself straddle-leg fashion on Buck's back, and asks the question that gives the game its name, at the same time holding up his right hand with or without some or all of his fingers distended. If Buck in answering has guessed the right number he is released, but if he has failed to do so Frog keeps his seat until a correct guess is made. The number of fingers held up may be varied after each guess. When the guess has been correctly made, Frog becomes Buck, Buck becomes Master, and Master becomes Frog, and so on with each change.

BULL IN THE RING

Bull is to be selected from among the players, and for the office there will be many aspirants, as it is the post of honour in the game. He is to be enclosed in a ring made by the other boys joining hands around him. Bull takes his stand in the ring with arms folded akimbo, and must not unfold them so long as the circle is com-

plete. It is his business to escape by rushing, shouldering, or bludging at the players forming the ring, and it is their business to prevent him. Bull will make his rush at that quarter where he thinks it will be least expected or where the ring is least firmly formed, and upon his forcing his way out he may unfold his arms and run away. The players then, loosing hands, join in pursuit, he who first reaches the Bull being Bull next time.

If the Bull likes he may escape by dodging under the joined hands of any two of the players who form the ring; but this method of escape is considered to be *infra dig.* except for a boy smaller than the average of the other players; it should be a point of honour with the Bull fairly to force his way out somewhere or other. It is the custom also for the Bull to give warning every time he makes a rush by shouting "Boo!"

CAT AND MOUSE

This is a game said to be of French origin, and it is hardly probable that other nationalities will be pertinacious in claiming its invention. Two players only take part in the game, and they are to be blindfolded and tied to a tree or post by means of two long strings; the longer the strings the more the fun, provided the space they cover is all clear. One player is called the Cat, and the other the Mouse. The Mouse is to be provided with two pieces of wood, with the edges of one piece so notched that upon its being rubbed on to the other piece it will make a grating sound. The Cat's business is to catch the Mouse, and the noise produced by the occasional rubbing together of these pieces of wood is his only clue to the whereabouts of the Mouse. Every time the Mouse is caught the players change places.

The brilliant genius who first planned this game had, no doubt, the amusement of the spectators in view rather than that of the players, but even then, and to the spectators, the fun must have depended entirely upon the effectual blindfolding of both the players.

COCK-FIGHTING

This game evidently is another relic of the barbarity of our forefathers, and must have been suggested to some quick-witted lad upon hearing of the exploits in some cockpit.

Cock-fighting is a game for two; the players, with arms akimbo, face and, lifting each one leg, hop towards the other, and while hopping with folded arms each one endeavours by any and every possible means so to buffet his opponent as to make him seek the support of his lifted foot to retain his balance. He that keeps hopping the longest is entitled to a ride, "pick-a-back" fashion, upon his opponent. The length of the ride should be decided before the play begins.

Another form of the game consists in each player putting himself

OUTDOOR SPORTS

in a sitting posture, and grasping his knees with his hands. While in this position, a stick is passed behind the bend of the knee and across the arm at the elbow joint, thus effectually locking him together, for so long as the stick remains in its place it is impossible for the player to stand up. Each player, when thus secured, jumps about butting at his opponent, the aim of each being, of course, to lay the other low.

CROSS TOUCH

A considerable number of boys playing at Cross Touch in a limited space is about as much like a swarm of gnats on a summer's evening as a crowd of hearty boys can be like a swarm of gnats. To start the game a pursuer and a pursued have to be named, and it is the business of the pursuer to touch the pursued before any other player passes between them, or, before the pursued runs so as to place some other player between himself and the pursuer. The player so passing, or being thrust forward, is then chased, and so on until the pursuer succeeds in touching some player before he is crossed by any other player. This is an exceedingly pretty and lively game when entered into with spirit, but it requires a good deal of dash to keep up the interest of it.

DRAWING THE BADGER

See "Fox."

DRILL SERGEANT

This game will be recognised by many as an old favourite, more generally known as The Fugleman. The players arrange themselves in a line, and having selected one of their number to act as the Drill Sergeant, proceed to carry out his instructions, and to show themselves to the best of their ability to be a well-drilled squad. The Sergeant's instructions are simple in the extreme, but it is frequently found they are difficult of execution. They never vary, and are comprised in the double order of "Do as I do," and "Don't laugh." It will be readily understood that what is only strange if performed by one boy standing by himself becomes highly ridiculous and absurd when done in time by a row of, say, ten to twenty, and the result is, as maybe expected, that the Sergeant sets such feats to be performed as will soon provoke a titter, if not a loud guffaw, from some member or members of the squad under his orders. The member laughing is set out, and as soon as half the squad is so disposed of the remainder jump upon their backs, having earned the right by a greater command over their risible nerves to a ride pick-a-back fashion round the playground, the Sergeant, armed with a knotted handkerchief, urging on the unwilling steeds by a timely application of the handkerchief to that portion of the laggard's person that is most get-at-able.

It should be understood that the Drill Sergeant may set no feat that involves moving away from the position he first took up. This

regulation prevents any infringement on the rights of Follow my Leader, a game more fully described further on.

DROPPING THE HANDKERCHIEF

A large ring is to be formed by all the players, except one, joining hands. Twenty players at least are required for a good game. The boy standing out takes a handkerchief and walks round outside the ring, flapping the handkerchief at everyone's back until he chooses to drop it behind some one particular player. He then makes off, dodging in and out under the outstretched hands of those forming the ring, pursued by him behind whom the handkerchief was dropped, the gap in the ring being made up by the two boys standing next grasping hands. If the pursuer is successful in the chase, he stands out and repeats the first progress, the pursued joining in the ring, but if the latter eludes his pursuit he again has the office of dropping the handkerchief. The pursuer in this game, when played among boys in a playground, is bound to follow exactly in the wake of the pursued, dodging in and out of the ring in just the same places.

There is another version of this game also, known as Kiss-in-the-Ring, common at picnics, fairs, and out-of-door summer gatherings of all sorts, joined in by youths (and adults too) of both sexes. The mode of procedure, so far as dropping the handkerchief is concerned, is the same as above, except that the handkerchief is always to be dropped behind one of the opposite sex. In the chase that ensues the fugitive may dodge in and out of the ring, or run right away, followed, of course, by the pursuer, who is entitled to exact a toll of the pursued when the chase has successfully terminated. This toll is generally demanded and paid within the ring.

DUCK-STONE

This is a game that may be managed by as few as three players; but with eight or ten, or even more, it makes a capital smart and interesting pastime, involving the constant use of sharp eyes and nimble feet. A rough lump of stone from nine inches to a foot square should be obtained and set up for a block, and the players should each be provided with a stone of about the size of a cricket ball. Stones that will not easily chip are to be selected for preference, and flints are always to be avoided.

A line is then to be drawn about fifteen to twenty yards from the block, the ground beyond the line being known as "home."

The players then, standing at home, "pick for duck," that is, they throw their stone towards the block, and he whose stone remains farthest from the block is first Duck.

Duck then places his stone upon the block, and takes his place beside it. The remaining players then throw their stones so as to try and dislodge the duck-stone, but if their throws fail, their stones are impounded, and they are not allowed to touch them, except with

the risk of being touched and made Duck, unless some one of their fellows is successful in dislodging the duck. In the event of the duck-stone being dislodged a general stampede to get home takes place, but if Duck can replace his stone on the block and touch anyone running home, the one so touched is made Duck; but sometimes when a sharp player is so touched he will immediately run and place his stone on the block and touch the former Duck again, before he has had time to recover his stone and run home. Upon this being done the new Duck does not lose his freedom.

If, however, as often happens, Duck's stone remains secure on the top of the block after all have had their throw at it, the players are at Duck's mercy, and have to make terms with him to get home again. They, or any one of them, may propose to take a "jump" home—that is, to take the stone between the feet and make for home so loaded by short jumps; or a "heeler" may be asked for, which is a kick by the heel of the stone homewards; or another alternative is to apply for a "sling," which consists in working the stone on to the forepart of the foot, and from there giving it a jerk towards home. If in attempting either of these the player fails in the "jump" by dropping the stone, or in the "heeler" or the "sling," by "heeling" or "slinging" the stone short of home, then he becomes Duck, and the block being by that means uncovered, the remaining players are all released and run home.

Duck may, if he chooses, refuse all these proposals and insist upon a run home; that is, that all shall pick up their stones and run for it, in which attempt Duck will be pretty certain to obtain his release, by managing to touch some one of the players.

When any player is attempting a "jump," a "heeler," or a "sling," no other player must attempt to get home, as Dick's attention will be fully taken up with the one who is endeavouring to come to terms and arrange a compromise with the Duck.

FLY THE GARTER

This game consists mainly in jumping over a back, leapfrog fashion, the back being moved by degrees to a greater and greater distance from the point at which the jump has to be commenced, until some one of the players fails, when the game recommences with a new back.

The boy first to form a back should be selected in some manner agreeable to all; he has then to bend his back, placing his hands on his knees, tucking in his head (commonly known as his "tuppenny"), and elevating his shoulders. A garter is then to be made, usually a line of collected dust answers the purpose, and the back placing himself alongside the garter gives the opportunity to all to leap over him. The players leap by placing their hands on the "back," and, straddle-legged, spring over. Should any player step on the garter he has to release the back that is down, and himself become

back. After all the players have safely passed over, the last player calls "Foot it," whereupon the back places the heel of his right foot in the hollow of the left, then moves the left foot so that the hollow thereof covers the toe of the right, and next brings the right foot to a level with the left, when he will find himself a foot's length removed from the garter. The process of flying then proceeds as before, and so on, the back being instructed to foot it after each round. It is obvious that very soon the spring or fly must be taken before the hands touch the back, and it will not be long before either the garter is trodden upon or one of the players comes to grief in attempting the fly.

This game is also known as Foot It, or Foot and a Half.

FOLLOW MY LEADER

This is a game embracing within itself most of the peculiarities and eccentricities appertaining to that of Drill Sergeant or Fugleman, already described, and also some of the practice inherent in that of Paper Hunt.

Choose one out of the number of players to act as leader, and as upon him will rest the whole responsibility of the game, and upon him will depend mainly what amount of fun and amusement will be had out of the game, see that he is both capable of leading and of a lively and amusing temperament. When the leader has been chosen, the remaining players arrange themselves behind him in single file; and the fun and sport then commences. Whatever the leader may do, and wherever the leader may go, that the followers have to do and there they have to go. Anyone failing in either of these respects is to be sent to the end of the line, and as everyone will be anxious to secure the pre-eminence that excellence in performance as well as attention can secure, the playmates of the delinquent will be interested in enforcing this rule, and seeing that he takes the position assigned to those who shirk what the leader has done.

The game makes a capital introduction to such field games as Paper Hunt, Hare and Hounds, and Steeple Chase, as the followers have to go through whatever difficulties the leader may set, and it will astonish many to discover what feats they can accomplish when following others—feats which, were they by themselves, they would almost consider it foolhardiness to attempt.

The leader, too, although both capable and lively, should be considerate of the weaker ones among his followers, caring more to secure a willing following and to inspire each with confidence in himself, rather than to set astounding or hazardous feats—feats easy, perhaps, for an active big boy, which may probably be dangerous for a high-spirited youngster to attempt, but which it would be humbling to him to fail at, having once joined in the game, and thereby expressed his willingness to follow wherever led.

FOOT AND A HALF, OR FOOT IT

See "Fly the Garter."

FOX

From the fact that all the players arm themselves, for an offensive purpose, with knotted pocket-handkerchiefs, this game bears some resemblance to that of Baste the Bear. One player is selected for first fox, and he is provided with a retreat, which no other player but the fox, for the time being, is permitted to encroach upon or enter. Fox, to announce his readiness to commence, shouts out, "Twice five are ten," and upon being challenged in the words, "Fox, fox, come forth from your den," sallies out, hopping on one leg, and endeavouring to get a blow of his handkerchief on to the back of any one of the other players; they, in the meantime, belabouring him as best they can in the same manner. If Fox, while hopping, succeeds in striking any player, that one immediately becomes Fox, and under the blows of all is basted to the den, having no power to strike in return until he has retreated, and after making the quotation given above has issued forth, hopping in the orthodox fashion. Should Fox, in his endeavours to obtain his release, lose his balance so as to be compelled to use both feet, he also is driven ignominiously home, without any power of retaliation.

This game will be familiar to many under the title of Drawing the Badger.

FOX AND GEESE

See "King Senio."

FRENCH AND ENGLISH

This is a game requiring strength combined with skill and judgment. Besides players, the only material required is a long, stout rope. Any reasonable number may join in the game, but the number most convenient, perhaps, is sixteen, divided into eight a side. The two most competent players should be selected to act as captains, and to officer the respective sides. They should alternately select their men, after having tossed for the first choice. A short line is then to be drawn and the rope placed across it, one half being on one side of the line, and the other half on the other side. The captains then take their places opposite to each other, alongside the rope, with their men behind them in Indian file, each about a yard apart, and all lift the rope with their right hands, the foremost man (generally the captain) on each side being about a yard and a half from the dividing line. A secure foothold is to be obtained by all, and upon the words, "One, two, three, ready, pull boys," being given, each side does all that strength, skill, and judgment can do to pull its opponents over the line. If a player is pulled across the line, he becomes a prisoner, and retires, the game then being virtually over; for if eight succeed in pulling successfully against eight, it will be understood that the remaining seven will not have much

chance to withstand their victorious opponents. It does, nevertheless, happen frequently that the first victory encourages undue confidence and laxity, and if the captain of the weakened side is wise, he can sometimes so advise his men as to enable them to pull over their antagonists in spite of the odds; but still, it must always be the case that the chief interest in the game rests with the first pull, and any ruses to be practised can be performed with more real effect then than after a man has been lost.

Sometimes it is allowed that a prisoner may be ransomed by anyone of the same side offering himself in exchange, and it is generally well to permit this, for since the captain is usually first capture, his loss is so serious as to detract from the interest of the game by depriving one side of its most important officer.

This game is almost identical with Tug of War, as will be seen later on.

FRENCH HOP

See "Snail."

FUGLEMAN

See "Drill Sergeant."

GIANT'S STRIDE

See "Swing."

HI COCKOLORUM

See "Mount Nag."

HIPPAS

See "Knights."

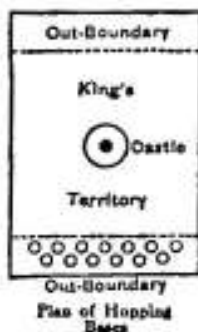
HOPPING BASES

This is a game that used formerly to be one of the most popular of minor playground pastimes.

Two bases are marked off at the opposite ends of the playground, extending over its entire width. These are termed the "out-boundaries" (see diagram). The intervening space is the King's territory, in the centre of which a small space is marked out as his castle. One of the players is then chosen to take the part of King, and by virtue of his position to occupy the castle.

All the other players take up positions in one of the out-boundaries, and it is their business to hop backwards and forwards from boundary to boundary without being touched by the King, who must also, whenever absent from his castle, be hopping. An important rule of the game is that one out-boundary is to be entirely vacated before those who have reached the other attempt to make the return journey. All players once leaving a boundary are bound to attempt to hop across to the opposite boundary, and may not return to the boundary they have just quitted until it has been entirely vacated, as previously explained. All players touched by the King are claimed by him as his soldiers, as are also all those who make use of more than one leg in their passage from boundary to boundary;

and King's soldiers, bound by the rules that bind their Sovereign, have to secure as many as possible to join them in their services. The King must leave his castle hopping, and if he should happen to use more than one leg he must return to his castle before he has the power to touch another player and claim his service. In the meantime, naturally, the other players will be making use of this opportunity to secure their passage across the territories of the King.



Another game, known as Hopping Bases, is played in the following manner: Boundaries at the extreme ends of the playground are arranged as explained above, and the players divided into sides take possession, the one side of one boundary and the other side of the other. Both sides then sally forth hopping to meet each other, and endeavour respectively to put their opponents down. Any player who loses his balance so as to use both legs when out of bounds, becomes a prisoner of the opposite side, and is placed for safety in the corresponding boundary. A prisoner can be rescued only by one of his own side hopping right across the ground and touching him.

The rescued prisoner, and he who rescued him, are permitted to return walking or running to their own boundary, and are then available to go forth to do battle again on their own side against the enemy. Any player is at liberty to hop back to his own boundary to take a rest; and, indeed, it is advisable so soon as prisoners have been made that some one or more players should remain at home to guard the prisoners, who may be placed in any position in the boundary that the captors order.

The side that retains most prisoners when time is called wins the game.

HOP SCOTCH

The name and principal rules for the playing of this game must be thoroughly familiar to every child above the age of five or six years. It is almost impossible to walk along the streets of any ordinary-sized town without coming across some version of the familiar Hop Scotch diagram drawn on the pavement, and, indeed, it would be very difficult to find a ground more suitable for playing the game than is provided by the ordinary granite or asphalt paving.

Before playing, a piece of flat pantile, or oyster-shell, or a flat stone, to be called a "slipper," should be provided; a piece of flat and smooth ground should be selected, and on it should be drawn one or other of the accompanying diagrams. The number, size, and arrangement of the compartments of the diagram or "Scotch" vary considerably, but those shown in Fig. 1 are of the simplest kind, while Fig. 2 gives a "Scotch" as difficult as most players are able to get safely through.

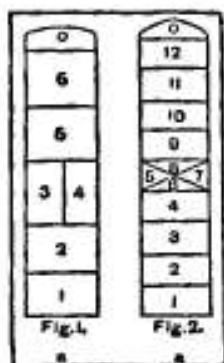
The order of the players, who ought not to be more than two at each "Scotch," is decided by pitching the "clipper" from a little below the first compartment towards the top compartment, which is distinguished from the others by the name of "pudding." He who pitches nearest to the small circle in that compartment plays first.

The first player then takes the clipper at the point marked A, and pitches it into compartment No. 1; he then commences hopping, and proceeds to that compartment and kicks the clipper with the foot on which he is hopping towards the spot marked with the letter A. The clipper is next to be pitched into compartment No. 2, and kicked in the same way as before from there to No. 1, and thence again to the starting-point, and so in order, each time pitching the clipper to that compartment next highest in number to the one in which it was previously pitched, and kicking it from compartment to compartment in order until No. 1 is reached, and from thence always towards the point marked A.

A player is out, and the other player then tries his skill, if (a) the clipper is pitched so as to lie across any line, (b) if it is pitched into the wrong compartment, (c) if the player, when hopping to kick the clipper, puts down the raised foot until after the clipper has been properly kicked out of compartment No. 1, (d) if in hopping, the foot at any time touches one of the lines, (e) if the clipper is kicked so as to lie across any line, or (f) if the player fails to kick the clipper in proper order through all the numbered compartments.

An exception is made in respect to regulation c when the player reaches compartment No. 4 in Fig. 1, or compartment No. 7 in Fig. 2; he is then allowed a rest by placing one foot in No. 4 and the other in No. 3, or in 7 and 5, as the case may be.

When the highest numbered compartment has been reached it remains only for the player to pitch the clipper into the pudding compartment, and, hopping up to his clipper, with one good, straight kick to send it straight towards home, so that it makes its final exit from the "Scotch" at the first compartment.



Hop Scotch Diagrams

HUNTSMAN

One player is to be selected to be Huntsman, who takes his place within bounds allotted to him, the remaining players being scattered as they please. The Huntsman's object is to catch one of the players as soon as possible after quitting bounds, the player caught having to carry on his back the Huntsman home again. These then, joining hands, start to catch another or others, those caught always

having to carry one or other of the catchers home. The game so proceeds until all are caught, when it may be recommenced.

I SPY, OR I SPY HII

This game requires a convenient locality, where there are plenty of shelter and places suitable for concealment, and but few ordinary playgrounds are, without considerable adaptation, quite suitable for it. A ground in which are some ruins, or a common with an abundance of furze, will be found to be suitable; but best of all a farmyard in the summer time—when all the beasts are away in the field—is the most suitable and convenient for the game of I Spy.

The players should be numerous, from sixteen to twenty-four being very suitable numbers, and they are to be divided equally into two sides, one of hiders and one of seekers.

The hiders go out and dispose themselves in such places as will best recommend themselves as adapted for the purpose of concealment. The other party remain within bounds, at a place called "Home," with eyes so averted that they cannot see the direction taken by the hiding party. After the lapse of about three or four minutes, the party at home shout aloud, "Coming once," and at the interval of another minute, "Coming twice," a third shout of "Coming thrice" being uttered after the lapse of a further minute. In the event of no reply to these shouts, asking for further time, being received from the hiders, those at home, after the expiration of still one more minute, sally forth to find the members of the opposite side.

The object of the different hiders should be to issue forth from their respective places of concealment at such times as they will be able to touch one or more of the seekers before such seekers will have been able to reach home. The object of the seeking party is to spy out the hiders, and having spied any one hider, to rush home before that particular hider can touch any of their number.

The disposition of the different sides should be under the control of captains, whose business it will be to lay down for their followers a general plan of action. The captain of the hiders will denote the locality in which his various supporters should seek for concealment, and the captain of the seekers will arrange the order in which the ground is to be searched, and will generally find it expedient to leave at home some sharp-eyed follower who, when he sees a hider emerging from concealment, will give timely warning thereof.

So soon as one of the party in search sees one of the opposite party, he should call out "I spy," naming the player seen and his place of concealment if still hiding, which, if given correctly, compels the hider to emerge from his concealment, and, at the same time, warns the other searchers to run for home. If a hider, thinking by emerging quietly from his hiding-place that he can thus catch any of the opposite party, does so, and is seen in the open, the cry

given is, "Home for —," giving the name only of the player so seen.

The seekers that reach home without being touched, after any of the opposite party has been duly called, are at liberty to proceed again to search for other hiders, but any searcher touched by the hiders before reaching home is out, and must stand aside until the game is recommenced.

Any two hiders reaching home at the same time, unperceived, may shout to their fellows, "All home," and when this is done, a great haul of prisoners is almost certain to ensue. The precaution, referred to above, of posting one of the seeking-party near, or at home, to give warning, will, of course, prevent such a catastrophe.

If the hiding side manages to secure half of the searchers as prisoners, they are entitled to another hide, otherwise the two sides exchange places.

JACK, JACK, SHOW A LIGHT

See "Sam, Sam, show a Light."

JUMP, LITTLE NAG-TAIL

See "Mount Nag."

KING CÆSAR

See "King Senio."

KING OF THE CASTLE

"The King is dead, long live the King!" might be taken as a fair paraphrase of a description of this game.

A mound or hillock is to be selected as the King's Castle, which should be taken possession of by any one of the players, he proclaiming himself to be the proud occupant of the position he holds, and at the same time abusing his assailants by quoting the following lines:—

"I'm the King of the Castle;
Get down, you dirty rascal."

It is necessary for the King to be thus emphatic, for he has no trumpeter, no bodyguard, and no assistance whatever to aid him to retain his position, whereas he is assailed on all sides by the other players, every one of whom is a claimant for the possession of the Castle; and each one, by fair pulls and pushes, is entitled to do what he can, to dethrone the existing monarch, and to take possession and proclaim himself King. No King, with such tremendous odds against him, long retains the cares of the State, but the game is really good fun on a cold winter's day.

It is always to be remembered that only pulls and pushes at the King are allowed; pulling at his clothes is distinctly forbidden, under penalty of exclusion from the game.

KING SENIO

This game is very similar to that of Hopping Bases, except the hopping. Two bases are marked out, one at each of the extreme

ends of the playground, and of one of which all the players save one take possession. The out-player is selected in any manner satisfactory to the players generally, and is called the King. He takes his place at any position he chooses between the two boundaries, and it is his duty, as the other players run from base to base through the intervening ground, to catch them, to tap them on the crown of the head, and to say, "I crown thee King." The player so captured and crowned then devotes his energies to secure more kings from the remaining players, and so on. No player may leave the boundary at which he has arrived until the opposite boundary is entirely vacated. Any player placing both feet outside a boundary is not allowed to retrace his steps, but must proceed to the opposite boundary. When the kings or out-players become the majority, they may, if they choose, proceed to the boundary in which the remaining players are located, and by force drag them forth and crown them. When all have been crowned, the game recommences.

This game is variously known as King Senio, King Cæsar, Rushing Bases, Fox and Geese, and Blackthorn.

KNIGHTS

This game is known also by the names of Hippias and Tournament.

The players take respectively the positions of horses and riders. The riders are usually the smaller boys, the horses being taken from those of stronger and heavier build. Sides are formed, and it is then the business of the riders, or knights, as they are called, on either side to unhorse their opponents, the knights being effectually aided by their horses.

The riders should take their seats firmly upon the shoulders of the horses, and their legs should be firmly grasped under the arms of the horses, to give a secure and steady seat. The knights then upon joining the tournament have the free use of their arms and hands for purposes of attack, while the sturdy horses are allowed to buffet with their shoulders, sides and bodies.

This game ought not to be played except upon grass, or when the ground is covered with some soft material, as the falls sometimes come unexpectedly and are heavy.

LAST MAN'S JUMP

This is a variety of the game described under the heading of "Fly the Garter." The boy to offer the first back having been selected, he takes his position on the garter, and the players proceed to fly over him as in the latter game. The last player over, however, makes his leap or jump to as great a distance as he can beyond the back, and at that spot back offers himself for the next round, and so on. One jump in between the garter and the back is allowed, but it soon happens to the back to be released, as his rate of progress



3 Photo: Thomas Burns, Ealing.

PLAYGROUND GAMES

1. Egg Cap (see page 276).

2. Leap Frog (see page 311).

3. Rounders (see page 279).

from the garter is rapid, and some player will soon find himself unable to cover the distance and reach the back, even although he is allowed the jump. Those players who fly from the garter take precedence of those who avail themselves of the jump in.

This game is occasionally played with an allowance of a hop, a step, and a jump within the garter, the respective players taking precedence according to how they manage without availing themselves of all or some of these opportunities. The extension of privileges to this extent is not to be recommended, as it has the tendency to keep one back down for too long a time.

LEAP FROG (See Plate 16)

This is the simplest of all games which consist in one boy giving a back for others to fly over, and is the most satisfactory in that all players are treated alike. It is capital and good recreation on a winter's day when kept merrily going. And, indeed, it bears a striking resemblance in more than one particular to that most interesting game so graphically described by Mr. Lewis Carroll in his account of "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland," which is known as the Caucas Race, and which was commenced at the instigation of the Dodo for the purpose of affording exercise that would dry Alice and the others after they had so narrowly escaped drowning in the pool caused by Alice's tears. As in the Caucas Race, so in Leap Frog, the pleasure for all is equal, and all who join in the game win.

The players decide the order in which they start; the first boy then makes a back for the others to go over, and each boy as he goes over the last back down himself makes a back for all the players to go over. He is then entitled to go over the backs of all the others, and so on, the motion being kept up until stopped by the school or dinner-bell, as the case may be.

The distances between the backs should be about twelve or fifteen yards, and every player should give just such a back, high or low, as is required of him by the boy to take the leap.

LONG TAG

See "Tierce."

MOUNT NAG

The game of Mount Nag is also known by the names of Jump, Little Nag-tail, and Hi Cockorum.

The players are divided into sides, the one to act as nags the other as riders. In the case of the former, the first player stands erect, with his face usually, but not necessarily, to the wall. The next of the side forms down in the manner explained in the game of Buck, Buck, how many Fingers do I hold up? the remainder of the side forming down in the same way, each one "tailing" on and holding to the player immediately in front, in order to secure stability and to preserve steadiness.

The nags being thus all down, the riders one by one mount until all have secured a seat. It will be necessary that the first rider take his leap as far forward as possible towards the nag at the wall, in order that space behind may be left for the remaining riders, and that each succeeding rider vault as far forward as he can. No rider is allowed to move after he has once taken his seat, and every rider, before proceeding to take his seat, must give notice of his intention by calling aloud, "Here comes my ship full sailing—cock warning!" After the riders are all seated they have to shout aloud three times either the words, "Jump, little Nagtail, one, two, three," or "Hi Cockolorum, jig, jig, jig," calling at the third time the words "Off, off!" If the nags have throughout supported the riders, sides then change places. It is sometimes made a condition of the change in position of the sides that the nags, by wriggling and other manoeuvres, should unseat one or more of the riders, or that one or more of the riders touching the ground with a foot before the final "Off, off!" has been uttered puts his side out. Under either arrangement, however, the nags are released if any one of the riders fails to secure a seat on the nags owing to the earlier riders not taking their seats sufficiently far forward.

NICKY NIGHT, SHOW A LIGHT

See "Sam, Sam, show a Light."

PRISONER'S BASE

In preparing the ground for this game, the nature and size of the space in which it is to be played must be taken into account. If the space be limited, the best arrangement that can be adopted is that shown in the annexed figure (Fig. B), in which the whole space of the playground is taken up; but in a large field or playground, where it is not desirable to occupy the whole space for one game, Fig. A will be more applicable, it being understood that the dotted lines are intended to represent no definite outline for the playground. The spaces at the bottom of the plans are known as bases, the smaller spaces opposite being the prisons; and it is advisable that the shortest distance from a base to a prison should not be less than twenty or twenty-five yards, but the distance may be extended beyond that to almost any degree. It is also necessary that the bases should each be of sufficient length to contain the whole of the players on either side, when ranged in line.

The players should be numerous, not less than twenty, and of an even number. From among the players two captains are to be selected, each of whom chooses a player alternately until all are chosen.

The different sides, referred to here and also in the plans as "Blacks" and "Whites," take up their positions in their respective bases; and the captains toss to decide which side shall first commence

the game. The captain who loses then has to send out one of his men, known as "Chivy," to give the challenge; which being given a commencement of the game ensues, and proceeds in the following manner. Chivy should not be one of the best of the players, as his office is mainly to act in the first place as a decoy.

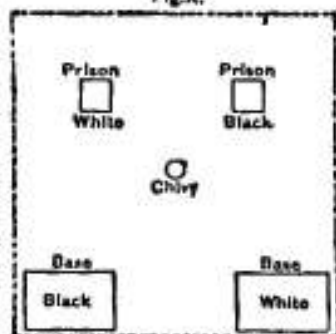
Chivy is to be dispatched into the centre of the field, at a point approximately equidistant from the bases and the prisons, and when arrived at that point gives the challenge by shouting "Chivy!" upon which one of the opposite party starts in pursuit to give chase. Chivy is bound to run on at least as far as the confines of one of the prisons, but he may then use his discretion as to proceeding farther or making the best of his way home. Chivy having been selected from among the Blacks, will be pursued by a player

from the Whites; who again will, directly he has started from home, be pursued by a Black; he again by a White, and so on; the captain on either side directing the order in which their men shall run out. Chivy alone has the benefit of the start into the middle of the field, the others being pursued immediately they have quitted their respective bases. Any player being overtaken and touched by any one of the opposite side, who has subsequently left his base, becomes a prisoner of the side that touched him. The player who has secured a prisoner has earned the right to unmolested retreat home; but having touched one of his opponents, can neither secure more prisoners nor rescue any of his own side until he has first been home. No player can be made prisoner by any one of the opposite side who left his base before him.

Prisoners are secured in prisons opposite to the bases of their opponents, and each is released by a player from his own side running from the base to the prison, and touching a prisoner without being touched in turn by one of the opposing party, who was at home at, or subsequently to, the time that he started. Both the rescued prisoner and the rescuer return home unmolested, and both have then full liberty to join afresh in the game.

A prisoner must take his place in the prison allotted to his side in such a way that at least some portion of his body is within the

Fig. A.



Plan of Prisoner's Base

Fig. B.



Plan of Prisoner's Base

prison bounds; but if, as is frequently the case, more than one of the same side is imprisoned at the same time, it is sufficient if one prisoner is so situated, provided that the others, by joining hands, are connected with him in a continuous chain, the prisoners so formed being allowed to extend themselves towards the players in their own base.

The game goes on almost indefinitely; for it is not won or lost until the one side has succeeded in making prisoners of the whole of the enemy, an achievement rarely gained, for when the prisoners from any one side become numerous, the chain of connection they are able to form reaches so far towards home as to make the release of some of them a comparatively easy matter. On the other hand, if Chivy safely returns home, and no prisoners on either side are made, or when all prisoners on both sides have been rescued, the game is again started; Chivy being taken alternately from both sides.

Success in the game must, of course, depend, to a very large extent, upon the exertions of all the players; but still very much is owing to the captains, and in the operations for the relief of the prisoners especially there is often great scope for the exercise of tact and generalship.

ROUND TAG

See "Tierce."

RUSHING BASES

See "King Senio."

SAM, SAM, SHOW A LIGHT,

or, as it is sometimes called, Jack, Jack, show a Light, and again, Nicky Night, show a Light, is another version of Hide-and-Seek, which can, however, be carried on only when it is dusk or dark.

The players, on a fitting evening, having divided themselves into sides, proceed, the one side to a base agreed upon, called Home, the other to hide themselves, or to proceed to a distance sufficiently far away to render them invisible from home. The latter having so proceeded should then, from a bit of flint with a steel file or other convenient tool, strike a few sparks of fire for the guidance of the home party, which may then proceed in pursuit, the hiding party at the same time being at liberty to proceed on and on, or to change their hiding, as the case may be, with a view of eluding the seekers. The seekers having lost traces, call one of the various titles of the game, as previously to be agreed upon, when the hiding party again gives the clue as before. Under certain circumstances the hiding party is sometimes allowed a second outing; but it is best that the sides should alternately hide and find, that side being considered the winners which for the longest time is successful in eluding the search of the opposite party.

This game is sometimes played with a bell to ring or a gong to sound, instead of material wherewith to emit sparks of fire.

SNAIL.

Snail, or French Hop, is a version of Hop Scotch. The figure, instead of being of the form shown in the diagrams illustrating the game of Hop Scotch, is in the form of a snail, each coil being marked off into compartments (see diagram). The tile or "clipper" has to be started from the outer coil and kicked, the player hopping from compartment to compartment, without a rest, to the centre. A rest is then allowed, after which the clipper has to be kicked out again in the same manner. The rules laid down in Hop Scotch are applicable to this game.



Snail Diagram

SNOW CASTLE, OR SNOW FORT

This recreation can be indulged in with any degree of satisfaction only when the snow is in a binding condition. All the boys available should help to make the Fort or Castle by joining heartily together. They should each roll the snow into large balls of as nearly as possible an equal size, and place them together alongside and atop one of the other, the interstices being neatly filled in with snow gathered for the purpose, until an enclosed space has been made with snow walls of tolerable thickness, a space in lieu of a door being left for ingress and egress. Inside the enclosure steps should be made, to enable the defenders to see over the top, and to aid them in the defence of the stronghold against the attack to be made as described hereafter.

When the Castle has been satisfactorily completed, the players should divide themselves into sides, for the respective purposes of attack and defence. A few minutes being allowed for each side to store up a supply of snowballs as ammunition, the attack, on a signal being given, should be commenced. The attacking party are allowed to arm themselves with a short stout post, to use as a battering-ram, but the defenders are permitted to repel such assault by mounting the steps and the Fort walls, if they choose, and pelting the assailants with snowballs. Those of the attacking force not using the ram are allowed to pelt the defenders in a similar manner when they get the chance. In the absence of a post to be used as a ram, some enthusiastic member of the attacking force allows himself to be used as the ram, he being rushed feet foremost against the walls.

Much additional strength becomes imparted to the Castle if it is allowed to stand for a night after it has been made. The snow, by lapse of time, settles down, and the foundations become more secure, and the walls more solid.

SPANISH FLY

This is a game full of change and variety, and amusing incident. It embodies in itself some of the characteristics both of Leap Frog

and Follow my Leader. One player is to be selected as first back down, and one from the remainder to act as leader. It does not matter who is leader, and both he and the first back may be fixed upon at random or by lot.

The players in turn leap over the back that is down, and so soon as all have been over, the process has to be gone through again, except that some variation in the manner of going over, or in the action that is made to accompany the going over, must be made with every round. There is a certain order in the variations that it is well to recognise; but if it is preferred, the selection of the variations may be left to him who acts as leader. The variations most commonly practised, with their order, are here given:—

1. The over is to be taken in the usual way, with the left hand of the player towards the head of the back.
2. Return from the opposite side.
3. The back has next to be gone over cross-wise.
4. Return cross-wise from the opposite side.

The first four variations are frequently gone through several times, each player as he goes over in alternate series knuckling, pinching, slapping and kicking; as, however, neither of these feats is difficult to do, the back down is generally well pleased to dispense with these changes, they being only punishment to him without doing much to expedite his release.

5. Take the over as in No. 1, holding cap in hand, but in going over leave the cap on the back. This must be done by every player, and those going over after the first three or four will have to exercise their skill and ingenuity in finding a safe lodgment for the caps. If, however, any player fails, he is down and becomes back.

6. Should the above be successfully done by all, the players return in reverse order from the opposite side, each one as he returns removing his cap without disturbing the cap of any other player. The last to go over in No. 5 will, of course, be the first to return in No. 6.

7, 8. The same done cross-wise in opposite directions.

9, 10, 11, 12. The same as 5, 6, 7, 8, using handkerchiefs instead of caps.

13, 14, 15, 16. Take the over in the four different directions, throwing the cap in the air while leaping and catching it again after the leap is finished.

17, 18, 19, 20. Again over in the various directions, each time with the cap balanced upside down on the head.

21, 22, 23, 24. Again over with the cap balanced as before, but in making the over, drop the cap so as not to allow it to touch the cap of any other player already on the ground, and leaping clear of every cap. In the rounds 22 and 24 the cap is not balanced on the head, but instead when the rounds 21 and 23 have been successfully made, each player in his proper turn picks up his cap with his teeth, and

with his back turned to the boy that is down, throws the cap over his own shoulder and over the back. The leap has then to be taken from the spot where the cap fell in the rounds 21 and 23. If a cap when thrown in this way touches the cap of any other player, the owner of the cap thrown is down.

Many other varieties may be mentioned, but the above are the most usual, and it rarely happens but that in some one of these some player will fail, and so release the boy that is down, and the game then recommences. As the leader's position is the easiest, the back when released takes lead's place, the other players going down one.

STANDING JUMPS AND RUNNING FLIES

are the names of two modes of jumping. In the first the players stand with both feet together toeing a given line, and by taking the spring as they stand ascertain who can jump the farthest. The practice of Running Flies is similar, except that a run is allowed, the jump being taken from the line. A longer distance can be covered with a Running Fly than with a Standing Jump.

Games under these names sometimes take the form of Fly-the-Garter contests, to ascertain the most adept at flying from the greatest distance over a back.

As jumping and leaping are parts of so many of these playground games, a few hints as to "How to Jump" cannot be here out of place. Jumping is not only a capital exercise, but it is a useful accomplishment, and as the distance jumped depends very much on how the jump is made, it cannot be too clearly understood that there is a wrong as well as a right way to jump.

The spring should be made entirely from the toes and the ball of the foot, and not at all from the heel. In straining the muscles down towards the calves, the muscles so stretched being suddenly contracted again when the spring is made, and the whole body straightened. By these means the spring from the toes sends the jumper on his way, the stretching and contraction of the muscles give the required momentum to the body, the momentum being also increased by the swiftness of the run taken before the spring is made. In alighting it is also important to fall on the toes, as a fall on the heels will be found to jar the whole body.

The standing jump has to be managed a little differently. The toes and the muscles of the calves and thighs have to be made use of as above in taking the spring, the arms and clenched fists being previously swung, to add to the impetus; but, in spite of the jar, to jump any considerable distance it will be necessary to alight on the heels. The practice of Standing Jumps is not to be recommended nearly so highly as that of Running Flies, and the practice of the latter, by strengthening the muscles and bringing them and the whole forces of the body into harmony, goes a long way to increase a person's jumping powers.

SWING, OR GIANT'S STRIDE

This consists of a tall upright of about twenty feet, with a revolving plate at the top, to which are attached through rings a number of ropes knotted, on which the players swing themselves round and round with veritable giants' strides. With a fairly tall upright and ropes proportionately long, it is quite possible, after the players have given the necessary impetus or momentum to the swing, for them to make a circle of from forty to sixty yards without touching the ground, or to take a series of jumps from ten to fifteen feet high. The players on the Giant's Stride should always aim at keeping their bodies in a line with the slant of the rope, or they will be apt to suddenly lose their balance, and come to grief.

TAG

See "Touch," and also "Tierce," for the variations known as "Long Tag" and "Round Tag."

THREAD THE NEEDLE

The players hold hands in one long line with arms outstretched, the two players at one end joining hands and holding them up as high as possible. The two players at opposite ends of the line carry on the following dialogue, each alternately taking the office of "king":—

Question by the King: "How many miles to Babylon?"

Answer: "Threescore and ten."

Question: "Can I get there by candle-light?"

Answer: "Yes, and back again."

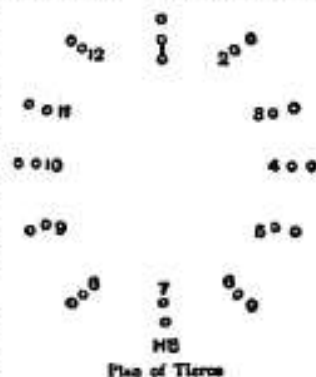
Statement by King: "Then open the gates without mo.e ado,
And let the king and his men pass through."

The king, followed by all the players, then passes through the arch formed at the opposite end until the line has become a spiral coil, when the players release hands and extricate themselves as best they can.

TIERCE

This game also is known by the respective names of Round Tag or Long Tag, according to the manner in which it is played. In either version of the game the players, to ensure plenty of fun, should be numerous, never less than twenty. One should be selected as "He," or the out-player, and the remainder should arrange themselves, if the round game be played, as shown in the accompanying diagram. It will be seen that at every station two players are placed, and that at the station No. 1 a third player is placed towards the centre of the ring. It is the object of "He" to touch the outside player at the station at which three players may be, but upon the approach of "He" the outside player at the station No. 1 runs off

and places himself in front of some other couple, when the outside player at that station becomes the object of pursuit. So soon as the outside player at any station makes off the remaining two step back so as to complete the double ring at that point. The player pursued is liable to be touched and to be made "He" until he comes to rest in front of some one couple of players. "He" should always start from the point marked in the diagram, and the station with three players should, in the first instance, be at the farthest possible point from the position taken up by "He."



In Long Tag the couples are arranged in rows instead of circles, the Tierce station being at one end and "He" at the other. Either version of the game is good and popular, but perhaps Round Tag has the preference.

TOM TIDDLER'S GROUND

This game might be shortly described as the little boys' version of the game of Rushing Bases. One boy is to be selected as Tom Tiddler, who should have a considerable base or territory allotted to him, and in which are supposed to be vast stores of the precious metals. The other players promiscuously invade this territory, and as if they were picking up and pocketing the treasure, call attention to themselves by shouting—

"Here I stand, in Tom Tiddler's land,
Picking up gold and silver."

If Tom can touch any player while trespassing within his bounds, that player becomes Tom Tiddler, the guardian of the imaginary wealth buried in the soil.

TOUCH

In the various games of Touch, the player whose office it is to touch another is known by the descriptive pronoun "He," spelled with a capital H.

In the simple game of Touch, "He" tries to overtake and touch some other player; which, when done, the player touched becomes "He," and proceeds himself to touch some one. The players generally must keep their wits about them to know who "He" may happen for the moment to be, as the office shifts from one to another very rapidly. In

OUTDOOR SPORTS

TOUCH WOOD AND TOUCH IRON

the players are safe from "He" during the time they may be touching wood, or touching iron, as the case may be, according to the game being played; while the version of the game known as

TOUCH WOOD AND WHISTLE

requires not only that to insure safety from the ubiquitous "He" the players should touch wood, but that they should also whistle. So soon as a player ceases to touch wood or to whistle, he is liable to fall a prey and be converted into "He."

TOURNAMENT

See "Knights."

TUG OF WAR

This is very similar to the game of French and English, and differs from it only in this respect, that when the first of the losing team is pulled over the dividing line between the two parties the tug is considered lost, and another trial has to take place. The best two tugs out of three is usually taken to decide a match, but three out of five is sometimes thought to offer a more satisfactory test of the abilities of the competing teams.

WALK, MOON, WALK!

Moon is to be selected from among the players and blindfolded. The players having knotted their pocket-handkerchiefs, Moon then stands in an open space with his legs apart, and through the arch so formed the pocket-handkerchiefs have to be thrown. When this is done, the instruction, "Walk, Moon, walk!" is given, and he is not released until he manages to step on one of the handkerchiefs, all of which will have been sent to some distance, and not necessarily in any one direction. The boy whose handkerchief has been stepped upon next takes the place of Moon, but he has first to run the gauntlet through all his fellows, armed now with their handkerchiefs, to a given base and back again.

WANT A DAY'S WORK?

In this game are combined trials of strength between boy and boy, with fun and amusement caused by ingenious mimicry. A master has to be selected from among the players, and to him has to be allotted a piece of ground, called his shop. At the shop the other players present themselves, and are asked whether they "want a day's work?" the answer being given in the affirmative; upon being asked their trade, they answer as they choose, a blacksmith, a tailor, a tinker, a carpenter, a bricklayer, or what not, and then have some imaginary work, peculiar to the trade they have selected, given them to do, and so far as they are able they have to imitate the actions of the actual workers in the particular trades chosen. When

the shop becomes tolerably filled, the master proceeds to an imaginary examination of the task, so far as it is supposed to have been completed, and, if satisfied, passes on; as, however, it is not in the nature of masters always to be satisfied with their workmen, so it is the case here, and after the unsatisfactory workman has been soundly rated and reprimanded, the master has to turn him out of the shop by sheer force, and then proceed with the expulsion of some other unsatisfactory hireling. Should, however, a workman succeed in the struggle to eject the master from the shop the game recommences, the stronger or more skilful player being next time master.

WARNING

Bounds from fifteen to twenty feet in length should be arranged against a tree, a wall, or a fence, and in it should be placed a player selected from the rest to be "Cock." The remaining players station themselves about the ground as they please. When all are ready the cock clasps his hands in front of him and calls aloud, "Warning once, warning twice, a bushel of wheat, and a bushel of rye, when the cock crows out jump I." He then, with his hands clasped, jumps out of his bounds, and pursues the players generally until he succeeds in touching one, still keeping his hands clasped. The player touched and the "cock," who now unclasps his hands in order to join hands with the one touched, make their way quickly for bounds, as if they are caught on their way the players catching them are entitled to be carried "pick-a-back" fashion to bounds. The "cock" and his "chick," as the out-players when captured are called, next start hand-in-hand endeavouring to secure a third, and so on. Each time a "chick" is captured, he, as well as those who started from the bounds, may be ridden home if captured, and if the "cock" and his "chick" loose hands while in pursuit they are under the same penalty until they have again reached home. The last "chick" to be caught is "cock" next game.

WHOOOP

This is a game of hide and seek. All the players go out to hide except one, who stays at a spot called home, with his eyes closed or averted until the other players have all hidden themselves away. The last of the hiding players who finds a safe retreat calls "Whoop!" when the seeker leaves home to find those who have hidden. To be released from his office of finding he must find and touch some one of the hidiers before they can all reach home. If he does not succeed in this, and all the players can reach home without being touched, they proceed to hide again; but upon any one being found and touched, "All home!" is called, and the one touched has then to find.

WIDDY WIDDY, WAY

See "Warning." The call, however, instead of being that given under the heading of Warning, is, in those parts of the country where

the game is known under this title, "Widdy Widdy, Way—Cock Warning."

WILL YOU 'LIST?

Two recruiting sergeants should be selected, or two boys wishing to play the game should appoint themselves recruiting sergeants, going about shouting, "Will you 'list?" "Will you 'list?" each sergeant securing as many soldiers as he can, whom he should arm with a stick, a reed, or some such thing, as a weapon. After the enlisting is finished a certain amount of drilling and training should be gone through, and one sergeant with his men should then challenge the other sergeant with his men to combat. The combat consists in wresting away the weapons with which the soldiers have been armed, a soldier disarmed being considered *hors de combat*. As every soldier has to retain his own weapon while disarming an opponent, this game affords good opportunity for exciting struggles. It is well that the sides should manage to be pretty evenly matched.

TOY GAMES

UNDER this heading will be found a few of those simple out-of-door games played with toys that could not be appropriately placed with any of the other classifications. They are suitable for small spaces of ground, and when space for the more ambitious games is wanting an agreeable pastime may be found in some of the following amusements :—

BAGS

In Canada and the United States Bags is a highly popular recreation, and it is a capital warming game in cold weather. The game is played with four cotton bags, half filled with dry peas, the bags being tied at the mouth. These bags are taken up by two players, two bags each, one bag in each hand. Player No. 1 throws the bag in his right hand to Player No. 2, transfers the bag in his left hand to his right, catches a bag sent by No. 2 in his left hand, throws to No. 2 the bag in his right, transfers the bag in his left to his right, and so on. Player No. 2 does just the same as No. 1; indeed, each player should consider himself No. 1, and his companion No. 2. The object of the game is to keep the bags going as long as possible without falling, an object at first difficult of attainment, but which with practice becomes comparatively easy.

BATTLEDORE AND SHUTTLECOCK

This is a game indulged in by adults as well as by the youngsters, but although a capital game, in that it affords good exercise and amusement, it is not so popular as once it was.

Ordinarily, battledores are either made entirely of wood, or else with wooden handles and "drum"-heads of parchment. A more expensive kind of battledore is made of boxwood for handle, with a strained net, like the bat used in lawn tennis. Either of the first two may be purchased for a small sum at any toy-shop, and they will be found much better than home-made battledores. The shuttlecock also is better bought than made; it consists mainly of a bit of cork, in which goose-feathers of equal size have been stuck obliquely.

The object of the game when played by one player is, after having thrown the shuttlecock into the air, to keep it bounding and rebounding as long as possible by repeated strokes of the bat end of the battledore. It will be found that the shuttlecock ascends and descends with the feathers downwards and upwards respectively. When more than one player indulges in the game, the players should

be stationed at equal distances round the ground, each armed with a battledore, and by the aid of the battledores a shuttlecock, or more than one if it is desired, should be kept passing round and round.

CHIP STONE

The game of Chip Stone is played on hard and smooth ground with peg-tops, shallow spoons or ladles, and small smooth stones or pebbles.

Two lines about six feet apart should be marked on the ground, and each player should place a stone or pebble midway between the lines. The players, provided with a spoon apiece, should then spin their tops, and when spinning each player has to lift his top in his spoon and drop the top, endeavouring to make the peg thereof strike the pebble he placed so as to knock or "chip" it out of bounds. So long as the top keeps alive, that is, remains spinning, this performance may be repeated, and when the top is dead it must be again set spinning. That player becomes the winner who first succeeds in knocking his pebble out of bounds.

Marbles and buttons are frequently used instead of stones or pebbles, and it is then the custom for the winner to retain the buttons or marbles, as the case may be, of the other players as his own property.

It is often the case that spoons or ladles are not readily procurable by boys at play, and it is as well, therefore, to let such boys know that the spoons are not absolutely indispensable, and that the palm of the open hand will be found to all intents to answer every purpose.

CHUCKS

See "Pebble Game."

DIBS

The game of Dibs, or Knuckle Bones, is played with five small bones, one of which is found at the knuckle end of every leg of mutton. These bones are best for the purposes of the game if obtained after the meat has been cooked and cut away. The order of the tricks varies considerably, and to give a complete list covering all variations would be well-nigh impossible. The following, however, seem to be those most generally adopted, and it is open for any player to arrange variations on the tricks here enumerated:—

1. Begin by throwing up the five dibs and catching them, or as many as possible, first on the back, and then, by a rapid turn, in the palm of the hand. All five are seldom caught, but provided only one is caught play continues. Retain one of the caught dibs, and throw it up so as to be able during the time of its ascent and descent to pick up one of the dropped dibs. This continues until all the dropped dibs are picked up.

2. Scatter the dibs on the ground, lift one, throw it up, and before it falls pick up another, and with that still in hand catch the one just

thrown up. Lay the first dib aside, throw up the one retained, pick up another and catch the one thrown, and proceed in this way until all are picked up. The first two stages are variations known as the "ones."

3. Scatter the dibs as before. Throw up one, pick up two, and catch the one as it falls. Repeat and pick up the remaining two.

4. As before, but pick up three and then one.

5. As before, but pick up the four at once.

6. Take a dib in the palm of the hand, and hold one between the finger and thumb, throw up the latter, and before catching it place the other one on the ground. Immediately after, again throw up the caught dib, and pick up that placed on the ground before again catching. Repeat, increasing the number of dibs placed on the ground by one each time until four have been laid down and again picked up together in the same way.

7. Take up all the dibs in the hand, place down one dib, throw the remaining four into the air, lift up the one and catch the four as they fall. Repeat by increasing the number placed down one each time and decreasing those thrown by one until four are laid down and one thrown; the four being picked up after the one has been thrown into the air and before it is caught.

8. Take four dibs in the hand, and hold the fifth between the finger and thumb; throw that one up, drop one of the four out of your hand, and catch the dib thrown. Throw the same dib up again and drop another, so continuing until all four have been dropped. Then fling up the dib again and pick up the four before catching the thrown dib.

9. Place the left arm along the ground, and put one dib at the elbow and one at the finger tips. Then remove the arm, throw up a dib, pick up the two so placed and catch the dib. Repeat by placing one dib half-way between the two on the ground, and pick up three; then place the four, two at each point, and pick up the four.

Other variations on these same stages may be introduced.

It is the general practice for the game to begin by one player taking the dibs and to commence the series, continuing until he fails to perform one of them, when the dibs are passed on to the next player. The second player then does the same, and so on until the dibs have passed again into the hands of the first player. He then recommences at that stage at which he previously failed, and continues or passes the bones on as before. The first to reach the end of the series wins.

FLYING TOP

This is an ingenious mechanical toy. It is a top fitted with wings made of cardboard placed at certain angles. The spinning motion being imparted to the top in the usual way by the aid of a piece of cord twisted round and suddenly uncoiled, the top takes flight and rises some distance, ultimately returning, if the ways of the top have

been studied, and it has been carefully and judiciously started, to the hand of the player.

JACKS

See "Pebble Game."

JACK'S ALIVE

This game is played with the orthodox cheese-shaped skittle-ball. The figure of Jack is usually made of some light but durable wood, with a weighted spherical base, so that he cannot be knocked over unless the figure is hit towards the top. Those hits only count in which the top of the figure is made to touch the ground. It is essential that the base of the figure be heavily weighted, but the spherical shape thereof may be dispensed with. This game is sometimes played with an ordinary smooth wooden ball, and a correspondingly small figure.

KNUCKLE BONES

See "Dibs."

PEBBLE GAME

This is precisely similar to the game of Dibs, except that small smooth pebbles are used instead of knuckle bones. The description of the game of Dibs is entirely applicable to that of Pebble Game. The game when played with pebbles is also known as Chucks, Jacks, and occasionally, in Scotland, as Fives.

PEG-TOP

It is a peg-top that every youngster is ambitious to possess, and to be able to spin. More games are to be played with peg-tops, and more amusement to be had from them, than from all other kinds of tops put together.

Roughly speaking, peg-tops are pear-shaped, with an iron peg inserted at the thin end; but as pears differ in shape, so do peg-tops. Some are very much rounder than others, but all sorts are useful for different purposes; and as they are comparatively inexpensive, it is well to be provided with several in which the shape graduates from round to elongated, and which have pegs of various lengths. The wood of which peg-tops are made is deal, elm, or yew-tree; but there is a special top, the king of the peg-tops, the Boxer, which is made of hard boxwood. The boxer bears about the same relation to the ordinary top that the genuine "alley law" does to the ordinary marble: it is a possession to be highly prized, and not lightly risked. The pegs of the tops differ very much, both in shape and size, some being short and thick, some medium; others again are long and tapering. Generally speaking, it may be said that a top with a short thick peg is likely to spin steadily—to go to sleep, as it were, while spinning; whereas the top with a long thin peg travels about a good deal, and is very active in its movements. These characteristics will be found to be more or less developed according to the shortness or length of the peg.

To spin a peg-top successfully is not to be come at by chance, it must be patiently practised, and then only will the player be able to make a top spin as he may wish. The following remarks are, however, given for the guidance of novices, as observance of these instructions is essential to spin a top at all. A piece of cord, varying according to the size of the top, should be procured, and to it at one end should be attached an ordinary shank or livery button; at about an inch from the other end a knot should be very tightly tied, the length beyond the knot being unravelled out. The top should then be taken in the left hand, the string or cord being held in the right. The unravelled end of the string, slightly moistened, is then to be laid along the side of the top, at the point where the peg is driven into the wood. It will now be observed that the lower end of the top is marked with a coil of slight circular grooves. Round the top in these grooves the cord is to be wound over the moistened and unravelled end of the cord until the button at the other end can be placed, and held tightly between and behind the two last fingers of the right hand, and with the thumb at the same time placed on the peg. The whole toy so held is then to be lifted above the head, and thrown in a curved line smartly to the ground, the cord being retained in the hand by the button secured between the two last fingers. Just before the string finally leaves the top it should be jerked, in order that any tendency to adhere on the part of the moistened end may be counteracted. It should be stated here that it is in the peculiar manner in which this jerk is performed that given kinds of spinning are obtained; but on this subject no general instructions will be of any avail: the results of the different jerks must be noticed and acted upon.

PEG IN THE RING

The preceding remarks on the peg-top having been duly studied, the game of Peg-in-the-Ring may next be proceeded with, and it will be found that it is the best of the peg-top games. It should be played as follows:—A circle, about three feet in diameter, has to be drawn on the ground, and then it has to be decided who shall first cast his top into the circle or ring, and the order of the succeeding players. The first player casts his top within the ring, and whilst it continues spinning the others are at liberty to peg their tops at it, or at the top of any other player who may have in the meantime cast in. So soon as all the players have cast in their tops, the first player may remove his, and himself peg at the others, and then the second, and so on; but after the first round no more than one top may be taken up until another has been cast.

Should any player fail to spin his top when he throws it, or fail to cast it within the ring, or take the top up from the ring, except in the proper order, or should it, on ceasing to spin, lie in the ring, the top is called "dead," and either is set in the middle of the ring or left where it falls, as the case may be, for the others to peg at.

Any top hopping out of the ring, while still spinning, may be taken up out of the proper order, and the owner has an additional right to peg at those tops within the ring. If a top that is dead should chance to be pegged out of the ring, it becomes alive again, and the owner may at once, without waiting his proper turn, resume his play with it.

The object of each player is either to split the tops of his companions, and thereby gain the pegs of the tops as trophies, or by striking his companions' top beyond the boundaries of the ring, enable them to resume their play.

It will be gathered from the above that a travelling top, or "hopper," is the most desirable with which to play at Peg-in-the-Ring; it is well, therefore, that the long-pegged tops should be selected for the purpose, and that the peculiar jerk, already referred to, should be studied.

Skilful players with the peg-top are able to throw the top in such a manner that, if it should miss the top at which it is aimed, it leaps out of the ring at a single bound, thus preventing the other players from having a chance of hitting it. This is done by drawing the arm smartly towards the body just before the string finally leaves the top, and when the top has nearly reached the ground or top to be struck. This trick, or knack, requires some practice, but when attained will be found very useful for players at Peg-in-the-Ring.

In some localities marbles are combined with tops, and whenever a top falls dead a marble is placed within the ring instead of the top, and the marble becomes the property of the player who can strike it with his top and drive it out of the ring. Instead of spinning with one top only, it is sometimes allowed to the players to use as many tops as they please.

POP-GUN

The best of pop-guns are home-made. Get a straight piece of even thickness out of an elder bush. The branches most suitable are those from about three-quarters of an inch to an inch in thickness; remove the pith from the inside, so as to form a hollow tube from end to end, and let the wood dry and harden. The ramrod should then be made of some hard wood, the handle of which is to be nearly as thick as the gun, but the ramrod must be evenly scraped until it is small enough to pass readily along the inside of the tube of the gun, and should be about half an inch short of the length of the gun. The pellets, for ammunition, are to be made of moistened paper, or, if it can be obtained, of tow moistened; they should be made to fit tightly into the opposite ends of the pop-gun, and, indeed, should be forced in with the ramrod. When a pellet has been securely placed at each end, the ramrod should then be taken, and with it the pellet at one end is to be forced through the gun, and it will then drive out the pellet at the opposite end with a loud pop and considerable violence.

RED, WHITE, AND BLUE

This game consists in bowling a large and heavy ball at a distant object in order to overthrow it. At the far end of an alley, or other piece of ground, should be set up three posts of wood, with a cube placed on the top of each. These cubes should be numbered 0 to 5, 1 to 6, and 4 to 9, respectively. Each player is entitled, to bowl three balls at the objects so arranged, and he scores the number shown uppermost on the cubes that are displaced from the posts; the highest score wins. The posts and cubes are to be coloured red, white, and blue, or each of the posts and each of the cubes should be of one or other of these colours—hence the name of the game. This game may also be played with small as well as with large balls, posts, and cubes.

RING THE NAIL

For this game a board is required into which are driven a number of short iron pegs or nails about two inches long; the centre peg, being about half an inch taller than the remainder, is called King. A number of small rings are then provided, and the play is to proceed to a certain distance from the board, and to throw the rings so that each will encircle a nail. Each successful throw counts five, but if the King is encircled that counts twenty. This game is also known as Skip.

SKIP

See "Ring the Nail."

SPANISH PEG-TOP

This toy is a mild variety of the ordinary peg-top. It is generally made of mahogany, and, instead of a peg to spin upon, is fitted with a small round knob. It is more commonly used indoors, on a wooden flooring, than out of doors, on the ground, and it spins for a much longer time than the common peg-top. To spin it, it is thrown from the hand, with a sort of "underhand" chuck, and not lifted over the head and smartly thrown to the ground, as is the peg-top proper.

SQUIRT

The Squirt consists of a tube, into which a piston or plug is so nicely fitted that no air can pass by its sides. To the piston a handle is attached, and at the far end of the tube from the handle there is a small opening. To play with this toy the piston has first to be pushed down to the bottom of the tube, the nose of the tube has to be just placed in water, and the piston then drawn up gradually. The piston thus acts as a pump and fills the tube with water, which is squirted out by forcing the piston again towards the nose of the tube. Malicious use is sometimes made of this toy, but we may as well say here that this book is not written for any boy who finds either pleasure or amusement in squirting water over passers-by or other persons, that is to say, who finds pleasure in making others uncomfortable.

STILTS

This is a pastime consisting of mounting on two poles, and so walking or running. To make a pair of stilts two poles of equal length are to be obtained, and to them, at the desired height from the ground, should be nailed small steps or foot-rests, of sufficient size and strength to give the foot a firm hold, and to bear the weight of the body. The poles should be long enough for the person using them to hold the tops when standing on the rests, and when walking on them he must raise each stick alternately with the hands, lifting the foot at the same time and continuing the motion alternately with the respective legs and arms as in ordinary walking. Should he feel himself losing his balance, the best plan is to leap to the ground, and avoid as much as possible the risk of falling. After a few trials, stilt locomotion will be found to be very easy and enjoyable.

After practice has made boys perfect in the use of stilts of the above description, a more simple sort may be employed with due caution and care. Have the stilts made of poles, the tops of which, when the person using them is mounted, reach no higher than is necessary to secure them to the leg by means of a strap a little below the knee, and let the feet be strapped to the rests or steps. The walking on stilts of this description is precisely similar to ordinary walking, but to secure one's balance, and as a support when required, a long pole to be used as a walking-stick should be provided.

Many feats may soon be attempted on stilts, and they will, as a rule, be found to be easy of accomplishment. Barring the risk of falls, it will be discovered that the higher the stilt-walker is raised from the ground the easier as well as the more rapid will be his progress, and a skilful stilt-walker will be able to cover a long distance of ground in a short time.

Stilts are not only used as toys, but in many countries from the nature of the ground are really serviceable in active life.

SUCKER

A Sucker is made by cutting a circular piece out of a scrap of stout leather, boring a hole through its centre, and passing a string through the hole, with a knot at the end large enough to prevent it from slipping through. A piece of wood for a handle should be tied to the other end of the string. The sucker is then complete, but before using it it should be well soaked in water, and while still wet and pliable the leather is to be placed on a stone, or other weight presenting a smooth surface, and pressed down until all the air between the leather of the sucker and the stone or weight has been excluded. In attempting to lift the sucker by the handle it will be found that the stone will adhere, and that considerable weights may be lifted by this means.

TIP-CAT

The game of Cat, or Tip-cat, is essentially a summer game; there is not sufficient exercise involved in playing it to recommend it as a winter pastime. The materials required are of the simplest kind, and may readily be made by any lad rejoicing in the possession of a good stout pocket knife. An ordinary stick, or piece of a broom handle, about eighteen inches or two feet long, and a "cat" of from three and a half to five inches long, are all that will be required. The "cat" may be cut out of any ordinary piece of wood; it should be of the length specified, and either round or square, from three-quarters of an inch to an inch and a quarter in thickness, and sharpened at both tips to the length of from an inch to an inch and a half, according to the size of the "cat."

In many respects the game is similar to that of Rounders, and in others to that of Trap, Bat, and Ball, both of which are fully described in the section of "Ball Games." Indeed, if the principles laid down for the guidance of boys playing those games are mastered, the game of Tip-cat, as described below, will be a very simple matter.

A small ring, called "home," about twelve or fifteen inches in diameter, is to be formed on the ground, and a line, called the "offing," drawn at a distance therefrom of four or five yards. The player who is "in" takes his position at "home," and is provided with a stick; the out-player, or one of them when there are two or more, takes his position at the offing, and takes temporary possession of the cat, which does service in this game as the ball does in the corresponding ball games.

It is the object of the out-player so to throw the cat as to lodge it within the circle forming home; but his opponent, the in-player, is allowed to protect the ring by striking at and hitting the cat with his stick after the cat has left the pitcher's hand and before it reaches the ground, and sending it as far away over and beyond the offing as possible. If, however, the cat falls within the ring the in-player is out, but if it falls outside the ring and without being struck, the in-player is entitled to three tips with tries at a hit, or to one actual hit to send it away from the home. A tip consists in knocking the cat at one end so as to make it fly into the air, in the manner in which the ball is knocked from the trap in Trap, Bat, and Ball, and as the ball in that game so the cat in this may be hit. If the pitcher delivers the cat so that it falls on the line forming the ring, the player is entitled to one tip only with a hit, or a try at a hit. When the cat has been hit away, the player names the number of paces that he considers the out-player (or any one of them when two or more) would take to cover the distance between the cat and the ring; and if the distance is not covered in the number of paces named, that number is counted towards game, and should be so scored. If, on the contrary, the player by an error of judgment names such

a number of paces that in that number an out-player at the first attempt covers the distance, the player is out. Only one measurement is allowed. If after the hit or after the third tip, the cat remains within one pace of home, the player is out:

Tip-cat, played as above, with sides of about six aside, is the best form of the game; but as there are varieties of the ball games referred to, so there are of this, and it may be modified and simplified according to the whims or tastes of the players. When sides are playing, all the members of the out side scout, and may stop the cat as well and as often as they can, when outside the offing; if the cat is caught after a hit, not after a tip, the player striking it is out. If the cat is tipped or hit so that after the hit or after it has been tipped the proper number of times it remains within a distance that can be covered by one pace of any of the opposing side, the player is out. Players on the respective sides change places when all the side "in" have been made "out."

A "pace" is defined as the longest distance that is covered in any one leap, step, or jump. A number of paces must be taken, running and consecutively, as in the step of "Hop, Step, and Jump," without making any rest or interval between any two paces. The last pace in a series may be a jump.

Tip-cat, as played in the streets of our large towns, is a much simpler affair. The object then seems to be only to send the "cat" flying as far and as swiftly as possible, to the annoyance of foot-passengers and the danger of windows. It is certainly not a suitable game for the streets.

INDEX

A

- ARCH-BOARD**, 292
Archery, 1-6; arrows, 2; bows, 2; drawing, 5; equipment 2 *et seq.*; five points of, 5; flight shooting, 1; holding, 6; loosing, 6; nocking, 5; quiver for, 3; roving, 1; scoring, 2, 4; standing, 5; stringing the bow, 4; target cards, 4; target shooting, 2; unstringing, 5
Association football, 157-164
Athletic sports, 7-14; ailments in, 14; training for, 14

B

- BADGER**, drawing the (*see Fox*)
Badminton, 15 *et seq.*
Bags, 323
Ball games, 274-281
Ball, trap, bat, and, 281
Banner, battle for the, 298
Base-ball, 7-43; base playing, 21; field, how to lay out a, 17; players, the, 19; rules of, 24 *et seq.*
Base, prisoner's, 312
Bases, hopping, 305
Bases, rushing (*see King Senio*)
Basket ball, 44
Baste the bear, 297
Bat, and ball, trap, 281
Bat fives, 139
Batting, 72 *et seq.*
Battledore and shuttlecock, 323
Battle for the banner, 298
Bear, baste the, 297
Bird kite, 288
Blackthorn (*see King Senio*)
Boats, building of, 232 *et seq.*; variety of, 45, 232 *et seq.*
Boat-sailing, 45-53; boats, variety of, 45 *et seq.*; going about, 48; helms, terms of, 48; reefing, 52; rigs, 46 *et seq.*; sails, 4b.
Bounce eye, 292
Bowling (cricket), 83 *et seq.*

- Bowls**, 54-63; bias, 54; Jack, the, 54, 61; laws of, 55 *et seq.*; method of playing, 61; terms used in, 54 *et seq.*
Box kite, 289
Buck, back, how many fingers do I hold up? 298
Bull in the ring, 298

C

- CABER**, tossing the, 11
Cesar, king (*see King Senio*)
Camping, 244
Canoeing, 64-67
Canoes, 64 *et seq.*; balancing, 67; Canadian, 66, 67; cruising, 65; double, 67; paddle, how to use, 66; padding, 64; racing, 65; sailing, 52
Cap, egg, 276
Castle, king of, 309; snow, 315
Cat and mouse, 299
Catapult, 282
Chip stone, 324
Chucks (*see Pebble game*)
Coasting, 282
Cockfighting, 299
Cricket, 68-103; batting, 72 *et seq.*; bowling, 83 *et seq.*; catching, 93 *et seq.*; cover point, 95; "cut," 77; driving, 77; equipment, 69 *et seq.*; fast and slow bowling, 88-9; fielding, 92 *et seq.*; "googley" bowling, 87; laws of, 98; long field, 97; long leg, 95; medium bowling, 89; mid-off, 96; mid-on, 97; "point," 95; running, 81 *et seq.*; scoring, 97; short leg, 96; slip, 96; "spin," 86; "striking," 79; third man, 96; umpire, 97; wicket, double, 68-9; wicket-keeper, 94; wicket, single, 68-9
Croquet, 104-120; croquetting ball, 117 *et seq.*; "cut," 105, 108; "following" strokes, 119; hints, general, on, 116; hoops and balls, 108 *et seq.*; laws of, 109; mallet, use of, 108 *et seq.*; "pass," 105; roll, 105;

roquets, 116; "rush," 104, 108;
 "split" strokes, 105, 108, 118;
 "stop" stroke, 105, 108; tactics,
 117; terms, 106-7
 Crossbow, 283
 Cross-country running, 12
 Cross touch, 300
 Curling, 121 *et seq.*
 Cutter, 49 *et seq.*
 Cycling, 123-133; brakes, 124, 125;
 free wheels, 124; how to learn, 126
et seq.; motor, 217; speed gears,
 125; touring, 128; tyres, 123

D

DANCING on the ice, 251
 Days of the week, 274
 Dibs, 324
 Die shot, 292
 Dog kite, 289
 Doutee stool, 275
 Drawing the badger (*see* Fox)
 Drill sergeant, 300
 Driving, 134 *et seq.*
 Dropping the handkerchief, 301
 Drowning, saving people from, 272
 Duck-stone, 301

E

EGG cap, 276; hat, 276
 English, French and, 304

F

FEEDER, 276
 Field games, 282-284
 Fish kite, 289
 Five points of archery, 6
 Fives, 138; bat, 139
 Flat rolls, 8
 Flies, running, 317
 Fly, Spanish, 315
 Fly the garter, 302
 Flying top, 325
 Follow my leader, 303
 Foot and a half (*see* Fly the garter)
 Football—Association game, 157-164;
 dribbling, in, 158; field, 157; laws,
 159-164; team, 157-159
 Football—Rugby game, 141-156;
 dress, 140; drop kick, 143; field,
 140-142; game, 143; laws, 145 *et*
seq.; Northern Union, 156; "place"

kick, 143; ashes, *ib.*; "scrum,"
ib.; team, 143-145; touch down,
 144; try, *ib.*
 Foot it (*see* Fly the garter)
 Foresall, the, 49
 Fortifications, 293
 Fort, snow, 315
 Fox, 304; and geese (*see* King Senio)
 French and English, 304
 French hop (*see* Snail)
 Pugleman, the (*see* Drill sergeant)

G

GARTER, fly the, 302
 Geese, fox and (*see* King Senio)
 Giant's stride (*see* Swing)
 Golf, 165-182; balls, 166; clubs, *ib.*;
 driving, 166; links, 165; pulling,
 166, 167; rules, 168 *et seq.*
 Gun, pop, 328

H

HALF-MILE race, 8
 Hammer, throwing the, 11
 Handers, 294
 Handkerchief, dropping the, 301
 Hat, egg, 276
 Hare and Hounds, 12
 Helm, terms of the, 48
 Hi Cockerum (*see* Mount nag)
 Hippias (*see* Knights)
 Hockey, 183-192; balls, 183; "bully,"
ib.; dribbling, 195; game, 183;
 ground, *ib.*; rules, 187; sticks, *ib.*;
 team, 185
 Hockey on the ice, 250
 Holes, nine, 276
 Hop, French (*see* Snail)
 Hop Scotch, 306
 Hopping bases, 305
 Huntsman, 307
 Hurdle racing, 9

I

ICE, 247 *et seq.*; sports on, 250 *et seq.*
 Increase pound, 294
 I spy I 308

J

JACK, Jack, show a light! (*see* Sam.
 Sam I)

Jacks (*see* Pebble game)
 Javelin, 283
 Jumping, 9 *et seq.*; high, 10; pole, *ib.*;
 wide, *ib.*
 Jump, little nag-tail (*see* Mount nag);
 last man's, 310
 Jumps, standing, 317

K

KING, Caesar (*see* King Senio); of the
 castle, 309; Senio, 309
 Knights, 310
 Knuckle bones (*see* Dibs)
 Kites, bird, 288; box, 289; dog, 289;
 fish, 289; high-flying, 290; making,
 285; messengers for, 289; tails for,
 286
 Kite-flying, 285-290
 Knurr and spell, 193

L

LACROSSE, 195-203; catching, 196;
 crose, 195-6; game, 202; laws,
 197; teams, 202; terms used in, 203;
 throwing, 196
 Last man's jump, 310
 Lawn tennis, 204-210; courts, 204 *et*
seq.; game, 205; laws, 211 *et seq.*;
 scoring, 206; volleying, 205, 208
 Leaping on the ice, 251
 Leap frog, 311
 'List? Will you, 322
 Long tag (*see* Tierce)
 Lugsails, 51 *et seq.*

M

MARBLE games, 291-296
 Marbles, shooting, 291
 Messengers for kites, 289
 Mile-race, 8
 Mixen, 50
 Motor cycling, 217
 Mount nag, 311
 Mouse, cat and, 299

N

NAG, mount, 311
 Nail, ring the, 329
 Needle, thread the, 318
 Nicky Night, show a light! (*see* Sam,
 Sam 1)

Nine holes, 276
 Northern spell, 193; Union football,
 156

O

OUTRIGGER, 232 *et seq.*

P

PADDLE, how to use, 66
 Pall mall, 278
 Pebble game, 326
 Peg in the ring, 327
 Peg-top, 326; Spanish, 329
 Playground games, 297-322
 Plums, picking the, 295
 Pole jumping, 10
 Pop-gun, 328
 Pound, increase, 294
 Prisoner's base, 312
 Punting, 244
 Putting the shot, 11; the weight, 11
 Pyramid, 295

Q

QUARTER-MILE race, 8
 Quoits, 219

R

RACQUETS, 220-223; court, 220; play,
 220 *et seq.*; rules, general, 222
 Red, white and blue, 329
 Riding, 224-231; cantering, 227;
 hanging on the rein, 227; holding
 the reins, 224; horse, care of, 227;
 hounds, to, 229; jumping, 229 *et seq.*;
 practice, 225 *et seq.*; reins, double,
 224; single, *ib.*; saddling, 228;
 sitting, 225; stirrups, use of, 225,
 226, 229; trotting, 226
 Rigs, variety of, 45 *et seq.*
 Ring ball, 278; bull in the, 298; peg
 in, 327; taw, 295; the nail, 329
 Road, rule of, 136
 Roller-skating, 259
 Roquets (croquet), 116
 Rounders, 279; on the ice, 251
 Round tag (*see* Tierce)
 Rowing, 232-244; "backing," 240;
 -boats, variety of, 232 *et seq.*; -boats,
 building, 232 *et seq.*; coaching, 241;
 coxswain, 242-3; "crabs," 236;
 "easing," 240; feathering, 235 1

"holding water, 239"; home, bringing oar, 239; oars, 234 *et seq.*; "padding," 240; racing, 240; rowlocks, 236; "stroke, the," 235 *et seq.*
 Rugby football, 141-156
 Running flies, 317; (*see* Athletic Sports) 9; (cricket), 81
 Rushing bases (*see* King Senio)

S

SAM, Sam! show a light! 314
 Schooner, 50
 Senio, king, 309
 Sergeant, drill-, 300
 Shot, putting the, 11
 Shuttlecock, battledore and, 323
 Skates, choice of, 245 *et seq.*
 Skating, 245-259; choice of skates, 245; figure, 253 *et seq.*; ice for, 247; inside edge, 249; outside edge, 253; practice, 248; racing, 252; roller, 259; sports, 250 *et seq.*
 Skip (*see* Ring the nail)
 Sledging (*see* Coasting)
 Sling, 284
 Snail, 315
 Snow castle, 315; fort, 315
 Spanish fly, 315; peg-top, 329
 Spell, knurr and, 193
 Sprinting, 7
 Sprit-sail, 45
 Spy! I, 308
 Squirt, 329
 Standing jumps, 317
 Stilts, 331
 Stool, douter, 275
 Strike up and lay down, 280
 Sucker, 330
 Swimming, 260-273; back on, 266; breast, 261; cramp, 263; diving, 270; dog-like, 265; fancy, 269; floating, 263; hand-over-hand, 265; over-arm, 268; saving people from

drowning, 27; side stroke, 267; treading, 265; trudgeon stroke, 269; under water, 267; upright, 265
 Swing, 318

T

TAG (*see* Touch, and Tierce)
 Tails for kites, 286
 Thread the needle, 318
 Three holes, 296
 Throwing the cricket ball, 11; the hammer, 11
 Tiddler's ground, Tom, 319
 Tierce, 318
 Tip-cat, 331
 Tip shears, 294
 Tobogganing (*see* Coasting)
 Tom Tiddler's ground, 319
 Top, flying, 325
 Tops, 326 *et seq.*
 Top, Spanish peg-, 329
 Tossing the caber, 11
 Touch, 319; cross-, 300; iron, 320; wood and whistle, 320
 Tournament (*see* Knight's)
 Toy games, 323-332
 Trap, bat and ball, 281
 Tricycle, 125

W

WALK, moon, walk! 320
 Walking, 13
 Want a day's work? 320
 Warning, 321
 Weight, putting the, 11
 Whoop, 321
 Wicket-keeper, 94
 Widdy widdy, way, 321
 Will you 'List? 322

Y

YAWL rig, 45

